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La enseñanza de las lenguas extranjeras en las escuelas secundarias del Reino Unido: Exploración de la motivación de los estudiantes L2 en el East Riding de Yorkshire

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Almería, julio de 2020

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Modern Foreign Languages in UK Secondary Schools: Exploring L2 Student Motivation in the East Riding of Yorkshire

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Abstract

This thesis represents a mixed-methods study conducted in the field of foreign language learning motivation. The quantitative investigation involved 393 students from three secondary schools in Hull and the Humberside (North of England), and the follow-up qualitative study consisted of semi-structured interviews carried out among 11 teachers in the same context. The key purpose of this thesis was to investigate the rationales for students' disaffection with foreign languages in England, which has resulted in the ongoing decline of Modern Foreign Languages uptake at GCSE stage (i.e., beyond the age of 14) over the past two decades.

In summary, the results showed an interplay of multiple factors affecting L2 student demotivation, ranging from the *student level*, the *context level*, the *teacher level* and the *L2 learning experience level*. In particular, the findings revealed that English secondary school student's motivational profile was mainly characterized by a lack of the instrumental component of L2 motivation, reflecting students' lack of long-term aspirations and future direction with regards to language learning.

Promising findings highlighted the necessity of reformulating the notion of *Ought-to L2 self* as it had been originally conceived in Dörnyei's (2005) *L2 Motivational Self System*. As suggested in this study, to substantiate the validity and applicability of this motivational component to the UK context, it is deemed necessary to reconceptualize it so that it may incorporate additional standpoints reflecting a number of supportive and unsupportive contextual influences. As similar results have also been achieved by recent UK-based studies, the current research corroborated those findings.

By emphasizing the necessity of a reinterpretation of the *Ought-to L2 self*, this study also provided meaningful pedagogical implications for both teachers and researchers. The process whereby secondary school students internalize the multifarious external influences into the self should indeed be explored by teachers, in order to help students self-regulate their behaviour and foster their motivation towards the language learnt at school.

As the study unfolded, furthermore, it revealed that a multiple-perspective approach is needed to gain better insights into L2 motivation. Thus, it integrated different interpretive stances from established L2 motivation theories, such as *Self-Determination Theory*, *Attribution Theory*, *Expectancy-Value Theory*, *Self-Worthy Theory*. By providing convincing support for claims that L2 student motivation is a complex dynamic system, this study also

suggested that innovative qualitative methods are required in future research, within the domain of *Complex Dynamic Systems Theory* .

Finally, by focusing on the role of the *teacher* and the *L2 Learning Experience* in enhancing L2 student motivation, the thesis came to the conclusion that it is essential that teachers put in place effective practices and strategies in order to develop students' metacognitive awareness - a key component of self-regulatory behaviour that facilitates L2 successful language learning and motivation.

Resumen

Esta tesis representa un estudio de métodos mixtos realizado en el campo de la motivación para aprender idiomas extranjeros. La investigación cuantitativa involucró a 393 estudiantes de tres escuelas secundarias en Hull y Humberside (norte de Inglaterra), y el estudio cualitativo de seguimiento consistió en entrevistas semiestructuradas realizadas entre 11 maestros en el mismo contexto. El propósito clave de esta tesis fue investigar los fundamentos de la desafección de los estudiantes con los idiomas extranjeros en Inglaterra, lo que ha resultado en la disminución continua de la absorción de los idiomas extranjeros modernos en la etapa GCSE (es decir, más allá de los 14 años) en las últimas dos décadas.

En resumen, los resultados mostraron una interacción de múltiples factores que afectan la desmotivación de los estudiantes L2, que van desde el nivel de estudiante, el nivel de contexto, el nivel de maestro y el nivel de experiencia de aprendizaje de L2. En particular, los resultados revelaron que el perfil motivacional de los estudiantes de secundaria de inglés se caracterizó principalmente por la falta del componente instrumental de la motivación L2, lo que refleja la falta de aspiraciones a largo plazo y la dirección futura de los estudiantes con respecto al aprendizaje de idiomas.

Hallazgos prometedores resaltaron la necesidad de reformular la noción de yo de *Ought-to L2 Self* como se había concebido originalmente en el *L2 Motivational Self System* de Dörnyei (2005). Como se sugiere en este estudio, para corroborar la validez y aplicabilidad de este componente motivador en el contexto del Reino Unido, se considera necesario reconceptualizarlo para que pueda incorporar puntos de vista adicionales que reflejen una serie de influencias contextuales de apoyo y de apoyo. Como también se han logrado resultados similares en estudios recientes en el Reino Unido, la investigación actual corroboró esos hallazgos.

Al enfatizar la necesidad de una reinterpretación del yo *Ought-to L2 Self*, este estudio también proporcionó implicaciones pedagógicas significativas tanto para maestros como para investigadores. De hecho, los docentes deberían explorar el proceso mediante el cual los estudiantes de secundaria internalizan las múltiples influencias externas en el yo, para ayudar a los estudiantes a autorregular su comportamiento y fomentar su motivación hacia el idioma aprendido en la escuela.

A medida que se desarrollaba el estudio, además, reveló que se necesita un enfoque de perspectiva múltiple para obtener una mejor comprensión de la motivación L2. Por lo tanto, integró diferentes posturas interpretativas de las teorías de motivación L2 establecidas, como la *Teoría de la Autodeterminación*, la *Teoría de la Atribución*, la *Teoría de expectativa-valor*, la *Teoría de la autoestima*. Al proporcionar un apoyo convincente a las afirmaciones de que la motivación del estudiante L2 es un sistema dinámico complejo, este estudio también sugirió que se requieren métodos cualitativos innovadores en investigaciones futuras, dentro del dominio de la teoría de sistemas dinámicos complejos.

Finalmente, al centrarse en el papel del maestro y la experiencia de aprendizaje L2 para mejorar la motivación de los estudiantes L2, la tesis llegó a la conclusión de que es esencial que los maestros pongan en práctica prácticas y estrategias efectivas para desarrollar la conciencia metacognitiva de los estudiantes: un componente clave del comportamiento autorregulador que facilita el aprendizaje y la motivación exitosos del lenguaje L2.

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1 Introduction

This study investigates learner motivation to learn foreign/second (L2) languages, with a particular focus on student motivation for studying Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) in English secondary schools. Research conducted in the UK context shows a declining trend of the subject, which reflects a continuing language learning crisis since the turn of the millennium, and is substantiated by the steep decrease in the number of pupils taking a language at GCSE level. Since a similar motivation crisis has also been documented in other Anglophone countries, many studies have been related it to the phenomenon of “Global English” that has affected learning languages other than English (LOTEs) negatively.

However, a substantial amount of studies and reports on L2 motivation in the English context suggest that multiple factors contribute to the crisis of languages in the country, not least language education policy. Indeed, in the UK, language study is not compulsory beyond the age of 14, and individual schools are free to make decisions regarding language teaching, and set their own policy on teacher provision for supporting improvement of take-up at GCSE.

Despite the great impact of school policy upon student’s choice to continue learning a language post-14, student’s motivation plays a decisive role. Thus, the current study represents an attempt to shed light on the major factors that cause English secondary school students to turn away from language learning, by taking into account both the individual (i.e., attitudes, beliefs, goals and expectations) and the societal (micro- and macro-) levels, which dynamically affect the complex process of L2 student motivation.

1.1 Significance of the Study, Main Aims and Research Questions

The significance of the current study does not only lie in the attempt to provide a more in-depth understanding of secondary students’ disaffection with language study in England, but also in its meaningful contribution to the long-standing debates that has featured the entire field of L2 motivation research over the past four decades. This investigation sets out to review the most relevant research in the field, without disregarding established motivational theories in the L2 motivation literature. As it unfolds, furthermore, it takes a broader perspective in order to look into the complex, composite nature of the phenomenon under study.

The present study has a two-fold purpose. Firstly, it aims to investigate the main factors affecting secondary school student motivation to learn foreign languages in England; secondly, to shed light on the current situation of Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) in secondary schools in Hull and the Humberside (East Riding of Yorkshire).

Based on a considerable amount of recent findings from UK-base studies and reports, in the initial project of the current investigation, we were able to formulate the primary research hypothesis, i.e., “Secondary school students are not motivated to study foreign languages in England”. Consequently, the following primary research question constitutes the foundation of the current research:

RQ1: What are the reasons why English secondary school students lack motivation to study foreign languages?

Additionally, the following research questions are posed:

RQ2: What are the major factors affecting student motivation/demotivation to learn foreign languages in secondary school in England?

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship/correlation between each motivational factor identified in the study and a number of socio-demographic variables (i.e., 1. Gender, 2. Nationality....?3. School Year; 4. FL Studied; 5. Abroad Courses; 6. Study Years; 7. L1 Student; 8. L1 Parents; 9. School Type ;10. School Term)?

RQ4: What are the major contextual factors affecting L2 student motivation?

RQ5: To what extent can teacher influence L2 student motivation?

RQ6: To what extent do teachers employ effective teaching practices/strategies to boost L2 student motivation in English secondary school?

1.2 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into three main sections: 1) a literature review (i.e., chapters two, three, and four); 2) the methodology section (i.e., chapter five); 3) the results section (ie., chapters six and seven).

Section One will start by presenting the most relevant L2 motivation research conducted in England over the past two decades (chapter two), which illustrates the main rationales for the decline of language learning in the state-maintained secondary school sector. Then, the main theories and developments will be outlined (chapter three), covering different phases in the L2 motivation literature from the *Social Psychological Period* to the current

period, the latter characterized by a surge of research output on Dörnyei's (2005) *L2 Motivational Self System* – the model that has dominated the field over the last 15 years. As many new trajectories of L2 motivation research converge into the current phase, the final part of the section (chapter four) will address novel strands of research, foregrounding the most prominent recent findings, especially those related to *Complex Dynamic Systems Approach* to L2 motivation. Additionally, a number of innovative perspectives will be focused, which open up new avenues for further research in the field.

Section Two regards the methodology of the study. It will be divided into a number of sections describing the study purpose, the research design, the participants, the instruments and procedures involved in the data collection and analysis. The sections will in turn include a number of subsections, whereby the various methodological aspects of the mixed-methods study will be diversified according to the quantitative or qualitative method employed in the study.

Section Three will present the analysis and discussion of the research findings in two different chapters. In Chapter Six, I will first present the quantitative results obtained from the exploratory factor analysis conducted using SPSS statistical methods. Secondly, I will describe the qualitative findings based on the thematic coding analysis. In Chapter Seven, by adopting a triangulation approach, I will discuss the mixed-methods research findings, which will be interpreted through a multi-perspective lens, in light of the overview of the L2 motivation conceptual and theoretical literature. Finally, the concluding section will review the key points of the thesis, addressing the limitations of the study and providing recommendations for future research.

2 The State of Languages in the UK: A Complex Portrait

The current chapter presents an overview of the most relevant UK-based research into the crisis of language learning in the UK, in light of recent debates on Britain's poor record and declining take-up of Modern Foreign Languages in secondary school. A considerable number of studies have attempted to draw the complex picture of language learning across the country. For example, Tinsley's (2013) report is particularly noteworthy. On presenting a review of empirical data from all across the country on the current demand and supply of language skills, it provides strong evidence of the "growing deficit" in language skills from compulsory school to university, at a time when the need for language skills is expanding under the effect of globalization (p. 10). Key findings, in particular, show that the number of English students taking languages to GCSE decreased dramatically over the 2001-2011 decade from 2001 to 2011.

The survey data published by the British Academy (2014) also confirms the same negative trend. The investigation highlights the unmet demand for "young people with the linguistic, analytical, intercultural communication skills and global mindset", due to the decline of language learning at all levels of education in England (p. 4). Given the situation, the report deplores the serious consequences of this phenomenon, especially referring to the fact that English school-leavers appear less flexible on the international market, and to the possible future negative impact on both the British capability of influencing international diplomacy and on international university research.

Since the above publications, a remarkable number of reports by the British Academy and the British Council have provided further evidence of the continual downward trend of languages, and have drawn up recommendation in order to address language learning properly, so as to promote the study in the United Kingdom. Nevertheless, these suggestions remain largely non-implemented to date.

Tinsley and Board's (2013a) investigation is noteworthy as it identifies a number of cultural and economic factors in favour of the promotion of foreign languages in the UK. Tinsley and Board's findings emphasize that a wide range of languages is necessary in order to develop strong and effective relationships for economic, diplomatic and strategic purposes. As the authors claim, despite the status of English as global lingua franca, other languages cannot be ignored, not only for their communicative value in terms of economic benefits, but also for cultural purposes, because they are the foundation of the world's cultural heritage.

According to Morrison (2014), the arguments in favour of language learning are usually based on practical benefits, i.e., in terms of economic usefulness, being the ability to speak a foreign language considered to be crucial for success in a global economy. However, he writes that “it is time for a new approach to promote languages” as “learning a language is for life, not just for business”, as it gives access to other cultures, broadens one’s horizons by opening the door to knowledge and understanding.

2.1 The Impact of Monolingualism on L2 Student Motivation in England

England has a “long-standing reputation of being ‘bad at languages’”, which seems justified by the fact that the British show lower language competences developed at school and poorer motivation towards language learning than other UK citizens (Lanvers, 2017a, p. 2). One of the most popular explanations of English students’ disaffection with foreign language learning is that they exaggerate the importance of Global English (i.e., the global spread of English as a *lingua franca*).

This topic has been widely addressed by several academic studies (eg., Coleman, 2006, 2009; Graham, 2004; Hagger-Vaughan, 2016; Lamy, 2003; Lanvers, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2017a; Lee, Buckland, & Shaw, 1998; McPake, Johnstone, Low, & Lyall, 1999; McPake, Sachdev, Carroll, Birks, & Mukadam, 2008; Taylor & Marsden, 2014) and reports (eg., Nuffield Languages Inquiry 2000; Tinsley & Board, 2013a). The international status of English has boosted intense research into cultural and linguistic issues related to the role of Global English for speakers of different languages, and its relations with other *lingua francas* and local languages (Kachru, 1982; Lo Bianco, 2014; Phillipson, 2003; Phillipson & Skutnaab-Kangas, 1997; Skutnaab-Kangas, 2003).

The growing decline of language learning in secondary school and university has also affected other Anglophone countries such as the USA, as a number of studies report (eg., Lambert, 2002; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Graham, 2004). However, with these countries, the UK also shares “the paradox of being a richly multilingual country [...] whose multilingual resources are often ignored” (Lanvers, Doughty, & Thompson, 2018, p. 775). To deeply understand the impact of Global English upon language learning motivation of learners with English as a first language (L1), therefore, we need to see this phenomenon in a wider context.

Pachler (2007) discusses the impact of globalization on language education policies and initiatives, by exploring how the socio-political changes of the 21st century have posed a

great challenge to foreign language learning both in the UK and the European Union. As this scholar points out, even though the pressures from globalization and the new digital media have contributed to the emergence of English as the *lingua franca* for excellence, however, this phenomenon represents “a real threat to linguistic diversity”; especially if we downplay the importance of different varieties of “Englishes” which develop dynamically in different real contexts¹. Furthermore, English in a traditional sense often appears inadequate to reflect a more nuanced view of the diversity of contexts of use of the language (p. 1).

Without denying the prominent status of English as a global language among the other world languages, Graddol (2006) predicts that, in the UK, this position will be put at risk by the new global multilingual reality, and that Global English itself, which has developed over the past decade, can be seen as a transitional phenomenon - i.e., the result of the historical transition process from Modernity to Postmodernity - representing an “important discontinuity with the past rather than the triumph of Modern English on the world stage” (pp. 58-62).

Against this backdrop, according to Graddol, English is “no longer the only show in town”, but must be considered as part of a wider context, characterized by the complexity of the world language system that is undergoing crucial changes. As a result, new scenarios are developing as regards English as a world language. Most notably, L1 speakers are outnumbered by L2 speakers and, therefore, risk being marginalised; this process can be seen as a prelude to the “decline of monolingualism”. In Graddol’s words (1999):

The decline of the native speaker in numerical terms is likely to be associated with changing ideas about the centrality of the native speaker to norms of usage. [...] Large numbers of people will learn English as a foreign language in the 21st century and they will need teachers, dictionaries and grammar books. But will they continue to look towards the native speaker for authoritative norms of usage? (pp. 67-68)

As Lanvers (2013) points out, the argument that L1 English speakers are not motivated to study languages and, therefore, are “disadvantaged” as L2 learners, is consistent with Graddol’s notion of L1 English speakers’ marginalisation (pp. 222-223). However, there are few empirical studies (Lanvers, 2012; Pickett, 2009) exploring English students’ beliefs about Global English in relation to motivation to learn languages. Hence, Lanvers’ study deserves

¹ With “Englishes” we do not only refer to the varieties of the traditional English-speaking countries, or to the variants within the UK or England itself, but also to “World Englishes”, the latter referring to the spread of the use of English across traditionally non-English speaking countries (eg., Chinglish, spoken in China), emerged from globalization (Coleman, 2009).

particular attention because it investigates into the rationale for Global English as demotivator for language learning other than English (LOTEs). By scrutinising the relations between students' L2 motivation and perceptions of Global English, Lanvers finds that some English L1 language learners hold a negative view on Global English, and that this depends on various factors: the status of target language studied; the prior contact with the target language, culture and age. Lanvers' investigation, however, addresses students' beliefs affecting L2 student motivation at university level. The L2 motivational profile of secondary school learners is, in fact, different.

On accounting for the trend away from language learning, which is clearly reflected in the dramatic declining take-up of languages from 2004 onwards², Coleman, Galaczi, and Astruc (2007) suggest that the new policy has “damaged the perceived status of languages and led to the dramatic fall”. In line with other studies (eg., Johnstone, 2007; Mitchell, 2003; Pachler, 2007, as cited in Coleman et al. 2009, p. 253), Coleman et al. also recognise that England is “arguably a hostile climate for language learning”, as evidenced by the “prevailing national mood of ‘societal and political insularity” (pp. 251-253). This has in particular affected instrumental motivation to learn languages, as earlier studies have already highlighted (Burstall et al., 1974; Burstall, 1978; Green, 1975).

Despite the above considerations, Coleman et al. (2007) do not adequately address the extrinsic, environmental factors underlying students' disaffection with languages. On the contrary, on charting the reasons for the downward evolution of language learning in England from the early 1990s, Coleman (2009) pays due consideration to the negative influence exerted by the UK wider public opinion and social climate, which can be deemed responsible for shaping English pupils' negative attitudes towards languages over the last decades. As Coleman (2009) writes, “The reasons for declining take-up of language education are undoubtedly linked to policy and pedagogy, but cannot be fully understood without looking beyond the school gates” (p. 111). School students' attitudes towards languages are indeed influenced by significant others such as parents, peers and the social network surrounding them.

In this respect, Coleman (2009) also resonates with Lanvers and Coleman's (2013) critical analysis of the UK language crisis. On examining 90 newspaper articles that contributed to the public debate on language learning in the four UK nations, in the period

² The issues concerning the removal of languages from the core curriculum in 2004 will be discussed in more detail in section 2.4.

between 2010-2012, these scholars demonstrate that the media has fostered “the English is enough phallic”. Interestingly, Lanvers and Coleman (2013) argue that “[d]epending on political stance and interests” the UK public as a whole – including the government, school management, teachers and pupils – could all be deemed responsible for the language crisis to some extent, making it an ideal terrain for “political spin by various stakeholders” (p. 19).

To conclude, as Coleman (2009) suggests, if the UK really aims at putting in place an effective policy in favour of language learning, above all, it must get rid of the fallacious persistent portrayal of “English as a monolithic standard, and monolingualism as a norm”, which he defines as the L1 English speaker’s “damaging autostereotype” - shared with other traditional English-speaking countries. In fact, as Coleman concludes, “Any country which perceives itself as monolingual will be at best apathetic and at worst hostile to the acquisition and use of other languages” (pp. 119-121).

2.2 Relevant UK-Based Studies on Student L2 Demotivation: Main Points and Issues

A significant number of UK-based investigations into L2 motivation (eg., Chambers, 1999; Lanvers, 2017a; Mitchell, 2003³; Phillips & Filmer-Sankey, 1993; Williams et al., 2002) have demonstrated that student *motivation to learn languages declines with age*, in line with a number of studies carried out in other countries (eg., Ghenghesh, 2010; Özek, 2000; Zammit, 1993). As these investigations show a steep decline in students’ motivation to learn languages after the first years of secondary school (i.e., Key Stage 3 - age 11-14) some scholars have viewed this decrease as a more general tendency occurring during adolescence.

Across these years, a similar decrease indeed affects school engagement in other subjects as well (Coleman et al., 2007; Williams et al., 2002), and is present in various cultures (Stefansson et al., 2018), especially in the transition from primary to secondary school (Eccles et al., 1993). Moreover, with the change in school phase, pupils experience and become more aware of the normative assessment, which may have a negative impact on their competence beliefs and sense of task value related to the school subject (Wigfield et al., 1997). Despite these relevant findings, research into identity in adolescent foreign language learning, however, requires further investigation, as Taylor (2013) suggests.

³ Mitchell (2003) reviews a number of studies in the same field: Chambers (1999); Clark & Trafford (1996); Graham (2002); Lee et al. (1998); McPake, Johnstone, Low, & Lyall (1999); Rawlinson (2001); Stables & Wikeley (1999).

Another important broad issue, which has preoccupied teachers and researchers over the last two decades, regards the implications brought by *transition from primary to secondary school*, especially after the recent policy decisions in England to expand foreign language learning at Key Stage 2 (years 7-11). The ongoing languages-related transitional issues have created a challenging and problematic scenario for language learning in both the school sectors of UK education system (Hunt, Barnes, Powell, Martin, 2008), which has spurred a substantial amount of research (eg., Bolster, 2009; Chambers, 2014, 2016, 2019; McLachlan, 2009).

Despite the numerous findings on transition from primary to secondary school, however, few attempts have been made in research (eg., Chambers, 2016, 2019; Rudduck, Chaplain, & Wallace, 1996; Rudduck & McIntyre, 2007) to focus on pupils' views of the impact of primary school experience and transition upon language learning in secondary school in England.

To this purpose, Chambers (2016⁴, 2019) provides a detailed account of issues related to primary school language teaching, derived from the analysis of students' interviews, such as: poor communication and exchange of information from primary to secondary school; lack of consistency of languages provision and insufficient time allocated to the language across primary school; poor quality of language teaching associated to teacher's language competence and training. The latter aspect particularly influences student motivational development because it leads some secondary school teachers to feel obliged to start teaching the language from scratch, regardless of what pupils have learnt previously, which ultimately affects pupils' sense of progress negatively.

The above issues and other classroom factors are particularly relevant for the development of secondary school student's attitudes and motivation towards languages. The extent to which these aspects have shaped L2 motivation dynamics across the primary-secondary school years has, however, received relatively little research attention to date, according to Graham, Coutney, Tonkyn and Marinis (2016).

As Graham and colleagues point out, even though the importance of the *L2 learning experience* has been emphasized by previous studies,⁵ however, it has not been frequently addressed in early language learning contexts (i.e., across the primary-secondary transition

⁴Even though Chambers (2016) reports a study conducted in Germany, he compares his findings with a parallel study carried out in the north of England and published later (i.e., Chambers, 2019).

⁵The *L2 Learning Experience* represents one of the major components of Dörnyei's (2005) *L2 Motivational Self System* (see Chapter Three)

phase). In fact, research into the long-term evolution of motivation has been predominantly conducted among adult learners (eg., Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013), and older secondary school students if we take into account, for example, UK-based studies such as Taylor & Marsden (2012, 2014)

Thus, in accordance with *Expectancy-Value* theoretical perspectives (Archambault et al., 2010; Wigfield et al., 1997; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000), Graham et al.'s (2016) findings demonstrate that the motivational trajectories of young learners are strongly influenced by the L2 classroom learning experience, the learner's sense of competence and task value - the latter involving "usefulness, interest, enjoyment and sense of importance" of the school subject activities proposed (pp. 685-686).

As already discussed previously in this dissertation, furthermore, many UK-based studies link attitudes towards language learning directly to *the wider social context*, emphasizing that the general climate of negativity towards languages in this country is particularly influential with regards to students' attitude formation, affecting therefore L2 motivation (eg., Bartram, 2010; Chambers, 1999; McPake et al., 1999; Williams & Burden, 2004). According to Graham and Santos (2015), the crisis of language learning in the UK is generally attributed to the status of English a global language, which has a negative impact on student motivation, "because any instrumental incentives to learn a foreign language are likely to be heavily reduced" (p. 72).

On investigating the students' rationale for the decision to study a language post-14, Parrish and Lanvers (2018, p. 283) argue that earlier evidence shows that, in addition to *student achievement and perceived ability* (Blenkinsop, McCrone, Wade, & Morris, 2006), students' views of the subject with respect to its *perceived pragmatic value, difficulty and interest* (Gaotlhobogwe, Laugharne, & Durance, 2011) play an important role in their choice to continue studying or to drop modern languages.

In a similar vein, Taylor & Marsden's (2014) findings demonstrate that English secondary school students' perceptions of language lessons and attitudes towards the language study are significant predictors of language uptake at an optional level in secondary school. Most importantly, these scholars show that students' *perceived personal relevance* of the language studied represents the highest predictor of language uptake beyond 14+.

In addition to a great amount of research showing that students perceive languages as a difficult and challenging subject (eg., Erler & Macaro, 2011; Filmer-Sankey, Marshall, & Sharp, 2010; Fisher, 2001; Graham 2002, 2004; Graham, Macfadyen & Richards, 2012;

Hagger-Vaughan, 2016; Lanvers, 2017a, 2017b), a number of studies and reports also indicate that students' *perceptions of language difficulty depends on the type of language studied*.

For instance, the last Government's report (Long et al., 2020), highlights that, due to the harsh grading system, English students generally perceive French and German as hard languages to study at school. Typically, English students prefer Spanish than the other languages, as reported by the British Council's annual report on languages (Tinsley, 2019), showing a more stable trend of Spanish GCSE entries in comparison to French and German over the past five years. These findings are consistent with Bartram (2010), and Pegrum and Hall (2006), which show that both French and German are perceived as being difficult to learn, the latter study also suggesting that English students' view of Spanish as being easy is typically associated to their holidays.

According to Gapper (2005), the two reasons for the dramatic decline of German GCSE uptake are 1) that students perceive it as difficult and challenging to learn; and 2) that it is less attractive than other languages "for sociohistorical reasons" (as cited in Mitchell, 2011, p. 59). On the contrary, in the light of *Expectancy-Value Theory* (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000; Taylor & Marsden, 2012, 2014) and *Self-Worthy Theory* (Covington, 1984, 1992, 1998; Covington & Beery, 1976), Krüsemann (2017) highlights that students acknowledge the relevance of German in terms of "a worthwhile process" that requires effort and persistence (p.4).

In line with numerous studies exploring gender differences in L2 student motivation,⁶ substantial and persistent *gender gap* has been evidenced by several studies conducted in the UK over the last decades, suggesting that males are less motivated to learn languages than females (eg., Dobson, 2018, p. 76; Mitchell, 2003, 2011; Taylor & Marsden, 2014; Phillips & Filmer Sankey, 1993; Williams et al., 2002).

The *gender bias* has long been an issue, with a lower proportion of boys continuing a language in KS4 (ages 14-16). The bulk of research has especially raised concerns about the stark disparity of academic achievements in Modern Foreign Languages between males and females in English secondary schools, showing that female students outperform their male

⁶ In different countries and language learning contexts, a considerable number of findings have revealed gender-based differences in L2 motivation. Among the most relevant studies, we can mention: Azarnoosh & Birjandi (2012); Bacon & Finneman (1992); Csizér & Dörnyei (2005b); Dörnyei & Clément (2001); Gardner & Lambert (1972); Henry (2011b); Henry & Cliffordson (2013); Kissau (2006a,b); Kissau, Kolano, & Wang (2010); Knox (2006); Lin & Warschauer (2011); Martinovič & Sorič (2018); Mori & Gobel (2006); Najafi & Behjat (2013); Netten, Riggs, & Hewlett (1999); Ryan (2009); Shaaban & Ghaith (2000); A. Taylor (2000); Van der Slik, Van Hout, & Schepens (2015); Yang (2003); You & Dörnyei (2016); You, Dörnyei, & Csizér (2016); Zimmerman (2000).

counterparts - as evidenced at the end of Key Stage testing, and in language GCSE and A-level entries and examinations. This phenomenon has been well documented over the years by many studies (eg., Barton, 1997; Burstall, 1975; Callaghar, 1998; Cark & Trafford, 1996; Davies, 2004; Malpass, 2014; Place, 1997) and reports (eg., The British Council, 2020).⁷

Some authors have also explored the *gender gap in relationship to the type of foreign language studied* at school (Spanish, French and German). In particular, Williams et al. (2002) report on an investigation into L2 motivation conducted in the South-West of England, which involved 228 secondary school students in years 7, 8 and 9. In this study, motivational differences were found between boys and girls towards the study of French and German. The findings indicate that, due to the perception of French as a “feminine” language, females expressed a significantly higher degree of interest and put forth more effort in learning French than did the boys. Interestingly, these results are similar to those from Dörnyei and Clément’s (2001) large-scale study.

Dobson (2018, p. 71) is particularly remarkable as it charts the evolution of the provision of Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) in England over three decades, with a particular focus on the curricular changes implemented at secondary level (11-16 age range) since the 1990s, when the first version of the National Curriculum⁸ was published. This article addresses a number of perennial issues: the low MFL uptake beyond the age of 14; the range of languages studied; the gender bias in the language uptake, the insufficient time allocations; the lack of coherence and continuity in policy implementation⁹; the role of grammar and the use of the target language in the L2 classroom.

As Dobson reports, since Dearing’s review (Dearing, 1994), there have been numerous attempts to reduce the National Curriculum in order to make it more manageable, according to a general tendency which has also affected the other group of subjects included in the curriculum. In addition, in the following revisions (1995, 1999, 2007), references to more distinctive features of language teaching and learning have not been made sufficiently clear,

⁷ As we can read in the foreword to The British Council (2020)’s report, “Boys’ entries into modern foreign languages are significantly lower than those of girls – making languages the only subject in the government’s “EBacc” pillar to have a larger gender divide”.

⁸ The first version of the National Curriculum was published in 1991. It placed particular emphasis on the development of a MFL curriculum “accessible to all pupils”, based on a communicative approach to learning languages.

⁹ This issue will be addressed in more detail in the coming section.

because most of the time they are implicit, and not accompanied with a specific detailed guidance for teachers.¹⁰

This is also the case with the current version of the National Curriculum, which emphasizes “a sound foundation of core grammar and vocabulary”(DfE, 2013, p. 2) in order to develop the four skills (reading; writing; speaking; listening); whereas the use of the target language is only implicit. Moreover, there is “no direct reference to memorisation”, even though grammar knowledge is necessary for students to achieve “increased spontaneity, independence and accuracy in the target language (Dobson, 2018, p. 75).

As quoted in Dobson (2018, p. 77), many studies and specialist reports (eg., Clarke 2016; Gibb 2015; Liviero, 2017; Macaro, 2014; OFSTED 2002, 2008, 2011) have highlighted that the major weaknesses in MFL teaching and learning have been attributed to “an insecure grasp” of grammar (especially verbs) and vocabulary, and to “the limited opportunities to use the target language in a realistic manner” in the classroom. However, even though this situation is frequently attributed to the lack of importance attached to grammar, and to “the lack of expectation that pupils should be able to apply it”, the rationale for such a view should be made clearer.

As Dobson highlights, with greater attention to earlier literature and GCSE syllabuses, we may see that researchers (eg., Pachler, Evans, Redondo, & Fisher, 2014) and English teachers have not dismissed the important role of grammar in language learning at all. On the contrary, they have acknowledged its relevance for achieving effective communication in the target language. Furthermore, it is notable that, without ignoring the importance of maximizing the use of the target language in the L2 classroom, a number of scholars have also emphasized an active and systematic use of the L1 in the classroom, in order to convey meaning and facilitate grammar learning, which is ultimately beneficial to L2 communication (Cook, 2001; Pan & Pan, 2010).

Nevertheless, most L2 classrooms are still not communicative at all, and this is generally attributable to MFL time restrictions (Macaro, 2014). The fact that many teachers still appear confused and insecure about the “place of grammar and its relationship to communication” in their L2 classroom is, furthermore, attributable to other factors, especially to their approaches to grammar and school practices, which are not just different, but often inconsistent with each other, even within the same school department. In Liviero’s (2017)

¹⁰ As Dobson (2018) points out, this sort of guidance (including exemplification material) has disappeared over the years.

words, this shortcoming basically reflects the “piecemeal approaches to language learning policy, teacher training and student assessment” (p. 45).

The pedagogic incongruities, furthermore, reflect long-standing debates regarding grammar teaching, especially concerning controversial issues such as *implicit vs explicit grammar* in the field of MFL instruction in the English context and beyond (eg., Andrews, 2007; Macaro & Masterman, 2006; Nazari, 2012, to name a few), and common misconceptions and myths about grammar teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 1999a).

The *lack of time* allocated to MFL in English secondary schools is another negative factor that affects the current situation of Modern Foreign Languages in English secondary schools. According to Mitchell (2011), this aspect contributes to the idea that learning languages still resembles “gardening in a gale” - to use the famous metaphor coined by Hawkins (1978, p. 8). Over the last decades, however, similar concerns about time allocated to language learning have been raised by a considerable number of studies (eg., Dobson, 2018; Lightbown 2014; Stern, 1985; Swain, 1981), which have led to different results.

Parallel to concerns related to time constraint and limited use of the target language in the classroom, there is also another point that requires our attention in this investigation, i.e., the role of culture in the National Curriculum and Programmes of study (PoS) related to Modern Foreign Languages. According to Peiser and Jones (2013), “there appears to be a notable absence of established literature in this area”. Even though, since the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1991, the cultural dimension has been recognized in MFL policy documents in terms of “Intercultural Understanding”(IU),¹¹ however, “insufficient consideration has been given to the effective implementation” of this component in the MFL classroom. As Peiser and Jones explain, this aspect has just been focused as a way of tackling pupils’ demotivation and low language uptake in Key Stage 4 (pp. 340-342).

In this respect, it should be noted that the implementation of innovative approaches such as Content and Language Integrating Learning (CLIL) has not received proper attention in England¹², as only a minority of English schools have adopted this methodology in the MFL classroom. To make this point clear, Bower (2017) argues that, over the last 2-3 decades, “the lack of coherent practical direction in policy development in modern foreign

¹¹ Before the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1991, the cultural dimension was referred to as “Cultural Awareness” (CA).

¹² On the contrary, CLIL has been integrated into the curriculum of Modern Foreign Languages and is currently gaining considerable momentum across Europe (Meyer, 2010).

language learning [...] has restricted a paradigm shift that would lead to widespread developments in the use of CLIL methodology in secondary schools in England” (pp. 3-4).

As a matter of fact, when it made its first appearance, CLIL was regarded as a means for tackling students’ demotivation towards languages and, therefore, of increasing MFL uptake in secondary schools (Dearing & King, 2007, as cited in Bower, 2017, p. 3). Even though Bower demonstrates the positive impact¹³ of this methodology in MFL learning, he concludes that CLIL approach should not be regarded as the only answer to the lack of student motivation to learn languages in English secondary schools. Other important issues should in fact be taken into due account, as Bower (2017) clearly reports:

The underlying reasons for the decline remain: the lack of a coherent national language policy based on a sound philosophical approach (Evans, 2007; Macaro, 2008); curricula with content perceived by learners to be irrelevant, (Bell, 2004; Coyle, 2000); and a subject perceived as difficult and unimportant by many learners (Dearing & King, 2007; Jones & Jones, 2001) (p.4).

2.3 Language Education Policy

Over the past 10 to 15 years, a number of important changes have taken place to school policy in England, in order to reinvigorate language learning both in primary and in secondary schools. At Primary Level, for instance, the proportion of schools offering a language to pupils from the age of seven (i.e., Key Stage 2) has increased exponentially, especially after languages became a compulsory subject in 2014 (British Academy, 2016, p. 5).

With regards to secondary school, however, L2 learning in England¹⁴ has a history basically characterized by U-turns (Lanvers, 2017a). By the early 1990s, languages were historically an optional subject but, in 1994, they became compulsory for all pupils aged 11-16.¹⁵ In 2004, this policy was reversed by the Government’s decision to make languages optional from age 14.

According to a number of studies (Pachler, 2007; Coleman et al., 2007), the Government’s change of direction was a response to the chronic conditions of L2 student

¹³ A growing number of research studies have demonstrated the positive effects of CLIL on language learning and motivation (eg., Ambrossi & Constant-Shepherd, 2018; Coyle, 2011, 2013; Dalton-Puffer, 2008, 2011), especially at university level (Parks, 2019, 2020). Nevertheless, this area still requires further research (Fernandez, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2018).

¹⁴ Learning languages in Scotland has a different history. As UK education policy is devolved to its four nations, the differences reflect their linguistic heritage.

¹⁵ Chambers (1999) offers a detailed account of the process of formally introducing a “Language for All” policy, which started in August 1992, and the impact of the National Curriculum Reform (DFE/WO 1995) on language learning and motivation.

motivation in England and, therefore, a way of simply acknowledging and sanctioning the perceived status of languages in the country, even though the Government and public opinion had long recognised the need to motivate students to language learning despite the international status of English as a global language.

As highlighted by Coleman et al. (2007, pp. 249-250), even before the removal of languages from the core curriculum at KS4 (ages 14-16), there had been “a widespread concern at the perceived decline in the United Kingdom’s capability in foreign languages at all levels”. As a matter of fact, the expected 100% take-up of languages GCSEs had never been achieved and a considerable number of students, especially boys, had been “disapplied (i.e., had not been entered for GCSE)”. Indeed, since language learning had generally been perceived as a difficult subject, many students had dropped them - even though this had not been officially authorised - to better focus on those subjects that were perceived “easier” in order to improve their overall GCSE performance.

The new policy decision to make MFL optional at KS4 led to a dramatic decrease of the take-up of languages¹⁶, which affected all types of state schools, especially socio-culturally and economically disadvantaged areas of the country. As a response, in 2011, the Government changed strategy by introducing the English Baccalaureate (Ebacc).¹⁷ However, as some scholars argue (Lanvers, 2017a, p. 5; Parrish & Lanvers, 2018), the expectation that this reform could lead more students to choose a language as a GCSE subject has not proved to be solidly founded, having other school accountability performance measures and league tables a bigger impact on schools. Indeed, according to Pachler (2007, p. 3), these have affected languages negatively, as clearly demonstrated by a substantial number of students failing to achieve good grades in MFL, compared to other subjects.

In addition to issues such as harsh grading and student lack of motivation, schools are therefore facing a number of issues in MFL delivery such as staffing shortage, lack of curriculum time allocated to this subject, due to the devolution of powers to individual schools with regards to language policy decision-making (Parrish & Lanvers, 2018). As a result, the school are not on track to meet the 75% of secondary school students taking all the EBacc subjects at GCSE (languages included) by 2022, as evidenced in the 2018/2019 DfE Report (Long, Danechi, & Loft, 2020).

¹⁶ By 2012, the proportion taking GCSE fell to 40% (DfE, 2015).

¹⁷ The EBacc represents an additional performance measure, which rank all schools in England on the proportion of pupils at least passing the GCSE (i.e., with C grades) in a number of subjects, MFL included.

As Tinsley and Board (2017) report, school leaders (i.e., senior management: Headteacher; Deputy Headteacher; Head of Languages) are under pressure to perform well in league tables of examination results, and this has affected their decisions regarding language policy post-14. Thus, state-maintained schools tend to discourage and exempt (“disapply”) students with poor academic records from choosing language study post-14, and are less likely to make MFL compulsory than independent (fee-paying) schools. Since, most of the time, these pupils come from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds, school management bases language provision on the SES (i.e., socio-economic status) of their school population.

Consequently, higher-levels of GCSE entry and take-up are generally associated with schools in more advantaged areas.¹⁸ This has not only exacerbated the social divide in languages, (Gayton, 2010, 2013; Graham, 2017; Lanvers, 2016b, 2016c, 2017a, 2018), but also has contributed to the *growing elitification* of foreign language learning in England (Krüseemann, 2017; Lanvers, 2017b).

Another important point highlighted by Parrish and Lanvers (2018) is that it is unclear if “giving complete free choice to students to study a MFL or not carries a motivational advantage”. As a matter of fact, as these scholars maintain, the issue of the optionality of language study post-14 has been addressed by a number of studies (Chambers, 1999; Coleman et al. 2007; Fisher, 2011), which suggest that students typically attach low value to the subject when they are granted the optionality of MFL. Given these considerations, it is essential that school leaders “understand how schools’ framing of ‘choice’ for MFL may relate to motivation”. Indeed, in the absence of clear government guidance regarding MFL, relying on a policy that promotes student motivation for languages really makes a difference (p. 284).

According to Hagger-Vaughan (2016), furthermore, school senior management team does not even seem to be totally convinced of the value of languages for all pupils in secondary school (especially post-14+), as reported by limited research on school leaders’ views. Lack of qualitative studies, in fact, makes it difficult to shed light on the underlying

¹⁸ As Lanvers (2016c) highlights, this can be clearly seen in the fact that the percentage of students studying a MFL beyond age 14 correlates negatively with the percentage of pupils entitled to a free school meal - the latter representing a reliable indicator of the social deprivation of a school’s intake, according to Board and Tinsley (2015). As Graham (2017) reports, the estimate of free school meals also affects the amount of time allocated to language teaching in primary schools negatively. Indeed, where the percentage is high, the time spent for languages can be even less than 30 minutes a week, which ultimately influences learners’ progress when they get to secondary school.

reasons for school leaders' perspectives, and highlights the need for further research and "a broader professional dialogue" in order to deeply understand school leaders' concerns and misconceptions regarding "language learning for all" (pp. 368-369).

3 Literature Review of L2 Motivation Research

Motivation has been considered both by teachers and researchers to be a crucial factor for effective second language (L2) learning, as it affects the entire student's language learning process and achievement. As Dörnyei (1998, p. 117) maintains, without motivation even the brightest students cannot achieve long-term goals, neither are adequate L2 curricula and good teaching sufficient to guarantee student achievement. In fact, motivation provides “the primary input” to start learning, and later “the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process”. Balboni (2002, 2006) also acknowledges that a great deal of motivation is needed to start and sustain the psychological effort needed in foreign language learning process, because it is “the energy that sets in motion the brain hardware and the mental software”, allowing to start the language acquisition process (Balboni, 2006, p. 52).

3.1 Conceptualization and Definition of L2 Learning Motivation

Despite the accredited position in both educational and research contexts, the definition of motivation, however, differs in the literature because “there simply does not exist an absolute, straightforward and unequivocal concept of motivation”(Dörnyei, 1998, p. 117). Even though one can enumerate many characteristics of the motivated student, it is impossible to give a simple definition of motivation, because it “is a very complex phenomenon with many facets. In fact, Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) presented 102 statements about the construct (as cited in Gardner, 2006, p. 10). As Mc Donough (1981, p.143) also claims, motivation has been used as “ a general cover term – a dustbin – to include a number of possible distinct concepts, each of which may have different effects and require classroom treatment”. Similarly, Dörnyei (2001a, p. 1) maintains that motivation is “an abstract, hypothetical concept that we use to explain why people think and believe as they do”; hence, it represents “a broad umbrella term that covers a variety of meanings”.

There has been considerable disagreement among scholars about the exact definition of motivation because it is “an intricate concept”, especially when it comes to learning a second language. As Peña Dix (2013) remarks, some scholars (eg., Pintrich & Shunk, 2002) offer a definition of motivation as “a process rather than a product”, which involves “interwoven elements of mainstream psychology motivation (e.g. will, goals, motives, attributions, efficacy, self-esteem and self-regulation, among others)” (p. 71). Indeed, L2

learning represents a unique process, which differs from the situation of any other subjects taught in a classroom. In Dörnyei's words (1998):

[D]ue to the multifaceted nature and roles of the language itself [, l]anguage is at the same time (a) a communication coding system that can be taught as a school subject; (b) an integral part of the individual's identity involved in almost all mental activities; and also (c) the most important channel of social organisation embedded in the culture of the community where it is used" (p.118).

Mariani (2012, pp.1-2) writes that L2 motivation weighs heavy on pedagogical and didactic interventions on the grounds that, for a long time, it has been widely recognized as an independent variable of the teaching/learning process. By contrast, since L2 motivation is not a gift of nature but a competence that can be developed and sustained, this scholar points out that recent research has debunked such deterministic views by proposing a dynamic notion of motivation factors as processes which can be controlled and modified through systematic and explicit pedagogical didactic and interventions. He suggests that a new paradigm of L2 motivation be necessary, a "multidimensional theory", in which motivation is conceived as "a dynamic and socially constructed notion", a "complex interaction of variables" in which the cognitive-affective individual factors integrate with socio-cultural dynamics.

In sum, Mariani (2012, p. 4) provides a motivational framework, in which he gives substantial theoretical weight to the interaction of the actors' (teacher and students') roles with the socio-cultural contexts (the class, the family, the community, the out-of school reality) in the learning process. He draws attention to the teachers and students' beliefs and attitudes, which represent "the interface" between individual motivation processes and the impact of the above mentioned contextual factors as, dynamically, students and teachers shape and reshape their perceptions on the L2 language and related culture, on their own capacity and willingness to learn, and on the learning process itself.

To conclude, a comprehensive conceptualization of L2 learning motivation proves complex since it encompasses a considerable number of different disciplines to achieve a fuller understanding of its different facets. On presenting a review of the most relevant theories in the field of second/foreign language (L2) motivation during the last few decades, Dörnyei (1998, pp. 117-118) maintains that the different research approaches "do not necessarily conflict, but rather can enrich our understanding", since they highlight different

aspects of “a complex, multifaceted construct” of motivation, which involves manifold aspects of the individual: cognitive, affective, personality traits, and social dimensions.

Given that research produced on second/foreign language (L2/FL) learning motivation is very extensive, this study simply aims to present an overall overview of the most significant and recent advances in this field over the past few decades, in order to highlight the most relevant motivational aspects, and to provide theoretical background to the current investigation. Therefore, in this chapter, I will present the main theoretical developments and empirical studies on L2 motivation research, which can be divided into four different phases:

1. *The Social Psychological Period* (1959-1990), characterized by Robert Gardner and his associates’ seminal work in Canada;
2. *The Cognitive-Situated Period* (the 1990s), when L2 motivation research shifted away from its social-psychological roots towards a realignment with mainstream educational psychology and especially with a number of cognitive theories originally developed in non-L2 specific research domains (i.e., *Self-Determination Theory*, *Attribution Theory* and *Social Constructivism Theory*).
3. *The Process-Oriented Period* (turn of the century), whose main focus was to regard L2 motivation as a process, subject to change over time and emerging from interaction between individuals and context;
4. *The Socio-Dynamic Period* (current period), reflecting a broader tendency in the field of Applied Linguistics – originated from the social sciences – to examine L2 learning and motivation as a non-linear and non-predictable system, which emerges from the dynamic interactions of its dynamic components.

With regards to the last period, I will devote the bulk of the section to Dörnyei’s (2005) *L2 Motivational Self-System*, which represents the most influential theory of L2 motivation over the last decade. Instead, as the *Socio-Dynamic Period* merges into the *Current Period* of L2 motivation research, I will address *Complex dynamic theories* in detail in Chapter Four.

3.2 The Social-Psychological Period: Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model of L2 Motivation

When reviewing the main L2 motivation theories and models, Dörnyei (2003a) maintains that social psychologists were the first to attempt serious research on language learning motivation as they acknowledged the importance of the social impact on L2 learning. Gardner’s *Socio-Educational Model* became the prevailing socio-psychological theory of the latter part of the

20th century, which was developed and redefined several times by Gardner and his associates (eg., Gardner 1979, 1985, 2000, 2001; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a, 1994b) in order to encompass new information and to more deeply describe the major processes operating in L2 learning motivation.

Gardner’s paradigm was mainly based on massive data derived from the Canadian unique linguistic situation, characterized by the coexistence of two different ethno-linguistic communities, the anglophone and the francophone. In this particular context, L2 (i.e., the language of the other community) was considered to be a “mediating factor” between the two communities, and motivation to learn L2 to be “a primary force, responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation” (Dörnyei, 2003a, p. 5). Being L2 motivation a complex result of multiple interactions between the target language and the L2 community, the learner’s attitudes towards the L2 language and L2 community became the foundation of Gardner’s (2010) theory.

Apart from motivation, Gardner (1985) also accounts for other factors which can directly influence L2 learning process and achievements. He develops a theory (Fig. 1) whereby L2 acquisition process involves a “causal interplay” of our variables”: *the social milieu, individual differences, language acquisition contexts and outcomes*. The four-phase process of L2 acquisition starts from the *social milieu*, which involves preset beliefs about language and culture, which learners have acquired from their own socio-cultural environment. As displayed in Fig. 1, *individual differences* comprise both cognitive (intelligence and language aptitude) and affective variables (motivation and anxiety, which represent key-factors in the model).

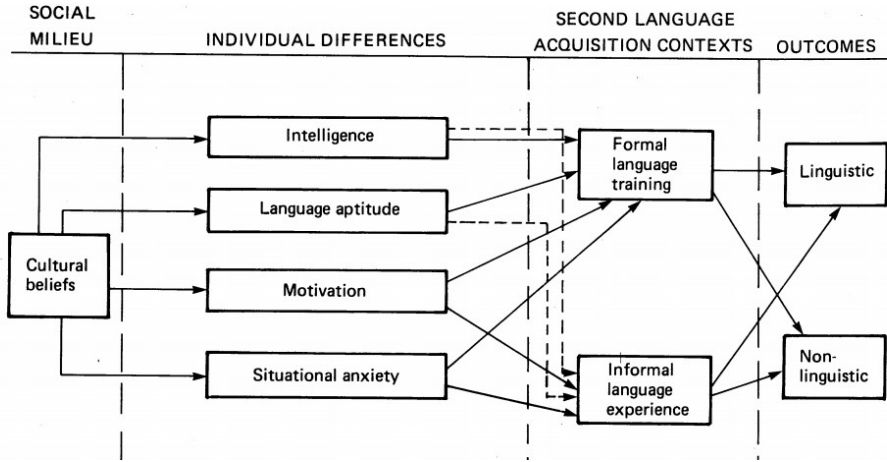


Figure1. The Socio-Educational Model of L2 Motivation

Adapted from *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation*(p.147),by R. C. Gardner, 1985, London: Edward Arnold.

From the above framework, we can easily infer the rationale underlying Gardner's theory; that is to say, L2 learning involves two types of tasks - cognitive and affective (emotional). The cognitive aspect relates to the language aptitude – that is, cognitive skills or ability to learn a foreign/second language as a linguistic code (grammar, vocabulary, phonics, etc.); whereas the emotional aspect considers learning another language as “an aspect of behaviour” that distinguishes another cultural community (Gardner & Lalonde, 1985, p. 4). Most importantly, the distinction between affective variables and cognitive factors led Gardner to establish an important relationship between motivation and emotion, which had been often overlooked in the prior research on motivation (Sternberg, 2002, as cited in Taie & Afshari, 2015, p. 608).

Another important component of the model is represented by the *language acquisition contexts*. Gardner (1985) distinguishes between *formal* and *informal settings*, where the target language is learned. The formal contexts refer to any situation where instruction is put in place (i.e. the classroom); whereas the informal contexts refer to any other setting in which L2 can be used or experienced (eg. watching TV programmes and films; listening to the radio, conversation in L2 on the street).

Gardner (2007, pp. 13-14) also focuses on the difference between “educational context” and “cultural context”, which do not operate independently, but contribute together in the influence on the student's level of L2 motivation. The *educational context* refers to the experiences associated to the overall school system and, specifically, to the immediate classroom situation, and involve the following factors: the school expectations, the peer-group, the quality of the program, the curriculum, the quality of teaching, the level of motivation and skills of the teacher, the class atmosphere. With respect to the *cultural context*, L2 learning entails the acquisition of language skills (eg., vocabulary, pronunciations, language structure) and features of behaviour of another cultural community. In fact, L2 learning is unlike the other school subjects, in which the development of skills and knowledge are part of the student's own cultural heritage.

Another important point highlighted by Gardner (2007) is that both types of context affect learner's *Attitudes toward the Learning Situation*. In particular, as regards the *cultural context*, many features of the individual - i.e., personality characteristics, attitudes, beliefs, expectations and aspirations, which stem from and develop in the overall cultural context as well as in the immediate family - not only have a strong impact on L2 motivation but,

ultimately, have an effect on the individual's beliefs about his/her own success (i.e., *expectancy of success*).

As Gardner (1985, p. 149) explains, the fourth variable of the Socio-educational Model includes *linguistic outcomes* (i.e., L2 proficiency in terms of language skills and knowledge) and *non-linguistic outcomes* (i.e., attitudes, beliefs and values that result from the L2 learning experience). This scholar draws particular attention to *non-linguistic outcomes* because they have a big impact on learner's identity. Indeed, as Taie and Afshari (2015) remark, learning a second language does not represent a mere acquisition of linguistic elements as it includes an "alteration of the self-image", and the "acquisition of features of another ethnolinguistic community" (p. 609).

Having a direct impact on L2 achievement, L2 motivation plays a leading role in the L2 learning process. Three sub-processes underlie motivation: *motivational intensity* (i.e., the effort the learner expends to learn a second language), *desire to learn the language*, and *attitudes towards L2 Learning*. As to the latter, in chapter three of Gardner (1985), the author distinguishes between *attitudes toward learning a second language*, *attitudes toward L2 speakers* (i.e., toward the L2 community, the L2 culture and the L2 social and cultural values associated with L2 competence) and *attitudes toward the learning situation*, which include the reactions to the language learning context and the evaluations of the L2 course and the L2 teacher. Importantly, all the three components are essential to describe the L2 motivation construct adequately, as Gardner and Lalonde (1985) highlight:

Simply wanting a goal is not sufficient to qualify as motivation. Working hard is not sufficient to indicate motivation. And, enjoying the activity in and of itself does not signify motivation. A motivated individual is one who desires to achieve a goal, works hard to achieve that goal, and enjoys the activity involved (p.7).

According to Gardner (1985), the tripartite motivation construct is an operational definition, allowing researchers to measure the three motivational components and to relate them to L2 achievement. Gardner and Smythe (1981) developed the *Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)* in the format of a Likert Scale in order to quantitatively measure the main sub-processes inherent to L2 acquisition (i.e., integrativeness, attitudes to the learning situation, intensity, desire, instrumentality and language anxiety), in which L2 motivation is the core component. This instrument also makes it possible to predict L2 learning outcome/performance.

Despite the usefulness of the AMTB, however, L2 motivation is “a complex concept and cannot be simply measured by one scale” (Gardner, 2010, as cited in Taie & Afshari, 2015, p. 607). Thus, over the years, the AMTB was employed in different forms, according to different purposes and contexts, and revealed a much more complex pattern of relationships among the variables involved in L2 learning. Like the Socio-educational Model, moreover, this tool was revised several times in order to assess the validity and reliability of the various measures.

By focusing on two different variables affecting L2 motivation construct - the *instrumental* and the *integrative aspects* - Gardner’s model has contributed to deepening the understanding of the role motivation plays in second language acquisition. The *instrumental aspect* underlines “the practical value and advantages of learning a new language”(Lambert, 1974, p. 98, as cited in Gardner, 1985, p. 133), whereas the integrative aspect refers to the learner’s positive disposition towards the target language group, and the desire to integrate into the L2 community.

Although the integrative and instrumental orientations have been assigned a basic role in directing and sustaining L2 motivation in Gardner’s model (Gardner, 1979; Gardner & Lambert, 1972), however, further research has shown evidence of contradictory results and conceptual problems concerning the definition and composition of the two types of orientations. A number of findings, for example, have demonstrated that there are more orientations to consider than the two originally considered by Gardner, and that instrumental motivation is more prominent than integrative motivation in monolingual contexts (Belmechri, & Hummel, 1998; Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Kruidenier & Clément, 1986).

Interestingly, Clément and Kruidener (1983) found that the integrative component of motivation is not important in the contexts studied, whereas a set of motivators such as *instrumental*, *friendship*, *travel* and *knowledge* play an important role in directing and sustaining student L2 motivation. Finally, as the findings also show, these orientations are context-dependent, which suggest that L2 motivation research needs to account for the socio-cultural context influencing individual’s motivation.

As Dörnyei (2010, p.74) points out, furthermore, Gardner is more interested in the nature and impact of integrative motivation rather than in the instrumental aspect of motivation, which he hardly ever discusses in his works. In light of this, a common misinterpretation of Gardner’s model typically consists in viewing it as a mere contrast between integrative and instrumental motivation. On the contrary, in Dörnyei’s (1998, p. 123)

words “the two orientations function merely as motivational antecedents that help to arouse motivation and direct it towards a set of goals, either with a strong interpersonal quality (integrative) or a strong practical quality (instrumental)”.

The *integrative aspect* appears in three different forms in Gardner’s writings: *integrative orientation*, *integrative motive* and *integrativeness* (e.g., Gardner, 1985, 2001; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). To clarify the meaning of these terms, firstly Gardner (1985) explains the difference between *orientation* and *motivation*. The former refers to the goal level (i.e., a set of reasons for learning a second language), whereas the latter represents the driving force and involves a complex of three characteristics - attitudes, desire and motivational intensity.

According to the above definitions, *integrative orientation* reflects a positive attitude and enjoyment towards language learning, and also an interest in learning about and interact with the L2 community (Gardner, 1985, p. 54). In other words, it is explained as the “willingness to be like valued members of a language community” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 71). Similarly, the meaning of *integrative motive* includes “positive feelings toward the community that speaks the language”, and involves both orientation and motivation (Gardner, 1985, pp. 82-83).

With respect to *integrativeness*, its conceptualization has changed over time. In Gardner’s original research it is depicted as involving integrative orientation and favourable attitudes toward the L2 community (Gardner, 1985), or as “a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community” (Gardner, 2001, p. 5). However, in Gardner’s later research, the notion has expanded to entail “openness to cultural identification” with the L2 community (Gardner, 2007, p. 15). To put it simply, according to Gardner’s theory, as learners develop proficiency in the second language and incorporate elements from the L2 culture, they may gradually experience changes in self-perception, which in the extreme, may result in a complete psychological and emotional identification with the TL community and culture (Dörnyei, 2010a).

To sum up, not only does Gardner demonstrate that the construct of L2 motivation as a composite of variables, which directly impact L2 achievement, represents the backbone of the Socio-educational Model, but also that *integrativeness* plays a leading role in his theory. Nevertheless, since its first proposal, Gardner’s model has met with severe criticism, resulting in the need for reconceptualisation of L2 motivation, as we can see in the following section of this work.

3.2.1 Rethinking L2 Motivation: Criticism of Gardner's Socio-Educational Model

Over the years, Gardner's *Socio-Educational Model* has been subject to growing criticism, especially against the concept of integrative motivation. Many scholars assume that this notion makes sense in the Canadian L2 learning situation - where Gardner's theory was conceived - but cannot be generalised to multilingual and global contexts, characterised by a plurality of sociolinguistic realities, where the target language is represented by a world language (i.e., English, French or Spanish) studied in educational settings (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006). In such circumstances, in fact, the target language does not involve any direct contact with the related community of speakers and culture (Dörnyei, 2010a; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Because of the process of globalization, indeed, the world has changed greatly since Gardner first introduced the notion of integrative motivation. The target language is typically associated with the language shared among many groups of non-native speakers, rather than with a particular L2 community with a specific geographical and cultural reference. L2 speakers, therefore, see themselves as members of an international L2 speaking community, sharing the international cultural values conveyed by a popular and global culture (M. Lamb, 2004).

To react to negative criticism, Gardner (2006) brings forward two major arguments. Firstly, he claims that his template is applicable to the study of motivation in both foreign and second language learning contexts. Secondly, he assumes that related empirical results are reliable, providing that uniform measures are employed. Despite these considerations, a considerable amount of research still insists on the limitations of the concept of *integrativeness*. For example, Kojima Takahashi (2013) presents a synthesis of studies on foreign language motivation among Japanese learners of English, which questions the applicability of the socio-educational model and the validity of the notion of *integrativeness* in Japan, on the ground that there is no a specific target L2 community for learners in learning contexts where the target language is English as an international language.

Keblawi's (2006, pp. 29-31) paper is also of particular relevance for the current study. This scholar argues that, while instrumental motivation is not given proper weight, the role of integrative motivation is overemphasized in Gardner's model, especially when it relates to contexts where learners do not have many opportunities to interact with the target language speakers. Gardner's conceptualization of integrative motivation, moreover, presents "serious

hazards to individuals' identities" because it implies that learners take on a new identity and abandon their own. Based on the assumption that Gardner was a psychologist and statistician (and not a language teacher), Keblawi finally questions the pedagogical significance of the Socio-educational Model. This theory, in fact, relates more to sociology than to education and, therefore, is often referred to as the "Sociopsychological Model" by some authors (Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Dickinson, 1995).

Other studies such as Taie and Afshari (2015) take a more balanced view, highlighting both the strong and weak points of Gardner's Socio-Educational Model. On the one hand, Gardner's theory has contributed to providing research with a reliable assessment of major motivation constructs and, consequently, to implementing scientific L2 motivation research procedures. On the other hand, however, it presents a "gap" or "lack in development", which does not reflect the great advances that have recently characterized L2 motivation research (Dörnyei, 2005, as cited in Taie & Afshari, 2015, p. 610).

According to Gu (2009), on placing excessive emphasis on the learner's attitudes towards the L2 community and on the individual perceptions of the social world, Gardner has overlooked the impact of social factors (i.e., social practices; socio-political and historical contexts; the effects of social community development) on L2 learners' motivation. In other words, he has neglected the social relation and macro-features of society that affect dynamically the learner's motivation and language acquisition process.

To conclude, despite the criticism addressed to Gardner's Socio-Educational Model, we have reason to say that its value remains indisputable. In fact, the most influential critics of the model have acknowledged Gardner's seminal work and admitted its importance in L2 motivation research. Furthermore, relying on Gardner's achievements, a number of critics have attempted to integrate the major motivational constructs of the model into new frameworks of L2 motivation in order to expand the theory, as we shall see in the coming sections of this dissertation.

3.3 The Cognitive-Situated Period

By the late 1980s and early 1990s, new understandings of the nature of L2 motivation emerged to widen the research agenda in motivational psychology, as Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) report in a masterly way:

The time was ripe for new approaches to L2 motivation research and the ensuing, remarkably productive period has been referred to as a 'motivational renaissance' (Gardner & Tremblay,

1994). The mood of this time was captured by MacIntyre, Mackinnon, and Clément (2009) when they observed that the various and diverse calls to expand the research agenda were “returning the field to a pre-paradigmatic state” (p. 80).

According to Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012, p. 397), this view was shared by many scholars (eg., Brown, 1990; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Julkunen, 1989; Shekan, 1989) and resulted in a series of articles (eg., Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994b; Oxford & Shearin, 1994) published in *The Modern Language Journal* in 1994, which marked the shift towards a new phase of L2 motivation research, called “the Cognitive-situated Period” by Dörnyei (2005).

On reviewing the most significant stances on second language motivation developed in mainstream educational and psychological research over the past decade, Crookes and Schmidt (1989, 1991), in particular, reopened the research agenda. According to Crookes and Schmidt’s (1991) seminal paper, the push towards the new phase of L2 motivation research mainly stemmed from the growing awareness among scholars of the necessity of bridging the conceptual gap between the traditional second language (SL) approaches to motivation and mainstream Educational Psychology. Indeed, as Crookes and Schmidt (1989) write, over the previous decade SL motivation research lacked “to gain a thorough understanding of the interface between motivation and SL learning” mainly for two reasons: 1) it was “not grounded in the real world domain of the SL classroom”, and 2) it was “not well-connected to other related educational research” (pp. 218-219).

The above arguments led scholars to place more emphasis on the relationship between the educational/instructional context of the L2 classroom and L2 learning motivation. New lines of research, therefore, emerged in this period aiming at “narrow down the macro-perspective of L2 motivation” based on ethnolinguistic communities or learners’ general L2 motivation dispositions, in order to provide “a more fine-tuned and situated analysis of motivation” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 80). As a result, researchers became more “teacher-friendly” to the point that the *Cognitive-Situated Period* has been also described as “the educational period” of L2 motivation (Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 3). Furthermore, a number of scholars placed more attention on salient aspects of the L2 learning experience inside the classroom (i.e., the teacher, the curriculum/syllabus, the interpersonal relations and group-dynamics, the learners’ needs, the instructional techniques), which were held responsible for

shaping L2 learner motivation (Crookes & Schmidt, 1989, pp. 229-240; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p.399) but had been hitherto disregarded¹⁹.

According to Guerrero (2015, p. 98), another relevant aspect regarding this new phase of L2 motivation research - raised by Crookes and Schmidt (1989)- is that scholars brought the focus of their research mainly on cognition in order to explore how the learners' mental processes (i.e., self-efficacy beliefs, goals and expectations, information-processing mechanism) shape achievement behaviour. In fact, phenomena associated with consciousness (eg. effort; choice; voluntary behaviour) had been underestimated by research in the Social-Psychological Period, which had adopted a non-cognitive approach to the study of L2 motivation (Crookes & Schmidt, 1989).

In the attempt to gain new insights into L2 motivation, researchers drew on the main tenets and conceptualizations of the most influential cognitive theories of mainstream psychology (eg., *Self Determination Theory* and *Attribution Theory*) and developed new perspectives on L2 motivation. It should be noted, however, that this evolution did not mean that the greatest achievements of the social and psychological tradition were discharged, since researchers' original intent was to "broaden previous theories but with considerations for other cognitive perspectives" (Guerrero, 2015, p. 98). In the coming sections, we will, therefore, review a number of theories within the *Cognitive-Situated Period*, which marked further crucial stages in the development of L2 motivation research and contributed to a deeper understanding of the long-term evolution of the complex L2 motivation construct.

3.3.1 The Self-Determination Theory

The *Self-Determination Theory (SDT)*, introduced by Deci and Ryan (Deci & Ryan, 1985a, 2002), represents one of the most influential theories in L2 motivation field. It was originally a macro-theory aimed to explain human motivation in general and, in particular, the conditions and processes that foster autonomous motivation and the interaction between motivation, social environment, and behaviour. Given its versatile nature, SDT has been one of the most empirically tested motivational theories, which has been applied in various domains (Agawa & Takeuchi, 2017).

As conceived by Deci and Ryan (1985a, 2002), more specifically, the SDT comprises five mini-theories, some of which will be mentioned in this study. The *Basic Psychological*

¹⁹In this respect, even Gardner (2010, p. 26) explicitly maintained that the Socioeducational Model was not conceived as an instrument to help teachers promote students' motivation.

Needs Theory (BPNT) posits the existence of three universal, innate and psychological needs: *competence*, *relatedness*, and *autonomy* (i.e., *self-determination*). *Competence* involves understanding how to attain various external and internal outcomes and being efficacious in performing the requisite actions; *relatedness* involves developing secure and satisfying connections with others in one's social milieu; *autonomy* refers to being self-initiating and self-regulating of one's own actions (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991, p.327).

Deci and Ryan (2000) argue that satisfying the basic psychological needs is essential for allowing optimal psychological functioning, constructive social development, and personal growth and well-being. These needs motivate the self to initiate behaviour and are also necessary conditions “for understanding the what (i.e., goal content) and why (i.e., process) of goal pursuits” (p.228). Deci et al. (1991) suggest that most contemporary theories²⁰ deal with the direction of behaviour, i.e., with the goals or processes that lead to desired outcomes, but they do not address “the question of why certain outcomes are desired”. On the contrary, by postulating the three basic psychological needs, Self-Determination Theory is concerned with both the issues (p. 327).

Most importantly, the SDT is based on the *intrinsic/extrinsic motivation* paradigm, where *intrinsic motivation* involves performing an activity because it is enjoyable and satisfying in itself, whereas *extrinsic motivation* refers to engaging in an activity in order to attain an external goal, i.e., “some instrumental end, such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment” (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2003, p. 39). Deci and his associates, however, revisit the classic definition of motivation based on the *intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy*, and end up formulating a new framework, in which the two types of motivation are no longer “categorically different, but can take various forms along a continuum of self-determination”: *autonomous motivation*, *controlled motivation*, and *amotivation* (Noels et al., 2003, p. 38). These three types of motivation differ in their degree of self-regulation, i.e., *auto-determination* (Deci & Ryan 2000, pp. 69-70), and are “predictors of performance, relational, and well-being outcomes” (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 182).

Based on the above considerations, Deci and Ryan (1985a) introduce another sub-theory within SDT, the *Organismic Integration Theory(OIT)*, whereby they illustrate the spectrum of motivational states within three primary divisions (*Amotivation*, *Extrinsic Motivation*, *Intrinsic Motivation*) and explain the contextual factors that affect the process of “internalization and integration” of the motivations into the self, as we can see in Fig. 2. This

²⁰ They refer to Social-cognitive approaches (eg., Bandura, 1977; Dweck, 1986; Eccles, 1983).

sub-theory implies that the three different types of motivation “vary according to how much a learner engages in an activity for reasons of personal choice” (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 2001, p. 425). Indeed, according to the SDT, “[t]o be self-determining means to experience a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions” (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989, p.580).

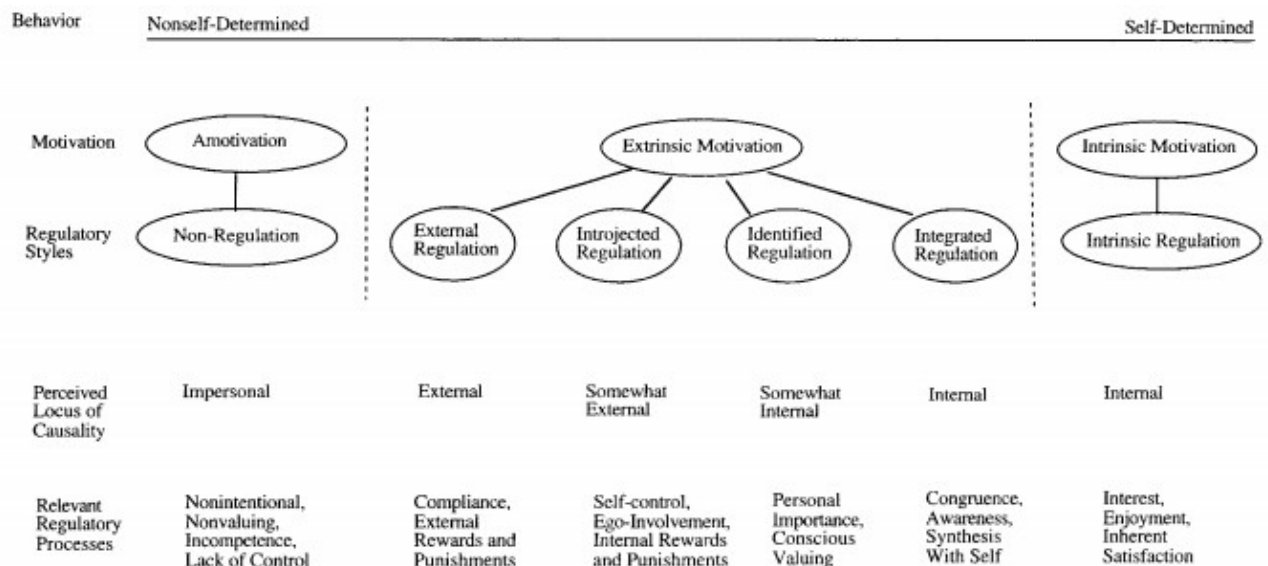


Figure 2. The Self-Determination Continuum

Adapted from “The ‘what’ and ‘why’ of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior,” by E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan, 2000, *Psychology Inquiry*, 11(4), p. 72.

Amotivation involves absence of goals, either extrinsic or intrinsic. Without goals the learner is very likely to quit performing the activity (Noels et al., 2001). On the opposite side of the continuum is *Intrinsic Motivation* (IM). This represents the most self-determined type of motivation, since the learner engages in an activity voluntarily and not because of some external source or pressure. In this case, the activity challenges the student, who develops a sense of self-competence and autonomy, which helps maintain effort in the learning process.

With regard to *Extrinsic Motivation* (EM), Deci and Ryan (1985a, 1991) suggest that it involves four subtypes of motivation: *External Regulation*, *Introjected Regulation*, *Identified Regulation*, and *Integrated Regulation*. Thus, *External Regulation* involves performing a behaviour because of external means, such as rewards or punishment. *Introjected Regulation* refers to more internalized reasons, such as guilt or shame, which drive students to behave in order to gain social recognition, or maintain self-worth. With *Identified Regulation*, behaviour is more self-determined because its outcomes (goals) are consciously valued. Finally, *Integrated Regulation* is the most self-determined form of behaviour, in which “the regulatory process is fully integrated with the individual's coherent sense of self” (Deci et al., 1991,

p.330). Yet, it is still an extrinsically motivated behaviour because it is performed in order to achieve valued outcomes, and not for its own sake.

According to Deci and Ryan (1985b), input affecting the initiation and regulation of intentional behaviour can be usefully classified as either *informational* or *controlling*. The former refers to events “supporting autonomy, and promoting or signifying competence” (eg., choice, positive feedback); the latter corresponds to input pressuring to think and behave in a specified way, which, therefore, thwarts self-determination (i.e. threat of punishment, task-contingent reward). There is also a third type of event, named “amotivating”, which is experienced by the person as the incapacity to master an activity and, therefore, leads to self-perception of incompetence (p. 110).

Deci and his associates (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999, p. 628; Deci & Ryan, 1985b), moreover, explain that the effects of initiating or regulatory events (eg. the promise of a reward, the opportunity for a choice, positive feedback, etc.) depends on the way they are perceived and interpreted by the individual. In other words, people’s different interpretations depend on the *locus of causality*²¹, that is, their perception of whether the perceived origin of initiation and regulation of behaviour is internal or external.

In light of the above individual differences, Deci and Ryan introduce another mini-theory within SDT - the *Causality Orientation Theory (COT)*. This posits three broad classes of motivational orientations: *Autonomy*, *Control*, and *Impersonal* (Deci & Ryan, 1985b; R. Ryan, 2009). In the *Autonomy Orientation*, a person engages in a behaviour out of free choice and on the basis of personal goals and interests. *Control Orientation* involves people’s behaviours being “initiated and regulated [either]externally by controls in the environment” (eg., rewards) or, internally, by imperatives showing “how one ‘should’ or ‘must’ behave”. Finally, *Impersonal Behaviour* is that whose initiation and regulation is perceived beyond one’s control. This usually results in one’s beliefs of being unable to achieve their desired learning outcomes and, hence, in amotivation (Koestner & Zuckerman, 1994, p. 322).

It is worth noting that, over the last decades, research grounded in Self-Determination Theory has focused on the adaptive value of *autonomous motivation* in learning, demonstrating that if student’s experience a sense of personal volition and choice when carrying out school activities, they are more likely to develop autonomous motivation, but also to pursue stable and authentic values and goals (Assor, 2012).

²¹ The concept of *perceived locus of causality* (PLOC) was introduced by Heider (1958) and further refined and extended by DeCharms (1968). Later, Ryan and Connell (1989) developed a model of PLOC based on students’ self-reported reasons for engaging in typical academic behaviours.

Although Deci and Ryan (1985a) did not use the Self-Determination Theory to directly address motivation in second language learning, this model was progressively extended to this research area by a number of scholars (eg., Noels et al., 2003). In the coming sections of this investigation, therefore, we will report the most relevant findings, which have significantly contributed to advancing research on L2 motivation within the SDT domain.

3.3.1.1 Extending the Self-Determination Theory: New Insight into Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations

Drawing on a number of previous findings (Vallerand, 1997; Vallerand, Blais, Briere, & Pelletier, 1989; Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993), Noels et al. (2003, p.38) emphasize the self-determination approach to L2 motivation research and propose a new classification of *Intrinsic Motivation (IM)* into three kinds: *IM-Knowledge*, *IM-Accomplishment*, and *IM-Stimulation*. *IM-Knowledge* relates to the motivation for performing an activity for the pleasure of “exploring new ideas and developing knowledge”; *IM-Accomplishment* is associated with the positive “sensations related to attempting to master a task or achieve a goal”; and *IM-Stimulation* refers to the pleasurable feelings stimulated by doing the task.

Noels et al. (2003, pp. 39-53) show that their results are consistent with SDT tenets. In line with Deci and Ryan’s (1985a) and Vallerand (1997), they maintain that *Extrinsic Motivation (EM)* “does not necessarily imply a lack of determination”, but can also be classified into three different categories (*External Regulation*, *Introjected Regulation*, and *Identified Regulation*) along a self-determination continuum, according to which learner behaviours are internalized into the self. Importantly, the more internalized the reasons for learning a second language and the more autonomy supportive the environment, the more successful the student’s L2 learning process will be.

Finally, Noels et al. (2003) suggest the importance of the teacher role in facilitating or hindering self-determination in the L2 learning process. According to Noels et al. (2001), indeed, intrinsic motivation is increased when teachers are perceived less controlling by students and provide positive feedback that promotes self-perception of competence (i.e., self-efficacy).

3.3.1.2 Validating the Importance of the Self-Determination Theory in L2 Motivation Research: Overview and Further Developments

In order to validate the SDT framework in the context of L2 motivation, relevant studies have been conducted in many countries. Hiromori and Tanaka (2006) and Tanaka and Hiromori (2007) pioneer the research in Japan. These scholars argue that previous studies by Noels and her co-researchers (Noels, 2001; Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand, 2000) failed to establish the causal relation between the three psychological needs and student intrinsic L2 motivation. Thus, Tanaka and Hiromori (2007, p.60) mainly aim to find out whether or not “intrinsic motivation [is] really enhanced if psychological needs are satisfied”. To answer this research question, they introduce the *Group Presentation (GP) Activity*-a task-based activity carried out among university students, aiming at stimulating the three psychological needs involved in Self-Determination Theory. They also use a student questionnaire, administered before and at the end of the intervention, to measure their students’ psychological needs fulfilment and intrinsic motivation towards English.

Their findings show that GP Activity enhances students' intrinsic motivation and that the needs for autonomy and competence are the strongest predictors of more intrinsic forms of motivation (Hiromori & Tanaka 2006, p. 111). Other relevant results show that the three psychological needs have a different impact on student’s L2 motivation, depending on the learner’s motivational profile and individual differences. Thus, the fulfilment of the need for competence plays a more significant role in motivating students with a low level of motivation, whereas the needs for both competence and autonomy mainly influence students with a medium level of motivation. Importantly, these findings suggest that, in order to foster students’ motivation, “teachers should differentiate their teaching strategies depending on the motivational profiles of their students” (Tanaka & Hiromori, 2007, p. 60).

The questionnaire developed by Hiromori (2006), however, yielded mixed results, both consistent and inconsistent with the Self-Determination Theory. As Agawa and Takeuchi (2016a, 2016b, 2017) point out, such results suggest the need to reconsider the definitions of the three psychological needs, especially the notion of autonomy need. In Hiromori’s (2006) questionnaire, this has been interpreted as “the learners’ desire to determine their actions regarding English learning and take responsibility for their own studies” (Agawa & Takeuchi, 2016a, pp. 2-3).

According to Agawa and Takeuchi (2016b), in fact, autonomy need is not fulfilled by exclusively giving students a choice. On the contrary, “being given autonomy can be

perceived differently by the individual, depending on his/her sense of competence” (pp. 88-89). Some students do not value having their own choices about learning in a positive way, and rather prefer choice made by the teacher, as evidenced by the findings from the semi-structure interviews conducted with 18 university students. Besides, the teacher making choices for students does not contradict their autonomy need fulfilment as long as students understand and accept the value of choices made by others.

Given the above premises, Agawa and Takeuchi therefore suggest a new definition of autonomy which does not exclude the influence by others. Furthermore, on emphasizing the role of teacher in promoting student’s autonomy, Agawa & Takeuchi’s (2016a, 2016b, 2017) findings underline the importance of a good teacher-student relationship in order to enhance students’ motivation.

Another important point raised by Agawa & Takeuchi (2016a, 2017) is that inconsistent results of SDT applied to L2 motivation research are due to the size and homogeneous nature of the population sample used in prior studies based on Hiromiri’s (2006) questionnaire. Hence, in order to validate the new developed questionnaire, Agawa and Takeuchi (2017, p. 7) use a varied population: they collect data from 444 university students with various characteristics, belonging to several departments of 5 different universities.

A number of researchers working on a variety of global contexts have supported the validity of the Self-Determination Theory in relationship with various aspects involved in L2 student motivation. Pintrich (2003), for instance, examines the impact of the learning context and of effective teaching practices upon intrinsic motivation. In his “multidisciplinary motivational perspective”, he firstly refers to Deci & Ryan’s Self-determination Theory as a “model that has integrated both needs and social-cognitive constructs, such as perceived competence, control beliefs and regulatory styles” (p. 670). In line with SDT tenets, Pintrich emphasizes that intrinsic motivation depends greatly on the learning context, on the ground that teachers can foster students sense of autonomy and self-efficacy through learning experiences satisfying their needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness.

After recognizing the validity of the SDT, Pintrich (2003, p.682) takes a step forward by formulating seven substantive questions²² as important suggestions for future motivation

²² Pintrich’s questions include (1) What do students want? (2) What motivates students in classrooms? (3) How do students get what they want? (4) Do students know what they want or what motivates them? (5) How does motivation lead to cognition and cognition to motivation? (6) How does motivation change and develop? and (7) What is the role of context and culture?

research. Interestingly, this study outlines a number of instructional design principles which can help teachers implement effective practices in the classroom. Aiming at “facilitat[ing] motivation, cognition, and learning” in the students, these principles reflect generalizations about student motivation in terms of adaptive motivation factors (eg. self-efficacy, attributions and beliefs, control, interest and goals).

In line with the SDT, Jang, Reeve and Halusic (2016) also show that, when teachers support students’ autonomy-need satisfaction, they enhance their capacity of self-regulation, engagement in the learning activity, and conceptual learning of the content. More specifically, they refer to “a new autonomy-supportive way of teaching” - i.e., “teaching in students’ preferred ways”- which requires teachers to be aware of the students’ preferences and perspective, and then to adapt their lessons to those preferred ways (p. 686).

Niemiec and Ryan (2009) propose an overview of SDT, and review empirical studies in order to demonstrate the main tenets of this theory. Indeed, a large amount of research findings suggest that when teachers support students’ basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, they promote their autonomous self-regulation for learning, and enhance academic performance and wellbeing.

On reflecting on the practical implications of the main tenets of Deci and Ryan’s (1991), Self Determination Theory - in particular the conceptualization of the innate *need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy* - Lamb (2001, pp. 86-87) argues that the promotion of learner autonomy is a crucial aspect in tackling the disaffection with language learning. Therefore, this author highlights *the need of connectedness*, a notion used by Ruddock, Chaplain and Wallace (1996, pp. 47-49) to refer to “pupils’ awareness of where learning activities are heading, why they are being asked to do them, and how they relate to their lives outside school”.

Thus, Lamb stresses the importance of developing learners’ *metacognition*, which enables them to increase their sense of responsibility for their own learning process. The role of metacognitive strategies in promoting learner autonomy, motivation, and successful learning has been emphasized by a large amount of studies (eg., Feiz, 2016; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Öz, 2005; Wenden, 1999, to name a few).

The Self-Determination Theory has also come under a fair amount of criticism, most of which has led to complement, rather than replace it. Noels et al. (2003), for example, suggest a reinterpretation of SDT motivation construct, in which intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are correlated with other types of motivational orientations, such as those

discussed by Clément and Kruidenier (1983): *instrumental, travel, knowledge, and friendship orientations*.

Berges-Puyò (2018, p. 15) focuses on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to investigate the reasons why high school students decided to learn French, Spanish and Mandarin and finds out that, among 10 reasons, 6 are based on intrinsic factors and 4 on extrinsic ones. Yet, the four most popular reasons are all extrinsic. These findings align with prior research studies within SDT (eg., Noels et al. 2000, 2001), which emphasize the important role of both intrinsic and extrinsic sources in enhancing students' L2 motivation.

McIntosh and Kimberley (2004) argue that, within the frame of SDT, a considerable amount of research has recently highlighted the importance of socio-cultural variables for the promotion of self-determined motivation in second language learning; yet, most studies have neglected the relations between personality variables and self-determination. Thus, they emphasize an important individual difference variable, *Need for Cognition* (NC), which was firstly conceptualized by Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, and Jarvis's (1996).

As McIntosh and Kimberley (2004, pp. 4-18) explain, NC refers to the tendency for a person to partake in an effortful cognitive activity because he/she enjoys thinking for its own sake. Their findings show a significant and positive relationship between this personality variable and Self-Determination Theory, which affects L2 learning motivation. More specifically, they demonstrate that students "who enjoy effortful thinking for its own sake also take an L2 for self-determined reasons (i.e., out of choice and pleasure)". In addition, they prove that NC is positively associated with a variety of social, cognitive and meta-cognitive language learning strategies.

To conclude, McIntosh and Kimberley's research has led to the important conclusion that SDT framework may also embed further personality traits which have a significant impact on self-determined motivation. However, some findings are equivocal and, therefore, require further scientific investigation.

3.3.2 The Attribution Theory

Another theory that has received much attention in L2 motivation research has been Attribution Theory. It has been recognised as one of the few cognitive motivational models to encompass affective aspects in terms of specific emotional consequences of causal attributions affecting human behaviour (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Its original conceptualization "became the dominant educational psychological model in research on

student motivation in the 1980s” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p.83). It has its roots in the work of Heider (1958) and developed out of the subsequent contributions of Kelley (1967, 1971) and Weiner (1974, 1986).

This theory is based on the main assumption that the ways people attempt to explain the reasons of their past successes and failures affect their future expectancies and achievement behaviour. In its original formulation (Weiner, 1974, 1986), it comprises a theoretical framework mainly about achievement, in which a three-stage process characterizes an attribution: behaviour must be observed/perceived; it is determined to be intentional; it is attributed to internal or external causes. Weiner (1979) focuses on a number of causal determinants of people’s success or failure - i.e., ability, effort, task difficulty, chance or luck - and on the relationship between attributions and motivation.

As reported by Weiner (1979), causal attributions are classified along the three causal dimensions of *locus*, *stability* and *controllability*. *Locus* refers to the location of a cause, which can be internal or external to the individual; *stability* implies the invariability of a cause over time; *controllability* relates to how much control the learner has over a cause and, therefore, depends on the individual volition.

According to this theory, for example, luck is considered as external to the individual, variable, and uncontrollable; whereas ability is conceived as internal, stable over time, and uncontrollable. Hence, a student is more likely to use internal attribution (eg., ability or effort) when he succeeds; whereas he is more likely to ascribe one’s failure to external factors (eg., luck or task difficulty). As Weiner (1992) point out, being aware of whether learners perceive the causes for their successes or failures as internal or external, stable (fixed) or unstable (variable), controllable or uncontrollable is fundamental because these attributions determine their future behaviour and actions.

Drawing on Weiner’s (1979) principles, Gobel, Thang, Sidhu, Oon and Chan (2013) presents a summary scheme of the causality attribution process, adapted from Vispoel and Austin (1995), as displayed in Fig.3:

<i>Attribution</i>	<i>Dimension</i>		<i>Controllability</i>
	<i>Locus</i>	<i>Stability</i>	
Ability	Internal	Stable	Uncontrollable
Effort	Internal	Unstable	Controllable
Strategy	Internal	Unstable	Controllable
Interest	Internal	Unstable	Controllable
Task difficulty	External	Stable	Uncontrollable
Luck	External	Unstable	Uncontrollable
Family influence	External	Stable	Uncontrollable
Teacher influence	External	Stable	Uncontrollable

Figure 3. Classification Scheme for Causal Attributions

Adapted from “Attributions to success and failure in English language learning: A comparative study of urban and rural undergraduates in Malaysia,” by P. Gobel et al., 2013, *Asian Social Science*, 9(2), p. 54.

More specifically, Graham and Weiner (1996, p. 72) draw attention to the controllability dimension of causality, which is related to a number of affective reactions (anger, pity, and shame) affecting motivation²³. For example, shame is an emotional reaction associated with self-perception of failure ascribed to lack of ability, which is an internal stable and uncontrollable cause. These affective experiences work as “attributional cues” because, by conveying emotional messages, they provide instructions for future behaviour. For example, shame engenders hopelessness, low expectation of future success, and task withdrawal.

Furthermore, Weiner (1972) focuses on the influence of causal beliefs on both teachers and students’ behaviour and examines a considerable amount of research findings (eg., Lanzetta & Hanna, 1969; Weiner & Kukla, 1970), illustrating how the causal attribution process affects the rewards and punishments administered by teacher. These data reveal that students perceived as low in ability and high in effort receive more positive feedback or rewards, and are punished less than competent students who expend no effort and fail.

Another important point highlighted by Weiner (1972, p. 208) is the significant relationship between causal ascriptions and achievement strivings. As achievement motivation includes the need for achievement and the fear for failure, students high in achievement motivation ascribe success to high ability and effort, that is, to self-responsibility for success, and, while they experience failure, they believe that it is caused by lack of effort.

²³ The effects of negative emotions on motivation to learn foreign languages have also been explored by recent studies. For example, Teimouri (2018) investigates the effects of guilt and shame on L2 motivation. Interestingly, this study shows that shame strongly but negatively influences both L2 motivation and achievement, whereas guilt increases learner’s motivation by encouraging reparative actions to correct their misbehaviours.

In other words, the increase of achievement motivation and, consequently, of volitional achievement strivings is contingent upon the causal ascriptions to effort (intention).

3.3.2.1 Causal Attribution for Failure and Gender Differences

Zohri (2011) investigates Moroccan university students' perceptions of failure in learning English as a foreign language. Before investigating the influence of gender on students' attributional patterns, he mentions several previous studies underlining the importance of this variable, such as Smith, Sinclair and Chapman's (2002) research, which reports that boys normally ascribe their failures to luck or effort, and rarely to lack or low ability.

Zohri's (2011) findings indicate that there are significant gender differences in attributing failure to ability and task difficulty: female students ascribe failure to ability and to difficulty of school subject more than males. Conversely, his findings do not report significant differences between genders in attributing failure to effort, as both females and males place emphasis on effort, which they consider to be one of the main causes of failure.

More interestingly, Zohri (2011) highlights that the participants in his research stress the importance of external, and uncontrollable factors, such as "their teacher's attitudes, and the harsh grading system they are subject to", which reflects "their maladaptive attributional patterns" in accounting for their failures (p. 133). Besides, negative emotional reactions caused by negative teachers' attitudes, and unfair grading discourage learners to invest effort to succeed in subsequent learning tasks.

Zohri's (2011) results are consistent with other recent studies (eg., Graham & Weiner 1996; Weiner, 2000) suggesting that affective reactions - such as guilt, pride, shame and others - are significant indicators and strong predictors of task persistence, and, consequently, affect the learner's expectancy of future performance outcomes. As Zohri (2011, p. 134) also writes, these findings establish the important relationship "between cognition and emotion", and substantiate Weiner's (2000, p. 4) assumption that "behaviour depends on thoughts as well as feelings".

Furthermore, Zohri comments that these results corroborate previous research studies showing that psychological indicators of failure are more meaningful than social or academic factors in accounting for students' failure, and in affecting their performance outcomes. In particular, he refers to Beyefeld, Hugo, and Struwig (2005), who suggest that students invest less effort on a learning task that they don't enjoy, or are not interested in.

Building on a considerable body of research, Zohri (2011) finally emphasizes that the attribution approach to L2 motivation has important implications for both learners and teachers. He suggests that teachers encourage students to make more appropriate attributions of their failures by focusing more on internal controllable factors, such as effort and strategy use, in order to boost their motivation to succeed. In other words, teachers can help students believe that their L2 aptitude or abilities are not fixed traits, but would be enhanced if they put more effort in their assignments throughout the learning process. Finally, Zohri's finding that students rank lack of interest as the most important factor behind their failure implies that teachers have to include more interesting activities in their curriculum.

3.3.2.2 The Impact of Age, Gender, Type of Language on Student's Perceptions of Success and Failure

Other important studies are worth mentioning in order to implement other aspects of the research agenda on the Attribution Theory in the field L2 learning motivation. Some of them are in line with the ongoing British Government's debate and concern about the current decline of foreign language learning motivation in the UK, which has led to the alarming situation of high frequency of language learning failure in this country.

In a small-scale study conducted with students from 10 to 15 years of age in the Southwest of England, Williams and Burden (1999), for instance, explore the underlying factors of learners' attribution for success and failure in learning French, and the relationship between learners' academic proficiency and their attribution patterns. The findings indicate that external factors such as teacher's approval and grades play a significant role in the development of learners' causal beliefs, and that the range of attributions increase with age.

Williams, Burden, Poulet and Maun (2004) also aim at investigating students' causal attributions for their success and failures in learning FL in the UK Secondary School context. This investigation deserves particular attention as it addresses the ways these processes vary according to other variables, such as age, gender, type of language studied (French, Spanish, German), and subjective perception of success.

With regard to gender, Williams et al. (2004) reveal that both boys and girls ascribe the cause of their successes and failures more to internal than external factors; however, girls tend to be more internal than boys in their attributions for failure. Besides, the main difference in their internal attributions is that girls tend to attribute their successes to using appropriate strategies more than boys, whereas a significantly higher percentage of boys than girls ascribe

the cause of their success to their own effort. When it comes to external attributions, this study shows that a significantly higher proportion of girls tend to attribute their successes to the influence of teacher. With regard to failure, boys consider poor teaching and lack of interest to be the main external attributions. As to the latter factor, the percentage of boys is significantly higher than girls.

In the same study, furthermore, other significant findings concerns age and language studied. The comparison drawn between Year 7 (when students begin to learn a foreign language) and Year 11 (when they are involved in the GCSE preparation) shows that the percentage of students attributing their success to effort declines by 30% and that, in Year 11 this factor represents only the third most important reason for success after strategy and interest. As to difference in causal attributions for success and failure according to language studied, effort is clearly the main factor across the three languages. Moreover, students of Spanish tend to see the characteristics of the task, followed by ability, as much more important to their success as students of the other languages.

Building on previous research, Williams et al. (2004, pp. 6-7), furthermore, analyze some of the possible reasons that may account for the variations in findings in the Attribution Theory domain. As causal ascriptions are “situationally and culturally determined”, they particularly vary according to family influence, learning settings and learning task. Attention should be drawn, therefore, to the different ways students develop and share their perceptions and understanding of reasons for their successes and failures. Moreover, the “attributions drawn upon in schools and classrooms are more likely to be socially constructivist in nature”. In light of this, Williams et al. (2004) conclude that attribution theory can be regarded as part of the constructivist approach and that the students’ perceived explanations for their successes and failures should be considered more influential than the real reasons.

In this regard, Fatemi, Pishgadam and Asghari (2012) agree that Attribution Theory involves a “constructive perspective” as, when learners interpret specific events and personal outcomes, they construct personal meaning that differ individually; indeed, “attributions are not global, but rather situation-specific” (Williams & Burden, 1997, as cited in Fatemi et al., 2012, p. 232).

Although considerable attention has been given to Attribution Theory in the context of second and foreign language learning, however, research in this field necessitates further investigation.

3.3.2.3 Student's Personality Traits and Causal Attribution for Success and Failure

Fatemi et al. (2012) explore the impact of individual differences and, specifically, personality traits on learners' perceptions of and attributions for their successes and failures in learning a foreign language - a topic that has not been specifically addressed in L2 motivation research earlier. Firstly, they address the relationship between learners' personality types (*openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism*) and four attributional factors (*emotions; self-image; intrinsic motivation; language policy*²⁴) in foreign language learning. Secondly, they aim to find out how much EFL learners personality traits predict their attributional factors.

Fatemi et al. (2012) draw on McCrae and Costa's (1985, 1987) *Big Five Model*, which postulates the five primary components of personality mentioned above. In their research, they use two different instruments. Drawing on different sources (eg., Costa & McCrae, 2008; Garousi, Mehryar, & Ghazi Tabatabayi, 2001) they employ the Persian adaptation of the *NEO-Five Factor Inventory* to investigate learners' personality traits. In addition, to check learners' attributional factors, they employ the ATFLL questionnaire suggested by Weiner (1979) but, in their study, the four factors (i.e., ability, effort, luck and task difficulty) are replaced by the following set of attributions: emotions, self-image, intrinsic motivation and language policy.

With regards to the relationships between learners' personality traits and emotions, Fatemi et al.'s findings show that agreeable (i.e. friendly, cooperative, generous and kind), conscientious (i.e. careful, responsible, self-disciplined and goal-oriented) and extrovert learners (i.e., sociable, action-oriented, assertive) often experience positive emotions, and attribute their personal achievements to positive emotional factors. On the contrary, neurotic learners (learners who are not stable in their emotions) tend to make attributions to negative emotions and continually expect failure; these pessimistic attitudes can even cause them great dejection or depression.

Fatemi et al. (2012, p. 238) also explain that there is a close relationship between learner's self-image and all personality factors, except *openness to experience*. As learner's self image "measures learners' attitudes towards their own capabilities and sense of competence", this factor exerts a considerable influence on L2 motivational behaviour. Thus,

²⁴ Language policy involves the effects of the educational system, teaching methods and textbooks.

when students have a negative self-image, they are likely to ascribe their failures to stable and uncontrollable factors, which can lead to pessimism and further failures. In this situation, teachers should foster students' "positive feelings of personal control" in order to lead them to positive achievements. Importantly, the findings also establish a significant *correlation between all positive personality traits (except openness to experience) and intrinsic motivation*.

With respect to the second research question (i.e., how individual differences/personality traits influence learners' causal perceptions), Fatemi et al. (2012) show the following results: 1) *neuroticism* and *conscientiousness* are good predictors of learners' attribution to emotions and self-image; 2) *extraversion* is a good predictor of self-image; 3) *conscientiousness* is the best predictor of intrinsic motivation; 4) *agreeableness* and *openness to experience* are not predictors of any attributional factors.

To conclude, Fatemi et al.'s (2012) research findings come in handy for both language teachers and students. Being aware of how the process of causal attribution works in learning a second language, indeed, may help students have more control over inappropriate beliefs about one's failures and, hence, reduce the possibility of repeating similar experiences and negative outcomes in the future.

3.3.2.4 The Influence of the Learner's Culture on Causal Attributions for Success or Failure in L2 Learning

According to Gonzales (2015, p. 2), further analysis is needed to find new directions in the domain of Attribution Theory applied to L2 learning motivation. To explain learners' different perceptions and beliefs on second language learning and causal attributions, this author claims that "learner's own culture" represents another important variable, in addition to age, gender, language studied and perceived levels of success. Thus, in her study, she is mainly concerned with the relationship between culture (i.e., the learners' cultural behaviour, beliefs, values, and habits) and learner's causal attributions.

Drawing on Williams and Burden's (1999) Social-Constructivist Approach, Gonzales (2015) highlights that, being knowledge "internal and personal to the individual" and, therefore, not absolute, "different individuals have different understandings". As individuals' perceptions vary according to their "specific cultural traits", their causal attributions need to be understood from a cultural perspective. On this premise, Gonzales proposes three different approaches to account for individuals' causal attributions: "self-concept (individuals'

perceptions of themselves), locus of control (individuals' perceptions of control over their learning) and attribution theory (individuals' perceptions of their successes and failures)" (pp. 26-27).

Gkonou, Tatzl and Mercer (2015) share Gonzales's (2015) view, by arguing that the Attribution Theory classification of learners' causal perceptions according to their dimensions (locus of causality, stability, and controllability) does not actually match learners' causal perceptions of success and failure according to their cultural frame.

In a similar vein, Gonzales (2015) contends that previous research has been simply based on general assumptions on the participants' national culture, resulting, therefore, on inconsistent findings. On the contrary, she argue that thorough research should take into account a number of cultural factors: 1) the learner's socio-economic status (derived from urban or rural origins); 2) the presence of different cultural groups sharing the different set of beliefs, values, and habits in the same context; 3) cultural characteristics deriving from different family backgrounds (eg., progressive versus traditional families) or education traditions; 4) attitudes towards authority; 5) relationship with others; 6) religious influence; 7) gender roles in a society; 8) degree of individualism or collectivism; 9) exposure to other cultures and languages. To this purpose, in her study she deals with a considerable amount of data, derived from both her study in Angola and a wealth of research carried out in different other countries (mostly Asian).

Another salient point raised by Gonzales (2015, p. 57) is that some studies carried out in Eastern Countries (eg., Ho, Salili, Biggs, & Kit-Tai, 1999) are sometimes at odds with findings from research conducted in Western countries, in similar contexts. This assumption is also confirmed by Gonzales' (2011) comparative analysis between similar exploratory studies conducted, in 2006, in South England and, later, in Angola. These findings also support the view that different cultural contexts affect L2 learners' perceptions of success and failure in a different way. Differences mostly concern cultural parameters such as the learners' attitude towards authority and autonomy; teachers and students' respective duties and responsibilities; affiliation to specific groups.

To conclude, the perspective that learners classify their attributions in different ways, according to their different cultural characteristics, has important pedagogical implications, especially as regards learners' *attribution retraining*. This involves procedures that may be useful for reinstating psychological control and changing "stable, uncontrollable, external attributions into more changeable, controllable, internal ones" aimed at increasing

learners' self-esteem and improving their academic achievements (Gkonou, Tatzl, & Mercer, 2015, p.210).

3.3.3 Dörnyei's (1994) Multilevel Analysis of L2 Motivation

In the 1990s, a number of important papers reflected a new way of conceptualising L2 motivation, and suggested “a more education-oriented approach” (e.g., Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Williams & Burden, 1997, as cited in Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 154). On acknowledging that “motivation is responsible for determining human behaviour by energising it and giving direction”, many scholars became aware of the need to explore “*how*[motivation] operates and affects learning and achievement, and *by what means* it can be enhanced and sustained at an optimal level” (Dörnyei, 1998, p.118).

As a result, as reported by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), a considerable number of studies into L2 motivation attempted to integrate both learner's cognitive aspects (i.e., need for achievement; self-efficacy, self-determination), and situational factors related to the L2 classroom (eg., language teacher, L2 course, curriculum) into a new motivational paradigm. These attempts were in line with mainstream educational psychology - especially Attribution Theory and Self-Determination Theory.

In light of the above, Dörnyei (1994, pp. 279-280) contends that, due to the unique situation of L2 learning, an adequate analysis of L2 motivation seems complex because it involves various factors from different psychological fields: cognitive aspects, personality traits, social factors, and the educational subject matter dimension. Therefore, he provides an expanded framework of L2 motivation (Fig.4), in which he identifies three levels of analysis reflecting three basic components affecting L2 motivation:

1. *The Language Level* consists of “an integrative and an instrumental motivational subsystem”. In other words, it implies “social, cultural and ethnolinguistic components”, interest towards L2 language and community as well as the well-internalised pragmatic values associated with it;
2. *The Learner Level* relates to affective and cognitive aspects of L2 learner's personality;
3. *The Learning Situation Level*, encompasses different situation-specific components of L2 learning setting characteristics: course, teacher, and group.

The multi-level framework allows Dörnyei (1994) to focus on a number of appropriate instructional strategies and guidelines for teachers in order to motivate L2 language learners. As Dörnyei (1998) points out, being the *Learning Situation Level* focused on various aspects of learning in the L2 classroom and grounded on previous motivational templates, it represents the most elaborate part of the framework.

Dörnyei (1994) pulls together different lines of research in order to provide “an in-depth analysis of particular learning situations and design of intervention techniques” to boost motivation (Dörnyei, 1998, pp.125-126). In particular, in the *Learning Situation Level*, he draws attention on *teacher-specific components*, sub-classified into *language learners’ affiliative drive* (i.e., learners’ desire to please the teacher), *authority type* (i.e., authoritarian or democratic teaching style), and *teacher direct socialisation of motivation* (i.e., the use of particular teaching strategies, including modelling, task-presentation and feedback).

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-confidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language Use Anxiety • Perceived L2 Competence • Causal Attributions • Self-Efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Course-specific Motivational components 	Interest (in the course) Relevance (of the course to one’s needs) Expectancy (of success) Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher-Specific Motivational Components 	Affiliative Drive (to please the teacher) Authority Type (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting) Direct Socialization of Motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling • Task presentation • Feedback
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group-Specific Motivational Components 	Goal-Orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesiveness Classroom Goal Structure

Figure 4. Dörnyei’s Multilevel Framework of L2 Motivation

Adapted from “Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom,” by Z. Dörnyei, 1994, *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), p. 280.

Most importantly, Dörnyei (1994, p. 282) insists on the three fundamental teacher’s characteristics that are coherent with “the principles of person-centred education”:

1. *Empathy* means “being sensitive to students’ needs, feelings and perspectives”;

2. *Congruence* refers to being authentic and behaving “according to [one’s own] true self [...] without hiding behind facades or roles”;
3. *Acceptance* involves being “nonjudgmental [and] acknowledging each student as a complex human being with both virtues and faults”.

Moreover, Dörnyei (1994) encourages teachers to be facilitators, which involves: having caring and warm relationships with their students in order “to minimise the detrimental effects of evaluation”; enhancing students’ autonomy by “minimising external pressure and control”(i.e., threats, punishments) and promoting peer-teaching (especially project-work) instead. Finally, he remarks the importance of developing students’ intrinsic motivation by using particular teaching techniques, such as cooperative learning strategies and group-work tasks, and motivating and informative feedbacks (p. 282).

Even though Dörnyei (1998, p. 126) emphasizes the significant pedagogical implications of Dörnyei’s (1994) multidimensional framework of L2 motivation, he also draws attention on a number of shortcomings. In particular, he underlines the following issues: 1) the lack of relationships between the various items, whose diverse nature does not allow them to be submitted to empirical testing; 2) “the lack of a goal component” 3) the fact that it is not sufficiently supported by Self-determination empirical findings; 4) the oversimplification of the integrative/instrumental dichotomy at the language level, which fails to account for the complexity of motivational processes affecting L2 motivation social dimension.

In light of the above, Dörnyei (1998) concludes that the multi-level framework cannot be considered a proper model of L2 motivation. Dörnyei (2005, p. 65), however, acknowledges the importance of Dörnyei’s (1994) multidimensional framework for two reasons: it is useful for teachers as it highlights the essential components of L2 motivation; it provides practical suggestions on how to put in place “appropriate curricula and good teaching” in order to facilitate learners’ motivation and ensure positive outcomes in L2 learning.

Finally, it is also worth noting that, over the past two decades, in addition to Dörnyei and associates’ subsequent contributions (eg., Dörnyei, 1996; 2001a, 2005, 2007a; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), a substantial amount of research (eg., Azarnoosh & Tabatabaee, 2008; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus, Wilson & Garden, 2009; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Safdari,

2018) has stressed the importance of effective teaching strategies in order to foster student L2 motivation, as we can see in various sections of the current dissertation.

3.4 The Process-Oriented Period

With a more situated approach to L2 motivation, considerable body of research in the late nineties attempted to account for “the complex ebb and flow of motivation” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 397) in specific classroom learning contexts, that is, its continuous fluctuation and changeability over time. In order to provide effective models for didactic purposes, different attempts led to varying interpretations and multifarious frameworks in this field and to a re-conceptualization of L2 motivation as an eclectic, complex construct with a temporal dimension (Dörnyei, 2000, 2005), in which “propensity factors (for example, motivation, learning style, anxiety) [were considered to be] situated and dynamic rather than trait-like” (Ellis, 2008, p. 721).

In particular, at the turn of the century, a number of researchers (Williams & Burden, 1997; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2000, 2001a) adopted “a - process oriented approach/ paradigm that [could] account for the daily ups and downs of motivation to learn” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 83), which is still relevant today for their pedagogical implications.

3.4.1 Williams and Burden’s (1997) Framework of Motivational Factors

With acknowledging the importance of the diachronic nature of L2 motivation, scholars in the field of process oriented-approach view L2 motivation as a construct with a temporal axis and divide L2 motivation process into different phases along a continuum. Williams and Burden (1997), for instance, identify three phases - *reasons for doing something*; *deciding to do something*; and *sustaining the effort, or persisting* – as they claim that motivation is not “simply arousing interest”, but also implies “the necessary effort to achieve certain goals” (p. 121). The first two phases involve *initiating* motivation, whereas the last one refers to *sustaining* motivation.

Williams and Burden’s (1997) work is significant because it provides a wide overview of psychology for language teachers, and a detailed framework of motivational factors (Fig. 5), which are very much in line with the mainstream motivational psychology reform of the 1990s. These scholars classify factors affecting L2 motivation into two categories: *internal* and *external*. The detailed list of contextual factors (i.e. *external factors*), in particular, represents the most comprehensive analysis of L2 motivational factors in the L2 literature

(Dörnyei, 1998, p.126). Importantly, Williams and Burden (1997) highlight the importance of the interactions with *teachers*²⁵ as a part of *significant others*, which involves other relevant components within the category of *external factors*, namely, *learning experiences, feedback, rewards, praise and punishments/sanctions*.

The role of the immediate environment, represented by *peers* and *parents*, is also a key component in Williams and Burden’s motivational framework. *Family/parental influence* has indeed been focused as an important L2 motivational construct in a considerable number of subsequent research studies (eg., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Csizér & Kormos, 2008; Gardner, Masgoret & Tremblay, 1999; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Kormos et al, 2011; Md Nordin, Fatimah, Ahmad & Nayan, 2012; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009).

Internal factors	External factors
Intrinsic interest of activity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • arousal of curiosity • optimal degree of challenge 	Significant others <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • parents • teachers • peers
Perceived value of activity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • personal relevance • anticipated value of outcomes • intrinsic value attributed to the activity 	
Sense of agency <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • locus of causality • locus of control RE process and outcomes • ability to set appropriate goals 	The nature of interaction with significant others <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mediated learning experiences • the nature and amount of feedback • rewards • the nature and amount of appropriate praise • punishments, sanctions
Mastery <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • feelings of competence • awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area • self-efficacy 	The learning environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • comfort • resources • time of day, week, year • size of class and school • class and school ethos
Self-concept <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required • personal definitions and judgements of success and failure • self-worth concern learned helplessness 	The broader context <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • wider family networks • the local education system • conflicting interests • cultural norms • societal expectations and attitudes
Attitudes language learning in general <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to the target language • to the target language community and culture 	
Other affective states <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • confidence • anxiety, fear 	
Developmental age and stage	
Gender	

Figure 5. Williams and Burden's Motivational Framework
Adapted from “Motivation in second and foreign language learning,”
by Z. Dörnyei, 1998, *Language Teaching*, 31, p. 126.

3.4.2 Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation

Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) develop a new *Process Model of L2 Motivation*, partly inspired by Heckhausen and Kuhl’s *Action Control Theory*, in order to provide “a theoretical basis” for

²⁵ The importance of teacher’s behaviour and instructional practices in enhancing learner’s motivation have also been emphasized by a considerable number of research studies (eg., Gottfried, Fleming, & Gottfried, 2001; H. Jang, 2008; Jang, Kim, & Reeve, 2012; Jang, Reeve, & Deci, 2010; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Vibulphol, 2016), some of which will be mentioned in different sections of this study.

classroom interventions to promote L2 learners' motivation. This model aims "both to account for the dynamics of motivational change in time and to synthesise many of the most important motivational conceptualisations to date"(Dörnyei & Ottó,1998, p. 43).

In order to operationalize the new conception of L2 motivation, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) and Dörnyei (2000, 2001a) elaborate a tripartite framework, which teachers can apply effectively in order to promote their motivational teaching practice. Dörnyei (2005) summarizes the entire model processing as follows:

[Thisframework] broke down the motivational process into several discrete temporal segments, organized along the progression that describes how initial *wishes* and *desires* are first transformed into *goals* and then into operationalized*intentions*, and how these intentions are *enacted*, leading (hopefully) to the accomplishment of the goal and concluded by the final *evaluation* of the process (p. 84).

Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998, pp. 50-51) *Process Model of L2 motivation* represents an elaborate and eclectic theory, in which motivation is conceived as a dynamic process divided into three main phases, i.e., *Preactional Phase*, *Actional Phase*, and *Postactional Phase*:

1. The *Preactional Phase* is the starting point of the motivational behavioural process and corresponds to Heckhausen's (1991) "choice motivation". It refers to a "complex of decision-making", a process whereby initial wishes/hopes and desires are first transformed into goals (*goal setting*) and, then, into "operationalized intentions" (*intention formation*), which are enacted (*initiation of intention enactment*).
2. The *Actional Phase* corresponds to Heckhausen's "executive motivation", and represents the actual action phase. Borrowing from Heckhausen (1991), Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 50) compare this stage to "crossing a metaphorical 'Rubicon'[, in which] the individual has committed him/herself to action and now the emphasis shifts to factors concerning the implementation of action". This stage entails other sub-processes, namely, "*sub-task generation and implementation*", *appraisal*, and *action control*,²⁶ which continuously accompany the course of action.
3. The *Postactional Phase* starts after the action has been accomplished. This is the stage where the learner retrospectively evaluates the process on the basis of the actual

²⁶*Appraisal* refers to the continuous evaluation of the ongoing learning process (eg., the progress made). *Action control* includes monitoring and self-regulatory strategies, which are essential to maintain and protect motivation and accomplish the goal. These processes are particularly relevant in classroom settings where students are exposed to a high level of distraction, anxiety or difficulty to accomplish the task.

outcomes, which he compares with his initial expectancies. Most importantly, this critical retrospection helps him to draw inferences that may be useful for future behaviour.

According to Gabillon (2007, p. 3), in the *Preactional Phase*, Dörnyei and Ottó highlight the influence of learners' beliefs and attitudes on L2 motivation. Indeed, before undertaking any activity, learners weigh the feasibility of their actions, based on a number of factors: expectancy of success and self-efficacy beliefs, perceived goal difficulty and relevance.

Although this model includes a wide range of motivational factors, it also involves a number of shortcomings. For example, Piggini (2012, pp. 61-63) points out that "the main drawback for pedagogical application would be the inaccessibility of its discourse for the average language teacher". Nevertheless, the same scholar recognizes the pedagogical relevance of the tripartite framework and the crucial role of the teacher in all the three stages of Ottó and Dörnyei's Process Model.

Thus, building upon Ottó-Dörnyei Process-oriented Model, Dörnyei (2005, pp. 85-86) is able to reconceptualise a valid pedagogical framework (Fig. 6), which teachers can apply to increase their students' motivation. Dörnyei (2005) makes this point clear when he assumes that Ottó and Dörnyei's approach can be viewed as "a good starting point in understanding motivational evolution" and that its pedagogical implications are clear to teachers who aim to promote L2 students' motivation.

As clearly displayed in Fig. 6, the three stages of the model are associated with manifold motivational influences, which are divided into three groups according to the phase they are related to. As this tripartite framework involves three different motivational systems, Dörnyei (2005, p. 86) comments that "different motivational systems advocated in the literature do not necessarily exclude each other but can be valid at the same time if they affect different stages of the motivational process". Dörnyei's assumption supports the need for L2 motivation research to integrate different approaches to account for the multifarious motivational systems involved in the L2 motivational process, and to focus on the positive implications for instructional practices.

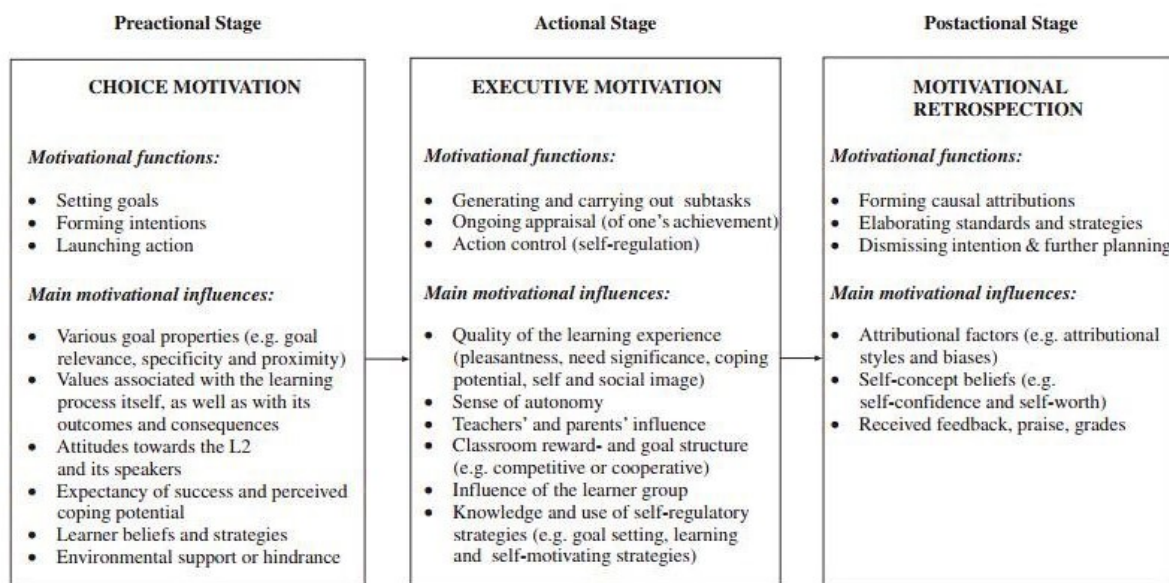


Figure 6. Dörnyei's Process Model of L2 Motivation

Adapted from *The Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition* (p. 85), by Z. Dörnyei, 2005, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

3.4.3 Exploring L2 Student Motivation from a Macro-Perspective: The Long-Term Evolution of L2 Motivation

Over the last decade an increasing number of qualitative research has adopted Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model to investigate L2 learners' motivational process and its dynamic interaction with contextual factors. Among others, Shoaib and Dörnyei's (2005) qualitative work is worth mentioning. These scholars employ the Process Model to explore L2 learning motivation from a macro-perspective, which differs from earlier research that simply focused on how L2 motivation is generated, sustained and analysed after the learning process is completed.

To investigate the temporal change of L2 learner motivation over a period of nearly twenty years, a number of retrospective qualitative interviews were conducted with 25 students - aged between 18 and 34 and of mixed nationalities. In particular, to account for the long-term evolution of learners' motivation, this investigation employs a biographical/autobiographical approach based on the students' personal histories. By investigating the temporal variations of L2 motivation over the years within a broad life-span, this study "ventures into uncharted territories". However, it is not without antecedents, as previous scholars (Heckausen, 2000; Smith & Spurling, 2001) have already made important contributions along the same lines.

Interestingly, Shoaib and Dörnyei's (2005, p. 29) study identifies and analyses the different motivational influences and salienttemporal patterns which characterize L2 motivation development over long periods of time. In particular, it provides a classification scheme of seven dimensions, divided into a host of related subcategories²⁷, which can have a positive, negative, or neutral impact on the learner's motivation:

1. Affective/integrative dimension
2. Instrumental Dimension
3. Self-Concept-Related Dimension
4. Goal-Oriented Dimension
5. Educational-Context-Related Dimension
6. Significant-Other-Related dimension
7. Host-Environment-Related Dimension.

In addition, from the dataset Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005, p. 31) derive a list of six *motivation transformational episodes*, i.e., recurring patterns of change affecting L2 motivation:

1. Maturation and gradually increasing interest
2. Stand-still period
3. Moving into a new life phase
4. Internalizing external goals and 'imported vision'
5. Relationship with a 'significant other'
6. Time spent in the host environment.

According to this study, therefore, salient episodes such as transitions to a new life stage (eg., leaving school and entering the world of work), or experiences of being in "the host environment"(i.e., L2 speaking country) are crucial in L2 motivation. Importantly, some findings illustrate that students' interest and motivation increase as they gradually grow older, become more mature and, consequently, are more aware of the importance of learning a second language. Other findings show that time spent in L2 speaking countries (eg., trips) may change the learner's perception of L2 learning and boost motivation. Conversely, putting a student's L2 proficiency to the test in the first encounter with a native speaker, especially without any previous preparation, can be demotivating.

²⁷In the appendix, Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005) include a long list of subcategories.

3.4.4 Temporal Variations in L2 Motivation during Task Completion: The Three Stages of a Complex Process

The importance of the temporal dimension and notion of various motivational stages of L2 motivation have been widely recognized by a number of significant studies, inspired by the Process-oriented Model. Manolopoulou-Sergi (2004), for instance, highlights the importance of motivation variation during task completion in foreign language learning. He adopts an approach similar to that proposed by Dörnyei and Ottò (1998), and agrees with Dörnyei (2002) that the “complex motivational processing[...] involves[...] two interrelated submechanisms: ongoing appraisal and action control” (p. 430).

According to Manolopoulou-Sergi, learners continually evaluate their ongoing learning experience (i.e., performance and progress), and all other environmental stimuli; and, on this basis, they activate proper cognitive mechanisms and strategies in order to achieve their goals. The same scholar also emphasizes that, in the activation of the action control system, learners’ *choice* and *effort* play an important role.

In view of the above principles, Manolopoulou-Sergi (2004, pp. 431-438) identifies three stages within the information-processing framework:

- 1) The *Input Stage*. This represents the first encounter with the learning material. In this initial phase, learners’ attitudes and beliefs, expectancy of success and failure, perception and attention – in conjunction with the environmental support or hindrance - are key motivational factors involved before learners are actually engaged in the learning task.
- 2) The *Central Processing Stage*. This is highly influenced by the input phase. In this phase, attention and (long-term, working and short-term) memory systems are involved. The learners’ appraisal of the learning experience, outcome and goals get them to activate the “task action control system”, and to employ self-regulatory and learning strategies in order to accomplish their task.
- 3) The *Output Stage*. This is the phase “where learners demonstrate the knowledge they have acquired during the other two stages”, and involves the learners’ metacognitive reflection on their performance, which will influence motivation and, consequently, their future commitment to a new learning task.

3.5 From Process-Oriented to Socio-Dynamic Perspectives of L2 Motivation

According to Dörnyei (2000, pp. 522-523), an increasing number of studies have emphasized the significant practical implications of Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model in L2 teaching, by focusing in particular on two topics: a) the importance of motivational strategies that sustain motivation and effort in prolonged L2 activities or even learning situations lasting for years; b) the "motivational fluctuation and evolution" learners and teachers experience on a day-to-day basis.

When discussing the theoretical pros and cons of Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model, Dörnyei (2000, pp. 529-530) firstly points out that it represents a useful method of interpreting the manifold motivational factors that account for learners' L2 learning behaviour in classroom settings. Secondly, he maintains that, in such a framework, time represents "an organising principle" that allows to order the main motivational factors in a natural way along a temporal axis, and, therefore, to identify different stages of the motivational process. Thirdly, this model is particularly conducive to learning task motivation as it provides "a useful research paradigm for the micro-analysis" of the specific motivational factors influencing the completion of learning tasks.

However, on focusing on the weaknesses of the Process-Oriented Model, Dörnyei (2000, p. 53) and Dörnyei (2005, p. 86) also report that the main limitation of this model is that it presents a rigid borderline (i.e., The "Rubicon" Crossing) between the preactional phase (the "choice" phase) and the action phase (the "executive" phase), which does not actually occur in reality since the two stages often happen simultaneously, resulting in a complex of interactions. Furthermore, this model does not take into account that, in the same classroom setting, students are engaged in simultaneous multiple tasks and goals, and that various conscious and unconscious factors influence students' behaviour, which are not under the individual's direct control.

Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012, p. 398) identify a further shortcoming related to the Process Model, that is, the assumption that the beginning and end of the motivational process may be identified clearly. As these scholars also highlight, many recent L2/ SLA (Second language Acquisition) theories reflect the same limitations, since they have adopted "explanatory linear models" to address L2 motivation, without taking into due consideration "the dynamic and situated complexity of the learning process or the multiple goals and agendas shaping learner behaviour". On the contrary, since the first decade of the

new century, the direction of research has moved away from a linear, cause-effect view of L2 motivation, towards a number of relational, *socio-dynamic perspectives*, attempting to investigate the complex L2 motivation system, and its “organic development” in interaction with a multiplicity of internal, social and contextual factors.

If earlier models of motivation focused on the unidirectional effects of context upon individual behaviour, a growing number of recent perspectives are in fact concerned with the interrelationships between the individual and context. As Ryan and Dörnyei (2013, p. 91) maintain, “individual action is both shaped by context and contributes to the further shaping of that context; context is not a fixed or static entity, it is dynamic and is constantly in a state of flux”.

The Socio-Dynamic Period of L2 motivation research is also characterized by the concern to reconceptualise L2 motivation from an international perspective taking into account the new role of L2 learning and use in the global world, in the light of contemporary theories of self and identity (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 398). Three major approaches represent this period: *The Person-in-Context Relational View* (Ushioda, 2009), *The L2 Motivational Self System* (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a), and *Complexity Theory* (Larsen-Freeman, 2012a, 2012b).

The first two theories will be discussed in detail in the present chapter. As regards to *Complexity Theory*, this will be addressed in detail in Chapter Three, which is more focused on the most recent developments of L2 motivation research. Even though *The L2 Motivational Self System* merges into the *Current Period* of L2 motivation research, we will devote special attention in the last part of the current chapter, since this theory has become the most discussed and influential paradigm in the field of L2 motivation research over the last decade.

3.5.1 The Person-in-Context Relational View (Ushioda, 2009)

Ushioda (2009, pp. 220-222) builds on earlier influential socio-cultural theories and poststructuralist approaches in order to provide a contextually grounded relational analysis of L2 motivation, which she integrates in order to develop a *socio-dynamic system* of L2 motivation, in which motivational, emotional and cognitive elements within the learner are viewed in continuous interaction with social contextual variables.

Firstly, she explains how her notions of *person in context and relational* contrast with previous conceptualisations shaped by American social psychology and cognitive motivational

psychology over the past 40 years. These traditions, in fact, have adopted psychometric approaches to the study of individual differences, by employing quantitative procedures which have viewed L2 learners as abstract, depersonalised entities.

On the contrary, Ushioda (2009) formulates a theory whereby learners are viewed as real “people who are necessarily located in particular and historical contexts” (p. 216), and manifest “objetivos, motivos e intenciones que funcionan dentro de un sistema fluido y complejo de relaciones sociales, actividades, experiencias y múltiples macro y micro contextos” (Kauzlarić, 2014, pp. 33-34). Furthermore, since Ushioda (2009) emphasizes the “dynamic evolving relationship between learner and context, as each responds and adapts to the other”, her notion of context is at odds with most L2 motivation approaches that have viewed it as an independent background variable, “a static backdrop” which learners do not control (as cited in Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, pp. 85-86).

Key-tenet of her theory is that L2 motivation is “an active and socially mediated process”, in which self and context function together within the “organic whole” of the individual. This means that, as learning an L2 is just one part of the learner’s self, it is necessary to take into account other identities inherent to each individual, such as being a student, a member of a desired L2 community with a particular professional status, an L2 learner, a family member, and other aspects (Shahbaz & Liu, 2012, p. 117). In this perspective, on the one hand, learner is considered “as a ‘self-reflective intentional agent’ that can self-regulate his motivation and initiate action. On the other hand, his motivation and self-regulation can be positively or negatively affected by the social interactions and environment (Poupore, 2015, p.3).

3.5.2 From Integrativeness towards New Avenues of L2 Motivation Research

During the first decade of this century, a number of crucial changes occurred within L2 motivation research, prompted by fervent debates among scholars on a variety of issues:

1. The need to re-theorize L2 motivation “in the context of contemporary notions of self and identity”. Being L2/FL learning an important part of the individual’s identity, L2 motivation needs to be reframed within a “whole-person perspective”, that is, in relation to self and identity.
2. The importance of a reinterpretation of the concept of *integrativeness* that was originally proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1972)
3. The emergence of English as a global language (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, pp. 1-3).

To address the above issues, many scholars claim for a re-interpretation of *integrativeness* as the original concept²⁸ does not transfer readily to other L2 learning situations where there is no specific target group of speakers. This particularly applies when the target language is Global English (Graddol, 2006, as cited in Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, p. 3). As Ushioda (2006) points out, the concept of *integrativeness* loses its geographical connotation (i.e., the reference to a specific ethno-linguistic community of L2 users) and refers to “a nonspecific global community” of L2 speakers, which can be conceptualised either as “an external reference group, or as part of one’s internal representation of oneself as *a de facto* member of that global community” (p. 150).

Thus, a considerable body of research attempts to rethink the integrative concept in a broader sense, as a general, non-ethnocentric attitude toward the international community and foreign language learning. In other words, this new conceptualization involves the interest in foreign, or international affairs, the willingness to travel overseas and communicate with intercultural partners, which Yashima (2002, 2009) labels as *International Posture* (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). This component has been found as a significant factor in many studies, conducted in various language learning settings, such as EFL (eg., Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013; M. Lamb, 2004, p. 13), or Study Abroad (SA)²⁹ contexts (Geoghegan, 2018; Geoghegan & Pérez-Vidal, 2019).

Geoghegan (2018) emphasizes the fact that Yashima’s (2009) *International Posture* represents a “more fruitful alternative to the concept of integrative motivation”. Indeed, due to the international role of English as a *Lingua Franca* and the exponential increase of learners of English worldwide, “the learners’ motivations for learning as well as the way they identify with the language” have changed (p. 215).

According to Aubrey and Nowlan (2013), even though it is possible to connect the target language with global issues through “a content-based curriculum”, it is difficult to simulate “the spontaneous, unpredictable nature of frequent direct personal contact with various ethnolinguistic groups [...] outside of a real multicultural environment” (p. 129).

On focusing on five motivational components (i.e., *International Posture*; *Intercultural Contact*; *L2 Learning Experience*; *Motivated Learning Behaviour*; *Ought-to L2*

²⁸ This concept was firstly applied to the Canadian bilingual context, where Gardner and his associated conducted their research.

²⁹ Study Abroad (SA) research has given rise to a vast array of empirical studies over the last 10-15 years. For a more in-depth description of this field, see also Howard (2019); Mora and Valls-Ferrer (2012); Ueki and Takeuchi (2015); Vidal, López-Serrano, Ament, and Thomas-Wilhelm (2018).

Self) in two different university contexts³⁰, these scholars find that *Intercultural Contact*³¹ increases *International Posture* in the international university, whereas it does not affect the same variable significantly in the non-international context, where the intercultural encounters are less frequent. However, since Aubrey and Nowlan (2013, p. 145) also reveal that *International Posture* has still a strong impact on *Motivated Behaviour* in both university contexts, this investigation confirms Yashima's (2002, 2009) finding that *International Posture* represents a key factor to take into account in L2 motivation research.

Since the turn of the century, furthermore, we have witnessed to substantial number of investigations into the effects of L2 learning on individual's identity and language behaviour that take place when two ethnolinguistic groups come into regular contact. This research has led to the development of *L2 Willingness to Communicate (L2WTC)* research (eg., Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Clément, 1980; Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; MacIntyre, Clément, Baker, & Conrod, 2001; MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998; McCroskey & Richmond, 1991; Noels, Pon, & Clément, 1996), characterized by the strong focus on socio-psychological variables underlying learners' volitional participation in oral communication using a second language, such as self-confidence, L2 communicative anxiety, interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation/attitudes, perceived communication competence, frequency of communication.

In light of a reformulation of the concept of *integrativeness*, furthermore, Dörnyei (2005) introduces a new, broad framework of L2 learning motivation called the *L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS)*, which marks a paradigm shift in L2 motivation research. This reinterpretation of L2 motivation, however, does not disregard the socio-psychological roots of L2 motivation research, but integrates the most influential aspects of that tradition (i.e., Gardner's concept of *integrativeness/integrative motivation*) into a new framework, by focusing on the complex web of interactions between the individual (the affective/emotional, and cognitive factors) and context.

Furthermore, to reformulate Gardner's integrative motivation in a broad sense, Dörnyei (2005) adopts the perspective of "possible selves" theories, which allows him to explore this construct in foreign language settings. Being the notion of integrative motivation reconceptualised as "an idealised view of the L2 Self" (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément,

³⁰ Aubrey and Nowlan explore the impact of *intercultural contact* on Japanese EFL students in two different university contexts (i.e. international university and non-international university).

³¹ *Intercultural Contact* is not a novel factor in L2 motivation research as it is featured in previous research. It was firstly included as a factor in Clément (1980), and then it has appeared in subsequent studies (eg., Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005; Csizér & Kormos, 2008).

2009, p. 49), the new paradigm marks “a theoretical shift of focus to the internal domain of self and identity”(Ushioda, 2006, p. 150; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, p. 5).

3.6 The L2 Motivational Self-System (Dörnyei, 2005)

By unifying different psychological theories, Dörnyei (2005) reconceptualises L2 motivation in a new broad framework – the *L2 Motivational Self System(L2MSS)* - made up of three constituents:

1. The *Ideal L2 self*. This is defined as the “L2-specific facet of one’s ‘ideal self’”, reflecting an ideal image of one’s future L2 speaking self (Dörnyei, 2009a, p.29). Put simply, this component is associated with the mastery of an L2 (Dörnyei, 2005, p.102). Having a strong *Ideal L2 self* also reflects positive attitudes towards language learning and L2 community of speakers (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009, p. 68); hence, this dimension is also correlated with *Integrativeness* (Papi, 2010, p.469). Besides, as Csizér and Magid (2014, p. 378) maintain, the *Ideal L2 self* involves “both integrative and internalised instrumental motives”. Indeed, it represents a significant motivator and affects L2 learners ‘effort considerably (Taguchi et al., 2009).
2. The *Ought-to L2 self*. This is related to “the more extrinsic (i.e., less internalised) types of instrumental factors”(Dörnyei, 2009a, pp.28-29) because it refers to the attributes that one feels he should possess to meet external expectations and to avoid possible undesirable outcomes. Thus, on the one hand, this dimension involves a “promotion focus”, concerned with the individual’s aspirations, advancements and desire to be rewarded or praised by others (teachers or parents). On the other hand, it implies a “prevention focus”, encompassing those attributes (i.e., safety, responsibilities and obligations) that are necessary to avoid a feared end-state.
3. The *L2 learning experience*. This refers to situated motivational factors related to the immediate learning context such as the influence of the teacher, the peer-group, the curriculum.

According to the L2MSS, there are a number of conditions needed for the learner’s future self-guides (ideal and ought-to L2 selves) to work as effective motivators. Firstly, Dörnyei (2009a) suggests that the learner’s desired future image should be vivid and well-defined, and that possible selves need to be grounded on realistic expectations. In other words, possible selves are effective predictors of second language proficiency, as long as the learners perceive them as specific and realistic representations of what is possible. This,

indeed, affects learners' self-esteem, competence, control, or optimism, as earlier studies also suggest (eg., Ruvolo & Markus, 1992; Segal, 2006).

Secondly, Dörnyei (2009a) explains that the *Ideal L2 self* needs to be regularly activated and sustained by a set of concrete action plans, which are considered to be necessary in order to operationalise the vision, which involves clear goal-setting and effective methodological strategies. Finally, the *Ideal L2 self* should contain clear information about the negative impact of not achieving the desired outcomes. In fact, as both positive self-guides and their negative counterparts have a strong impact on the learners' self-regulatory behaviour, the desired self needs to be counterbalanced by the feared self, as previous studies suggest (eg., Higgins, 1987, 1996; Oyserman & Markus, 1990).

3.6.1 Theoretical and Empirical Antecedents to the L2 Motivational Self-System

As Dörnyei(2009a) reports, the L2MSS builds on earlier influential L2 motivation conceptualizations (Gardner, 2001; Noels, 2003; Ushioda, 2001) and on recent theoretical developments in psychological research on the *self*, especially some key aspects of personality psychology such as the notions of *identity*, *possible selves* (Markus & Nurius 1986; Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2006) and *self-discrepancy* (Higgins, 1987). Importantly, these aspects allow him to reinterpret Gardner's construct of integrative motivation in a broader sense and to apply it to different foreign language settings.

Furthermore, as we can see in more detail in the following section, a number of significant findings from the Hungarian research conducted with Csizér (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a, 2005b) have also contributed to the new conceptualization of L2 motivation as part of the self-system, by identifying the exact relationships between the key motivational factors that shape L2 motivation.

3.6.1.1 Csizér and Dörnyei's (2005) Empirical Contribution

Csizér and Dörnyei's (2005a, 2005b) Hungarian empirical findings firstly provide Dörnyei (2005) with the initial support for reframing Gardner's (2001) concept of integrative motivation. By involving 13,391 Hungarian middle school students in three successive periods of time (1993, 1999 and 2004), this investigation represents the largest ever L2 motivation longitudinal survey, in which Csizér and Dörnyei explore students' attitudes towards learning various foreign languages (i.e., English, German, French, Italian and Russian) as well as the internal and complex structure of L2 motivation.

As Csizér and Dörnyei (2005a) point out, this research is relevant because not only can its findings apply to all the five different target languages involved in the survey, but also generalizable across various L2 learning contexts and across time. Indeed, it does not address “situation-specific motives that are rooted in the L2 learners’ immediate learning environment”, but “stable, and generalized motives that stem from a succession of the student’s past experiences in the social world” (p.20).

The Hungarian findings also reveal a framework of interrelated variables (Fig. 7), among which *integrativeness*- viewed as a broader concept than in Gardner’s model- represents the most important one in terms of shaping learners’ motivational behaviour, as Dörnyei and colleagues report in various studies (i.e., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a, 2005b; Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006).

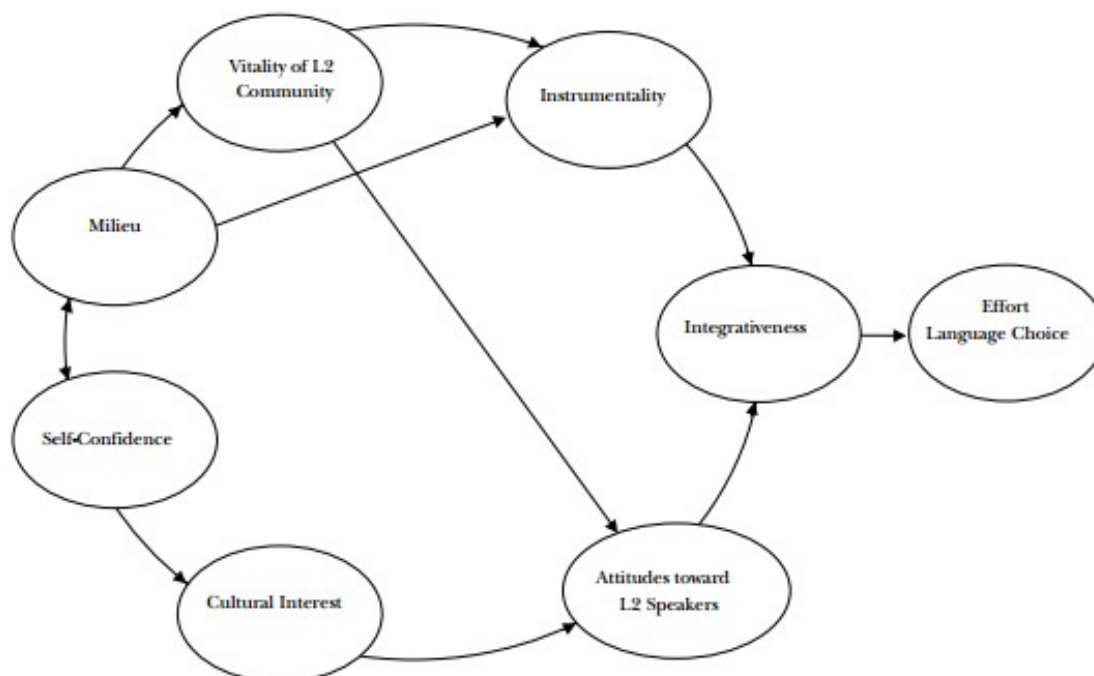


Fig. 7. Csizér and Dörnyei’s L2 Motivationl Framework derived from the Hungarian studies

Adapted from “The internal structure of language learning motivation: Results of structural equation modelling,”
by K. Csizér & Z. Dörnyei, 2005a, *Modern Language Journal*, 89(1), p. 28.

As Csizér and Dörnyei point out, a reformulation of the construct of *integrativeness* is necessary in order to investigate L2 motivation in various L2 learning contexts, even when these do not correspond to a specific L2 learning community of speakers. Moreover, as the findings show that *instrumentality* can “complement integrativeness [as well as] feed into it as a primary contributor”, they argue that further research is needed to redefine the domains of the two concepts. To conclude, Csizér and Dörnyei advocate the study of “the motivational

basis of language globalization”, due to the fact that World English is “losing its national cultural base” and turning into a global language corresponding to a global culture (2005a, pp. 27-30).

3.6.1.2 The Influence of the Psychological Theory of “Possible Selves” and “Future Self-Guides”

The L2 Motivational Self System embodies the conceptualization of *possible selves* introduced firstly by Markus and Nurius (1986). In this work, *possible selves* are represented as “a form of future-oriented self-knowledge” divided into three components: *expected self*, the *hoped-for self* and the *feared self* (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009, p. 46). These correspond respectively to “individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming” (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954). In other words, *possible selves* can be defined as “personalized representations of one's self in future states” (Cross & Markus, 1991, p. 230), involving thoughts, images, senses; and are manifestations of one's hopes, aspiration and goals (Dörnyei, 2005, 2010). Indeed, as Robinson, Davis and Meara (2003) point out, these representations include both cognitive and affective dimensions as they involve expectations, wishes and fears of one's future life in various domains (eg., work and family).

Although *possible selves* are future-oriented, they are interwoven with the individual's past and current selves, and develop from and reflect past experiences. Hence, they represent self images “phenomenologically very close to the actual thoughts and feelings that individuals experience when they are engaged in the process of motivated behaviour” (Markus & Ruvolo, 1989, p. 217, as cited in Dörnyei, 2005, p. 99).

Markus and Nurius, (1986), and Ruvolo and Markus (1992) also emphasize that the more concrete *possible selves* are, the more powerful they are in motivating the individual to achieve them. Besides, reflecting the dynamic interplay of current and imaginative self-identities, *possible selves* act as “future self-guides” with a strong motivational valence. In other words, they give meaning and direction to one's purposeful behaviour in order to achieve one's deepest dreams and full potential (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 91).

Markus and Nurius' theory is “truly innovative” because, by emphasizing the role of the mental representations of one's hypothetical future, they add the visionary dimension to the self-concept (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013). Most importantly, these scholars highlight that, by moving from the present toward the future, the self-concept “extends its reach deeper in

time... [and] reflects the potential for growth and change” (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p.957, as cited in Dunkel & Kerpelman, 2006, p.80).

3.6.1.3 The Influence of Higgins’ Self-Discrepancy Theory

Higgins’s (1987, 1989) *Self-Discrepancy Theory* has also influenced Dörnyei’s *L2 Motivational Self System*. This scholar presents a new theory in which “the self” is represented in three basic domains:

1. The *Actual self*: the individual’s representation of the actual attributes he or a significant other believes he possesses;
2. The *Ideal self*: the individual’s representation of the attributes he or a significant other would like him to possess, which correspond to his aspirations and wishes;
3. The *Ought self*: the representation of the sense of duty (i.e. of the individual attributes he or a significant other believes he should or ought to possess in terms of duties, responsibilities, or obligations).

As pointed out by Dörnyei (2009a), the *Ideal self* and *Ought self* are the two major concepts of Higgins’ self theory, which are also mentioned in Markus and Nurius (1986), but addressed more precisely in Higgins (1987, 1989).

The Self-Discrepancy Theory encompasses the idea that individuals are motivated to engage in actions in order to promote desirable selves and inhibit undesirable selves, due to a basic psychological need to reduce the discrepancy³² between one’s actual and ideal or ought selves. The desire to reduce inconsistencies between the perceived current self and possible selves generates motivational dynamics whereby “those visions which represent 'ideal' future self-images are more likely to direct behaviour” (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013, p.91). As motivation dimension correlates with the self-concept, when individuals’ view of their actual attributes match their ideal attributes, they feel highly motivated. Conversely, when they realize that their actual self is inconsistent with the ideal representations of the self, they experience dissatisfaction or discomfort and, consequently, a decrease of motivation.

³²According to this theory, different types of self-discrepancies (that is, incompatibility between the different selves) correspond to different kinds of discomfort and negative psychological situations. For example, discrepancies between the actual self and the ideal self produce dejection-related emotions (eg., sadness, dissatisfaction), whereas discrepancies between the actual and the ought selves is associated with agitation-related emotions (threat, fear).

3.6.1.4 Further Similarities between Dörnyei's L2MSS and Previous Models of L2 Motivation

Dörnyei (2009a, pp. 29-31) draws parallels between his model and previous theories of L2 motivation. He remarks that his conceptual framework is compatible with Gardner's (2001) construct, due to the fact that the three components of the L2MSS correspond closely to the three major dimensions of this amended version of the Socio-educational Model, that is: *Integrativeness*, *Instrumentality*, and *Attitudes towards the learning situation*.

Indeed, Gardner (2001) proposes a reconceptualization of *Integrativeness* as "some sort of a psychological and emotional identification with the L2 community", which does not differ much from that proposed by Dörnyei's L2MSS. Furthermore, according to Dörnyei (2009a), the *Ideal L2 self* is very similar to the "language attitudes" factor conceptualised by Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) motivational framework, which includes integrative orientation, instrumental orientation and L2 speaker-related attitudes, and represents an expansion of Gardner's original construct.

Azarnoosh (2014) remarks that the third component of the L2MSS -*the L2 Learning Experience* - not only reflects the influence of Noels' (2003) and Ushioda's (2001) "intrinsic categories", but is also compatible with the *actional phase* described by Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process-oriented Model. Azarnoosh (2014) also agrees with Csizér and Kormos (2009) and Taguchi et al. (2009) that this aspect represents "the strongest influence on motivated behaviour" because it takes into account "situated and contextual factors" (i.e., classroom environment, L2 curriculum, teacher, peer-group, teaching materials) that play an important role in L2 learning motivational process (p. 103).

An important issue raised by Dörnyei (2009a, p. 29) is that some learners' initial motivation to learn a second language does not stem from "internally or externally generated self-images but rather from successful engagement with the actual language learning process" (Azarnoosh, 2014, p.103). Indeed, since humans are social beings, they are pressed to conform to the peer group rules and other social norms, which implies a process of internalisation of their ought-to self, resulting in various degrees of integration. In this regard, Dörnyei (2009a) explains the process of "internalisation" of the self dimensions along the *continuum* of extrinsic regulation (i.e., *External regulation*, *Introjected regulation*, *Identified regulation*, *Integrated regulation*) described by Deci and Ryan's (1985a) Self-Determination Theory.

Given the above considerations, Dörnyei (2009a) finds similarities between the two frameworks. The *Ought-to L2 Self* appear to be congruent with *Introjected regulation*, whereas the *Ideal L2 self* seems to be correlated to *Identified* and *Integrated regulation* involving the learner's personal choice that is influenced by individual attributes and values. However, Dörnyei also contends that the distinction between the *Ought-to L2 self* and the *Ideal L2 self* is not always clear as the exact boundaries between them are not always straightforward. As a matter of fact, as he concludes, it is difficult to understand whether the *Ideal L2 self* represents one's genuine dreams or its representation has been influenced by the desire to conform to the social group norms (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006, as cited in Dörnyei, 2009a, p. 14).

3.7 Empirical Studies Validating the L2MSS

Since the onset of the L2MSS, several empirical studies have been carried out in different countries over the years in order to validate Dörnyei's theoretical framework. To gain wide acceptance, this theory was firstly tested with conventional quantitative research methods in diverse learning contexts such as Hungary (Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Kormos & Csizér, 2008); Sweden (Henry, 2009, 2010); England (Busse, 2013); Saudi Arabia (Al-Shehri, 2009); China, Japan and Iran (Taguchi, et al., 2009); Japan (S. Ryan, 2009); Indonesia (M. Lamb, 2012); Pakistan (Islam, Lamb, & Chambers, 2013). All these validation studies confirmed the soundness of the overall framework.

Dörnyei (2009a) reports on some of the above investigations (Al-Shehri, 2009; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; S. Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009), which were conducted in five different countries (China, Hungary, Iran, Japan and Saudi Arabia) and involved over 6000 participants among secondary school pupils, university students and adult learners. The findings corroborate the main tenets of the L2MSS and prove that *Integrativeness* and *Ideal L2 self* are closely related. Besides, they show that the latter variable is a stronger predictor of motivated L2 learning behaviour than the former, due to the higher correlation with *Criterion Measure* (i.e., intended effort).

In line with Higgins's (1987, 1998), these studies also confirm that *Ideal L2 self* strongly correlates with *Instrumentality-promotion* dimension, whereas *Ought-to L2 self* with *Instrumentality-prevention* (Dörnyei, 2009a, p.31). Importantly, these results reveal that the promotion and the prevention patterns are independent from each other; hence, they can be

divided into two different categories, one concerning the *Ideal L2 self*, the other the *Ought-to L2 self*.

Among the above-mentioned studies, Taguchi et al.'s (2009) comparative motivational investigation requires particular attention, being especially relevant for the current investigation. Taguchi and his associates conducted a quantitative research in 2006 and 2007, involving nearly 5000 learners of English in three different Asian contexts: Japan, China and Iran. This large-scale study aimed at validating Dörnyei's L2MSS by replicating the Hungarian study (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a, 2005b; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002) and by verifying if the results obtained could be generalized to other countries.

In this investigation, Taguchi et al. (2009, p. 74) employ three different versions of a questionnaire adapted for use in the three different countries. The questionnaire design follows the procedures indicated by Dörnyei (2003b) and the main components are chosen from Dörnyei et al.'s (2006). The questionnaire comprises items regarding 10 variables: *Criterion measures* (i.e., intended effort), *Ideal L2 self*, *Ought-to L2 self*, *Family influence*, *Instrumentality-promotion*, *Instrumentality-prevention*, *Attitudes to learning English*, *Attitudes to the L2 community*, *Cultural interest* and *Integrativeness*.

Taguchi et al.'s (2009, p. 88) findings reveal the "increased explanatory power" of the *Ideal L2 self* in L2 learning contexts and confirm the validity of the tripartite framework of the L2MSS. In addition, they show that "integrativeness can be relabelled as the Ideal L2 self" and that *Instrumentality* can be classified in two distinct constructs – associated with *promotion* or *prevention*.

A considerable amount of studies have adopted the same framework, even though with different results. For example, Martinović (2018) finds that among Croatian university students *Ideal L2 self* and *Instrumentality-Promotion* variables exert a stronger influence on L2 motivation and achievement than the *Ought-to L2 self* and *Instrumental-Prevention* variables. By taking into consideration various learner differences – i.e., *L2 Study Length* and *Gender* - this investigation also shows that the length of study does not affect students' L2 motivational dispositions, whereas *gender differences* are found on various L2 motivational factors (*Intended effort*; *Instrumentality-Prevention/Ought to L2 self*; *Ideal L2 self*), including higher levels of intended effort and Prevention-focused motives among females, and higher levels of Ideal L2 self among males. Another significant finding of this study is that students with higher level of L2 achievement show a higher *Instrumentality-promotion* associated to pragmatic motives such as career success.

Claro's (2016) examines the L2 motivation of first-year engineering students in Japan in order to demonstrate the viability of Dörnyei's (2005) conceptual framework, and explore the correlations between the L2MSS variables and students' *Intended effort*. By using L2MSS questionnaire (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) with extra scales by Ryan (2008), she finds out that *Ideal L2 self toward learning English* are the strongest predictors of student *Intended learning effort*, followed by *Linguistic self-confidence* and *Integrativeness*, which were also found to be significant.

With regards to *Ought-to L2 self*, Claro (2016, p. 68) comments that this factor "is more tenuous and seems less cross-culturally robust [than the *Ideal L2 self*], depending [...] on the particular population studied". In line with a number of studies carried out in different countries (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Islam et al., 2013; Kormos, Kiddle & Csizér, 2011; Ryan, 2008; Taguchi et al., 2009) Claro's findings also demonstrate the weak correlation between *Ought-to L2 self* and *Intended learning effort*.

Most importantly, regression analysis led Claro to construct a model of L2 motivation (Fig.8), which displays the reciprocal interrelationships between *Ideal L2 self* and *Linguistic self-confidence (L2C)*³³, and between *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes toward Learning English (ATLE)*. Interestingly, in this model, the *Ideal L2 self* has not replaced *Integrativeness* as, on the contrary, other studies such as Dörnyei (2009a, 2010) and Ryan (2008) show.

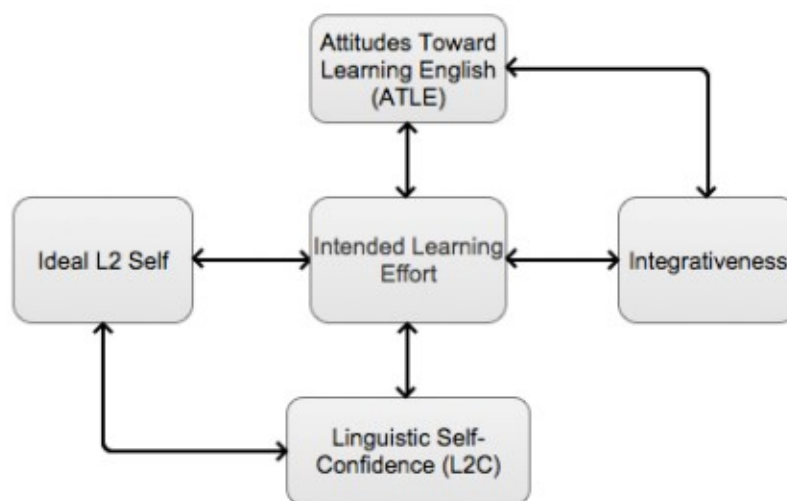


Figure 8. Claro's Model of L2 Motivation Based on Regression Analysis

Adapted from "Japanese first-year engineering students' motivation to learn English,"

by J. Claro, 2016, *Studies of Human Science*, 12, p. 88.

³³Numerous studies have previously demonstrated the important role played by *L2 Self-Confidence* in L2 learning motivation, especially in relationship to *L2 Willingness to Communicate* (eg., Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Edwards & Roger, 2015; MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998).

Syed's (2016, pp. 71-73) mixed-methods research is another significant study. It investigates the relevance of the L2MSS among 120 adolescents (aged 14-18) in a secondary school in Mauritius. In line with dynamic systems perspectives of L2 motivation such as Miur and Dörnyei (2013), his findings highlight how L2 motivational "factors are inextricably intertwined, each influencing one another, resulting in numerous interferences. Firstly, Syed demonstrates that *Ought-to L2 self* and *Ideal L2 self* are powerful predictors of L2 motivation, shaping L2 identities. Secondly, he proves that these factors are complementary and interrelated - though literature suggests that they are distinct - and that they "should be in harmony" so that to enhance L2 learner motivation. Lastly, Syed's (2016, p. 59) findings highlight that *Ought-to L2 self* encompasses *Instrumentality-Prevention* factor and that *Ideal L2 self*, *Instrumentality-Prevention*, *Attitudes to English language leaning*, *Cultural interest* are the strongest predictors of learner intended effort.

It is finally worth noticing that there has been a considerable amount of research focusing on numerous aspects of the L2 Motivational Self System. In the coming pages, I will, therefore, devote particular attention to a number of longitudinal studies within Dörnyei's conceptual framework, foregrounding those aspects I consider relevant to the present investigation, such as how L2 motivation changes in the long-term and across different school stages.

3.8 The Dynamic Dimension of L2 Motivation in the L2 Classroom

Over the last decade, there has been a growing number of works demonstrating that, by adopting a dynamic perspective, it is possible to gain new understandings of the motivation process occurring in the L2 classroom. For example, Pawlak's (2012) classroom-based study explores how motivational intensity changes over time, during a language lesson or a number of classroom activities/tasks. By means of observations, questionnaires and interviews of 28 senior high school students of English over a period of 4 weeks, this investigation gains insights into a number of motives responsible for fluctuations in the intensity of L2 motivation.

Pawlak (2012) uses a questionnaire based on prior studies conducted by Ryan (2005), Taguchi et al. (2009), and Csizér and Kormos (2009), which refer to the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009a). The questionnaire measures the participants' motives for learning English: *effort* and *persistence*; students' perceptions of themselves as successful L2 speakers (i.e., *Ideal L2 self*); students' perceptions of themselves according to significant others' opinions (i.e., *Ought-to*

L2 self); *family influence*; *L2 learning experience*; *instrumentality*; *knowledge orientation*; *international posture*.

Pawlak's (2012, p. 252) findings reveal that motivational intensity fluctuates on a minute-to-minute basis, even though the reasons for learning remain relatively steady. Finally, by focusing on the temporal dimension of L2 motivation, this study is in line with the main tenets of dynamic system theories (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a), which view the various components of L2 student motivation in continuous interaction and subject to variation over time under the influence of external and internal factors.

As MacIntyre and Serroul (2015, p. 109) maintain, examining L2 motivation from a dynamic perspective, however, involves "a number of conceptual and methodological challenges", which scholars have attempted to tackle in various ways (see also Chapter Four of this dissertation). Thus, they attempt to capture the fluctuations of L2 motivation as it unfolds moment-by-moment within a set of L2 communicative tasks. To this purpose, they employ the *idiodynamic method*, a novel mixed-methods methodology recently developed by MacIntyre & Legatto (2011), which allow them to explore learners' affective reactions to the tasks, implicating approach and avoidance motivation, perceived L2 competence, L2 anxiety and L2 Willingness to Communicate.

3.9 The Long-Term Process of L2 Motivation: Longitudinal Studies within the L2MSS.

As L2 motivation changes over time under the influence of multifarious variables, some researchers investigate the attitudinal/motivational basis of L2 learning within the L2MSS, and highlight the dynamic nature of motivation across time. Campbell and Storch (2011), for instance, carried out a longitudinal study in order to examine learners' motivation to learn Chinese as a second language. Data were collected by conducting interviews with university students at different year levels, over the course of a semester. By relating to both past students' L2 experience and personal goals, the research questions aimed at investigating what factors shaped choice to study a particular L2, how motivation changed over time and what factors influenced ongoing (executive) motivation.

Campbell and Storch findings demonstrate that factors related to the *L2 learning experience* are the most important aspects affecting both L2 motivation and demotivation. Yet, they also show that when students have a clear future self images as L2 speakers, the

same environmental factors are no longer capable of demotivating them because of the guiding and powerful force of their *Ideal L2 self*.

Azarnoosh (2014)'s findings³⁴ are also worth mentioning. This researcher examines the variations of Iranian students' L2 motivation in the long-term process of learning a second language in order to identify significant differences between junior high and high schools about motivational/attitudinal factors, and to explain how motivational factors may predict learners' motivated behaviour. Her findings show that junior high school students have a higher motivational disposition than high school students, except for their attitudes towards the L2 community, and that attitudes towards L2 learning is the best predictor of L2 motivated behaviour in both group of students. Although Azarnoosh (2014) confirms other research findings in various linguistic contexts,³⁵ demonstrating that motivational/attitudinal factors decline with age because of the compulsory nature of L2 learning, other researchers come to different conclusions.

For example, Papi and Teimouri's (2012) investigation, conducted in Iran across three different educational stages (secondary school, high school, and university), reveals that motivational/attitudinal variables with a promotion-focus (i.e., *Ideal L2 self*, *L2 learning experience*, *Instrumentality-promotion*, *Attitudes towards L2 culture and community*) generally improve with age up to the university stage, whereas the variables with a preventional regulatory focus (i.e., *Ought-to L2 self*, *Family influence*, *Instrumentality-prevention*) decline with age.

Azarnoosh ascribes the different results of the two studies to the different socio-educational contexts which significantly affect the learner's identity and motivational dispositions and, in particular, to the fact that the participants in Papi and Teimouri's (2012) research benefited from extra private language learning experience in addition to their regular school classes. Most importantly, Azarnoosh's (2014) study provides Dörnyei's theory with more evidential validity by emphasizing the motivational relevance of the *L2 learning experience* (i.e., the immediate learning environment), of the *significant others* (peers and family) and of the learners' *Ideal L2 self* in increasing intended effort and shaping motivated learning behaviour.

³⁴ This investigation has already been mentioned in Section 2.5.2.6 of the current study to highlight similarities between the L2MSS and other motivational theories.

³⁵ Azarnoosh (2014, p. 103) refers to the studies conducted in England (Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002), Canada (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2002), Hungary (Dörnyei et al., 2006), Indonesia (Lamb, 2007), Sweden (Henry, 2009) and Japan (Koizumi & Matsuo, 1993).

Kormos and Csizér's (2008) longitudinal study have come to different results. They conducted their research in Hungary, involving 623 learners of English as a foreign language in three different contexts: secondary school, university and adult education. Their findings reveal that the main factors affecting students' L2 motivation across the three stages were *Language learning attitudes* and *Ideal L2 self*. Most noteworthy, they report higher level of *Ideal L2 self* among university students than among secondary school students, due to the fact that university students consider language learning to be more important in their lives than younger students.

M. Lamb (2011, p. 5) examines the "fluctuating and contingent nature" of L2 motivation in a mixed-method longitudinal study conducted in Sumatra in two subsequent periods (2002-4 and 2008), which involved the same students of English as a foreign language. When M. Lamb started his research in 2002, students were in the first two years of junior high school (aged from 11-12 to 13-14); later, in 2008, the same students (aged 17-18) were in the last year of high school or the first year of university. During the interviews, the students talked about their futures at different points in time and their personal investment in learning English over time.

M. Lamb's findings show that students's *Ideal L2 self* and autonomous learning behaviour increase in the last stages of high school, and that their *Ought-to L2 self* loses motivational power in the long term, as also predicted by Dörnyei (2009a, as cited in M. Lamb, 2011, p. 21). However, M. Lamb also argues that there is no sufficient evidence in literature about when the *Ideal L2 self* really develops and influences L2 motivation and, hence, there is a need for larger scale investigations on this matter, even though some studies (eg., Zenter & Renaud, 2007) claim that "stable ideal-self representations do not emerge before adolescence, and that therefore the self approach may not be appropriate for pre-secondary students" (as cited in M. Lamb, 2011, p. 21).

Jiang and Dewaele (2015, pp. 16-18) explore the dynamic features of L2 motivation of 88 university students of English in a Chinese context over a one-year period. This study aims at investigating the non-linear variations in the students' *Ideal L2 self* and *Ought-to L2 self* at three different time points. In particular, they take into account the situational complexity of the L2 learning process: the interrelated mechanisms of L2 selves and their relationships with various motivational factors (i.e., the immediate learning contexts, parental influence, personal learning orientations and goals) at different levels and at various times. Interestingly, Jiang and Dewaele argue that the false impression of stability is strongly influenced by the use of

bar charts with means and standard deviations in conventional statistical analysis. Therefore, they suggest that a different type of figures such as bubble graphs be more useful to give “the reader a better impression of the amount of turbulence in the data”.

It is worth noting that over the last decade, in the same vein there has been a growing interest in examining the concept of L2 motivation as a process, dependent on multifarious contextually situated factors. This has recently led to the reformulation of this construct from a complex dynamic systems perspective (Dörnyei, MacIntyre, & Henry, 2015; Kimura, 2014; Mercer, 2015a; Nitta & Baba, 2015; Ryan & Irie, 2014; Ushioda, 2015), as we can see in detail in the following chapter of this dissertation.

On a final note, in the coming section, we will review other salient research findings within the L2MSS, which have contributed to a better insight into L2 motivation and updated the research agenda over the last years.

3.10 Expanding the L2 MSS: New Insights into L2 Motivation

A number of recent self-based studies have emphasized the role of L2MSS to interpret student L2 motivation in relationship with various factors, such as affective variables (eg., L2 anxiety)³⁶, self-efficacy beliefs and learner’s autonomous behaviour.

Papi (2010), for instance, examines a theoretical model that subsumes the three main constituents of Dörnyei’s (2005, 2009a) L2MSS (i.e., *Ideal L2 self*, *Ought-to L2 self*, and *L2 learning experience*) in relationship with *L2 anxiety* and *intended effort*. In order to analyze the proposed model, a questionnaire specifically developed for the Iranian context was administered among 1011 Iranian high school students. On the one hand, Papi’s findings confirm the validity of Dörnyei’s tripartite motivational construct and demonstrate that all the three components have a significant impact on *intended effort*. On the other hand, however, they show that the three aspects of the model have a different influence on *L2 anxiety*: *Ideal L2 self* and *L2 learning experience* decreased students’ *L2 anxiety* whereas *Ought-to L2 self* significantly increased the same variable.

³⁶ Over the last four decades, numerous studies have focused different aspects of the impact of *L2 anxiety* on L2 learning motivation from diverse perspectives (eg., Altan, 2006; Bailey, Onwuegbuzie, & Daley, 1999; Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Cambell & Shaw, 1994; Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009; Horwitz, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Liu & Jackson, 2008; MacIntyre, 1995, 2007; Mahmoodzadeh, 2013; Peacock, 2001; Teimouri, Goetze, & Plonsky, 2018). Furthermore, investigations into *Gender differences* in *L2 anxiety* (eg., Abu-Rabia, 2004; Campbell & Shaw, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Marzec-Stawiarska, 2014; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Park & French, 2013; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008) have come to inconsistent results.

Thus, Papi (2010) concludes that *L2 anxiety* is closely related to the motivational regulation inherent in the students' motivational self system, on the ground that self-internalized imaginary view of one's future L2 self (*Ideal L2 self*) and less internalized images that fulfil others' expectations (*Ought-to L2 self*) seem to have a different impact on ones' emotional state, including L2 anxiety. Finally, Papi concludes that these findings have important educational implications as they highlight the importance of employing effective teaching strategies in order to promote L2 learners' motivation and diminish their anxiety.

Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) explain that, due to the advances in technology and the integration of ICT in the L2 learning environment, learning a foreign language is becoming more and more personalised as learners can now engage in learning with greater independence. Therefore, according to these scholars, it is essential to promote learners' autonomy, supported by *self-efficacy* and *Ideal L2 self*, in language teaching. As these scholars report, recent research in the domain of the L2MSS has been characterized by a dual purpose: 1) validating the L2MSS in diverse L2 learning contexts (eg., Al-Shehri, 2009; Kim, 2009; S. Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009), and 2) exploring a number of interrelated variables affecting L2 motivation. As to the second objective, a number of studies have been in particular concerned with the relationships between affective variables (i.e., L2 anxiety; self-oriented beliefs such as self-efficacy) and the basic components of Dörnyei's model, and have attempted to explore the effects of the interplay of these variables upon L2 learner's autonomy. Some of these attempts have led researchers to propose new extended frameworks of the L2MSS.

Other attempts in this direction have led researchers to propose new extended frameworks of the L2MSS. Kormos et al. (2011), for instance, propose an extended version of the L2MSS, consisting of a new interactive model of L2 motivation, which integrates various components: goals, attitudes, self-efficacy beliefs and future self-guides.

In this respect, Ueki and Takeuchi's (2013) research represents a significant example. These scholars propose an extended motivational framework in which factors such as *Self-efficacy*, *Agency*, *Ideal L2 self* and *Motivated learning behaviour* are tightly related. In their study they present a number of relevant findings related to the above motivational factors, some of which are worth mentioning in the current dissertation. For example, as regards to learner's level of anxiety and autonomous behaviour, they highlight that the lack of clear ideal self-images may impede learners from regulating their motivational behaviour and learning process, which can cause high levels of *L2 anxiety*. By contrast, learners with vivid and

elaborated ideal L2 self-images are more engaged in L2 learning behaviour because they can better estimate the amount of effort needed to reduce the discrepancy between the current self and the ideal self and, therefore, regulate themselves in order to reach positive outcomes.

Another important point highlighted by Ueki and Takeuchi's (2013) is that promotion-focused variables such as the *Ideal L2 self* are likely to promote learners' motivated behaviour and autonomous learning, whereas prevention-focused variables such *Ought-to L2 self* tend to hinder autonomous L2 learning. On the one hand - in line with a other of research findings (Carver & Scheier, 1990; Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994) - Ueki and Takeuchi (2013, p. 15) recognize the high motivational valence of prevention-focused variables such as others' influence and *Ought-to L2 self*, due to the fact that these factors are related to the level of instrumentality involved in L2 learning. On the other hand, they also contend that - unlike the *Ideal L2 self* - these variables do not promote active and autonomous learning because learners' motive is primarily to avoid negative end-states rather than to achieve desired and positive outcomes.

Most recently, Roshandel, Ghonsooly and Ghanizadeh (2018) have demonstrated that the L2MSS framework can be employed to explore the relationship between L2 motivation and *self-efficacy*. Based especially on Dörnyei's L2MSS and Bandura (1994)'s Self-efficacy Theory³⁷, these scholars investigate the effects of ten sub-factors of the L2MSS (i.e., *Criterion measures*, *Ideal L2 self*, *Ought-to L2 self*, *Family influence*, *Instrumentality-promotion*, *Instrumentality-prevention*, *Attitudes to learning English*, *Attitudes to L2 community*, *Cultural interest*, *Integrativeness*) on student *self-efficacy*. Roshandel et al. (2018, p. 339)'s findings reveal that all the subcomponents of L2 motivation positively and significantly predict student self-efficacy. Most importantly, correlational analysis results display that *Criterion measures* (i.e., language choice and intended effort), *Attitudes towards learning English*, *Instrumentality-promotion*, and *Ideal L2 self* are the most powerful predictors of *self-efficacy*.

In the last decade there has also been an extensive body of literature investigating on the interrelations between *learner autonomy* and L2 motivation, or the connections between these two complex variables and learner identity (eg., T. E. Lamb, 2011; Murray, Gao & Lamb,

³⁷Bandura's (1977, 1994) Social Cognitive Theory stresses the influential role of *self-efficacy beliefs* on human behaviour. In particular, as this scholar demonstrates, such beliefs affect student effort and resilience to adversity. Further relevant findings indicate the strong influence of self-efficacy on learners' persistence (eg., Schunk, 1981, 2003; Zimmerman, 2003) and academic achievement (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Dörnyei, 2001a; Ehrman, 1996; Pajares & Urdan, 2006).

2011). These studies have contributed to expanding the L2MSS by raising new questions and opening new areas of investigation.

In particular, T. E. Lamb (2011) is a noteworthy contribution, as he explores the relationship between learner autonomy, motivation and identity through young learners' voices in a UK context. This scholar carried out a learner-focused qualitative research in a Yorkshire (England) secondary school, involving six students of French and covering a two-year period. His findings emphasize that the learner autonomy and agency are conducive factors to the development of L2 learner motivation and they are closely related to the learner identity. They also highlight that L2 motivation is potentially compromised when learner identity is challenged by an increase of teacher control in response to the external pressure of an inflexible curriculum, excessive testing and high-stakes examinations. Another important point of T. E. Lamb (2011)'s study is that identity, motivation and autonomy are subject to change over time as "they depend on the context and they are socially mediated" (pp.76-77).

Along these lines, this study highlights the relevance of the educational environment and contains important implications for teachers, who should enable students to be more responsible for and have more control on their own learning process through the acquisition of both cognitive and metacognitive self-regulation strategies, which will affect their L2 motivation as well.

3.11 Rethinking the L2MSS: From Conceptual and Operational Issues to New Insights into the L2 Self-Guides

As already said before, once researchers had verified the soundness of the overall L2MSS, they also attempted to refine the theory and to explore a number of issues. As many scholars were especially concerned with the validation of the *Ideal L2 self* and *Ought-to L2 self* constructs, I will, therefore, address the most recent developments in L2 research with a specific focus on the psychological constituents of the L2MSS.

As pointed out by Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, p. 91), virtually all validation studies on the L2MSS during the last decade (2005-2014) supported the confirmatory power of the model, with the *L2 Ideal self*, in particular, seen as a strong predictor of *motivated behaviour* and *effort*. However, even though many studies have shown a statistically significant correlation of *Ideal L2 self* with *L2 achievement* (eg., Dörnyei & Chan, 2013), a number of studies have demonstrated an irrelevant impact of this construct on learner

motivated behaviour (eg., Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012), *L2 proficiency* (M. Lamb, 2012) and *academic achievement* (eg., Kim & Kim, 2011).

Conversely, the *Ought-to L2 self* has remained a questionable construct with a limited motivational capacity. Many scholars (eg., Al-Hoorie, 2018, pp. 723-724; Papi, Bondarenko, Mansouri, Feng, & Jiang, 2018, p. 2) agree with Dörnyei and Chan's (2013, p. 454) that, even though this variable has been found to correlate positively with *intended effort*, "in many language contexts[it lacks] the energizing force to make a difference in actual motivational learner behaviour". Hence, the *Ought-to L2 self* does not affect actual course grades (i.e. L2 academic achievement) significantly.

In line with Higgins (1987), other studies (eg., Papi et al., 2018) highlight that not every learner is motivated by the *Ideal L2 self*. In fact, their self-regulatory behaviour may just be guided by the *Ought-to self*, as also Dörnyei (2005, 2009a) maintains. Besides, as demonstrated by a number of studies (Apple & Da Silva, 2016; Lee, Aaker, & Gardner, 2000), in some collectivist cultures, *Ought-to L2 self* guide has been found to be a stronger predictor of motivational behaviour than *Ideal L2 self* (as cited in Papi et al., 2018, p. 3).

In response to the issues regarding the *Ought-to L2 self* construct, Teimouri (2017, p. 681), proposes a new conceptualization of the *Ideal L2 self* and *Ought-to L2 self*, in which each construct incorporates two different standpoints: *own* and *other*. This represents a "trichotomous model of L2 selves: *Ideal L2 self*; *Ought-to L2 self/own*, and *Ought-to L2 self/others*" – which implies different motivational profiles.

According to Papi et al. (2018), however, Teimouri (2017) failed to provide strong evidence of the validity of the *Ought-to L2 self* because he did not fully address the standpoints and regulatory distinctions in the operationalization of the *Ideal self* and *Ought-to self* constructs. In particular, Teimouri did not take sufficient account of the qualitative differences in the strategic means learners use in their goal pursuit, which represents the key premise in Higgins' (1997) s Regulatory focus theory. Papi et al. (2018) address the same criticism to previous L2 motivation:

[L]ack of adequate attention to regulatory distinctions and prevention-related motives has resulted in the dominance of promotion-focused constructs in L2 motivation research. This has been the case in major theories of L2 motivation ranging from Gardner's theory (1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) to more recent ones such as Dörnyei's L2MSS (2005, 2009). Research on L2 motivation, therefore, needs to adopt a broader scope to include a wider range of motives with different regulatory orientation (p. 20).

Thus, based on Higgins' (1987) Self-discrepancy Theory and Regulatory-focus Theory (1997), Papi et al. (2018) propose a revision of the self-guides outlined in the L2MSS and formulate a new model - the "2x2 Model"-in which the *Ideal L2 self* and *Ought-to L2 self* are bifurcated by *own* and *other* standpoints (Fig. 9).

Papi et al. (2018) explain the qualitative differences in the strategic means learners use in learning a second language by drawing on Higgins' Regulatory-focus Theory (1997). According to this theory, learners are motivated by different self-guides (which represent different regulatory orientations)and, therefore, manifest qualitative differences in the use of strategic inclinations to pursue their goals. To be more specific, learners can use two different types of strategies: *eager* and *vigilant*. *Eager strategies* have a promotion-focus, aiming at maximizing gains by taking advantage of positive outcomes; *vigilant strategies* have a prevention-focus, aiming at minimizing losses by avoiding those choices that may lead to negative outcomes. Thus, in the *2x2 Model*, the "promotion self-guides" (i.e., *Ideal L2 self/own* and *Ideal L2 self/other*) are likely to predict an *eager strategic inclination*, whereas the "prevention self-guides" (i.e., *Ought-to L2 self/own*; *Ought-to L2 self/other*) are expected to predict a *vigilant strategic inclination* (Papi et al., 2018, pp. 8-9).

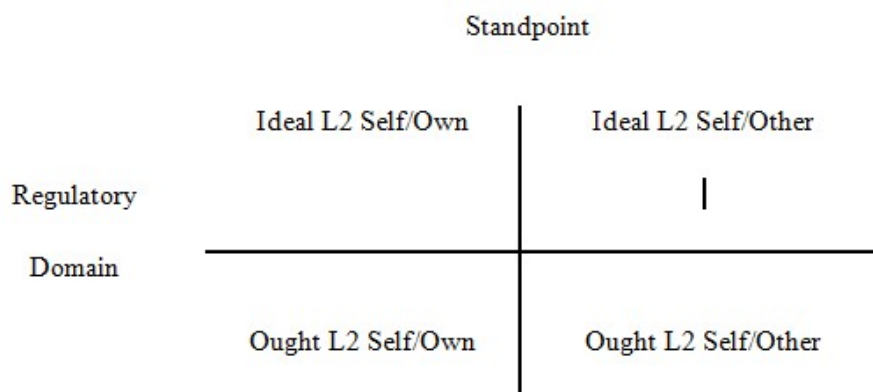


Figure 9. The 2x2 Model of L2 Self-Guides

Adapted from "Rethinking L2 motivation research: The 2x2 model of L2 self-guides," by M. Papi et al., 2018, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1, p. 9.

In contrast to earlier L2MSS studies, which found *Ideal L2 self* to be the strongest predictor of motivated learning behaviour, Papi et al.'s (2018) findings confirm that everyone of the four self-guides involved in the *2x2 Model* is as a significant predictor of L2 motivation. In addition, the *Ought-to L2 self/own*, in this study, emerges as the stongest

predictor of L2 motivated behaviour. These results confirm the validity of our Papi et al.'s main assumption that "if conceptualized and operationalized accurately, the ought self-guides can also be major motivators" (p. 17).

However, the above findings do not imply that ought-to L2 self guides can be regarded as the strongest predictors of motivation in every L2 learning context. In fact, as suggested by Papi et al. (2018), the result related to Ought-to self/own can be explained with reference to the particular learning setting of their investigation, in which students expected negative academic outcomes because of the lack of proficiency in English.

Another important issue, highlighted by Papi and his associates, regards *intended effort*, as conceived by previous studies such as Taguchi et al. (2009). These scholars contend that, due to its "hypothetical nature" and "promotion bias" caused by the respondents' optimism, this variable cannot be considered as a reliable predictor of the actual learner's motivated behaviour as suggested previously. On the contrary, they propose a new scale with no regulatory bias, and pertinent to the learner current effort (Papi et al. 2018, p. 16).

Thompson and Vásquez (2015) also argue that the L2MSS theoretical framework needs further development. These authors assume that Dörnyei's theoretical paradigm of L2 motivation underemphasized the relationship between "I" and "other" dimensions (a distinction that is fundamental in Higgins' Self Discrepancy Theory) and, consequently, downplayed the interactions between the self and the context in shaping L2 learning motivation. Inspired by Brehm's (1966) psychological reactance, Thompson and Vásquez, therefore, propose an additional dimension to the psychological components of the L2 MSS - the *Anti-ought-to self* – which refers to a future self-guide that is in conflict with the external/social pressure demand.

More recently, the *Anti-ought-to self* component of L2 motivation has also emerged as an important L2 motivational factor from further studies conducted in various L2 contexts: in China (Liu & Thompson, 2018; Thompson & Liu, 2018); among Saudi abroad students (Alharbi, 2017); in the United States (Thompson, 2017a, b). Moreover, this dimension has become especially relevant for those investigations conducted in LOTE (i.e. Language Other than Global English) contexts. In this respect, the *Anti-ought-to self*-guide plays a prominent role in L2 learning motivation, especially with learners high in reactance, as Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) point out:

Since in almost all cases learning English is societally valued and institutionally encouraged far more than LOTEs, some people high in reactance may (perhaps unconsciously) resist learning

it, while some others might ‘fall in love’ with a LOTE that is not encouraged, or even explicitly discouraged, by authority figures(p. 461).

Along these lines, Lanvers (2016a, 2017a) also postulates the existence of the *Rebellious self*, a construct that it’s similar to Thompson and Vásquez’s *Anti-ought-to self*. Interestingly, Lanvers’s (2016a, 2017a) conceptualization of the *other* and *own* standpoints, including *resistance/rebellion* against *others*, is particularly pertinent to the UK context. By drawing on Higgins’ Self Discrepancy theory and Busse’s (2010, 2013) expanded L2 Motivation System, Lanvers (2017a) proposes a new theoretical framework of L2 motivation, which befits the current situation of learning foreign languages in the UK. According to her model, UK students with a highly developed *own ideal* manifest *resistance* or *rebellion* against numerous negative *other* influences (eg. social milieu, parents, peers, Brexit influence) operating at different contextual (macro, meso, micro) levels and subject to change.

3.12 Towards a Reconceptualization of the L2 Learning Experience, the “Cinderella” of the L2MSS

Even though the *L2 learning experience* has been considered as the third major dimension of the L2MSS since the beginning, this component has remained “undertheorized” over the years, as reported in a number of studies (eg., Dörnyei, 2019, p. 19; Hiver et al., 2019, p. 88; M. Lamb, 2017, p. 20; Ushioda, 2014, p. 134). Notwithstanding an upsurge of research has evidenced its relevance, consistently demonstrating its strong correlation with various criterion measures and motivated behaviour (Dörnyei, 2019, p. 22)³⁸, however, more emphasis has been put on the other two main dimensions of the L2MSS (the *Ideal L2 self* and *Ought-to L2 self*). Moreover, to date, there has been little research on the interactions between this construct and the two future self-guides (M. Lamb, 2017; Ushioda, 2014).

Such considerations have led many L2 motivation researchers to conclude that a more accurate analysis of this issue be necessary and to make aspects of L2 pedagogy their main focus of investigation (M. Lamb, 2017, p. 5). As a result, recently there have been several attempts to shed light on situation-specific, “executive” motives related to the learner actual learning environment/experience such as instructional settings and practices, the curriculum,

³⁸As highlighted by Dörnyei (2019), the *L2 learning experience* has emerged as the most powerful predictor of motivated behaviour from various studies (eg., Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Islam et al., 2013; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Papi, 2010; Papi & Teimouri, 2012; Taguchi et al., 2009).

the peer group, and the learner engagement and experience of success, teacher role in promoting motivation.

Dörnyei (2019), for example, proposes a new approach to the study of the *L2 learning experience*, by overcoming a number of issues surrounding its conceptualization and operationalization. He explains the reasons why the growing interest in the motivational potential of the self-guides has prevailed over the need to refine the *L2 learning experience* construct, and why this dimension has been neglected to the point of becoming the “Cinderella” of the L2MSS over the past decade. In sum, Dörnyei (2019) argues that this construct is not rooted in the same well-established theoretical tradition as the other two components of the L2MSS. Unlike the *Ideal L2 self* and *Ought-to L2 self*, “its unspecified theoretical nature” has not made it possible to incorporate it into broader theories such as *Directed Motivational Currents*, allowing further developments in this field (pp. 20-23).

Another issue raised by Dörnyei (2019, p. 23) concerns the actual measurement of the *L2 learning experience*. As, in several studies (eg., You et al., 2016; You & Dörnyei, 2016; Taguchi, 2013; Taguchi et al., 2009), the *L2 learning experience* was referred to as “Attitudes to L2 learning” - due to the overlap in the scales used to measure the concept— Dörnyei (2019) claims for a reconceptualization of the construct involving “a theoretical organizing principle that would allow for a more specific and elaborate measurement focus”.

Dörnyei (2019, p. 25) therefore proposes a refinement of the *L2 learning experience* construct adopting an “engagement-specific perspective”. This approach refers to “student engagement” (i.e., an active and meaningful learner participation in the L2 learning process) as a prerequisite for any L2 learning success. Within this perspective, the *L2 learning experience* is reconceptualized as “the perceived quality of the learners’ engagement with various aspects of the language learning process”, encompassing aspects of the learner L2 learning process and the L2 learning environment/experience (i.e., school context; syllabus and the teaching materials; learning tasks; peers and teacher).

As Dörnyei (2019, p. 27) finally points out, the adoption of an “engagement-centered approach” to better understand the situated *L2 learning experience* allows researchers to use established assessment/measurement instruments developed in educational psychology. It may also help identify new avenues for future research to relate learner actual engagement to their future aspirations.

After a careful analysis, we can assume that Dörnyei’s concerns seem to resonate with earlier studies within *engagement research*, which aimed at understanding the

developmental process underlying adolescent students' demotivation and dropping out of school, by addressing the characteristics of the individual learner or institution related to their dropout decision (Blumenfield et al. 2005; Christenson et al., 2008; Christenson, Reschly, & Wyley, 2012; Connell, Spencer, & Aber, 1994; Finn, 1989, 2006).

There is indeed a wide consensus among researchers about the positive correlation between caring and supportive interpersonal relationships in school on student's *engagement* and improved academic performance, behaviour and attendance. As key findings have also shown that pupils become more disengaged from school as they progress from primary to secondary school (eg., Eccles et al., 1993; Marks, 2000; McDermott, Mordell, & Stolfus, 2001), engaging students in their own learning has challenged school policymakers, educators and scholars for decades. As a result, many scholars have studied the construct of *engagement* in various ways. Connell and colleagues' investigations (Connell & Wellborn, 1991, 1994; Skinner, Wellborn, & Connell, 1990; Skinner, Zimmer-Gembeck, & Connell, 1998, as cited in Klem & Connell, 2004, p. 263), for example, are noteworthy as they explore the causes and effects of engagement, and define and measure two forms of engagement: *ongoing engagement* - encompassing behavioural processes, cognitive and emotional components - and *reaction to challenge* - i.e., students' adaptive coping strategies such as effort, strategic thinking, problem-solving, when coping with the challenge of perceived failure in school accompanied with negative emotions.

As pointed out by Stefánsson (2017, p. 37), a clear interpretation of learner *engagement* has been provided by the Self-Determination Theory (Jang, Kim, & Reeve, 2016; Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012), which emphasizes the important role of student's "need for agency" in developing school engagement and in "increasing the probability of positive change". In particular, Stefánsson (2017) draws on Skinner and Pitzer's (2012) *Model of Motivational Dynamics* (MMD) grounded in Self-Determination theory in order to specify motivational trajectories that may promote student engagement and autonomy, on the one hand, and shape student behaviour to cope with learning challenges and failure, on the other hand.

In order to contribute to current understanding of the *L2 learning experience* in L2 motivation research, it is finally worth noting that many researchers have recently adopted research designs aligned with situated and complex dynamic systems (CDST) perspectives which have "the unique power of pushing our thinking in new directions" (Hiver et al., 2019, pp. 89-90).

3.13 A Surge of Research Output on the L2MSS: The Emergence of New Strands in L2 Motivation Research

Since its first appearance in Dörnyei (2005), the L2MSS has become the most influential theory in L2 motivation research (Boo, Dörnyei, and Ryan, 2015), generating “an exceptional wave of interest with literally hundreds of studies appearing worldwide” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 91). Indeed, the surge of L2 research output within the L2MSS, has led some researchers (Al-Hoorie, 2018; Boo et al., 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) to publish comprehensive surveys or anthologies of the most relevant studies within the L2MSS, in which they examine the impact of this theory on the overall L2 research field.

Boo et al. (2015), in particular, ascribe the unprecedented surge³⁹ of research interest in the L2MSS to its flexibility and versatility, as this paradigm is able to integrate diverse theoretical strands. Al-Hoorie (2018) reports the first meta-analysis⁴⁰ of the L2MSS, which has provided a rigorous evaluation of the theory and highlighted future directions in L2 motivations research. In particular, he draws attention on a number of issues in recent literature which need further investigation: 1) the need to shed light on diverse criterion measures other than intended effort; 2) the lack of sufficient attention to relevant learner characteristics (eg., gender and age); 3) the applicability of the framework to research contexts where the target language is other than English (LOTE).

Most importantly, Al-Hoorie (2018) concludes his meta-analysis by drawing attention to the overriding need of supporting the numerous pedagogical implications, which have emerged from the vast majority of studies in the L2 motivation field, with experimental research:

Without experimental research to support such pedagogical recommendations, this practice may be at best misleading, and at worst damaging to the field. However, overcoming the various logistics involved in conducting experimental research – whether inside or outside the classroom – would eventually lead to a science that is more instructive to classroom practice and to language learning in general (p. 742).

³⁹These scholars report a total of 416 journal articles and book chapters adopting the L2MSS framework, published between 2005 and 2014.

⁴⁰Al-Hoorie reviews a total of 32 research reports, involving 32,000 language learners.

4 Overview of Recent Developments and Emerging Trends in L2 Motivation Research

According to Dörnyei and Ryan's (2015, pp. 89-90) historical analysis, past L2 motivation research represented "an area of research that used to be 'owned' by a small research community". However, over the last decade, it "has opened up and expanded to the scale whether it can almost be considered a field in its own right". These authors argue that three main reasons justify the increase of research output in this field over the last years:

1. The fact that L2 motivation has provided important pedagogical and practical implications for class-room oriented research, representing an interface between theory and practice;
2. The fact that the upsurge of research has occurred in concomitance with the proliferation of empirical studies related to the L2MSS;
3. The shift towards qualitative methods, enabled by the growing interest in theoretical perspectives focused on "self and identity" in language learning.

As reported by Dörnyei and Ryan's (2015) survey, in the decade 2005-2014, qualitative and mixed-methods studies have reached the amount of 50% of all publications in this field. As regards the pre-existing L2 motivation theoretical approaches, moreover, L2 self-oriented perspectives represent less than half of the entire research output across the decade. Gardner's Socio-educational Model has lost its dominant position but still continues to attract scholarly attention as well as Self-determination Theory, which shows a steady rate of growth.

Focusing, in particular, on the current developments of research in this field, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), moreover, identify two new trends in L2 motivation research: 1) studies exploring imagination and vision in L2 learning motivation and 2) studies investigating L2 motivation dynamics. Indeed, as Boo et al. (2015) point out, the growing emphasis on the dynamic nature of L2 motivation and its temporal variation has been emphasized as the most important development of the current phase of research by many researchers. This line of inquiry has led to reshape the L2 motivation construct through the lens of Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST).

As highlighted by Sugita McEown, Noels and Chaffee (2014, p. 34), even though the Self-Determination Theory and the L2MSS have explicitly adopted a dynamic framework involving a temporal variation, they have simply represented the motivational process as "a

static snapshot”. These scholars ascribe this limitation to the relative absence in L2 motivation literature of studies with longitudinal designs, which, on the contrary, would enable scholars to gain a greater understanding of developmental pathways across the language courses temporal axis and even the life-span.

Likewise, on discussing *possible self-guides* within the L2MSS, Henry (2015, pp. 114-126) highlights that L2 self-guides (especially the *Ideal L2 self*) have been widely recognized by scholars for their high motivational valence. Nevertheless, these dimensions tend to be viewed as “photographic stills rather than moving pictures”, and risk being conceptualized as “static constructs, fixed ‘targets’ that the individual strives to achieve”. Henry concludes that, therefore, this conceptualization does not fit easily with the current trend of L2 motivation research (i.e., CDST), which views them within a dynamic perspective.

Other commentators (eg., Al-Hoorie, 2017; Boo et al., 2015; R.M. Ryan & Legate, 2012) highlight the emergence of studies exploring the “subconscious dimension” of L2 motivation, which holds significant potential for contributing to further developments in L2 motivation research, as Al-Hoorie (2017) writes:

The language motivation field has also reached a level of maturity that allows it to start exploring issues related to unconscious motivation and to catch up with other SLA subdisciplines where unconscious processes have become a stable topic of investigation (p. 5).

In this regard, Boo et al. (2015) maintain that studies focused on language globalization have created breeding ground for exploring this potentially prolific area of inquiry.

Importantly, in his historical analysis of sixty years of L2 motivation research, Al-Hoorie (2017) identifies other relevant themes characterizing the Current Period: *affect and emotions; long-term motivation; Languages other than English (LOTEs); technology and motivation*. Given the amount of recent output in L2 motivation research, trying to provide a detailed overview of the current developments in this field may, therefore, prove a daunting task. Moreover, as Al-Hoorie (2017) argues, due to the multiple trends emerging in this period it is difficult to give this phase “a single monolithic title” as “[s]uch titles usually emerge in retrospect, especially when the field is ready to move to a new phase” (p.3).

In light of the above, in the coming pages, we will address some of the most significant findings, which represent the most relevant developments within the major strands of L2 motivation research in the Current Period. In particular, we will deal with three major

areas of inquiry, that is: 1) *Complex dynamic systems perspectives*; 2) *Imagination and vision*; 3) *Self and identity in L2 motivation research*.

4.1 Complex Dynamic Systems Approach to L2 Motivation

Over the last decade, a new L2 motivation research paradigm has been developed under the influence of nonlinear system dynamics, which has also affected Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research. This new approach has generally been referred to as *Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST)* – an umbrella term encompassing a number of prominent theories: *Chaos Theory* (Larsen-Freeman, 1997b), *Complexity Theory* (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a, 2008b; Larsen-Freeman, 2012a, 2012b), *Dynamic Systems Theory* (de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007), and *Emergentism* (Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006).

A considerable amount of research has recently used *Complex Dynamic Systems Theory* as an effective theoretical paradigm to account for the complex dynamic interactions of multiple factors affecting L2 motivation in a holistic perspective. By adopting an ecological approach to the study of language development and learning, this theory also fits well with Applied Linguistics (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008b, p. 201).

According to Dörnyei (2009b), the dynamic systems approach to motivation reflects the current theoretical concerns and recent attempts in contemporary mainstream motivational psychology to bridge the gap between the *individualistic perspective* and the *societal perspective*; i.e., between an individual differences approach to motivation and a perspective focused on the influence of contextual/situational factors.

In this new perspective, L2 motivation is viewed as an organic process, a whole system that emerges through a complex network of interrelated motivational, cognitive, and affective individual components (subsystems), which constantly interact with social environmental factors in a constant flux. Based on this premise, the diverse components of the L2 motivational system “cannot be studied meaningfully in isolation because their impact/role is always dependent on the constellation of the other variables” (Dörnyei, 2009c, Conference Programme).

Furthermore, by adopting a dynamic systems perspective on *individual differences*, Dörnyei (2010b) also comes to a new conceptualization of *language aptitude*, which is now conceived as an umbrella term including complex amalgams of sub-components, which are not stable because they dynamically interact with each other and are context-dependent. This

view contrasts Carroll's (1981) definition of language aptitude as "an innate trait", which has recently been questioned by many scholars (eg., Singleton, 2014, 2017).

As highlighted by Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008b), Complexity Theory rejects traditional views of causality in favour of those focusing on the overall emergent behaviour of complex systems, which is difficult to predict. Development in a complex dynamic systems approach involves "non-linear growth as systems adapt and evolve organically in response to contextual processes and in ways that contribute to shaping context" (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 400). In this respect, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 89) employs the similitude of the "double pendulum" to illustrate the unpredictable dynamics of complex system behaviour, in which the trajectories traced by the multiple interdependent system components follows non-linear change. Similarly, Van Geert (2008, p. 184) summarizes the major features of a dynamic system, which is viewed by a number of studies as "a self-organizing system, showing attractor states, nonlinearity in its behaviour, emergence".

Although a complex dynamic system is characterised by continuous fluctuation, at times it reaches equilibrium and stable states under the attracting action of powerful stabilizing forces, such as individual difference factors and, in particular, motivation (Dörnyei, 2009c). Waninge, Dörnyei and de Bot (2014) explain that, despite the variable nature of complex dynamic systems, stability represents a key principle in their behaviour:

Dynamic systems are known to self-organise, as a result of which they can settle into preferred states—referred to as attractor states—during their development. Interestingly, some behavioural outcomes of the system's self-organisation process are so stable that they seem to be programmed or hardwired (p.706).

Most importantly, these authors comment that this stability has important implications for L2 research as it allows the systems developmental patterns and outcomes to be visible and predictable. This means that the developmental variation of the complex system may include occasional settled, non-dynamic phases or recurring and predictable patterns of behaviour. In Shoaib and Dörnyei's (2005) findings, for instance, these patterns correspond to *keytransformational episodes* affecting L2 motivation evolution over the lifespan. Moreover, in line with Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, MacIntyre and Legatto's (2011) study demonstrates that learner *L2 Willingness to Communicate* functions as an attractor state when it is supported by the interconnected surrounding linguistic, social, cognitive and emotional systems (as cited in Waninge et al., 2014, p.708).

In view of the above considerations, Waninge et al.(2014) highlight three main aspects of the dynamic system: *change*, *stability* and *context*. L2 motivation is inseparable from the learning context, which represents “an integral part of the whole system” and encompasses different layers of contextual factors: the peer-group behaviour, the learning setting, the classroom space, the leadership represented by the teacher. All these layers affect learner’s motivational behaviour and performance. Accordingly, in order to understand the complex development of L2 learner motivation, research needs to focus on the ongoing “emerging changes in both the learner and the environment” multicomponential systems and, most importantly, in the “natural occurring context”of the classroom (p. 706).

Finally, it is worth mentioning the numerous pedagogical implications of the dynamic system theory suggested by Weninge et al.’s (2014). Firstly, teachers should be aware that L2 learner motivation is subject to constant change and non-linear variability. As highlighted by de Bot(2012), motivation may fluctuate at different interacting time scales, ranging from minutes to hours, days, months, years, even to the life-span. Secondly, in order to regulate and maintain learners “in-class motivation”, it is essential that teachers identify both contextual factors acting as *attractor states*, which strongly impact the overall motivational system, and *repellent states*, which hinder L2 motivation. Last but not least, teachers should consider the initial condition of the system – i.e., the events prior to a lesson/activity or the start – to be crucial in the L2 learner motivational process, since it influences the other motivational trajectories. In this regard, as also suggested by Weninge et al. (2014, pp. 718-719), teachers should make a point of drawing the learners’ attention and putting in place warm-up activities at the beginning of their lessons.

4.1.1 Applying CDS Approach to L2 Motivation Research: Strengths and Weaknesses

As theorized by a number of studies (eg., Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei et al., 2015), the adoption of a Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) to explore the complexity of the L2 motivational process offers a suitable tool for investigating the multiple influences and richness of issues involved in this field. As a result, this new theoretical approach has become integral part of L2 empirical research, including diverse areas of L2 motivation research and Applied Linguistics such as *L2 anxiety* (eg., Gregersen, MacIntyre & Meza, 2014), *self-concept* (Henry, 2015; Mercer, 2014, 2015a); *emotion* (eg., Boudreau, MacIntyre & Dewaele, 2018) *L2 Willingness to Communicate* (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011); *teacher motivation*

(Sampson, 2016a). In recent literature, there has also been an increasing number of studies investigating L2 classroom motivation through CDST lens, which demonstrate how this paradigm fits in well with previous perspectives on L2 motivation such as L2MSS (Sampson, 2016b) and Socio-cultural Theory (T.Y. Kim, 2016).

Even though the real contribution of the CDST to empirical research lies in the ontological and epistemological underpinnings rather than in its methods of analysis (Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2016, p. 743), there is no denying that this new approach to Applied Linguistics and L2 motivation research fields has important methodological implications. In light of these considerations, Dörnyei (2009b, pp. 241-243) formulates specific methodological guidelines or principles on how to conduct DST-based research in this field by focusing on the following research issues:

1. *Cause-Effect relationships*. Focusing on non-linear development within complex dynamic systems involves taking into account the absence of cause-effect relations among variables.
2. *Qualitative rather than quantitative approach*. Qualitative research design, indeed, provides more detailed and context-situated descriptions of the dynamic phenomena under investigation, and is more flexible and open to new details that may emerge from the research process. Not only does it provide a “thick description of the natural context” but also adds the “individual-level analysis”, which ensures that researchers avoid problems resulting from findings derived from groups of participants.
3. *Mixed methods research*. The combination of quantitative and qualitative methods is suitable to the multi-level analysis of complex dynamic systems because it allows researchers to collect a wide variety of data both from the individual and the societal context.
4. *Focus on change rather than variables*. This principle has already been emphasized by Larsen-Freeman and Cameron’s (2008a), who suggest that researchers should focus on variability, self-organization and emergence as essential features of complex dynamic systems, and avoid reductionist approaches focused on single cause variables.
5. *Longitudinal research*. This is necessary to explore the dynamic nature of a complex system and, in particular, the interactions of its components (variables) at different levels (macro or micro).

6. *Focus on system modeling.* Unlike quantitative methods, qualitative models are appropriate to identify the different components of the whole complex system, and describe how the interactions amongst the components change on different timescales and levels of system organization.

However, translating these overriding principles into research practice involves venturing into “uncharted territories” and, especially, a change of research methodology. This issue is clearly addressed in a recent volume edited by Dörnyei et al. (2015), including a number of papers exemplifying the application of DST in various fields. These authors highlight that, even though DST has been widely accepted in many research fields, Applied Linguistics is still facing the difficulty of applying a nonlinear systems approach from the natural sciences to the social sciences by employing accurate mathematical modelling. In fact, as also highlighted by Byrne and Callaghan (2014) “mathematical formalisms” are not considered efficient tools for describing the multifaceted complexity of social reality. Moreover, as L2 motivation research lacks qualitative templates suitable for studies within DST, researchers need to formulate other methodological alternatives.

In an attempt to fill this gap, Larsen-Freeman (2012a) suggests that *dynamical description*⁴¹ and *qualitative modeling*⁴² are the most appropriate methods to approach complex dynamics systems. As we shall see in the coming sections, moreover, a number of significant studies (eg., Dörnyei, 2014) have recently come up with interesting solutions to the salient methodological challenges the application of a CDS perspective to L2 motivation research involves.

4.1.2 The Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling: A New Approach to Investigate Complex Dynamic Systems (Dörnyei, 2014)

As highlighted by Dörnyei (2014, pp. 80-85), the behaviour of a complex system is not completely unpredictable, “random”, or “unsystematic” to the point where researchers cannot find underlying aspects or trends and, therefore, the whole system cannot be researchable. Thus, by identifying those elements that are systematic enough to be considered meaningful for empirical research, scholars need to investigate “when and in what sense” the complex system behaviour is predictable.

⁴¹ Larsen-Freeman gives the example of a classroom observation study conducted by Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008a) to explore a collaborative activity in an EFL classroom in Norway.

⁴² As cited by Larsen-Freeman, (2012a), Ellis and Larsen-Freeman’s (2009) used *qualitative modeling* to focus on the acquisition of English verb-argument constructions (VACs) by EFL students.

However, according to Dörnyei (2014), it is not easy to operationalise such a dynamic approach in research terms as Second Language Acquisition (SLA) scholars are accustomed to examine the various components of the second language acquisition process in isolation, which is in contrast with the holistic view involved in a dynamic systems perspective. The traditional practice in SLA research, moreover, is in line with the characteristic linear (cause-effect) logic reasoning of the last centuries, which dates back to the Enlightenment; hence, most of the quantitative methods such as structural equation modelling are based on cause-effect relationships.

A further difficulty underlined by Dörnyei (2014) is that using a one-off group average score resulting from the typical questionnaire survey of quantitative research is often meaningless when applied to complex dynamic systems for two reasons: the score might change over time and it might not coincide with the actual score related to any individual participant, as Larsen-Freeman's (2006) study, for example, demonstrates. Finally, Dörnyei points out that even qualitative research methods (eg., multi-participant interviews) might be meaningless when they use group averages to describe group tendencies, resulting from generalization and without examining each individual situation.

Against this backdrop, Dörnyei (2014) postulates a new qualitative approach, a useful systematic method to meaningfully investigate L2 classroom motivation as a complex dynamic system, which consists of three research strategies:

1. *Focus on identifying strong attractor-governed phenomena.* This strategy builds upon the recognition that complexity systems development is governed by potent "attractor states", which make the system predictable.
2. *Focus on identifying typical attractor conglomerates.* This strategy involves that researchers pinpoint those powerful "constructs or conglomerates" of attractor states such as the concept of "interest" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), which represents a combination of motivational, cognitive and affective factors acting as a whole and making the complex systems behaviour predictable.
3. *Focus on identifying and analysing typical dynamic outcome patterns.* This relates to the "self-organisation process" of the system, which leads from an "initially transient, fluid and nonlinear" behaviour towards an increase of the order of the system. This process results in systematic and well-recognisable behavioural outcome patterns. Even though the researcher cannot predict these outcomes, yet, when he encounters them he is able to recognise them.

The above three-step research template thus represents a useful systematic method and a concrete tool for empirical research in classroom settings. It implies a form of predictability based on *retrodiction*, that is, retrospection as a means of investigation, which inverts the conventional data collection methods and opens up a new direction in research methodology. In order to operationalize this new approach, Dörnyei (2014) introduces a new qualitative systematic method, the *Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling* (RQM) “that reverses the usual research direction by starting at the end – the system outcomes – and then tracing back to see why certain components of the system ended up with one outcome option and not another” (p.80).

The relevance of *retrodiction* for understanding the operation of a dynamic system has also been highlighted by prior studies (eg., Byrne, 2002; de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008b, as cited in Dörnyei, 2014, p. 85). Dörnyei (2014) illustrates the applicability of this method to classroom empirical investigation by proposing a research process of three steps reflecting the above mentioned three-step template:

1. *Step 1*: This phase implies the identification of salient student types in the classroom, which represent the “attractor states” of the whole system. To identify such prototypes researchers need to use a wide range of sources of information: classroom observation, focus-group, interviews with teachers and students, quantitative data (questionnaires) processed by cluster analysis.
2. *Step 2*: This involves identifying actual students who fit the established prototypes – a process that is usually referred to as *critical case sampling* – (Dörnyei, 2007b, as cited in Chan, Dörnyei, & Alastair, 2014, p. 241) and conducting a semi-structural interview or a series of interviews with them in order to achieve a rich description of the main motivational factors involved in the system.
3. *Step 3*: This final step involves the analysis process, which can be divided into two different phases:
 - Identifying the major components (i.e., salient attractors) of the learner/classroom motivational system.
 - Describing the main underlying dynamic patterns or *signature dynamics* of the system, that is, the trajectory of the learner/classroom development and interrelations that produce particular system outcomes.

Even though researchers are not able to make reliable predictions on the behaviour of a system that constantly changes, and their results cannot be generalised to any situation,

however, Dörnyei's (2014) qualitative research method helps derive salient underlying mechanisms and holistic patterns from data fragments, which makes it possible to represent the emerging signature dynamics of a complex dynamic system through "data displays" or "schematic representations" (p.88). In the end, this templatedemonstrates that it is possible for researchers to formulate new strategies for describing the complexity nature and behaviour of classroom dynamic systems. Nevertheless, Dörnyei alsoconcludes that, in the current state of research, this approach is still little more than a conceptualization, which needs to be substantiated by further studies.

4.1.3 Gillies'(2014) Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling

Similarly to Dörnyei's (2014), Gillies' (2014) investigation represents another attempt to justify the validity of Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) in L2 motivation research. Firstly, this author acknowledges the applicability of this approach in the L2 classroom, where a multifarious interrelated factors represent a dynamic complex system which dynamically change over different time-scales. Gillies (2014) especially emphasizes the teacher-student relationship, "in which each agent continuously acts and reacts in relation to the other, affecting the overall dynamics of the class and the task-completion process"(p.61).

However, Gillies also recognizes several practical difficulties of CDST research in this area, which have led most scholars to reach a deadlock. This author explains that, by using quantitative statistical research methods that can only account for linear relationships, many studies have failed to research complex dynamic systems in the social sciences, in which non-linear relationships are relevant aspects in order to investigate human behaviour.

Gillies reaches the same conclusions as Dörnyei (2014) when he underlinesthe *significant amount of predictability* that actually exists in human behaviour and represents a key aspect of complex and dynamic social systems. Complex systems are indeedgoverned by a number of powerful attractor states, or attractor conglomerates that can be identified by their salience. Thus, in a similar way to Dörnyei (2014), Gillies focuses on the self-organization process of complex dynamic systems such as the language learning classroom, which produces outcomes that are well recognizable as a result of the attractor influences.

In order to provide a meaningful dynamic representation of a complex dynamic system, Gillies suggests that *qualitative modelling* be the most appropriate research tool as it represents a complex, "analogical model for the system under investigation"(Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a, p. 40, as cited in Gillies, 2014, p. 65). Drawing on Larsen-Freeman and

Cameron's (2008a) principles and *complexity thought modeling*, which he considers the most developed tool, therefore, Gillies (2014, pp. 67-69) creates a *retrodictive qualitative model*, which differs from Dörnyei's (2014) as it consists of five different phases:

1. *Establishing the units of analysis*. This means deciding which salient aspects represent the research purposes, taking into account the "interrelatedness and nesting feature of complex dynamic systems".
2. *Establishing the salient attractor states*. This involves identifying the outcomes related to the most salient behaviour patterns or archetypes by asking teachers and students through interviews or focus group.
3. *Anchoring the qualitative system model*. This entails developing a model that builds upon the established outcomes.
4. *Establishing the salient system components*. By analysing the interview data in more detail researchers can identify the constituent components of the system.
5. *Establishing the signature dynamics of each system*. Having conducted a more in-depth analysis of the data and further interviews, researchers can identify the *signature dynamics* of the qualitative system model, that is, those particular patterns of behaviour that led to the established outcomes.

As Gillies finally explains, this research model has potential important implications for teachers, but to be validated it needs to be applied to an actual language classroom context, which involves the cooperation of both teachers and students. The attractor states concerning the teachers are, in fact, significant to better interpret and complement the data regarding the students.

4.1.4 Exploring Signature Dynamics in the L2 Classroom Dynamic System (Bambirra, 2016)

Bambirra (2016) aims to demonstrate that it is possible to outline motivational *signature dynamics* by applying the *retrodictive qualitative modelling* proposed by Dörnyei (2014) to explore the teaching experience within an L2 classroom. In line with Lamb and Wedell (2013), who emphasize the crucial role of teaching practices in promoting students' motivation, Bambirra (2016) underlines the importance of focusing on "the ecology of the teaching experience in interrelation with the students' motivation" (pp. 21-22). This involves investigating the complex dynamics between the teaching experience and the relational context of the L2 class:

Considering the teaching experience as a key component of this system means acknowledging its complex nature – experiences nest themselves into one another, creating a net of dynamic relations, deeply influencing and being influenced by the context they are in (p. 21).

Thus, Bambilra adopts the Complex Dynamic Systems perspective to explore the L2 class motivational dynamics. By drawing especially on Hiver's (2015) contribution, she argues that, though “essentially random”, the behaviour of a dynamic system evolves towards *attractor states*, which correspond to “the emergent, dynamic and context-dependent temporary outcome[s]” of the system self-organization process (Bambilra, 2016, p. 21). Another central aspect of this study is the *motivational attractor basin*, i.e., the set of initial conditions that allow the system to evolve towards an attractor state.⁴³ Under the impact of internal agents, moreover, a dynamic system can change its natural direction and follow different development trajectories (i.e., *signature dynamics*) that lead to new outcomes.

In order to investigate the *motivational signature dynamics* of an English class in Brazil, Bambilra (2016) readapts the *framework of formal teaching experiences* elaborated by Miccoli (2007, 2010) and revised by Lima (2014), and introduces the *category of motivational experiences*. In addition, based on Dörnyei's (2001b) Process Model of L2 motivation and her doctoral research findings (Bambilra, 2009), she elaborates a framework divided into seven categories, each of which includes a constellation of sub-categories (Fig. 10).

The categories included in the framework represent different types of experiences of teaching English as a FL in Brazil, which have been documented by research findings since 2006. As illustrated in Fig. 10, each teaching experience category is context-related and comprises both experiences which originate inside the classroom and others that do not derive from there, which Miccoli (1997) calls respectively “direct and indirect experiences”. As Bambilra (2009) explains, the *direct experiences* depend directly on the teaching action and can be “pedagogical, affective, and social in nature”, whereas the *indirect experiences* encompass “environmental, conceptual and personal” experiences, the latter two originating within the individual (pp. 23-24).

⁴³ This is not a novel concept, as it has already been mentioned by previous studies on Dynamic Systems Theories (eg., Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Dörnyei, 2009d; Dörnyei et al., 2015; Hiver, 2015).

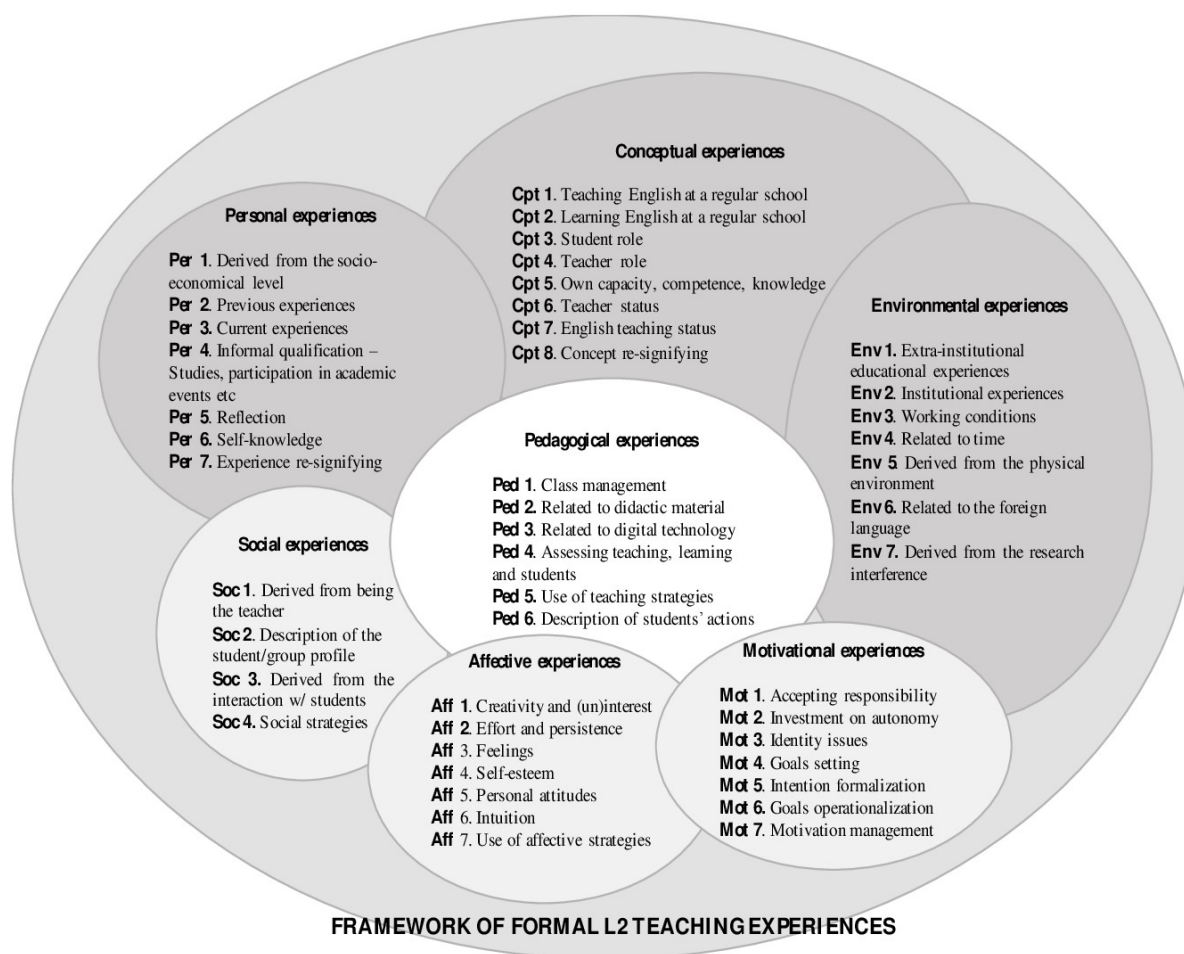


Figure 10. Bambirra's Framework of Formal Teaching Experiences

Adapted from “A Snapshot of signature dynamics in an English class in Brazil: From a motivational attractor basin towards an attractor state,” by R. Bambirra, 2016, *Turkish Online Journal of English Language Teaching (TOJELT)*, 1(1), p. 23.

To conclude, Bambirra’s (2016) investigation is significant for two reasons. Firstly, by employing a new framework, she is able to identify the components of the teaching experiences related to the English class under study. Secondly, by using Dörnyei’s (2014) *Retrodictive qualitative modelling* (RQM), she also demonstrates that it is possible to document the evolution of the emergent motivational components of the complex, nonlinear dynamic system of an FL class, and meaningfully describe its signature dynamics.

4.1.5 Classroom-Oriented Research from a Complex Systems Perspective (Larsen-Freeman, 2016)

As Larsen-Freeman (2016, pp. 379-380) points out, conducting classroom-oriented research from the broad perspective of Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) “challenges

researchers to think differently, seeing the classroom ecology as one dynamic system nested in a hierarchy of [interconnected] systems” and subsystems of interacting components. These levels of organization are “spatially and temporally situated”. They are dynamic as they develop on different timescales, “from the moment-by-moment scale of classroom activity to teaching and learning lifetimes” (Cameron & Larsen-Freeman, 2007, p. 236, as cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2016, p. 379).

According to Larsen-Freeman (2016), the most distinctive and intriguing aspect of complex dynamic systems is *emergence*, which arises unexpectedly from the interaction of multifarious factors involved in the classroom ecology. Many factors affect the dynamics of the whole classroom: the teacher; the students components (identity, beliefs, emotions, behaviours, etc.); the physical and temporal characteristics of the classroom setting (desk arrangements, the classroom size, its temperature, the time of the lessons, etc.). Larsen-Freeman therefore emphasizes the importance of focusing on how teacher and students relate to these contextual factors. She explains that their agency emerges from the interaction of the various components/resources of the classroom and their “perceptions and use of them” (Mercer, 2012, p. 43, 2016, as cited in Larsen-Freeman, 2016, p.379).

Last but not least, in her study, Larsen-Freeman provides practical guidance and advice on research methods, which can be helpful to study classroom interaction from the CDS perspective. In particular, she suggests the following promising methods: the *Microdevelopment* (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015); the *Idiodynamic Approach* (MacIntyre, 2012); the *Dynamic Ensemble* (Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2016); the *Social Network Analysis* (Gallagher & Robins, 2015; Mercer, 2015b) and the *Relational Model* (Burns & Knox, 2011).

4.1.6 L2 Classroom as a Complex Adaptive System (Burns & Knox, 2011)

Burns and Knox (2011, pp. 6-13) propose a relational model of the language classroom, which is conceived “neither as a space nor an activity, but as a convergence of a number of crucial elements which combine in multiple, dynamic context-specific relationships”, affecting each other over time. This model shares the main features of complex adaptive systems, i.e., “interaction, emergence, non-linearity, and nestedness”, and results from the complexity of many interacting agents and processes. Burns and Knox visually represent it as a framework of three nested dynamic subsystems – the *teacher*, the *classroom* and the

physical environment – which comprises a wide range of interconnected factors interacting at different levels and affecting the whole system (Fig. 11).

In this model, all the components are characterized by *coadaptation* - an essential feature of the behaviour of complex dynamic systems - which Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008a, p. 233) define as a process of “mutual causality, in which change in one system leads to change in another system connected to it, and this mutual influencing continues over time”. From this perspective, therefore, the *teacher* is viewed as a “social actor”, whose “actions can be understood as emergent behaviours from a range of [social and cognitive] factors that interact dynamically and continuously” (Burns & Knox, 2011, p.16). Moreover, as displayed in Fig. 11, all of the factors that have significant implications on the teacher practice (i.e., the teaching experience, the teacher’s emotional/affective state, KAL⁴⁴, education and professional development) are not considered in isolation, but emerge in relationship with the other elements of the classroom (eg., students, syllabus, the physical environment).

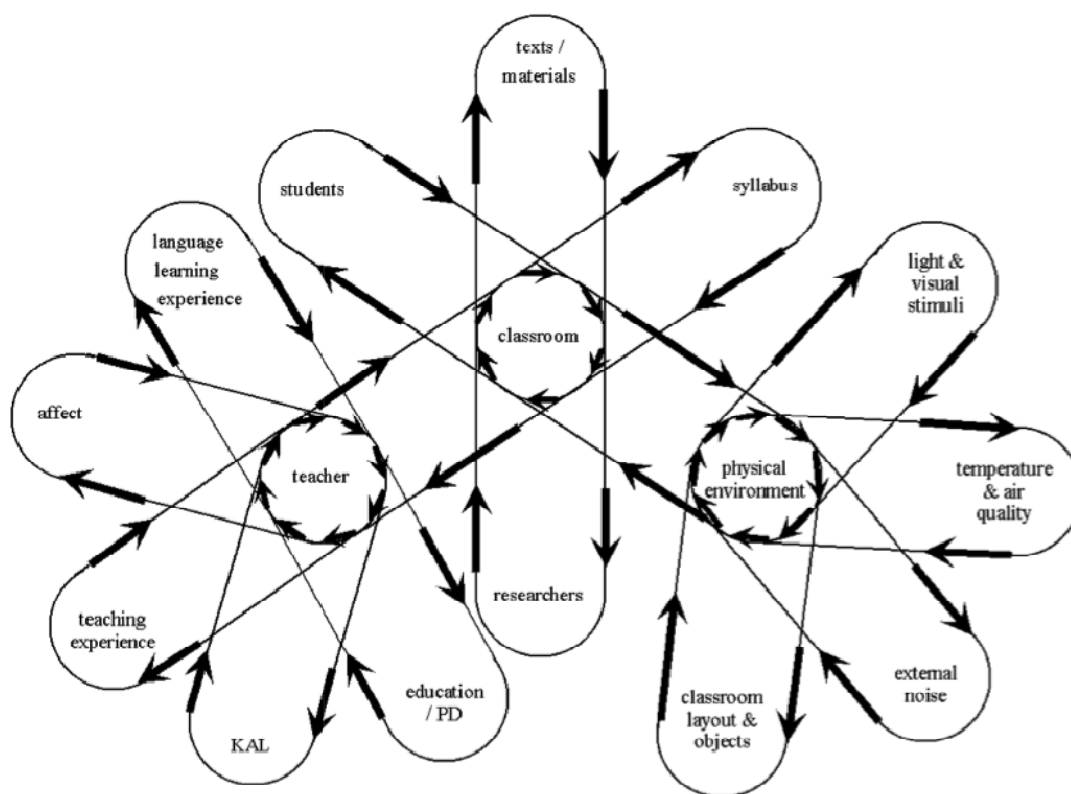


Figure 11. Classroom as a Complex Adaptive System

Adapted from “Classrooms as complex adaptive systems: A relational model,” by A. Burns & J. S. Knox, 2011, *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second language (TESL-EJ)*, 15(1), p. 17

⁴⁴In Applied Linguistics, KAL means “Knowledge about Language” .

4.1.7 Hiver and Al-Hoorie's (2016) Call for a "Dynamic Ensemble"

In their article, Hiver and Al-Hoorie (2016) introduce a novel methodological template, called "the dynamic ensemble", in order to implement L2 research design within CDST. In line with the most important studies of the last decade (eg., Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 2012b, 2015a, 2015b; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a, 2008b; van Geert, 2008), these scholars firstly emphasize the important contribution of CDST to L2 learning research. CDST has indeed provided a "meta-theory" (Larsen-Freeman, 2013, 2015b), i.e., a "toolbox" of overarching principles, underpinning L2 theories, representing the ontological and epistemological foundation for a growing number of empirical studies, (eg., Dörnyei et al., 2015; Lowie & Verspoor, 2015; Spoelman & Verspoor, 2010), and demonstrating the validity of CDST in various domains of L2 research.

However, as Hiver & Al-Hoorie (2016) argue, apart from some exceptions (e.g., Byrne & Ragin, 2009; Dörnyei, 2014; Verspoor, de Bot, & Lowie, 2011, to date only few empirical studies have been able to ensure compatibility between the theoretical principles of CDST and their empirical research designs. Moreover, CDST research is "at too early a stage in applied linguistics [...] to conduct a state-of-art review of available methods" that may guarantee an effective practical implementation of its theoretical framework (p. 750), even though CDST has gained wide recognition in the last decade "not only because it is a useful metaphor, but because it is an empirical reality" (Morin, 2008, as cited in Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2016, p. 741).

Against this background, by drawing on Larsen-Freeman and Cameron's (2008a) *complexity thought modelling*, and on Spoelman & Verspoor's (2010) empirical study, Hiver and Al-Hoorie (2016) attempt to demonstrate how empirical L2 research designs can incorporate CDST theoretical tenets. They formulate an operational guide - the *dynamic ensemble*- which consists of a practical catalog of nine methodological propositions that would enable scholars to design or test CDST-based empirical research on second language development at multiple levels.

In their study, Hiver and Al-Hoorie (2016) also examine other types of case-based research methods: the *Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA)* (Rihoux & Lobe, 2009), *Process Tracing* (Bennett & Checkel, 2015⁴⁵), *Concept Mapping* (Kane & Trochim, 2007),

⁴⁵ However, Hiver and Al-Hoorie (2016) write that, most likely, there are no studies in the L2 field that have applied this method.

Social Networks Methods (Gallagher & Robins, 2015) and *Agent-Based Modeling*.⁴⁶ These methods have been widely employed in the social sciences and can be used in a coordinated way for operationalizing the “dynamic ensemble” design.

However, as pointed out clearly in this article, Hiver and Al-Hoorie’s contribution is not meant to be comprehensive but simply aims to illustrate one of the viable ways in order to implement L2 empirical research designs and spur further development in this field. As Ávila-López (2017, para. 2) points out, Hiver and Al-Hoorie’s attempt is “an extremely complex endeavour given the very nature of the system to categorize”, which involves a considerable number of factors (eg., L2 motivation, L2 learner proficiency, anxiety), conditions and issues. Interestingly, after praising Hiver and Al-Hoorie’s significant contribution for proposing a variety of methods, Ávila-López (2017, para. 14) finally suggests that current research in this field should take another step forward by creating “an interinstitutional, transnational network where data might be accessed for research purposes [, even though]there is a long way to go”.

4.2 Motivational Role of Imagination and Vision in L2 Motivation Research

Imagination and Vision is an area that has recently received much attention in L2 motivation research and, therefore, can be regarded as a new strand emerging in the Current Period of research in this field. As already mentioned in the previous chapter of this study, this phenomenon is not entirely new in this domain, as it lies at the core of most influential formulations of L2 motivation such as Dörnyei’s (2005, 2009a) L2 Motivational Self System and Markus and Nurius’s (1986) original conceptualization of *possible selves*. Indeed, this aspect provides meaningful insights into the nature and functioning of L2 motivation and plays an eminent role in energizing learner behaviour in the present.

Over the last decade, a growing number of studies (eg., Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim & Kim, 2011; You & Chan, 2015) have confirmed that the intensity of motivation is largely affected by the learner’s capacity to generate mental imagery. For example, Al-Shehri (2009) finds strong associations between L2 learner visualisation and learning styles, demonstrating that students who prefer a visual learning style would more likely develop a stronger imagery capacity and, consequently, a stronger *Ideal L2 self*. Dörnyei and Chan (2013)’s findings also highlight the “multisensory dimension of future

⁴⁶ Macy and Willer (2002) address this method clearly. However, according to Hiver and Al-Hoorie (2016), to date no L2 research has yet employed this method.

[L2]self-guides” (i.e., Ideal and Ought-to L2 selves). Their investigation, furthermore, establishes strong, positive correlations between these components of L2 motivation and various salient aspects of language learning vision (eg., imagery capacity and visual/auditory sensory styles).

Further developments of this theme have offered unprecedented contributions to our understanding of L2 learner motivational intensity and goal-oriented motivational behaviour, especially in relationship with L2 future self-guides. Along these lines, You and Chan (2015) mixed-methods study explores L2 learner mental imagery in the form of L2 self-guides focusing, in particular, on the dynamics of L2 imagery and three key variables related to L2 learning: increasing motivation (i.e., motivational intensity), language learning behaviour and language proficiency. Among other important findings, their investigation reports significant quantitative differences (especially in terms of intended effort) between those students who had a vivid and elaborate future-oriented images of themselves as competent L2 speakers and those who did not.

The pedagogical implications of the impact of L2 learner’s imagery capacity upon L2 motivation have been discussed in detail by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014), who explore how to motivate learners through vision. In their study, they present a 6-step guide for teachers, aiming at providing strategies for generating and enhancing language learners’ vision. However, Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) also explain that, in order to create the conditions conducive to L2 student motivation, even teacher’s vision is of great importance as teacher and learner are “inextricably linked because the former is needed for the latter to blossom” (p. 3).

4.2.1 You, et al.’s (2016) “Model of Visionary L2”

You et al.’s (2016) investigation represents another significant study shedding light on the impact of L2 learner visualization on L2 motivation. It was conducted in China as a large-scale and cross-sectional survey among a total of 10,569 students, involving two different L2 learner populations: secondary schools and university students. After providing a broad overview of the major studies in this field, You et al.’s article firstly dwells on the concepts of *mental imagery* and *vision* and explains the difference between the two terms in detail. In line with neurobiological research, a “mental imagery” is defined as “the neural representation of imagined sensory stimulus that gives rise to the subjective experience of perception without receiving any actual sensory input”. Instead, the term *vision* – as applied to the context of L2

motivation – refers to “a vivid mental image” of desired and undesired end-states, which strongly impacts learning behaviour. Hence, not only does envisioning generate images of cherished future goal-states but it also represents the energy that stimulates the learner’s striving to attain positive end-states (pp. 99-100).

To explore the impact of *learnervision* on L2 motivation, You et al. (2016) firstly investigate the relationships between a number of imagery-related variables (i.e. *vividness of mental imagery*; *visual and auditory styles*) and four motivational variables (*Ideal L2 self*, *Ought-to L2 self*, *Attitudes to L2 learning* and *Intended effort*). Secondly, they explore the impact of learner L2 visualisation on L2 motivation across gender. Thirdly, they focus on the visionary trajectories of learner imagery across time, shedding light on the impact of visualization change upon L2 motivation development.

The most salient findings of You et al. (2016) show that, of the two learner sensory styles, *visual style* in particular has a high impact on *vividness of imagery*, and both styles strongly affect *Attitudes to L2 learning*. Most significantly, the latter variable results as the dominant motivator as it “mediates some of the positive emotionality that is evoked by the vision, which is reflected by its connection to the two future self-guides. Furthermore, *vividness of imagery* has a considerable influence on both the *future self-guides*, although the impact on *Ideal L2 self* is nearly twice as strong. Interestingly, students with visionary experience and higher visionary skills show a greater impact on intended effort than those who do not. All these meaningful results led You and his colleagues to outline a new “model of visionary motivation” (Fig.12), in which the imagery-related variables are integrated into the L2 motivation construct (pp. 109-120).

To conclude, You et al.’s (2016) analyse gender difference and changeable nature of L2 visualisation. The findings display no significant difference in the overall functioning of the visionary process between the two gender groups as the main components of the model operate in much the same way. However, females are more inclined to use L2 visualisation than males because of their “better capacity to develop and nurture their visualization skills” (p. 119). Finally, with regards to change and variability in L2 learner visualisation, significant variations have been observed, which show that, even though when a student has experienced a positive, elaborate and vivid imagery of future L2 selves, these images do not remain constant but change over time.

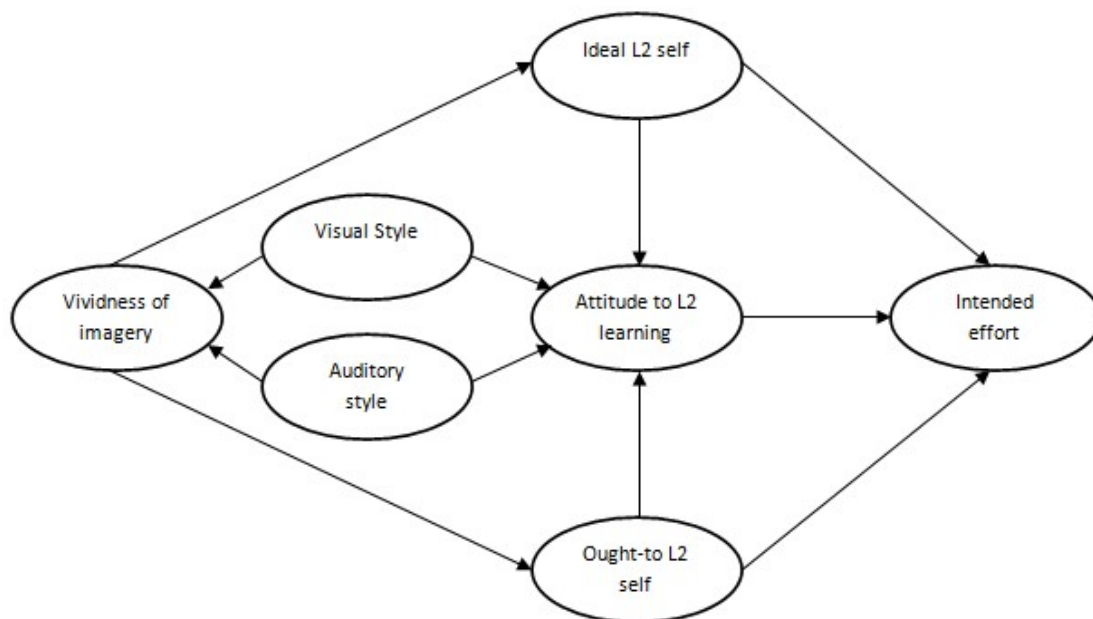


Fig. 12 Model of Visionary L2 Motivation

Adapted from “Motivation, vision, and gender: A survey of learners of English in China,”
by C. You et al., 2016, *Language Learning*, 66(1), p. 109.

4.2.2 Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs)

The conceptualization of *Directed Motivational Currents* (DMCs) by Dörnyei and his colleagues (Dörnyei et al., 2015; Dörnyei, Muir, & Ibrahim, 2014; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013) represents the most recent breakthrough in L2 motivation research on imagination and vision. This phenomenon has been defined as “goal-oriented surges of motivational energy”, capable of stimulating and sustaining L2 motivated behaviour over time (Henry, Davydenko, & Dörnyei, 2015, p. 329). This burst of intense and enduring motivational energy emerges from the alignment of diverse personal, contextual and temporal factors that simultaneously work in a complex system. It creates a strong momentum to pursue a significant personal goal along a set pathway, acts as a regulatory force and generates positive emotionality (Dörnyei, et al., 2015; Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016).

Most importantly, DMCs arise when a powerful, clear and detailed vision of a future L2 self is combined with a well-structured action plan. As Dörnyei et al. (2014, p. 13) summarize, *goal-orientedness* represents a necessary condition for the generation of a DMC. Even though both goal and vision give direction to one’s action aiming at future self states,

however, they differ from each other because vision involves sensory elements and concrete images. In this perspective, vision is regarded as one of the most reliable predictor of long-term *intended effort* and, consequently, a powerful motivator.

As Ibrahim (2016, p. 258) points out, DMCs incorporate key concepts from positive psychology – i.e., engagement and flow, eudaemonic happiness – in the goal-directed process that takes place on a time-scale of some months or years. Ibrahim (2016) explores two aspects that have been underestimated in the L2 learning motivation literature: the affective aspects involved in the DMC experience and, especially, the mechanism whereby positive emotionality can impact L2 motivational behaviour in long-term L2 learning.

Ibrahim's (2016) findings highlight that L2 learners use in particular two different types of emotional resources in order to maintain high motivational levels, i.e., *anticipatory emotions* (i.e., current experiences of emotions of future events) and *anticipated emotions* (i.e., emotions experienced by envisioning a final goal or future success through vivid, sensory images). Importantly, Ibrahim's investigation shows that, especially when learners make tangible progress in learning, they experience positive emotions (*eudaemonic happiness*) such as excitement, which are concerned with feelings of self-actualization and a sense of personal growth and improvement.

As already mentioned in this chapter, the pedagogical implications of a vision-inspired teaching practice have been emphasized by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014), who present a flexible framework of six key methods in order to create favourable conditions for generating a DMC: 1. Creating the vision; 2. Strengthening the vision; 3. Substantiating the vision; 4. Transforming the vision into action; 5. Keeping the vision alive; 6. Counterbalancing the vision. This framework can also be applied on different time scales. Dörnyei et al. (2014) suggest three different levels: *lesson-level* (i.e., within the context of a task); *term-level* (i.e., within the context of *project-work*) and *course-level* (eg. school trips and competitions are very promising for generating a DMC) (pp. 25-27).

According to Muir and Dörnyei (2013), aside from drawing on many studies exploring the motivating power of vision/imagery in different realms (eg., Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Eardley & Pring, 2006; Moulton & Kosslyn, 2009; Van der Helm, 2009), DMCs represent a new motivational construct which integrates a number of aspects that are akin to many current theoretical motivation strands in educational psychology.

In particular, in line with *Goal-setting Theory* (Locke & Latham, 1990), Muir and Dörnyei (2013) explain that, in order to accomplish successful DMC, it is essential that the

individual set “proximal goals”- i.e., subgoals that increase motivation to achieve ultimate goals and provide ongoing feedback. These frequent and varied subgoals provide a “salient and facilitative structure” which represents a key feature of DMC. In addition to regular proximal subgoals, in order to gain a facilitative structure, DMCs also need other elements in place: a clear starting point and a set of behavioural routines. Indeed, after the initial launch, a progression of fixed actions is necessary to give rise to the “motivational autopilot”, to energise and direct the movement towards the superordinate goal (pp. 365-366).

Muir and Dörnyei (2013), furthermore, report that DMC conceptualization also shares the notion of *optimal task engagement* with *Flow Theory* (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), which involves the same initial conditions that trigger the motivational surge and the state of being completely absorbed in the task. Besides, these scholars point out that it is important that the individual believe that it is within their capability and under their control to handle the situation in order to pursue their personal goals. This perspective is similar to the concept of *perceived behavioural control* of Ajzen’s (1988, 1991) *Theory of planned behaviour*. Finally, due to the imagery power and future-oriented essence of DMCs, which affect an individual’s goal pursuit commitment and motivational behaviour, Muir and Dörnyei find clear similarities with Zimbardo & Boyd’s (1999) *Time Perspective Approach*.

Henry et al. (2015) conducted the first systematic empirical study of DMCs through interviews to migrant learners of Swedish as a second language. In their study, by focusing on periods of unusually intense and enduring motivation described by the learners, these scholars provide empirical grounding for the validity of the DMCs construct, especially with regards to *goal-vision orientedness*; a *salient facilitative structure* and *positive emotionality*. Importantly, Henry et al. (2015, p. 330) also highlight that two core features of DMCs - i.e., “the *directedness* of a DMC [...] and the *enduringness* of self-propelling motivational processes” - distinguish them from other types of intense motivational experiences, such as those described by Csikszentmihalyi’s *Flow Theory* or Deci and Ryan’s (1985a, 1985b) intrinsic motivation.

Muir (2016) is also worth mentioning. She designed an online questionnaire - the *DMC Disposition Scale* - to study the dynamics of intense long-term L2 motivation among 1563 L2 learners with 71 different nationalities. Her findings offer strong empirical support to the notion that DMCs are a widely experienced motivational phenomenon across various L2 contexts. A Persian version of Muir (2016)’s DMC Disposition Questionnaire was also employed by Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2017, pp. 48-49) to explore EFL students’ DMC

and its relationship with students' proficiency and educational levels. Their findings show a significant difference between elementary and upper-intermediate proficiency levels in relationship with DMCs, demonstrating that EFL students who have gained higher levels of proficiency experience higher levels of DMCs than the lower-level counterparts.

Safdari and Maftoon's (2017) qualitative research represents another significant attempt to substantiate the major features of DMCs theoretical construct. It was conducted as a case study with one participant who experienced a unique period of DMCs while learning Italian as a foreign language in Iran. After confirming the DMCs theoretical tenets, however, these authors conclude that creating a true DMC experience is a difficult task both at the individual and collective levels. Nevertheless, Safdari and Maftoon also claim that teachers have the opportunity to use some techniques as those proposed by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014), which may enable learners to foster collective visions by sharing goals in project works. In this respect, Dörnyei et al. (2016) suggest that project-based methodology can be considered as one of the most effective teaching tools in language learning in order to enhance learners' engagement and enjoyment in the L2 classroom.

To conclude, from a pedagogical perspective, DMCs can be intentionally generated by providing a set of conditions that may work as a facilitative framework in different L2 learning settings: well-designed L2 tasks, long-term projects and study-abroad L2 learning experiences (Dörnyei et al., 2015, p. 99). Ibrahim and Al-Hoorie's (2018), for example, provide an example of successful DMC experience of learners involved in groupwork tasks/projects over a period of time. In this study, DMC is referred to as *shared, sustained flow (SSF)*. The findings highlight three main conditions facilitating the SSF experience: forming a group identity, attaching personal value and providing partial autonomy. This study provides important insights into DMCs and the results seem transferable to other L2 learning contexts, even though further research is needed to shed more light on other learning situations in which this phenomenon may occur.

4.3 The Rise of Identity in L2 Motivation Research

The recent surge of interest in the contemporary notions of *self* and *identity* in L2 motivation literature - which also reflects a general trend in Applied Linguistics and mainstream motivational theories - has contributed to a new understanding of L2 motivation research. According to Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009), the push for a rethinking of L2 motivation has come from a number of parallel developments within L2 motivation research such as the

recent debates on identity and L2 motivation in the globalized multilingual world (eg., M. Lamb, 2004; Ushioda, 2006), and the poststructuralist critical perspectives on identity in second language acquisition (SLA) research (eg., Block, 2007; Norton, 2000; Pavlenko, 2002; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007). As a result, fervent debates among scholars have led to open up new directions in L2 motivation research over the last decade, which reflect new interesting perspectives in L2 motivation research.

Given the above considerations, in the following pages we will draw attention on two different lines of inquiry. Firstly, we will focus on a number of studies which, in the attempt to reconceptualize L2 learner motivation in relation to *self* and *identity*, have provided new self-based models of L2 motivation as alternative to the L2MSS - i.e., Taylor's (2013) *Quadripolar Model of Selves* and Lanvers' (2016a) *Self Discrepancy Model for Language Learners*. Last but not least, we will address a number of issues associated to motivation to learn foreign languages in multilingual, globalized contexts, which have led to a novel area of inquiry within the field: i.e., *Motivation to learn LOTE's or L3 Motivation*.

4.3.1 Self and Identity in Adolescent Foreign Language Learning: A Quadripolar Model of Selves (Taylor, 2013)

Building on social and educational psychology conceptualizations (e.g., self and identity, possible selves, self-discrepancy, the private self/public self dichotomy), Taylor (2013) puts forward a new theoretical framework of identity - the *Quadripolar Model of Selves*. Taylor's (2013) investigation has the twofold purpose of gaining insights, firstly, into the *self* and *identity* of the adolescent learners of English as a foreign language and, secondly, into the dynamic and pluridirectional interactions between individuals and the social context in which they learn a foreign language.

Integrating a large body of research findings (eg., Cummins et al., 2005; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Juvonen & Murdock, 1993; Marsh, Craven, & McInnery, 2003; Mercer, 2012; Norton & Gao, 2008) Taylor's framework hinges upon the core argument that the learner's identity has a great impact on language learning (Pacheco, 2015, p. 354). She postulates the existence of four self components, which are defined in terms of *possible/actual* and *internal/external dimensions* (Fig.13):

1. *Private self* (actual, internal), which encompasses the "individual's intimate representations of personal attributes" which may or may not be disclosed in social interactions;

2. *Public self* (actual, external), which includes various, social representations of identity that an individual may display in different relational contexts.
3. *Ideal self* (possible, internal), which involves “what the individual would like to be in the future”;
4. *Imposed self* (possible external), which includes representations of other people’s desires, hopes and expectations of what an individual should achieve.

SELF DIMENSION	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
POSSIBLE	<i>Ideal</i>	<i>Imposed</i>
ACTUAL	<i>Private</i>	<i>Public</i>

Figure 13. Taylor’s Quadripolar Model of Identity

Adapted from *Self and identity in adolescent foreign language learning* (p. 42),
by F. Taylor, 2013, Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Furthermore, in Taylor’s (2013, pp. 41-82) model, the interplay of the four components of the *self* may lead to four types of self system:

1. *Submissive*: a strong *Imposed self* that is often in conflict with the *Ideal self*.
2. *Duplicitous*: a self that generates parallel responses (eg., a student interested in language learning, but actually putting in little effort).
3. *Rebellious*: a strong *Ideal self* that generates responses against the *Imposed self*.
4. *Harmonious*: An *Ideal self* that is consistent with an *Imposed self* generates congruent responses.

Most noteworthy, the four self systems are identity processes that may differ depending on the social relational context, namely school, family and friends. On this basis, the multidimensional and multidirectional interactions among the four selves, in addition to the movement from *possible* to *actual selves*, ultimately affect language learning.

Taylor’s model was firstly validated in Romania. A total of 1045 Romanian students of English (aged 14-19) took part in the investigation which involved mixed-methods procedures: a questionnaire and 32 in-depth interviews. As Pacheco (2015, p. 356) argues, the questionnaire proved to be an effective tool as it allowed Taylor “to empirically link [the learners’] identity perceptions with foreign language achievement”, taking into account four

different relational contexts - teachers classmates, best friends and family. Taylor's major findings, indeed, reveal that different relational contexts generate different displays of different *public selves* related to learners' beliefs about themselves as L2 learners, which impact learners' perceived competence and actual L2 achievement. However, this study also presents a few shortcomings, not least the fact that it does not provide any longitudinal or interactional data in order to explore how identities change over time and across space.

4.3.2 The New Self Discrepancy Model for Language Learners (Lanvers, 2016a)

As Lanvers (2016a, pp. 79-80) reports, the *L2 Motivational Self System* "has greatly enriched our understanding of L2 motivation and offered a valuable foundation for pedagogical applications to foster L2 motivation". It has also been capable of adapting and integrating its framework into new theoretical perspectives such as Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, in the "attempt to better embed contextual factors" providing, therefore, new valuable insights into the L2 motivation construct.

Despite the above, in Lanvers (2016a, 2017a), however, the author laments the inadequacy of the L2MSS to investigate L2 learning contexts with Anglophone L2 learners in particular, and proposes a "motivation-in-context" perspective capable of accounting for "the UK's language crisis and the social divide between those [students] who choose to learn language and those who do not" (Lanvers, 2017a, p. 517).

In her study, Lanvers (2016a, p. 10) firstly reviews the most relevant self-based motivational models - i.e., Higgins's (1987) *Self Discrepancy Theory*, Dörnyei's (2005) *L2MSS*, Taylor's (2013) *Quadripolar Model of Selves*, Ryan and Deci's (2000) *Self-Determination Theory* – which form the basis for a reconceptualization of a new model of L2 motivation. In addition, she reports about a number of developmental studies within the L2MSS (eg., Jiang & Dewaele, 2015; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; M. Lamb, 2011; Papi & Teimouri, 2012), whose contradictory findings suggest that the "L2MSS might not offer the best fit".

On this ground, Lanvers (2016a) explores the motivational profiles of Anglophone L2 learners from a developmental perspective. By drawing on Higgins' original *Self-Discrepancy Theory (SDT)*, she firstly aims to find which *selves* and *self discrepancies* dominate in the two different Anglophone language learners groups involved in the study⁴⁷. Through the analysis

⁴⁷ The study was conducted in two small cities in the North-East of England, between two different Anglophone language learners groups: compulsory adolescent (aged 13-14) and mature adult learners (age range: 25-60+).

of the data, she is able to identify *four different L2 learner profiles*, which reflect the the two domains (*Ought, Ideal*) and the two standpoints (*Other, Own*) of the *L2 self* of Higgin's L2 motivation conceptualization.

The findings related to the school learners show that the *Ought/Other selves* play an important role in L2 motivation because of the perceived instrumental (i.e., academic and/or professional) benefits of language proficiency. Furthermore, they reveal three relatively different L2 learner profiles:

1) *The dominantly Other-motivated learner*. This represents the majority of participants, who show a high *Ought/Other self*. These learners are sensitive to external pressures from teachers, parents and *wider milieu* (eg., university; job applications).

2) *The dominantly Self-motivated learner*. This represents a minority of L2 learners, largely motivated by their *Own (Ought and Ideal)* standpoints. These students show a high *International Posture (IP)*; some of them (*the rebellious*) want to contrast the typical "negative language learner image of the British".

3) *The amotivated (Anglophone) learner*. This corresponds to a small number of students, who consider the *wider milieu* as "non supportive". Since they see the *Other* influences (teachers and parents) less important than the *wider milieu*, and because of the important status of English as a Global Language, they see language learning as useless.

From the findings regarding the adult learners, another learner profile emerges – *The rebellious (or reactant) learner* – which echoes Thompson and Vásquez's (2015) *Anti-Ought-to self* and Taylor's (2013) *Rebellious self*⁴⁸. This type stands out against the general perceived image of the British as "a poor language learner". In fact, this *L2 learner profile is mainly Own-driven*, typically shows intellectual curiosity, recognizes the cognitive benefits of language learning and shows a wide range of an *Ought and Ideal locus of control*.

As Lanvers (2017a) reports, a number of studies (eg., Busse & Williams, 2010; Oakes, 2013) highlight the *desire for language proficiency* as the strongest motivator, suggesting the importance of *instrumental orientation* for language learning motivation. According to Lanver (2016a), moreover, the adults learners show a high *International Posture (IP)*, as described by Yashima (2002), or resemble Oakes's (2013) Anglophone university students of French and Spanish, who reject the monoglot attitude in favour of an *international outlook*.

Most importantly, not only do Lanvers' (2016a, 2017a) results confirm the great importance of the *rebellious* learner motivation profile in the specific Anglophone L2 learning

⁴⁸ These analogies have been already discussed in Section 3.11 of this dissertation.

context, but they also corroborate the validity of the different dimension of the self (*Ought-to* and *Ideal*) and the two standpoints (*Other/ Own*) conceptualized by Higgins (1987), which prove to be *permeable and overlapping*.

With this in mind, in line with both *Self-discrepancy Theory* and *Self-Determination Theory*, Lanvers (2016a, 2017a) proposes a new model of L2 motivation – the *Self-Discrepancy Model for Language Learners* – whereby she overcomes the dichotomy of *Own-Other* standpoints and, instead, proposes an *extrinsic-intrinsic continuum of Other-to-Own* determination, as we can see in Fig. 14.

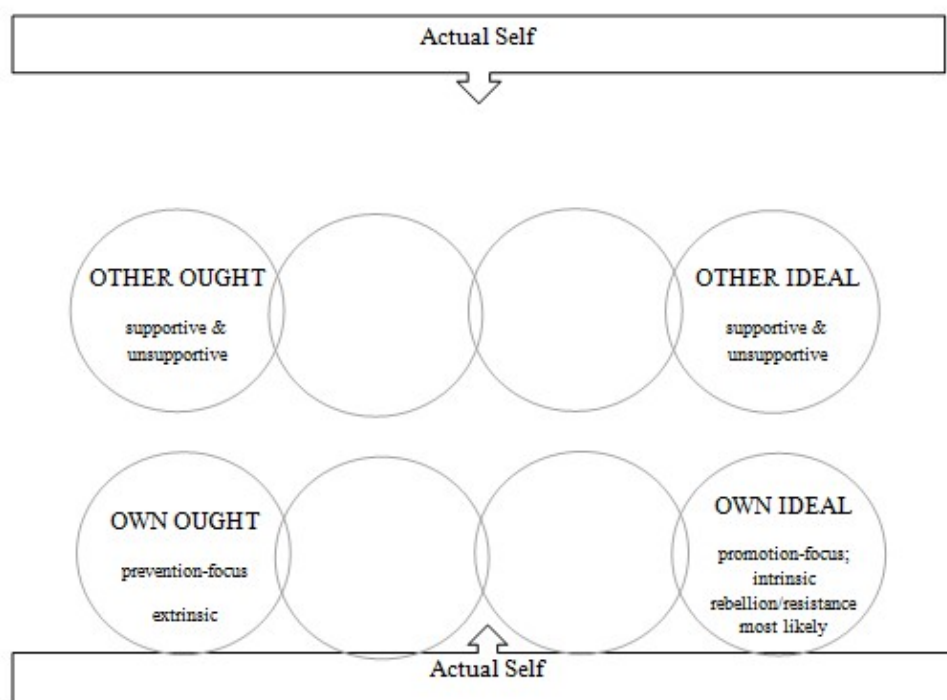


Figure 14. The Self-Discrepancy Model for Language Learners

Adapted from “Contradictory *Others* and the *Habitus* of languages: Surveying the L2 motivation landscape in the United Kingdom,” by U. Lanvers, 2017a, *The Modern Language Journal* 101(3), p. 528.

To conclude this section, Lanvers (2017a) highlights the challenging conditions of anglophone language learners, who need to “ignore or even actively counter negative *Other* influences”. Their “*rebellion* or *resistance*” represents “a new type of motivation” that need to be fostered in order to overcome the UK crisis of language learning. The difficult conditions of these learners have been conceptualized by Busse (2010, pp. 524-527) in her *Expanded L2 Motivation System* (Fig. 15). This model displays concentric circles, which represent supportive and unsupportive contextual influences affecting the L2 motivation self

system at different (macro-, exo-, meso-, micro-) levels⁴⁹. Similarly to Lanvers (2016a, 2017a), moreover, Busse shows “fluid boundaries” between *Ought and Ideal selves*, suggesting a process of internalization of the *Ought* self along a sequence of *extrinsic-intrinsic determination*.

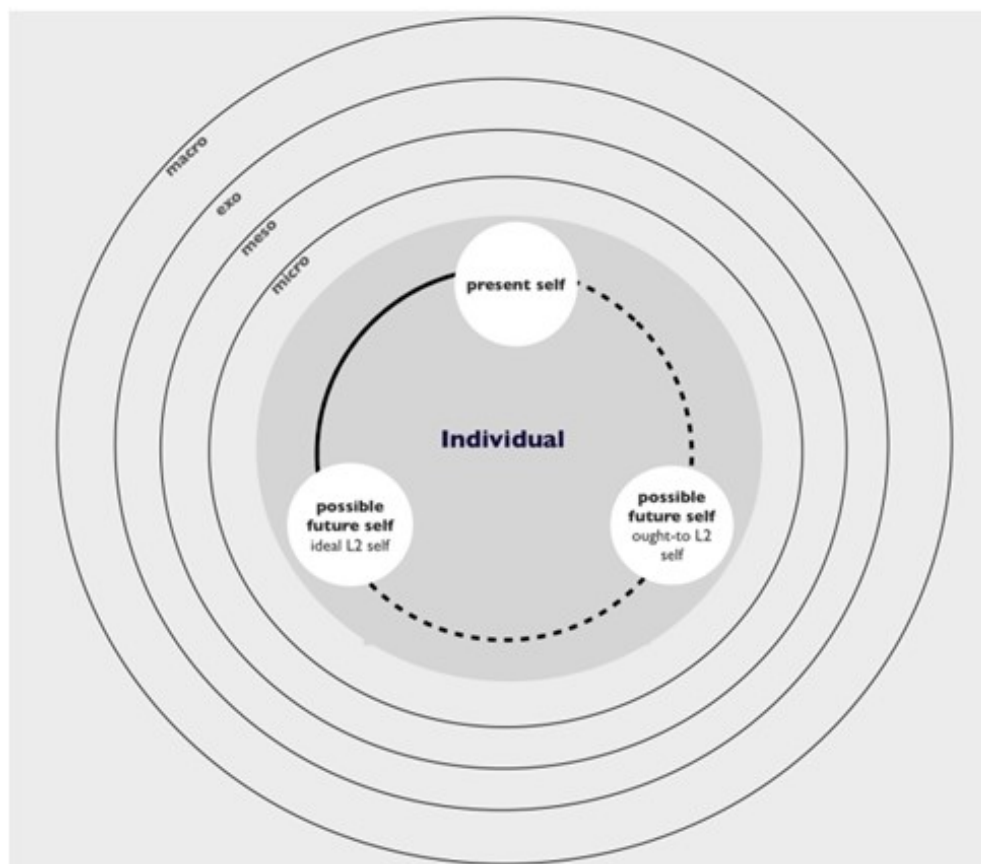


Figure 15. Busse's Expanded L2 Motivation System

Adapted from *Foreign language learning motivation in Higher Education: A longitudinal study on motivational changes and their causes* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation) (p. 42), by V. Busse, 2010, University of Oxford, UK.

4.4 Motivation to Learn Languages Other Than English (LOTES): Towards the Conceptualization of an Ideal Multilingual Self

In spite of the “multilingual turn” that has characterized SLA research over the last decade (Boo et al., 2015; Douglas Fir Group, 2016; May, 2014; Ortega, 2014), motivation to learn foreign languages in multilingual/plurilingual contexts has not yet been sufficiently addressed. By tradition, research into L2 motivation has been largely characterized by “a

⁴⁹ Busse’s (2010, pp. 267-268) L2 motivation model draws on Gurtner, Monnard, and Genoud’s (2001) *multilayer model of context*. With regards to the *meso-level*, she also includes *teacher-specific motivational components*, as specified by Dörnyei’s (1994, 2001c) *multi-level framework* (see section 3.3.3 of the current dissertation).

strongly monolingual bias”, which has posed many obstacles for the field to grow⁵⁰ (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Henry, 2017, p. 548). Influential voices in L2 motivation literature (eg., Henry, 2010, 2011a, 2017; Ushioda, 2017) highlight the predominance of studies on motivation to learn English at the expense of other languages (LOTEs). This tendency is clearly evidenced by Boo et al.’s (2015) survey carried out between 2005 and 2014, which documents the hegemony of English in over 70% of all empirical studies conducted in the field, and a constantly increasing imbalance between English and LOTEs.

As Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017, p. 456) point out, the relevance of the *Global English bias* foregrounds important issues. Firstly, it generates a reductionist logic which does not respond adequately to the pressing demands for people worldwide to learn more than one language, which is essential for their education, social and work integration in the current world, especially in geographical areas characterized by processes of migration. Secondly, it raises the issue of the transferability of the findings to other research contexts where other languages than English are learnt.

Due to the unique status of English as a global language, the motivational process associated to LOTEs (L3 motivation) is different from that of English. Busse (2017) argues that the awareness of the global status and the importance of English generally affect learners’ attitudes towards English positively; yet, it can also result in adverse attitudes towards learning LOTEs. In this respect, Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) explain that several findings (eg., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005b; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Henry, 2010, 2011a) support the assumption that “learners of different languages seem to possess distinct self-concepts” (p. 458), which can compete with each other, with the English self-images overshadowing LOTEs self-images.

If past research has predominantly focused on the negative impact of English on LOTEs in terms of demotivation, however, a number of recent findings suggest that English does not necessarily have a negative influence on learning other foreign languages. For example, Siridetkoon and Dewaele (2018, p. 326) maintain that English is not always “the bogeyman that dampens interest in other FLs”; in addition, motivation associated to different additional languages cannot be conceptualized as separate, autonomous systems, but as interdependent and in constant interaction, constituting, therefore, a complex dynamic system.

⁵⁰ The theoretical models which have historically dominated the field over the last 25 years (i.e. Gardner’s *Socio-educational Model* and Dörnyei’s *L2 Motivational Self-System*) are based on the same monolingual premise.

Relevant studies on motivation to learn LOTEs clearly draw on Dörnyei's (2005) *L2 Motivational Self-System* and Larsen-Freeman and Cameron's (2008b) *Complexity Theory*. Both these conceptual frameworks enable researchers to explore how motivation to learn LOTEs works when *Ideal selves* of different languages interact with each other. However, with regards to complexity conceptualization, Henry (2017, pp. 7-9) argues that, while in L2 motivation research this is typically employed to focus on *attractor states* - which are very close in meaning to *Individual differences* (ID) factors (as highlighted by Lowie & Verspoor, 2011, 2015) - in multilingual research, attention is especially drawn to the constant *interactions* between interdependent motivational systems of different additional languages, to the *emergence* of novel behaviours and the *self-organization* of the complex system leading to a higher-order coherence.

Drawing on Aronin's (2016) view of *multilinguality* as "an emergent property of multilingualism" and on the notion of *multilingual systems* of Jessner's (2008) *DST model of multilingualism*, Henry (2017, p. 13) proposes a conceptualization of a *Multilingual Motivational System* constituted by a networks of language subsystems, nested together in an higher-order structure. As displayed in Fig. 16, the overall *Multilingual System* embodies the *Multilingual Identity System*, a subsystem that encompasses another subsystem - the *Multilingual Motivational Self System* - which stems from the interactions of the different language systems self-guides (*multilingual self-guides*).

As the interactions of the *Multilingual Motivational System* are complex and depend on situational contingencies, it is not possible to predict the properties of the higher-level system. Hence, two plausible scenarios of L3 (LOTEs) motivation can be envisioned: one where interactions of the language systems are antagonistic, and another where they are complementary.

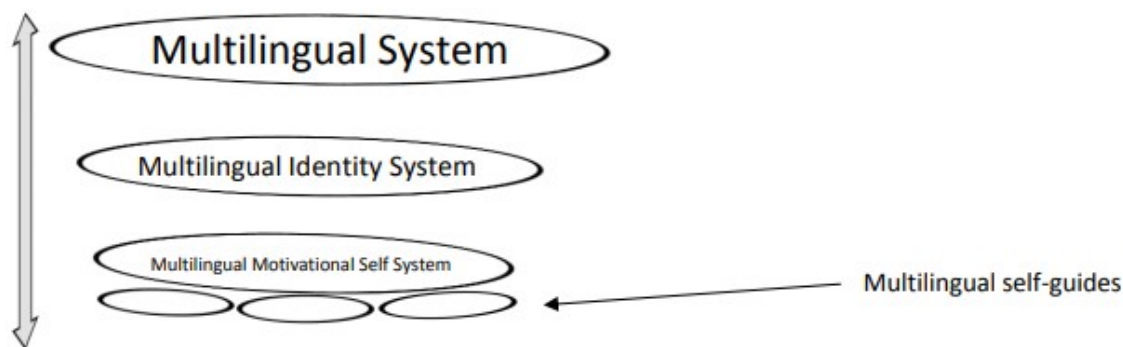


Figure 16. A Systemic Representation of Multilingual Motivational System
Adapted from "L2 motivation and multilingual identities," by A. Henry, 2017, *The Modern Language Journal*, 101(3), p. 13.

As Henry explains, in the first scenario competition arises, one of the two self-guides dominates over the other, undermining its motivational power. On the contrary, in the second scenario, the interactions are harmonious and complementary. This is the case where a multilingual learner enjoys learning more than one language and is instrumentally motivated to develop skills and be proficient in different languages. Here, mutually complementary relationships between *ideal selves* associated to different languages learnt simultaneously can lead to the development of an *Ideal multilingual self* (Fig. 17) as an emergent property of these interactions. This multilingual identity, which transcends language-specific self-guides/identities, reflects the learner's aspirations to become multilingual and represents an additional source of motivation to study foreign languages, which can further empower the multilingual learning experience (2017, pp. 14-16).



Figure 17. The Ideal Multilingual Self as an Emergent Property of Complementary Interactions
Adapted from “L2 motivation and multilingual identities,” by A. Henry, 2017, *The Modern Language Journal*, 101(3), p. 16.

Henry and Thorsen's (2017) support the validity of Henry's (2017) *Ideal multilingual self* and emphasize the motivational potential of this construct in order to promote pedagogies or cross-language teaching in multilingual learning settings. To this purpose, they advocate “a more holistic, interactive ecological approach” (p. 8), highlighting the educational implications of a conceptualization of a *multilingual identity* as a composite and multidimensional self-conception. Centered around the existence of future-oriented identities resulting from learners' multilingual learning experiences, the multilingual self affects the overall process of motivation to learn foreign languages. Not only do Henry and Thorsen's (2017) findings corroborate the motivational power of the *Ideal multilingual self* but they also show that this dimension and the *Ideal L2 self construct* are different.

Thompson and Erdil-Moody (2016) also use Dörnyei's L2MSS framework (i.e., *Ideal* and *Ought-to L2 selves*) to examine the relationship between learner motivation and a) the multilingual (L3) learning experience and b) learner's *perceived positive language interaction (PPLI)*. The findings show that multilingual learners have a significantly stronger *Ideal L2 self* than bilingual learners and that learners who perceived a positive interaction with the studied language have a higher *Ideal multilingual self* than learners with no perceived positive interaction.

Finally, to take stock of the situation regarding LOTEs/ L3 motivation research over the last decade, a growing bulk of meaningful studies have been conducted in both Anglophone contexts (e.g., Busse & Walter, 2013; de Burgh-Hirabe, 2019; Lanvers, 2016a, MacIntyre, Baker, & Sparling, 2017; Thompson, 2017a) and non-Anglophone contexts (e.g. Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Gao & Lv, 2018; Henry, 2014; Siridetkoon & Dewaele, 2018; Wang & Liu, 2017; Wang & Zheng, 2019; Zheng, Lu, & Ren, 2019),⁵¹ contributing to update the research agenda. However, LOTEs/L3 motivation is still a relatively uncharted terrain (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2017), which requires further theoretical and empirical research.

To conclude, let us finally mention “unconscious motivation” as a novel strand within the field of L2 and L3 motivation, which also resonates with mainstream motivational psychology (eg., Ryan & Legate, 2012; Zajonc, 1968, 2001) and has been launched especially by a number of works by Al-Hoorie (2015, 2016a, 2016b). As Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017, pp. 464-465) point out, this line of inquiry is especially concerned with two major issues: 1) how unconscious (implicit) attitudes and motives shape learner motivational behaviour and how these aspects diverge in the two types of learning motivation (L2 and L3); 2) “why people learn – or perhaps more importantly, do not learn – LOTEs”. Since these issues are currently drawing attention of a growing number of studies, this area can be considered as one of the most significant future directions over the next decade.

⁵¹ However, most of the existent L3 motivation research is based in Europe, whereas research outside Europe is limited.

5 Methodology

This study investigates the current level of student motivation to learn modern foreign languages (MFL) in secondary schools in England, with a particular focus on the context of Hull and the Humberside (East Riding of Yorkshire). As already mentioned, based on a substantial number of meaningful findings from surveys and studies conducted in the UK, at the beginning of the current study, we were able to establish a primary research hypothesis, i.e., *secondary school students are not motivated to study MFL in England*. Consequently, we also formulated the following primary research question that informs the investigation:

RQ1: What are the reasons why English secondary school students lack motivation to study foreign languages?

Additionally, a second research question was posed to narrow the focus of the first research question:

RQ2: What are the major factors affecting student motivation/demotivation to learn foreign languages in secondary school in England?

A third research question aimed to examine the relationships/correlations between fifteen L2 motivational factors⁵² and ten socio-demographic variables:⁵³

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship/correlation between each motivational factor identified in the study and a number of socio-demographic variables such as gender, nationality....?

Furthermore, to enlarge the research scope, a fourth research question explored a number of contextual factors, such as the student's socio-cultural background, family influence and the general school system (including school policies/barriers), which can have an impact on student L2 motivation:

RQ4: What are the major contextual factors affecting L2 student motivation?

Finally, the last two research questions were raised to investigate teacher's motivation, role and practices affecting student L2 motivation:

- *RQ5: To what extent can teacher influence L2 student motivation?*

⁵² Motivational factors analyzed in the student questionnaire: 1. Criterion Measure; 2. Ideal Self; 3. Ought-to Self; 4. Family/Parental Encouragement; 5. Instrumentality (Promotion); 6. Travel Orientation; 7. Instrumentality (Prevention); 8. L2 Self-confidence; 9. L2 Anxiety; 10. L2 Attitudes/ Interest; 11. L2 Cultural Interest; 12. Attitudes towards L2 Community; 13. Integrativeness; 14. International Posture; 15. Intercultural Willingness to Communicate in L2.

⁵³ See section 1.1.

- *RQ6: To what extent do teachers employ effective teaching practices/strategies to boost L2 student motivation in English secondary school?*

5.1 Research Design and Procedures

To address the above-mentioned research questions, a mixed method design has been adopted, taking the shape of a “concurrent triangulation approach”. Basically, after collecting both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently and analysing the two databases separately, the researcher integrates or compares the results in order “to determine if there is convergence, differences, or some combination” (Creswell, 2003, p.213).

According to this method, the process of integrating both statistic and qualitative findings does not simply aim “to seek agreement or disagreement between the data sets”, but, primarily, “to put the data into a more comprehensive explanatory framework”, as Mertens and Hesse-Biber (2012, p. 75) suggest. Thus, the researcher maximises the potential of combining different methods to obtain an in-depth knowledge about the phenomenon being studied, which overcomes the traditional dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative methods reflecting two different philosophical perspectives and research paradigms.

This study, therefore, adopts a new perspective whereby qualitative and quantitative methods are viewed as “two ends of a continuum rather than as two different kinds of distinct methods” (Diesing, 1971, p. 5). If the quantitative method “emphasizes objectivity in collecting data, testing hypotheses and revising theories” in order to provide a description of the phenomenon in question, the qualitative interpretative method relies on the “complexity of subjective meanings constructed by individual experiences” which reflects the participants’ views of the phenomenon in question (Peng, 2014, p. 7). By using two different data sources in this fashion, moreover, in the current study it is possible to compensate the weakness of one method with the strength of the other, to enlarge the research scope and gain a more holistic and individual-in-context perspective of the phenomenon under investigation.

Employing triangulation research method has also a number of limitations because it is time consuming and requires great effort. Besides, some discrepancies may occur when comparing different data sources, which are relatively difficult to solve (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Nevertheless, in the attempt to settle them, the researcher may disclose “unexpected results, or unseen contextual factors” (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008, p.114), which can contribute to an “enriched explanation of the research problem” (Jick, 1979, p.609).

In Fig. 18 , the overall mixed-method research design is clearly outlined, which reports the research questions according to the main objectives/aims of the study, the type of research method (i.e., quantitative/qualitative), the instrument used for collecting data (questionnaire/interview) and data analysis procedures (exploratory factor analysis for the quantitative data; thematic coding analysis for the qualitative findings).

MAIN OBJECTIVES/AIMS	RQ	RESEARCH METHOD (INSTRUMENT)	DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES
1. Exploring students' lack of motivation to study foreign languages in Secondary School.	RQ1	Quantitative (Int.)	Exploratory factor analysis
		+	
		Qualitative (Ques.)	Thematic coding analysis
2. . Exploring the major factors affecting L2 student motivation	RQ2	Quantitative (Int.)	Exploratory factor analysis (descriptive statistics)
		+	
		Qualitative (Ques.)	Thematic coding analysis
3. Exploring relationships/ correlations between motivational factors and socio-demographic factors	RQ3	Quantitative (Questionnaire)	Exploratory factor analysis (Independent samples t-tests /ANOVA; bivariate Pearson correlation tests)
4. Exploring a number of contextual determinants affecting student L2 motivation (eg., socio-cultural context; family; L2 school system)	RQ4	Qualitative (Interviews)	Thematic coding analysis
5. Exploring a number of factors related to teacher, which affect student L2 motivation	RQ5	Qualitative (Interviews)	Thematic coding analysis
6. Exploring teachers' beliefs about the most effective teaching practices/strategies to promote L2 learning motivation	RQ6	Qualitative (Interviews)	Thematic coding analysis

Figure 18. Mixed Methods Research Design Framework

In order to address the issues of validity and reliability of the qualitative research method employed in this study, a *thick description* is also provided in the qualitative research analysis section of this dissertation. In other words, a detailed description of results gives voice to the teachers' viewpoints, attitudes and experiences through quotes from the participants. In this fashion, "a sense of verisimilitude is achieved as the reader can visualize

the participants' thoughts, past experiences, concerns and emotions, as Denzin (1989) suggests:

A thick description ... does more than record what a person is doing. It goes beyond mere fact and surface appearances. It presents detail, context, emotion, and the webs of social relationships that join persons to one another. Thick description evokes emotionality and self-feelings. It inserts history into experience. It establishes the significance of an experience, or the sequence of events, for the person or persons in question. In thick description, the voices, feelings, actions, and meanings of interacting individuals are heard (pp. 83-84).

As we can clearly see from the dense presentation of findings (see Analysis Chapter), the participants' lived experiences, behaviours and thoughts acquire significance as they merge with the researcher's interpretations. As a result, a vivid picture of the phenomenon under study emerges, with clear-cut cultural contextualization. Indeed, as Schwandt (2001) maintains, "it is this interpretive characteristic [...] rather than detail per se that makes [description] thick" (p. 255).

5.2 Participants

5.2.1 Description of the Student Sample

A total of 393 students participated in this study, including 204 males (52%) and 186 (47%) females; 3 students did not disclose their gender. With regard to the sampling procedures, *convenience or opportunity sampling* was chosen to meet practical criteria such as school availability and geographical proximity. The participants were selected from three secondary schools in Kingston upon Hull - a city in the Yorkshire and the Humber (North of England) - and surrounding area. Only one school, SchoolK, is located within the city (North-West area). The other two, SchoolW and SchoolH, are situated in Willerby (a suburb) and Hessle (a satellite town 5 miles West of Hull city centre). SPSS 15.0 descriptive statistics provided the socio-demographic characteristics of the student sample according to the following variables: Gender, Nationality, School Year, FL Studied, Abroad Courses, Study Years, L1 student, L1 Parents, School Type, School Term (Appendix A).

A total of 180 students (46%) of the above mentioned schools responded to the questionnaire during the last term of 2016/2017 school year (June-July 2017), whereas 213 students (54%) responded during the first term of the following school year (September/December 2017). With regards to the distribution of students per school (Fig. 19),

249 students belonged to SchoolK (63%), whereas equal number (72 students per each school, i.e., 18%) belonged to SchoolH and SchoolW.

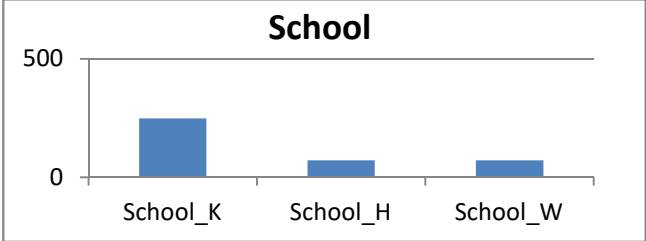


Figure 19. Distribution of Participants per School

The students’ age range was 12-16. They were distributed across all the two stages of secondary education: Key Stage 3 (Years 7 to 9 – pupils aged between 12 and 14) and Key Stage 4 (years 10 and 11 – pupils aged between 14 and 16).As we can see from the graph (Fig. 20), most participants were in Year 9 (181), followed by students in Year 7 (99), students in Year 8 (55) and students in Year 10 (44). The smallest group was Year 11 (13). Only one response was missing.

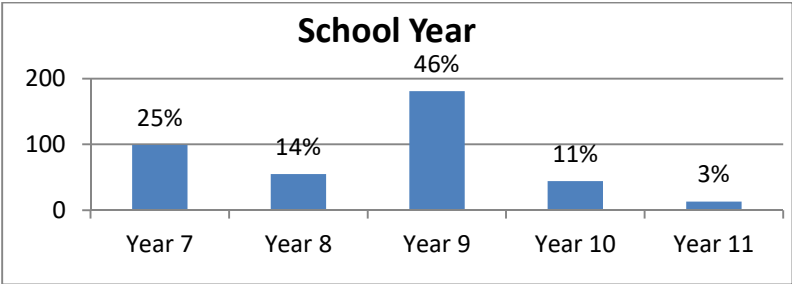


Figure 20. Distribution of Participants per School Year

As to students’ nationality, 369 respondents were British and only 6 were from the EU (Fig.21). With regard to students’ native language (L1), 96% of students spoke English, whereas only 4% did not (Fig. 22). As to their parents’ L1, 90% of students had both parents speaking English and 5% had only one parent with English as a native language. The other 5% had both parents whose L1 was a language other than English (Fig. 23).

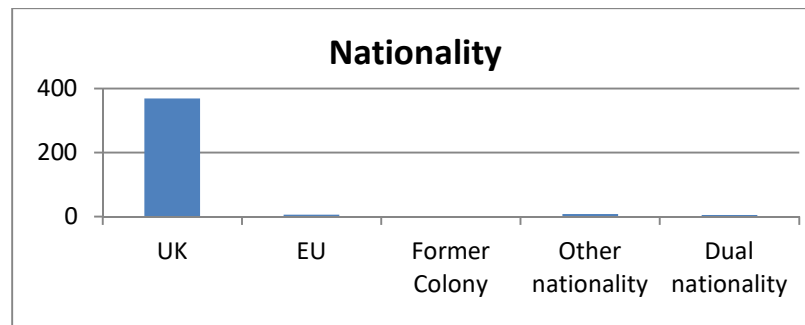


Figure 21. Distribution of Students' Nationality across the Schools

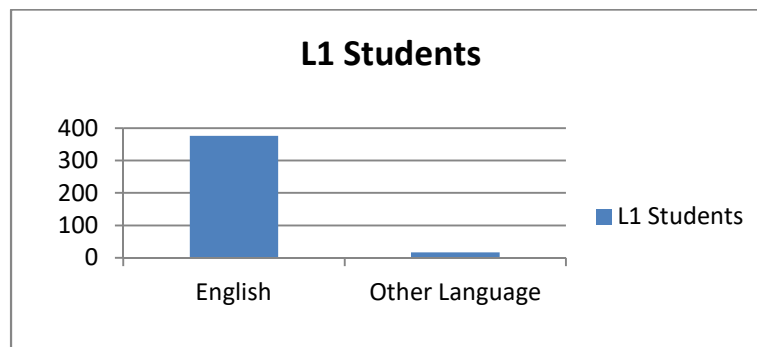


Figure 22. Distribution of Participants according to their L1

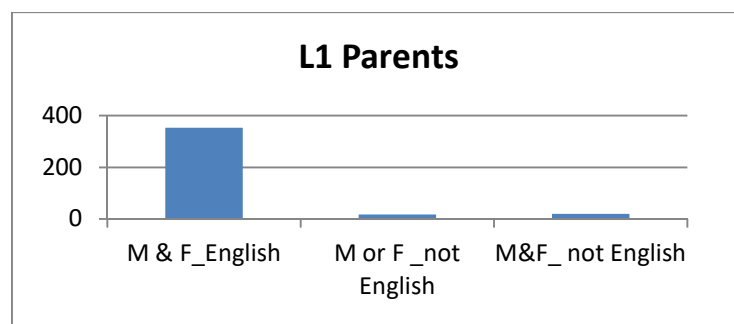


Figure 23. Distribution of Participants according to their Parents' L1

With respect to the type of language studied at school, the number of students studying French (46%) was nearly equal to that of Spanish (44%), whereas the percentage of students of German was very small (5%) (Fig. 24). Moreover, 5 responses were missing (1%) and only 14 students (4%) chose to study more than one language after Key Stage 3. As to the number of years, most students (34%) reported that they had been studying a foreign language for 2 years, 18% for 3 years, 17% for 1 year, 15% for 4 years and, finally, very few students for more than 4 years (Fig. 25). Eventually, only 7% of students had experienced a language course abroad before, whereas the large majority of students (89%) had never had this kind of opportunity (Fig. 26).

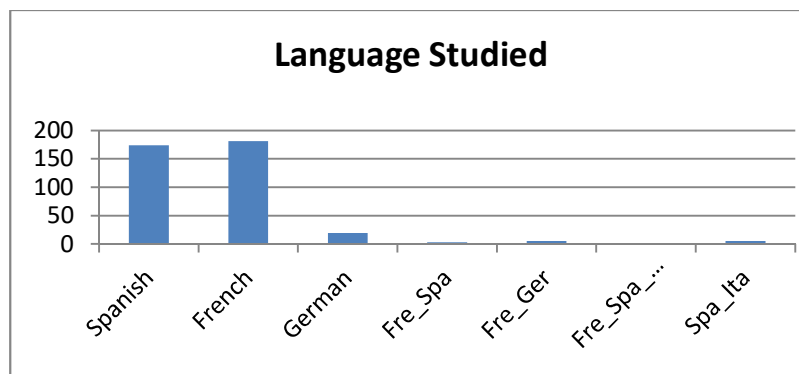


Figure 24. Distribution of Participants according to the Language Studied

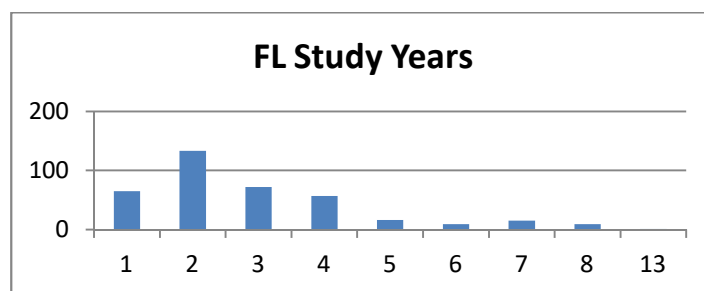


Figure 25. Distribution of Participants according to the Number of FL Years Studied

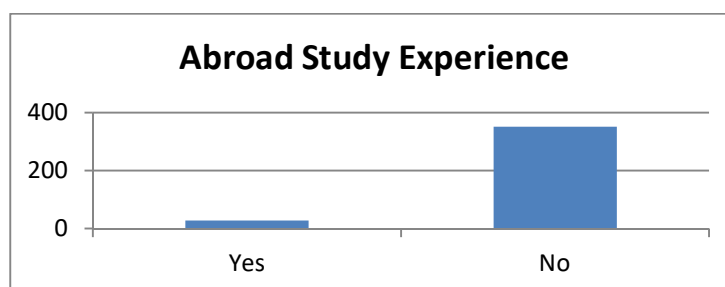


Figure 26. Distribution of Participants according to their Abroad Study Experience

5.2.2 Description of the Teacher Sample

A total of 8 MFL teachers, 2 Heads of Languages and 1 Deputy Teacher participated in the semi-structured interviews. Again, the participants were selected according to convenience sampling, meeting the following criteria: school accessibility and availability to the interviews. Four schools were involved in the qualitative research; three of them were also involved in the questionnaire survey (quantitative investigation). The interviewees' average age was 35 years, 5 were males and 6 females. The Deputy Teachers was in charge of the quality assurance of the teaching, the whole Curriculum content and results, including

Modern Foreign Languages. As to the two Heads of languages, they line managed the MFL Department to deliver a broad and balance curriculum in their schools.

Further information about the schools and the participants were provided by teachers at the beginning of each interview, which have been summarized in Fig. 27.

School	School Descriptions & Total Nr Students	FL	Nr Students per class	Teacher Profile	Interviewee Key
SchoolB	Approx. 1000 ss: 900 in the main school; 100 in the Sixth Form (post-16 provision). 8 classes for year group.	French, Spanish.	25-30.	Established team. All teachers have a FL degree and a post-graduate teaching qualification.	TB10
SchoolK	Mixed Comprehensive school with approx. 1400 ss, aged 11-16.	French, Spanish, German, Italian.	25-30.	Established team with no less than 4 years of teaching experience. Two are Spanish native speakers. They all have a FL degree and a teaching qualification (PGCE or GTP). Some have an A-Level or GCSE in one language.	TK1 TK2 TK4 TK5 TK6
SchoolH	Approx. 1600 ss. It includes Sixth Form.	French, Spanish, German.	KS3: approx. 28ss; option classes: 11-20 ss.	Established team. Teachers have a FL degree and a PGCE qualification.	TH3 TH10
SchoolW	Approx. 1600 ss. It includes a Sixth Form College.	French, German, Spanish, Japanese.	28-32.	Established team. Teachers have a FL degree and a teaching qualification.	TW1 TW2 TW10

Figure 27. Description of the Schools Involved in the Study

5.3 Instruments and Data Collection Procedures

5.3.1 Student Questionnaire

The quantitative data were collected in three different secondary schools (SchoolK, SchoolH and SchoolW) from June to December 2017. To address RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3, a student questionnaire was administered within 30 minutes by the same teachers involved in the interviews. This instrument represents a modified version of the six-point Likert scale student questionnaire developed by Taguchi et al. (2009), which was used in 2008-2009 comparative

survey project in Japan, China and Iran (Dörnyei, 2010; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) for measuring students' motivation to study foreign languages.

In the current study, the original version of the questionnaire was adapted⁵⁴ for use in the context of English secondary education. The modified version comprises of three sections (Appendix C). The first part inquires into the demographics of the participants, according to the socio-demographic variables (Appendix A) already mentioned in the student sample description. The other two sections contain a total of 54 items: 41 statement-type items in the second part of the questionnaire, 13 question type items in the third one. The two sections adopt two different scales, which range from 1 to 6 as follows:

1) 1=strongly agree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=slightly agree, 5= agree, 6= strongly agree (Part 2).

2) 1= not at all, 2= not so much, 3= so-so, 4= a little, 5= quite a lot, 6= very much (Part 3).

As the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients estimated for Taguchi et al. (2009) 's questionnaire items was high, the current study adopted the final on-line version of the questionnaire, available on Dörnyei's website. Some items were slightly modified according to the new context (items 4 and 20), and two question-type items were changed into statements (items 22 and 26).

Even though some of the items are not included in the original version of the questionnaire, they were selected from the combined grouped item pool attached to the questionnaire (in Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010), which followed the criteria discussed by Dörnyei (2003b) and Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010). In the first section of the adapted questionnaire, furthermore, the items were mixed up to ensure a sense of variety, to make the answering process less monotonous and prevent students from simply repeating previous answers, as suggested by Dörnyei and Csizér (2012, p. 78).

Moreover, *L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate*⁵⁵ and *International Posture* scales were added in the current questionnaire, drawing on the most relevant research findings on these relevant motivational factors (i.e., MacIntyre et al. 1998; Yashima, 2000, 2002). Accordingly, items 9, 11, 16, 47, 48, 51, 52, 53, 54, which did not appear in the original version, were introduced in the questionnaire. In particular, Item 9 was included in Yashima's (2002) questionnaire.

⁵⁴ An e-mail was sent to Prof Dörnyei in July 2016, asking permission to adapt the questionnaire, which was granted.

⁵⁵ In MacIntyre et al. (1998), this variable was denominated as *Willingness to Communicate (WTC)*. In the current study, it has been modified to encompass student willingness to speak in L2 in an intercultural context.

As we can see from Appendix A and Appendix B, the questionnaire measured the following motivational factors in order to answer the second research question (i.e., *What are the major factors affecting student motivation to learn foreign languages in secondary school?*):

1. *Criterion Measure*: 4 items. It assesses the learners' perceptions of their current or future efforts to learn a foreign language;
2. *Ideal L2 Self*: 5 items. It measures students' visions of themselves using a foreign language in the future.
3. *Ought-to L2 Self* : 3 items. It concerns the properties a learner believes he ought to possess in terms of duties, obligations or responsibilities, in order to meet others' (peers', teachers' or family's) expectations and to gain their approval.
4. *Parental Encouragement/Family Influence*: 4 items. It measures the support and encouragement that students perceive they have received from their parents.
5. *Instrumentality (Promotion)*: 3 items. It refers to the regulation of learning behaviour in order to achieve practical or pragmatic goals such as making money, finding a good job or progressing to further studies.
6. *Travel Orientation*: 2 items. It measures the importance of learning foreign languages related to student's desire to travel.
7. *Instrumentality (Prevention)*: 3 items. It concerns the regulation of learning behaviour in order to fulfil duties and obligations, and to avoid negative outcomes such as failure in an exam.
8. *L2 Self-Confidence*: 3 items. It concerns the students' linguistic confidence.
9. *L2 Anxiety*: 3 items. It measures the learner's uneasiness, discomfort or apprehension when learning a foreign language.
10. *L2 Learning Attitude/ Interest*: 5 items.
11. *L2 Cultural Interest*: 4 items.
12. *Attitudes toward L2 Community*: 4 items. It measures student attitudes towards the speakers of the target language.
13. *Integrativeness*: 3 items. It measures a general positive outlook on the target language and its culture, to the extent that learners may even want to become similar to the target language speakers.
14. *International Posture*: 5 items. It measures the interest in foreign or international affairs and openness toward different cultures (Yashima, 2002).

15. *L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate (L2IWTC)*: 4 items. It measured the learner's willingness to communicate in L2 with foreign speakers in an intercultural context.

5.3.2 Teacher Interviews

A total of 11 teachers were involved in the semi-structured interviews, conducted on different days, between June and July 2017. These interviews aimed to investigate, firstly, the reasons why English students lack L2 motivation in secondary school (RQ1) and, secondly, to account for the major factors affecting L2 student motivation/demotivation (RQ2). Finally, they also shed light on the following topics:

- Contextual barriers hindering L2 motivation such as student socio-cultural context, parental influence, school system policies (RQ4).
- Teacher-related factors (RQ5): teacher beliefs and level of motivation.
- L2 learning experience: effective teaching strategies/practices promoting L2 motivation (RQ6).

Before participating in the interview, each interviewee signed an informed consent, whereby confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed. To achieve this purpose, each interview transcript was also attributed an interviewee key (eg., TK1; TK2; TB10) as we can see from Fig. 28. An interview guide was also used for the interviews (Appendix D). This protocol comprised of a set of questions aiming to gather focused qualitative textual data. The first part of the interviews presented some warm-up questions in order to help the participants to feel comfortable. A number of demographic questions were also useful to obtain information on the specific school context (i.e., number of students, classes, teacher profile).

Moving from general topics (such as students' awareness of L2 learning benefits) to more specific insights (i.e. motivational factors) this method uncovered the teachers' personal experiences and rich descriptive data on the students' L2 motivation process. To this purpose, open-ended questions and probing questions were mainly used to collect as much information as possible, whereas leading questions were avoided in order to reduce bias. As the interviews unfolded, further questions were added, allowing flexibility to the dialogue. Each interview lasted approximately half an hour, was recorded and then transcribed.

5.4 Data Analysis Procedures

As the research employed a mixed methods design, the analysis of findings was conducted according to two distinct and subsequent phases (the former quantitative and the latter qualitative), which are, therefore, presented in different sections of the following chapter. As already said in the previous chapter (Fig.18), different instruments of data analysis were employed in the two types of research:

1. Quantitative phase: *Exploratory Factor Analysis* was conducted, which involved SPSS statistical methods (descriptive statistics; independent samples t- tests; ANOVA; bivariate Pearson correlation tests) (RQ1; RQ2; RQ3);
2. Qualitative phase: *Thematic Coding Analysis* was used to shed light more light on the major motivational factors affecting L2 student motivation (RQ1; RQ2) and enlarge the research scope (RQ4; RQ5; RQ6).

In the qualitative phase, one-to one semi-structured interviews enabled me to obtain first-hand information from 11 participants (8 MFL teachers, 2 Heads of languages and 1 Deputy Headteacher) with regard to their experiences, opinions and beliefs on student L2 motivation. Data collection and data analysis did not occur as two separate phases, but concurrently, as the interviews unfolded. A preliminary data analysis involved taking informal notes of ideas or themes that emerged during the interviews, which raised new research issues and questions. While pursuing new themes as they arose in the later interviews, I did not change the general framework of the semi-structure interview protocol, which was, however, increased by the new questions.

To analyze the qualitative data generated in the study, I used *Thematic Coding Analysis* based on Gibbs (2007), Braun and Clarke (2006), and Maguire and Delahunt (2017). With regards to the coding process, in particular, I drew on Saldaña's (2013) coding manual. The qualitative data analysis was therefore informed by a six-phase process:

- *Phase 1:* I transcribed the interview recordings *verbatim* and, after checking the transcripts against the recordings carefully, I read the narratives several times in order to familiarize with the entire body of data and made notes whenever I found meaningful patterns.
- *Phase 2:* This involved a *provisional coding*. Firstly, I attempted to organize the data in a meaningful and systematic way in order to address the main research questions already formulated. To this purpose, I detected segments of text that represented the same thematic ideas and were relevant to the research questions.

- *Phase 3: An inductive coding (bottom–up) approach was mainly employed, which involved working through the coding process by starting from the data. As suggested by Saldaña’s (2013), eclectic coding was applied – i.e., a form of open coding employing a compatible simultaneous combination of 2 or 3 different methods (eg., structural coding; descriptive coding; process coding).*

- *Phase 4 (or code mapping): I re-examined the codes obtained and reorganized those ones which fitted together into a list of categories, which were further condensed into the major themes that seemed to be more appropriate to address the research questions. To identify the major emergent categories and themes, the knowledge derived from L2 motivation literature (deductive/top-down coding approach) was also useful.*

- *Phase 5: I reviewed the categories and themes repeatedly, checking if they worked with the coded segments of texts. Where appropriate, these categories were compared and matched to the categories focused on in the student questionnaire. This phase also involved a recursive and time-consuming process of relabeling and changing the categories from subordinate into superordinate level or vice versa, which led to a reorganization of the initial categories into a more select set of categories/subcategories and themes (see Fig. 28). These categories were then systematized in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet together with the supporting codes and data (i.e., interviewee statements) and corresponding keys (i.e., interviewee + category label and excerpt position, eg., TK1-S1a).*

- *Phase 6: I refined the list of categories emerged from phase 5 and developed a final theoretical framework of overarching categories, subcategories and themes related to the specific research questions of this investigation (Fig. 33, section 6.4). This matrix helped me summarize all the major L2 motivational factors derived from the qualitative investigation, organize and write-up the major results under different headings and subheadings of various chapter sections.*

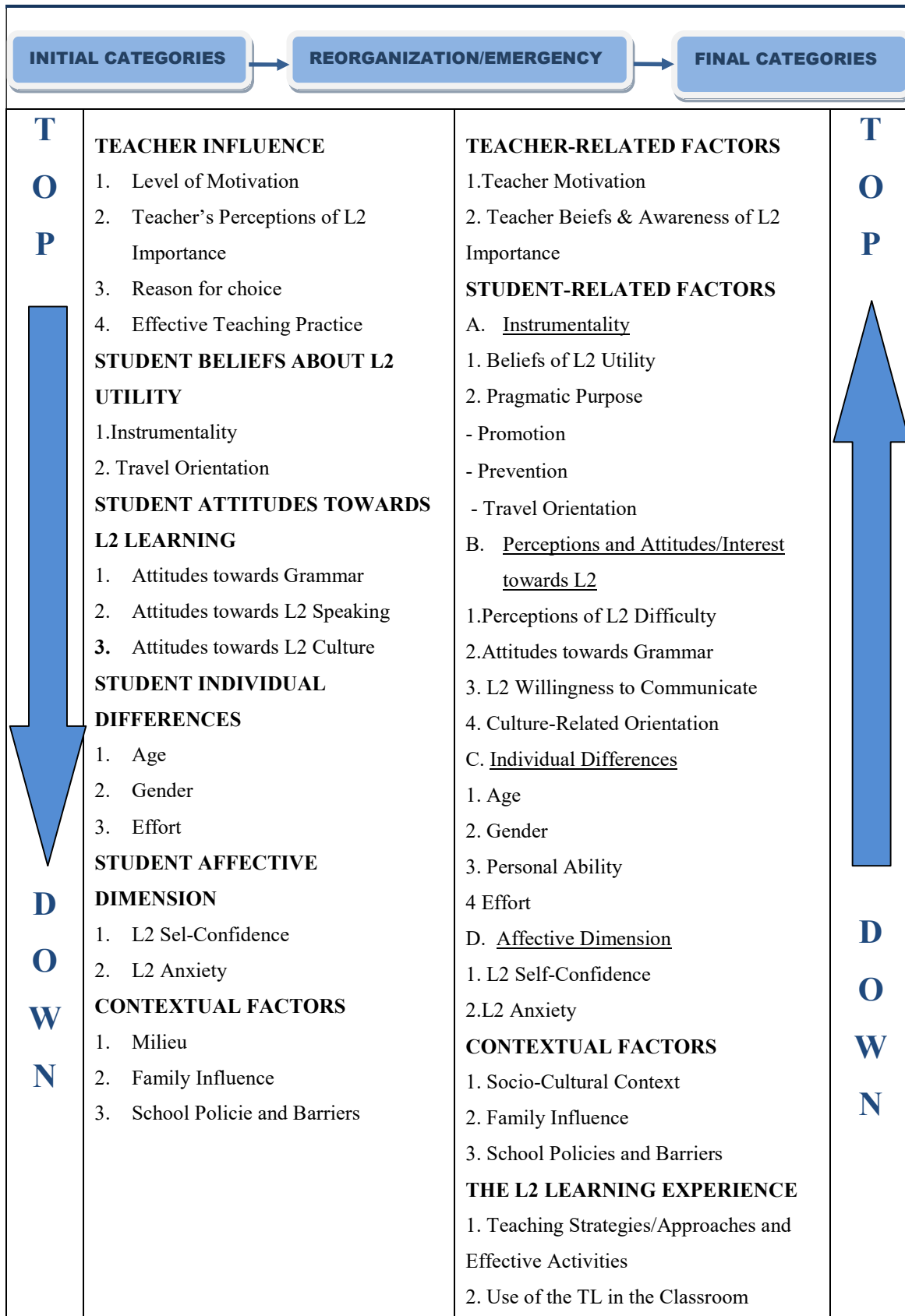


Figure 28. The Process of Reorganization/Emergency of Categories and Themes (Phase 5)

6 Presentation and Analysis of the Findings

The quantitative and qualitative results of the study are presented in this chapter. Firstly, Section 6.1 will present *descriptive statistics* of the quantitative data from the questionnaire in order to address RQ1 e RQ2. In particular, on focusing on the *Ideal L2 self* and *Ought-to L2 self*, descriptive analysis will help the discussion on student L2 motivation within the framework of Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) *L2MSS*. Descriptive statistics on *Instrumentality* variables (*Promotion*; *Prevention* and *Travel Orientation*) will also help the reader understand the significance the participants attach to learning a foreign language at school in terms of pragmatic goals (utility). In addition, the same instruments will measure British students' *intended effort* on studying languages (*Criterion Measure*), the impact of parents on student L2 motivation (*Family Influence*) and the significance of affective variables such as *L2 Self-confidence* and *L2 Anxiety*.

Furthermore, in the same chapter section, descriptive statistics will display a number of variables such as *L2 Learning Attitude/Interest*, *L2 Cultural Interest*, *Attitudes toward L2 Community*, *Integrativeness*, which will reveal the extent to which students are interested in the particular target language, their openness towards the target language culture, country and citizens (L2 community). Eventually, it will show the international importance student attach to learning a foreign language, their general interest towards foreign/international affairs and other cultures (*International Posture*) and their willingness to sustain contacts in the target language with foreign speakers in an intercultural context (*Intercultural Willingness to Communicate in L2*).

Secondly, in order to disclose the relationships/correlations between the fifteen motivational factors and the 10 socio-demographic variables identified in the study⁵⁶ in relation to RQ3, Section 6.2 will show significant results from *inferential statistics* procedures such as t-Test /Anova and Pearson correlation analysis. Finally, Section 6.3 will address the most relevant qualitative findings derived from the *thematic coding analysis* of the semi-structured interviews conducted in this study.

⁵⁶ The socio-demographic variables are: *SD1-Gender*; *SD2-Nationality*; *SD3-School Year*; *SD4-Foreign Language*; *SD5-Abroad Courses*; *SD6-Study Years*; *SD7- L1 Students*; *SD8- L1 Parents*; *SD9-School Type*; *SD10-School Term*.

6.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Main Factors Affecting L2 Student Motivation

RQ1: What are the reasons why English secondary school students lack motivation to study foreign languages?

RQ2: What are the major factors affecting student motivation/demotivation to learn foreign languages in secondary school?

To address the above research questions, *descriptive statistics* was used to visualize and describe the major results related to L2 motivational factors in a meaningful way. To this purpose, in each of the following subsections, a table for each macrovariable (i.e., motivational factor) will be provided, which shows the breakdown of how many observations were performed (N) and the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation scores. To clearly interpret the ordinal data according to the 6-point Likert scale, furthermore, the mode and median values will also be displayed, which were obtained by recoding the macrovariables into different variables.

6.1.1 Criterion Measure (Measures: 6-28-32-37)

According to descriptive statistics (Table 1), the mean score of *Criterion Measure* is 3.67. By recoding this variable into a different one, I obtained the same Mode and Median score of 4.00. This means that most respondents are slightly favorable to putting effort into learning a foreign language.

Table 1
Criterion Measure

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
CRITERION_MEA	363	1.00	6.00	3.67	1.18
Valid N (listwise)	363				

6.1.2 Ideal L2 Self (Measures: 15-18-27-33-38)

In Table 2, descriptive statistics summarizes *Ideal L2 Self* quantitative findings. As the mean (3.03) and the mode (3.00)⁵⁷ values correspond to “slightly disagree” in the Likert Scale, I can infer that most students hardly ever visualize themselves as Spanish/French/German users/speakers in the future.

⁵⁷To be able to interpret the mean score according to the Likert Scale, the mode was calculated in SPSS by recoding the variable into a different one.

Table 2
Ideal L2 Self

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev.
IDEAL L2 SELF	364	1.00	6.00	3.03	1.22
Valid N (listwise)	364				

6.1.3 Ought- to L2 Self (Measures: 12-17-35)

In Table 3, descriptive statistics presents the main values of *Ought-to-L2 Self* variable. As the mean score is 2.79, by recoding this variable into another one, I have found that the mode is 2.00, which corresponds to “disagree” in the Likert Scale. This means that, according to students, obligation or fear of not meeting others’ (family, peers’, teachers’) expectations do not play a significant role in motivating them to learn foreign languages at school.

Table 3
Ought-to Self

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
OUGHT-TO L2 SELF	365	1.00	6.00	2.79	1.13
Valid N (listwise)	365				

6.1.4 Family/Parental Encouragement (Measures: 2-10-17-36)

As depicted by descriptive statistics on *Family/Parental Encouragement* (Table 4), parents hardly ever encourage students’ L2 motivation (M=2.92). This result is also confirmed by the mode value (i.e., 3.00), which corresponds to “slightly disagree” on the Likert Scale and was obtained by recoding the variable into another one.

Table 4
Family/Parental Encouragement

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
FAMILY/PAR__ENC	369	1.00	6.00	2.92	1.11
Valid N (listwise)	369				

6.1.5 Instrumentality/Promotion (Measures: 4-13-25)

In Table 5, descriptive statistics report *Instrumentality/Promotion* mean, i.e., 3.85. Moreover, by recoding the same variable into another one, the mode value of 5.00 was obtained (Fig. 29). 102 out of 351 respondents agree with the pragmatic benefits of learning a foreign language such as getting better job prospects, making money, becoming an educated person.

Table 5
Instrumentality/Promotion

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
INSTR_PROMOTION	372	1.00	6.00	3.85	1.24
Valid N (listwise)	372				

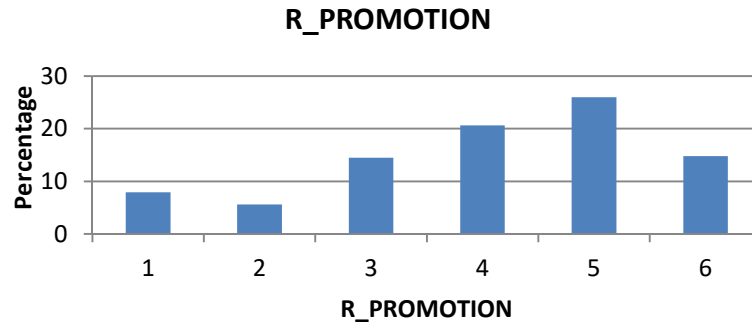


Figure 29. Instrumentality-Promotion Frequency Distribution

6.1.6 Travel Orientation (Measures: 1-20)

Table 6 displays *Travel Orientation* variable mean score, i.e., 3.73. By recoding this variable into another one, the mode of 4.00 was obtained. This means that students “slightly agree” that learning a foreign language is important in order to travel abroad.

Table 6
Travel Orientation

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
TRAV_ORIENTATION	375	1.00	6.00	3.73	1.29
Valid N (listwise)	375				

6.1.7 Instrumentality/Prevention (Measures: 14-30-41)

Instrumentality/Prevention has a mean score of 3.78 (Table 7). By recoding this variable into another one, I obtained the mode of 5.00. This means that the highest percentage of participants agree that obligation and fear of negative results in proficiency tests or exams such GCSE are good reasons for learning foreign languages at school.

Table 7
Instrumentality/Prevention

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
INSTR_PREVENTION	329	1.00	6.00	3.78	1.17
Valid N (listwise)	329				

6.1.8 L2 Self-Confidence (Measures: 5-39-40)

In Table 8, descriptive statistics reports *L2 Self-Confidence* mean score (i.e., 4.13). By recoding this variable into another one, I found a mode of 5.00, that corresponds to “agree” on the Likert Scale. This means that most respondents believe that they are capable of achieving L2 learning goals successfully.

Table 8
L2 Self-Confidence

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
L2 SELF_CON	336	1.00	6.00	4.13	1.18
Valid N (listwise)	336				

6.1.9 L2 Anxiety (Measures: 7-19-49)

In Table 9, descriptive statistics displays *L2 Anxiety* mean score (i.e., 3.68). By recoding this variable into another one, I obtained the mode of 5.00, which means that most participants agree that they feel anxious about speaking a foreign language with native speakers or in their class and about making mistakes.

Table 9
L2 Anxiety

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
L2 ANXIETY	362	1.00	6.00	3.68	1.17
Valid N (listwise)	362				

6.1.10 L2 Attitudes/Interest (Measures: 8-21-24-29-31)

In Table 10, descriptive statistics shows that *L2 Attitudes/Interest* mean score is 3.79. By recoding this variable into another one, the mode value of 5.00 was found, which corresponds to “agree” on the Likert Scale. Thus, most students have a positive attitude towards learning foreign languages at school.

Table 10
L2 Attitudes/Interest

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
L2 ATT_INT	347	1.00	6.00	3.79	1.28
Valid N (listwise)	347				

6.1.11 L2 Cultural Interest (Measures: 3-22- 26-50)

Table 11 reports *L2 Cultural Interest* mean value (i.e., 3.06). The mode of 3.00, obtained by recoding this variable into a new one, corresponds to “slightly disagree” on the 6-point Likert

Scale. This finding reveals that most respondents show little interest in the target language culture.

Table 11
L2 Cultural Interest

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
L2 CULT_INTEREST	348	1.00	6.00	3.06	1.09
Valid N (listwise)	348				

6.1.12 Attitudes towards L2 Community (Measures: 16-43-45-46)

Table 12 displays *Attitudes towards L2 Community* mean score (i.e., 3.77). By recoding this variable into another one, the mode of 4.00 was calculated, which means that most students' show slightly positive attitudes towards the target language community.

Table 12
Attitudes towards L2 Community

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
ATT_L2 COMMUNITY	349	1.00	6.00	3.77	1.19
Valid N (listwise)	349				

6.1.13 Integrativeness (Measures: 42-44-48)

In Table 13, descriptive statistics reports *Integrativeness* mean score (i.e., 3.40). By recoding this variable into another one, the mode of 3.00 was obtained, which corresponds to "slightly disagree" on the Likert Scale. This reflects lack of openness towards the target language culture, country and speakers, and reluctance to become similar to the target language speakers.

Table 13
Integrativeness

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
INTEGRATIVENESS	352	1.00	6.00	3.40	1.22
Valid N (listwise)	352				

6.1.14 International Posture (Measures: 9-11-23-34-47)

In Table 14, descriptive statistics on *International Postures* shows that the mean score is 3.30. By recoding this variable into another one, the mode of 3.00 was obtained, that corresponds to "slightly disagree" on the Likert Scale. This result reveals a low level of students' interest in foreign or international affairs and lack of openness towards the other culture that primarily uses the target language.

Table 14
International Posture

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
INT_POSTURE	339	1.00	6.00	3.30	.94
Valid N (listwise)	339				

6.1.15 L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate (Measures: 51-52-53-54)

In Table 15, descriptive statistics shows that *L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate(L2IWC)* mean score is 3.22. By recoding this variable into another one, I found a mode of 4.00, which corresponds to “slightly agree” on the Likert Scale.

Table 15
L2 Intercultural Willinness to Communicate

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std dev
L2 IWC	366	1.00	6.00	3.22	1.22
Valid N (listwise)	366				

6.2 Relationships between Student L2 Motivation Factors and Socio-Demographic Variables

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship/correlation between each motivational factor and a number of socio-demographic variables such as SD1-Gender; SD2- Nationality; SD4: ...?

To address the above research question and related subquestions, Independent Samples T-tests or One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), followed by Multiple Comparison Post Hoc testing, were conducted to find out significant relationships between each motivational factor (i.e., dependent variable) described in the previous section and each of the socio-demographic (independent) variables identified in this study (Appendix A). To further the investigation, Bivariate Pearson Correlation tests were also performed to find out whether there is any statistically linear relationship between each motivational factor and *SD6-Study Years* variable.

6.2.1 Criterion Measure Relationships

6.2.1.1 Criterion Measure by SD1- Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and gender?

In Table 16, descriptive statistics of the scales within the two gender groups' scores reveals that the mean score of female group (3.80) is higher than that of male (3.55). In addition, in Table 17, the Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is a statistically significant

difference between the two mean scores, as p-value is .043 ($p < .05$). This finding shows that female students intend to put more effort in learning foreign languages than male students.

Table 16
Gender Relationship (Criterion Measure)

CRITERION_MEASURE	Group Statistics			
	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	189	3.55	1.15
	Female	171	3.80	1.22

Table 17
Independent Samples t-Test (Criterion Measure- Gender Relationship)

CRITERION_MEASURE	t-Test for Equality of Means		
		t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Equal var ass	-2.031	.043

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.1.2 Criterion Measure by SD2- Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and nationality?

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was conducted to explore the relationship between students' intended effort and nationality. The groups' mean scores show that English students have the highest value ($M=3.70$). However, due to the population distribution, the difference between groups is not statistically significant, as indicated by the p-value $> .05$ ($p = .420$).

6.2.1.3 Criterion Measure by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and school year?

As we can infer from the year groups mean scores (Table 18), Year 11 (age 15-16), followed by Year 7 (age 11-12), has the highest mean score, whereas Year 10 (age 14-15) has the lowest mean value. Interestingly, intended effort slightly decreases after the first year of Secondary School, i.e., in Year 8 (age 12-13), then slightly increases in year 9 (age 13-14), but then it drops sharply in Year 10. Since One-way Anova output (Table 19) reveals that p-value is .045 ($p < .05$), we can assume that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores.

Table 18
School Year Relationship (Criterion Measure)

CRITERION_MEASURE	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL YEAR	N	Mean
	7	94	3.79
	8	52	3.52
	9	170	3.76
	10	37	3.16
	11	9	3.81
Total		362	3.67

Table 19
Difference between School Year Groups (Criterion Measure)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	13.58	4	3.40	2.46	.045
Within groups	493.13	357	1.38		
Total	506.71	361			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

After finding significance through the full ANOVA, we also performed a Multiple Comparison Post Hoc Test in order to examine pairwise and subgroup differences. As Table 20 shows, there is a statistically significant difference between the following subgroups means: Year 7/Year 10; Year 9/Year10.

Table 20
Post Hoc Test (Criterion Measure - School Year Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons				
Dependent Variable: CRITERION MEASURE				
LSD				
(I) SCHOOL YEAR	(J) SCHOOL YEAR	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.	
7	8	.27066	.184	
	9	.0310	.837	
	10	.62773(*)	.006	
	11	-.01566	.970	
	8	-.27066	.184	
8	9	-.23959	.199	
	10	.35707	.159	
	11	-.28632	.500	
	7	-.03107	.837	
9	8	.23959	.199	
	10	.59666(*)	.005	
	11	-.04673	.908	
	7	-.62773(*)	.006	
10	8	-.35707	.159	
	9	-.59666(*)	.005	
	11	-.64339	.142	
	7	.01566	.970	
11	8	.28632	.500	
	9	.04673	.908	
	10	.64339	.142	
	7	.01566	.970	

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.1.4 Criterion Measure by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and foreign language learnt at school?

Fig. 30 displays the graph of the relationship between students' *intended effort* and foreign languages taught in the schools involved in the survey. The findings show that French and Spanish group exert the most effort (M = 5.50) in learning these languages among all groups of students, whereas German students put the least effort (M=3.19).

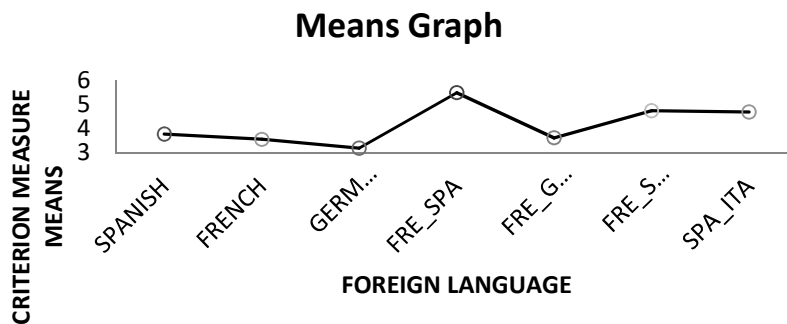


Figure 30. FL Relationship

As we can see in the Table 21, the output of ANOVA analysis shows that the significance value is .007 (i.e., below .05). This means that there is a statistically significant difference between the FL group means. However, we do not know which of the specific groups differed as a Multiple Comparisons Table containing the results of the post hoc test is not available because a group (FRE_SPA_GER) has less than two cases.

Table 21
Difference between FL Group Means (Criterion Measure)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	24.49	6	4.08	3.00	.007
Within groups	477.37	351	1.36		
Total	501.86	357			

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.1.5 Criterion Measure by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and previous L2 learning abroad experience?

As to the relationship between *Criterion Measure* and *Abroad Courses* variable, the mean score of respondents who had a FL study experience overseas is lower (M= 3.51) than that of students who did not (M= 3.67). However, as Independent Samples t-Test shows, the

difference between the two groups' mean scores is not statistically significant as p-value is .480 (>.05).

6.2.1.6 Criterion Measure by SD6-Study Years

RQ3. Is there any significant relationship/correlation between students' intended effort and the number of years they have studied FL?

RQ3-Subquestion: If yes, what kind of significant correlation (linear relationship) is there between students' intended effort and the number of FL study years?

As depicted by descriptive statistics of the scales within the years study groups, respondents who have studied FL for 1 year show the highest mean score (M= 3.89) in relationship to intended effort. However, One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) revealed no significant difference between means, as p-value is .445 (>.05). In spite of this, in light of the result of Pearson Correlation (Table 22), there is a negative correlation between Criterion Measure and Study Years ($r = -.127$). This means that the longer students have studied a foreign language the less effort they intend to expend. This finding is statistically significant at .05 level ($p = .018$) and it clearly emerges from the graph of the group means (Fig. 31).

Table 22
Bivariate Correlation between Criterion Measure and FL Study Years

		Pearson Correlations	
		CRI_MEA	STUDY_YEARS
CRITERION_MEA	Pearson Cor	1	-.127(*)
	Sig. (Two-tailed)		.018
	N	363	348
FL STUDY_YEARS	Pearson Cor	-.127(*)	1

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

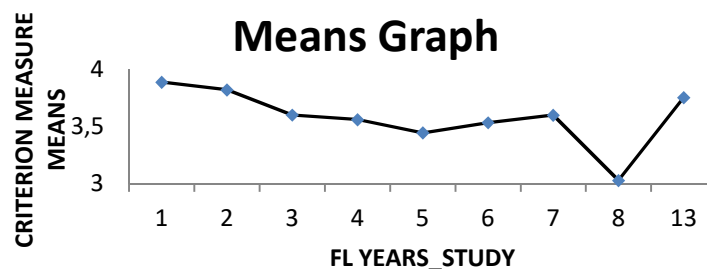


Figure 31. FL Study Years Relationship

6.2.1.7 Criterion Measure by SD7-L1 Students

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and their L1?

According to descriptive group statistics, students whose L1 is English have the highest mean score (M= 3.68). As the population sample is homogeneous (i.e. 347 out of 362 speak English as a native language), the Independent Samples t-Test reveals that the difference between the two mean scores is not significant ($p = .531 > .05$).

6.2.1.8 Criterion Measure by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and their parents' L1?

Descriptive statistics show that students with both parents speaking English as a first language have the highest mean score (i.e., 3.68). This means that these students are willing to put more effort than the other two groups. However, the difference between mean scores is not statistically significant, as confirmed by both One-way ANOVA outcome ($p\text{-value} = .750 > .05$) and Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test.

6.2.1.9 Criterion Measure by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and school type?

Table 23 reports students' intended effort in relationship to the three different schools involved in the survey. SchoolH has the highest mean value (M= 4.00) whereas SchoolW has the lowest (M=3.50). As depicted in Table 24, One-way Anova analysis was conducted and a statistically significant difference between the mean scores was found: $p = .024 (< .05)$.

Table 23
School Type Relationship (Criterion Measure)

CRITERION_MEASURE	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	232	3.62
	SchoolH	67	4.01
	SchoolW	64	3.49
Total		363	3.67

Table 24
Difference between School Type Group Means (Criterion Measure)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	10.36	2	5.18	3.76	.024
Within groups	496.80	360	1.38		
Total	507.16	362			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Moreover, as displayed by Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test in Table 25, there are statistically significant mean differences marked with a single asterisk(*) - where p-value is less than 0.05 - which indicate that students' intended effort is consistently higher in SchoolH than in SchoolK and SchoolW.

Table 25
Post Hoc Test (Criterion Measure - School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: CRITERION MEA			
LSD			
(I) SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SchoolK	SchoolH	-.38943(*)	.017
	SchoolW	.12958	.435
SchoolH	SchoolK	.38943(*)	.017
	SchoolW	.51901(*)	.012
SchoolW	SchoolK	-.12958	.435
	SchoolH	-.51901(*)	.012

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.1.10 Criterion Measure by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intended effort and the school term?

As to the impact of School Term on Criterion Measure, the First Term mean score is higher (M= 3.7299) than the Last Term, but Independent Samples t-Test demonstrates that the difference is not statistically significant (i.e., p-value = .295 >.05).

6.2.2 Ideal L2 Self Relationships

6.2.2.1 Ideal L2 Self by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and gender?

As to Gender relationship, female students show a higher level (M= 3.12) of L2 Ideal Self than males (M= 2.94). However, both females and males' means are low and, as Independent Samples t-Test proves, there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups (p= .167>.05). This finding reveals that the impact of gender on student's representation of the L2 attributes one wishes to possess in the future is not significant.

6.2.2.2 Ideal L2 Self by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and nationality?

As to the nationality impact upon Ideal L2 Self, UK group seems to be more motivated than the other groups (M= 3.04). However, the population sample is homogeneous and, as One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) shows, there is no significant difference between the mean scores (p-value = .860>.05).

6.2.2.3 Ideal L2 Self by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and school year?

Descriptive statistics reports that Year 11 has the highest mean score (M=3.36). However, One-way ANOVA analysis indicates no significant difference between the mean scores (p=.386>.05). Finally, a Multiple Comparisons Post hoc test was carried out without any statistically significant results.

6.2.2.4 Ideal L2 Self by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and the foreign language learnt at school?

As we can infer from Table 26, Spanish has a greater mean score (M= 3.06) than French and German, whereas students of German lag behind the other groups (M= 2.41). Furthermore, if we consider respondents who are studying more than a foreign language, French and Spanish group expressed the highest score of all groups (M= 4.93). However, this group has only 3 individuals. Furthermore, the output of ANOVA analysis (Table 27) shows that the significance value is .004, which is below .05. This means that there is a statistically significant difference between the FL groups means. However, Multiple Comparisons Table with the results of the Post Hoc Test is not available because a group (FRE_SPA_GER) has less than two cases.

Table 26
Foreign Language Relationship (Ideal L2 Self)

IDEAL L2 SELF	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	167	3.06
	French	166	3.00
	German	18	2.41
	Fre-Spa	3	4.93
	Fre-Ger	4	3.40
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	4.80
	Spa-Ita	3	4.53
Total		362	3.04

Table 27
Difference between FL Group Means (Ideal L2 Self)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	24.44	6	4.74	3.29	.004
Within groups	511.08	355	1.44		
Total	539.52	361			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.2.5 Ideal L2 Self by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and previous L2 learning abroad experience ?

The Ideal L2 Self component of motivation is higher ($M= 3.13$) in those students who had an overseas FL study experience. However, as Independent Samples t-Test demonstrates, the mean difference between the two groups is not statistically significant ($p= .590 > .05$).

6.2.2.6 Ideal L2 Self by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and the number of FL study years?

As to Ideal L2 Self in relationship with the number of years students have studied a foreign language, One-way Anova output shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant, as p-value is .820. The highest mean is represented by 13 years ($M=3.60$) and the lowest by 3 years ($M=2.83$). However, this group has just one case and, therefore, a Multiple comparisons post-hoc test is not available. Pearson correlation test was also conducted to find relationship between the two sets of scores, and a positive correlation coefficient was found ($r = 0.01$), which is not statistically significant at .05 level ($p= .989$).

6.2.2.7 Ideal L2 Self by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and their L1?

Descriptive statistics show that respondents who speak English as a mother tongue have a greater mean score ($M= 3.03$) than those who speak another language as first language. However, the Independent Samples t-Test shows no statistically significant difference between the two means ($p=.970$) at .05 level.

6.2.2.8 Ideal L2 Self by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and their parents' L1?

As to the impact of L1 Parents upon Ideal L2 Self, respondents whose parents' native language is not English have the highest mean score (M=3.18). However, One-way ANOVA reveals no significant difference between the mean scores of the groups involved ($p=.868$). Likewise, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test shows no significance in this homogeneous population sample (329 out of 363 respondents have parents whose native language is English). In addition, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was carried out, but no statistically significant difference was found between mean scores.

6.2.2.9 Ideal L2 Self by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and school type?

As to Ideal L2 Self in relationship with School Type variable, descriptive statistics analysis report that SchoolW has the highest mean score (M= 3.07). However, according to One-way ANOVA there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the groups as $p=.340 (>.059)$.

6.2.2.10 Ideal L2 Self by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ideal L2 Self and school term?

Students seem to have a higher level of Ideal L2 self motivation in the last term of the school year (M= 3.04). However, t-Test reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups, as $p\text{-value} = .916 (>.05)$.

6.2.3 Ought-to L2 Self Relationships

6.2.3.1 Ought-to L2 Self by SD1- Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and gender?

As shown by gender group statistics in relationship with Ought-to L2 Self, females' mean score is slightly higher (M = 2.7996) than males' (M = 2.7954). However, the difference between the two gender groups is not statistically significant as $p\text{-value} = .972 (>.05)$.

6.2.3.2 Ought-to L2 Self by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and nationality?

As to the impact of nationality upon Ought-to L2 Self, Former Colony group has the highest mean score. However, this result is irrelevant since this group has only one case and the population sample is homogeneous (343 out of 362 are British). Besides, One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows that there is no significant difference between the mean scores as $p = .680 (>.05)$.

6.2.3.3 Ought-to L2 Self by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and school year?

Students in Year 8 have the highest mean score ($M = 3.04$), but one-way ANOVA outcome shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the school year groups ($p = .589 > .05$). Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test also reveals no significance in the difference between the groups.

6.2.3.4 Ought-to L2 Self by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and the FL learnt?

With regard to Ought-to L2 Self, the group of students who are studying French, Spanish and German has the highest mean score ($M = 3.67$). However, this result won't be taken into account since this group has less than 1 case. On the contrary, it is worth noticing that French group has a greater mean ($M = 2.99$) than the Spanish one ($M = 2.64$), as we can see from Table 28. This means that students of French manifest a higher sense of duty/responsibility and fear for negative outcomes than those of Spanish and German. As one group has less than 2 cases, a post-hoc test was not available. One-way ANOVA (Table 29) was finally conducted, which reveals that the difference between means is statistically significant as the p -value $= .041 (<.05)$.

Table 28
Foreign Language Relationship (Ought-to L2 Self)

OUGHT-TO L2 SELF	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	163	2.64
	French	167	2.99
	German	18	2.28
	Fre-Spa	3	2.67
	Fre-Ger	4	2.50
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	3.67
	Spa-Ita	5	3.07
Total		361	2.79

Table 29
Difference between FL Group Means (Ought-to L2 Self)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	16.60	6	2.77	2.22	.041
ithin groups	441.46	354	1.25		
Total	458.06	360			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.3.5 Ought-to L2 Self by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and previous abroad FL learning experience?

Respondents with a FL learning abroad experience have a higher score (M= 2.94) than the other group. However, Independent Samples t-Test reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups because $p = .448 (>.05)$.

6.2.3.6 Ought-to L2 Self by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and the number of years they have studied FL?

Students who have studied FL for 13 years have the highest mean score (M= 3.75). However, One-way ANOVA proves that there is not statistically significant difference between the means ($p = .808 > .05$). Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test was also conducted, but no statistically significant findings were found at .05 level. Finally, Correlation Test shows a positive correlation between students' Ought-to- self and Years Study. Again, the correlation coefficient ($r = .030$) is not statistically significant at .05 level ($p = .571$).

6.2.3.7 Ought-to L2 Self by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and their L1?

Descriptive group statistics on the relationship between Ought-to L2 Self and L1 student show that respondents whose L1 is not English have the highest mean score (M= 3.00). However, Independent Samples t-Test indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups ($p = .460 > .05$).

6.2.3.8 L2 Ought-to L2 Self by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and parents' L1?

As to the relationship with L1 Parents (Table 30), the highest mean score is represented by the group of respondents whose parents' first language is not English (M= 3.39). If, on the one hand, One-way ANOVA outcome demonstrates that there is no statistically significant difference between the groups means ($p = .070 > .05$), on the other hand, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test (Table 31), shows that there is a statistically significant difference between M&F English and M&F not English group means ($p = .021$). This means that students who have both parents whose native language is not English manifest a higher sense of duty/responsibility and fear of negative outcomes in Languages than those students whose parents' are English native speakers.

Table 30
L1 Parents Relationship (Ought-to L2 Self)

OUGHT-TO L2 SELF	Group Statistics		
	L1 PARENTS	N	Mean
	M&F English	329	2.76
	MorF not English	17	2.80
	M&F not English	18	3.39
Total		364	2.79

Table 31
Post Hoc Test (L2 Ought-to Self - L1 Parents Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: OUGHT-TO L2 SELF			
LSD			
(I) L1 Parents	(J) L1 Parents	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
M&F English	MorF not English	-.04303	.878
	M&F not English	-.62800(*)	.021
MorF not English	M/F English	.0433	.878
	MorF not English	-.58497	.124
M&F not English	M&F English	.62800(*)	.021
	MorF not English	.58497	.124

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.3.9 Ought-to L2 Self by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and school type?

As to the relationship between Ought-to L2 Self and School Type, descriptive statistics (Table 32) shows that SchoolW students have the highest mean score (M=2.94). In addition, One-way ANOVA output (Table 33) reveals that the difference between the mean scores is statistically significant ($p=.003<.05$). Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test (Table 34) demonstrates that there is a statistically significant difference between SchoolK and SchoolH ($p=.002$) and SchoolW and SchoolH (.003).

Table 32
School Type Relationship (Ought-to L2 Self)

OUGHT-TO L2 SELF	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	229	2.87
	SchoolH	66	2.37
	SchoolW	70	2.94
Total		365	2.79

Table 33
Difference between School Type Group Means (Ought-to L2 Self)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	14.45	2	7.22	5.85	.003
Within groups	447.11	362	1.24		
Total	461.56	364			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 34
Post Hoc Test (Ought-to L2 Self - School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable : OUGHT-To L2 Self			
LSD			
(I) SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SchoolK	SchoolH	.49671(*)	.002
	SchoolW	-.06764	.656
SchoolH	SchoolK	-.49671(*)	.002
	SchoolW	-.56436(*)	.003
SchoolW	SchoolK	.06764	.656
	SchoolH	.56436(*)	.003

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.3.10 Ought-to L2 Self by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' Ought-to L2 Self and school term?

In the last school term, Ought-to self is higher ($M = 2.97$) than in the first term (Table 35). According to T-test (Table 36), the difference between the mean scores of the two groups is statistically significant ($p = .007 < .05$). This result means that students manifest a higher sense of duty/responsibility and fear for negative outcomes in the last term of the school year than in the first one.

Table 35
School Term Relationship (Ought-to L2 Self)

OUGHT-TO L2 SELF	Group Statistics			
	SCHOOL TERM	N	Mean	Std. dev
	First Term	201	2.65	1.13
	Last Term	164	2.97	1.10

Table 36
Independent Samples T-Test (Ought-to L2 Self - School Term Relationship)

OUGHT-TO L2 SELF	T-Test for Equality of Means			
		F	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Equal var. ass.	.55	-2.72	.007

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.4 Family/Parental Encouragement Relationships

6.2.4.1 Family Parental Encouragement by SD1- Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and gender?

As to gender relationship, female respondents have the highest mean score (3.00). However, T-test shows that there is no statistical evidence that the mean scores of the two independent groups are significantly different. ($p = .140 > .05$).

6.2.4.2 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and nationality?

As the population sample is homogeneous (347 out of 365 have a UK nationality) and the highest mean score represented by Former Colony group (M= 3.50) has only one case, One-way ANOVA indicates that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant ($p = .909 > .05$). Moreover, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test is not available.

6.2.4.3 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and school year?

Year 11 students have the highest mean score (M= 3.22), but One-way ANOVA proves that there is no statistically significant difference between the group means as p-value is .879 ($> .05$). In addition, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test was conducted, which shows no evidence of statistical significance in the difference between group means.

6.2.4.4 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and the foreign language learnt?

As to Foreign Language relationship (Table 37), students who are studying French, Spanish and German have the highest mean score (M=5.00). Since this group has only one case, however, this result is not significant and a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test is not available. If we take into account learners of just a foreign language, we see that French students are more encouraged by their parents (M= 3.00) than the other groups. Furthermore, One-way ANOVA (Table 38) shows that p-value is .000 ($< .05$). This means that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores.

Table 37
Foreign Language Relationship (Family/Parental Encouragement)

FAMILY/PAR_ENC	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	166	2.89
	French	168	3.00
	German	18	2.00
	Fre-Spa	3	4.42
	Fre-Ger	4	2.38
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	5.00
	Spa-Ita	4	3.94
Total		364	2.92

Table 38
Difference between FL Group Means (Family/Parental Encouragement)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	32.83	6	5.47	4.68	.000
Within groups	417.28	357	1.17		
Total	450.11	363			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.4.5 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and previous abroad FL learning experience?

Respondents who have had a foreign language learning experience abroad have the highest mean score (M= 3.19). However, there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups as the Independent Samples T-test outcome demonstrates (p-value=.158>.05)

6.2.4.6 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD6-FL Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and the number of years students have studied FL?

As to FL Study Years relationship, respondents who have studied a foreign language for 8 and 13 years seem to be more influenced by parents positively. However, Year 13 group has only one case and in this sample the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant (p= .904>.05). Moreover, Pearson Correlation Test shows a positive correlation (r= .081), but this result is not statistically significant at .05 level, as p= .130.

6.2.4.7 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between parental encouragement and students' L1?

As to L1 students' relationship, students whose native language is other than English have the highest mean score (M= 3.13) . However, there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups ($p = .435 > .05$).

6.2.4.8 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and parents' L1?

As descriptive statistics show, respondents whose parents' L1 is not English have the highest mean score (M= 3.32). Yet, the difference between the two group means is not statistically significant as highlighted at .05 level by p-value (i.e. $p = .259$) in One-way ANOVA. Alike, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test does not show any statistical significance in the difference between the means.

6.2.4.9 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and school type?

As to School Type relationship (Table 39), SchoolW has the highest mean score (M= 3.07). However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores ($p = .075 > .05$). As we can see from Table 40, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was carried out, which reports a statistically significant difference between SchoolH and SchoolW means at .05 level ($p\text{-value} = .030$).

Table 39
School Type Relationship (Family/Parental Encouragement)

FAMILY/PAR_ENC	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	233	2.95
	SchoolH	69	2.66
	SchoolW	67	3.07
Total		369	2.92

Table 40
Post Hoc Test (Family/Parental Encouragement- School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable : Family/Parental Encouragement			
LSD			
(I) SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SchoolK	SchoolH	.28693	.059
	SchoolW	-.12454	.416
SchoolH	SchoolK	-.28693	.059
	SchoolW	-.41148(*)	.030
SchoolW	SchoolK	-.12454	.416
	SchoolH	-.41148(*)	.030

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.4.10 Family/Parental Encouragement by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' parental encouragement and school term?

Descriptive statistics report that parents encouragement is higher in the last term (M= 3.0346) than in the first one. However, Independent Samples t-Test proves that there is no statistically significant difference between the two group means at .05 level (p=.062).

6.2.5 Instrumentality-Promotion Relationships

6.2.5.1 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion and gender?

Group statistics (Table41) show that females have a higher mean score (M= 4.01) than males. Independent Samples t-Test (Table 42) proves that there is a statistically significant difference between the two gender groups (p= .016<.05). This means that females see a closer association between achieving a high proficiency in learning a foreign language and social and economic promotion (i.e. making money or finding a good job) in the future.

Table 41
Gender Relationship (Instrumentality-Promotion)

INSTRU_PROMOTION	Group Statistics			
	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	190	3.70	1.27
	Female	180	4.01	1.20

Table 42
Independent Samples t-Test (Instru_Promotion-Gender Relationship)

INSTRU_PROMOTION	t-Test for Equality of Means		
	F	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal var ass	.31	-2.43	.016

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.5.2 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion orientation and nationality?

As to the students' nationality impact on Instrumentality/Promotion motivational component, the highest mean score is represented by Former Colony group (M= 4.00), which is not relevant because this group has only one case, as confirmed by One-Way ANOVA Analysis. Besides, the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant as $p = .907 (>.05)$.

6.2.5.3 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion orientation and school year?

As to School Year, Table 43 shows that Year 8 students manifest the highest level (M= 4.05) of instrumentality-promotion, which drops significantly after Year 9 and achieve the lowest value (M = 3.24) in Year 10. In Table 44, One-way ANOVA analysis shows a statistically significant difference between the School Year groups means, as demonstrated by $p = .007 (<.05)$. Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test (Table 45) reveals that there are statistically significant differences, at the 0.05 level, between Year Group 10 and Year Group 7, 8, 9. If we relate these findings to the Likert Scale used in this survey, we can assume that, in the first three years of Secondary School, students slightly agree with the pragmatic benefits of learning a foreign language, whereas in Year 10 they slightly disagree that this motivational drive is relevant.

Table 43
School Year Relationship (Instrumentality-Promotion)

INSTRU_PROMOTION	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL YEAR	N	Mean
	7	94	3.77
	8	51	4.05
	9	175	3.99
	10	42	3.24
	11	9	3.70
Total		371	3.85

Table 44
School Year Groups Means Difference (Instrumentality-Promotion)

One-way ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	21.70	4	5.42	3.60	.007
Within groups	550.96	366	1.51		
Total	572.66	370			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 45
Post Hoc Test (Instru Promotion-School Year Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: INSTRUMENTALITY_PROMOTION			
LSD			
(I) SCHOOL YEAR	(J) SCHOOL YEAR	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
7	8	-.27270	.202
	9	-.21362	.174
	10	.53495(*)	.019
	11	.06935	.871
8	7	.27270	.202
	9	.05908	.762
	10	.80766(*)	.002
9	7	.21362	.174
	8	-.05908	.762
	10	.74857(*)	.000
10	7	-.53495(*)	.019
	8	-.80766(*)	.002
	9	-.74857(*)	.000
11	7	-.06935	.871
	8	-.34205	.441
	9	-.28296	.500
	10	.46561	.302

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.5.4 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion and the type of foreign language learnt?

Table 46 shows that Spanish mean score (M= 3.88) is slightly higher than French (M=3.86) and that FRE/SPA/GER group has the highest mean (6.00), even though it has only one case. As we can see in Table 47, the output of the ANOVA analysis shows that the significance value is .003, which is below .05. Therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the FL group means. If we compare the group means, Instrumentality/Promotion motivation is consistently higher in students of both French and Spanish (5.78) than in those of French and German (3.50). However, Multiple Comparisons

post-hoc test was not available because, as previously stated, one group has less than two cases.

Table 46
Foreign Language Relationship (Instrumentality-Promotion)

INSTRU_PROMOTION	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	171	3.88
	French	165	3.86
	German	18	3.09
	Fre-Spa	3	5.78
	Fre-Ger	4	3.50
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	6.00
	Spa-Ita	5	4.67
Total		367	3.86

Table 47
Difference between FL group means (Instrumentality-Promotion)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	30.03	6	5.00	3.371	.003
Within groups	534.39	360	1.49		
Total	564.41	366			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.5.5 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion orientation and previous abroad FL learning experience?

Students who had a foreign language learning experience abroad have a higher mean score (M=3.87) than those who did not. However, t-Test shows that the difference between the means is not statistically significant ($p=.902>.05$).

6.2.5.6 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion orientation and the number of FL study years?

Students who have studied a FL for 6 years have the highest mean score (M= 4.11). However, One-way ANOVA reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the two means ($p= .279>.05$). As one group has less than two cases (i.e., 13 years), a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available. Finally, Pearson Correlation test was carried out, which shows a negative correlation between Instrumentality/Promotion and Years Study ($r= -.063$). However, this result is not statistically significant at .05 level because $p\text{-value} =.237$.

6.2.5.7 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion orientation and their first language?

Respondents whose native language is English have a slightly higher score (3.85) than the other group. However, as Independent Samples t-Test shows, the difference between the two means is not statistically significant as $p\text{-value} = .939 (>.05)$.

6.2.5.8 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion orientation and their parents' first language?

Instrumentality/Promotion motivation seems to be higher when both parents' first language is not English ($M = 4.09$). However, One-way ANOVA outcome shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant as $p = .433 (>.05)$. Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test reveals no statistical evidence of significance between the mean scores.

6.2.5.9 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion orientation and school type?

SchoolH students have the highest mean score ($M = 4.01$) However, One-way ANOVA outcome indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores ($p = .437 >.05$). Moreover, Multiple Comparisons PostHoc Test does not reveal any statistically significant difference.

6.2.5.10 Instrumentality-Promotion by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-promotion orientation and school term?

In the last term students seem to have the highest mean score ($M = 3.89$) in relationship with Instrumentality/Promotion. However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores ($p = .571 >.05$).

6.2.6 Travel Orientation Relationships

6.2.6.1 Travel Orientation by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and gender?

As to Gender relationship (Table 48), Travel Orientation component of motivation is higher in females (M= 3.88) than in males. As we can see in Table 49, the difference between the two mean scores is statistically significant ($p=.037<.05$).

Table 48
Gender Relationship (Travel Orientation)

TRAVEL ORIENTATION	Group Statistics			
	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	192	3.60	1.26
	Female	180	3.88	1.30

Table 49
Independent Samples t-Test (Travel Orientation-Gender Relationship)

TRAVEL ORIENTATION	t-Test for Equality of Means		
	Equal var ass	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
		-2.099	.037

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.6.2 Travel Orientation by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, descriptive statistics report that participants from former colonies and with a dual nationality have the same highest mean score (i.e. 4.00). However, One-way ANOVA shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.967 (>.05)$. Moreover, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available because one group (i.e. Former Colony) has less than two cases.

6.2.6.3 Travel Orientation by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and school year?

Descriptive statistics show that the mean score increases from year 7 to 9, when it reaches its peak (M= 3.85), and then drops in Year 10 (M= 3.34) and further decreases in Year 11, as we can see clearly in the following graph (Fig. 32). One-way Anova analysis indicates that p-value $> .05$ (i.e. .161). This means that there is no statistically significant difference between the groups mean scores. However, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test outcome shows that the difference between Year 9 and Year 10 is statistically significant, as p-value is .022.

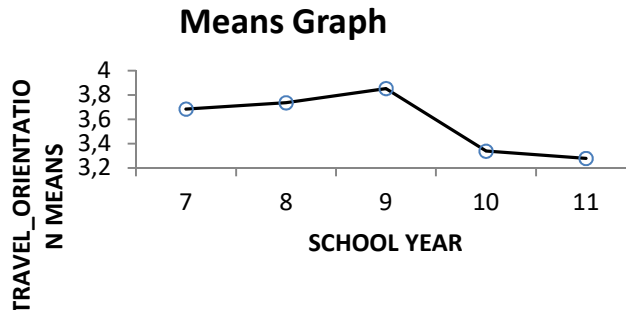


Figure 32. School Year Relationship

6.2.6.4 Travel Orientation by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and the foreign language learnt?

As to travel orientation, French and Spanish group has the highest mean score (M= 6.00), which means that these respondents strongly agree with the idea that these foreign languages are important in order to travel internationally (Table 50). Moreover, One-way ANOVA output (Table 51) is highly statistically significant ($p=.000$). However, Multiple Comparisons Post-hoc Test is not available because one group has less than two cases.

Table 50
Foreign Language Relationship (Travel Orientation)

TRAVEL ORIENTATION	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	167	3.94
	French	171	3.5
	German	19	3.26
	Fre-Spa	3	6.00
	Fre-Ger	4	3.63
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	5.00
	Spa-Ita	5	4.60
Total		370	3.74

Table 51
Difference between FL Group Means (Travel Orientation)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	39.91	6	6.65	4.21	.000
Within groups	574.15	363	1.58		
Total	614.06	369			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.6.5 Travel Orientation by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and previous abroad FL learning experience?

As to Abroad Courses relationship, respondents who experienced FL courses abroad have a higher mean score ($M= 3.76$) than the other group. However, t-Test reveals that the difference between the two group means is not statistically significant ($p= .809 > .05$).

6.2.6.6 Travel Orientation by SD6-FL Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and FL study years?

Descriptive statistics on Travel Orientation relationship with FL Study Years show that students who have studied FL for 13 years have the highest mean. However, this group has only one case and, therefore, Multiple Comparisons Post-hoc Test was not available. In addition, One-way ANOVA output shows no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as p-value $> .05$ ($p= .983$). Finally, Pearson Correlation Test reveals a negative correlation between Travel Orientation and Years Study variables ($r= -.052$), which is not statistically significant: $p= .329 (< .05)$.

6.2.6.7 Travel Orientation by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and L1?

Students who speak English as a native language have a higher mean score ($M=3.71$) than the other group. However, t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level (i.e., $p=.208$).

6.2.6.8 Travel Orientation by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and their parents' L1?

As to L1 Parents, respondents whose parents are not English have the highest mean score ($M=3.98$). However, the difference between the means is not statistically significant as $p > .05$ (i.e., $p= .664$). Multiple Comparisons Post-hoc test confirms that there is no significant difference between the group means.

6.2.6.9 Travel Orientation by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and school type?

As to School Type relationship, descriptive statistics (Table 52) shows that SchoolH has the highest mean score (M= 4.14). As we can see from Table 53, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the three groups at .05 level (p=.008). Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test (Table 54) also shows that there is a statistically significant difference between School K and SchoolH, and between SchoolW and SchoolH.

Table 52
School Type Relationship (Travel Orientation)

TRAVEL ORIENTATION	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	234	3.66
	SchoolH	72	4.14
	SchoolW	69	3.54
Total		375	3.73

Table 53
Difference between School Type Group Means (Travel Orientation)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	15.72	2	7.86	4.84	.008
Within groups	604.04	372	1.62		
Total	619.76	374			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 54
Post Hoc Test (Travel Orientation- School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: Travel Orientation			
LSD			
(I) SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SchoolK	SchoolH	-.48291(*)	.005
	SchoolW	.11250	.520
SchoolH	SchoolK	.48291(*)	.005
	SchoolW	.59541(*)	.006
SchoolW	SchoolK	-.11250	.520
	SchoolH	-.59541(*)	.006

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.6.10 Travel Orientation by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' travel orientation and school term?

Travel Orientation is higher in the first term (M= 3.87) than in the last one (Table 55). In addition, Independent Samples t-Test (Table 56) reports that there is a statistically significant difference between the two group mean scores, as $p < .05$ ($p = .014$).

Table 55
School Term Relationship

TRAVEL ORIENTATION	GENDER	Group Statistics		
		N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	207	3.87	1.34
	Female	168	3.55	1.20

Table 56
Independent Samples t-Test (School Term Relationship)

TRAVEL ORIENTATION	t-Test for Equality of Means			
	F	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	Equal var ass	1.36	2.46	.014

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.7 Instrumentality-Prevention Relationships

6.2.7.1 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and gender?

As to Instrumental/Prevention motivation, females have a higher score (M= 3.91) than males (Table 57). Besides, Independent Samples t-Test (Table 58) shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups at .05 level ($p = .033$). This result means that girls are more inclined to learn a foreign language in order to handle duties and obligations and/or to avoid failure in exams than boys.

Table 57
Gender Relationship (InstrumentalityPrevention)

INSTRU_PREV	GENDER	Group Statistics		
		N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	159	3.63	1.17
	Female	167	3.91	1.63

Table 58
Independent Samples t-Test (Gender Relationship)

INSTRU_PREV	t-Test for Equality of Means		
	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	Equal var assumed	-2.031	.033

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.7.2 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, students belonging to "Other" group have the highest mean score (M= 3.88). However, the difference between mean scores is not statistically significant in this homogeneous population sample, as confirmed by One-way ANOVA outcome: p-value= .681 (>.05). Besides, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available as one group has less than 2 cases.

6.2.7.3 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and school year?

Descriptive statistics show that Year 7 has the highest mean score (M= 3.83). However, One-way ANOVA reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores, as p-value>.05 (p= .474). Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test shows no significant difference between the means of the groups involved.

6.2.7.4 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and the foreign language learnt?

As depicted in Table 59, Instrumentality/Prevention motivation gets the highest mean score in the group of students studying both French and Spanish (M= 5.44), whereas students of German have the lowest mean score (M= 3.14). In addition, One-way ANOVA (Table 60) reveals that the difference between the mean scores is statistically significant at .05 level (p= .003). This means that handling one's duties and obligations and/or avoiding failure in an exam represent a more relevant motivating factor for French and Spanish students than for the other groups of students. However, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available as one group has less than two cases.

Table 59
Foreign Language Relationship (Instrumentality-Prevention)

INSTRU_PREVENTION	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	150	3.67
	French	145	3.88
	German	17	3.14
	Fre-Spa	3	5.44
	Fre-Ger	3	4.78
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	4.67
	Spa-Ita	5	4.73
Total		324	3.78

Table 60
Difference between FL group means (Instrumentality-Prevention)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	26.90	6	4.48	3.39	.003
Within groups	419.65	317	1.32		
Total	446.55	323			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.7.5 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and previous broad FL courses?

Instrumentality/motivation is higher in students who didn't experienced FL abroad courses (M= 3.76) than in the other group. However, t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups, as $p > .05$. ($p = .84$)

6.2.7.6 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD6-FL Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and FL study years?

Instrumentality/Preventionmotivation gets the highest mean score in those respondents who have studied a FL for 6 years (M= 4.93). One-way ANOVA output shows that there is no statically significant difference between the mean scores as $p > .05$ (i.e., $p = .147$). Besides, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available because one group has less than two cases. Finally, Pearson Correlation Test was also conducted, which shows a negative correlation coefficient ($r = -.016$). However, p-value (i.e., $p = .776$) indicates that this outcome is not statistically significant.

6.2.7.7 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and their first language?

Instrumentality/Prevention motivation seems to be higher in those students whose native language is not English (M= 4.04). However, t-Test reveals that the difference between the two mean scores is not statistically significant as $p = .371 (>.05)$.

6.2.7.8 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and their parents' L1?

Instrumentality/Prevention motivation has the highest mean score (M= 4.19) in those students whose parents' native language is not English. However, as One-way ANOVA analysis demonstrates, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.264$). Finally, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was also carried out, but no statistical significance was found.

6.2.7.9 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and school type?

As to School Type variable, Table 61 shows that SchoolK students have the highest Instrumentality/Prevention motivation as the mean score is 3.92. As we can see in Table 62, One-way ANOVA output reveals that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p= .028$). Besides, as we can see in Table 63, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test highlights a statistically significant difference between SchoolH and SchoolK mean scores ($p=.017$)

Table 61
School Type Relationship (Instrumentality- Prevention)

INSTRU_PREVENTION	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	200	3.92
	SchoolH	65	3.52
	SchoolW	64	3.62
Total		329	3.78

Table 62
Difference between School Type Group Means (Instru. Prevention)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	9.75	2	4.88	3.62	0.28
Within groups	439.53	326	1.35		
Total	449.28	328			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 63
Post Hoc Test (Instru. Prevention- School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable : Instrumentality-Prevention			
LSD			
(I) SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SchoolK	SchoolH	.39705(*)	.017
	SchoolW	.29521	.078
SchoolH	SchoolK	-.39705(*)	.017
	SchoolW	-.10184	.619
SchoolW	SchoolK	-.29521	.078
	SchoolH	.10184	.619

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.7.10 Instrumentality-Prevention by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' instrumentality-prevention orientation and school term?

Instrumentality/Prevention motivation seems to be higher in the last school term than in the first one. However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the two mean scores at .05 level ($p = .165$).

6.2.8 L2 Self- Confidence Relationships

6.2.8.1 L2 Self-Confidence by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and gender?

As to Gender, females seem to have a slightly higher level ($M = 4.25$) of linguistic self-confidence than males. However, t-Test output reveals no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p = .059$).

6.2.8.2 L2 Self-Confidence by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, UK respondents have the highest mean score (M= 4.15). The population sample is homogeneous (315 out of 334 have a UK nationality) and, as One-WAY ANOVA analysis reveals, p-value is .657 (>.05). Hence, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores. Finally, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available as Former Colony group has less than two cases.

6.2.8.3 L2 Self-Confidence by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and school year?

As to School Year relationship, Year 8 has the highest level of L2 Self-Confidence (M= 4.23). However, One-way ANOVA proves that there is no statistically significant evidence between the mean scores as p-value =.804 (>.05). Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test also reports no statistically significant results.

6.2.8.4 L2 Self-Confidence by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and the foreign language learnt?

As we can see in Table 64, respondents who are studying Spanish show a higher level of linguistic self-confidence (M= 4.25) than those who are studying French and German. German group, moreover, has the lowest mean score in the table (M=3.45), whereas the highest mean score (M= 6.00) is represented by the group with three languages (i.e. French, Spanish, German), which has only one case. For this reason, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available. In addition, One-way ANOVA output shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the FL groups. (p= .004 <.05), as reported in Table 65.

Table 64
Foreign Language Relationship (L2 Self-Confidence)

L2 SELF-CONFIDENCE	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	151	4.25
	French	151	4.01
	German	17	3.45
	Fre-Spa	3	5.44
	Fre-Ger	3	5.33
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	6.00
	Spa-Ita	5	4.67
Total		331	4.13

Table 65
Difference between FL group means (L2 Self-Confidence)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	26.60	6	4.43	3.25	.004
Within groups	441.49	324	1.36		
Total	468.08	330			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.8.5 L2 Self-Confidence by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and previous abroad FL learning experience?

In this research sample, students who have never had any foreign language learning experience abroad scored a higher mean (i.e. 4.15) than those who have. However, t-Test output shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups, as $p\text{-value} = .177 (>.05)$.

6.2.8.6 L2 Self-Confidence by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and the number of FL study years?

Students who have studied FL for 13 years have the highest mean score ($M=5.33$). However, this group has just one case. Hence, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test was not available. In addition, One-way ANOVA analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores, as $p = .392 (>.05)$. Finally, Pearson Correlation Test shows a negative correlation ($r = -.041$) between L2 Self Confidence and Years Study. However, this result is not statistically significant at .05 level as $p = .468$.

6.2.8.7 L2 Self-Confidence by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and L1?

As to L1 students, L2 Self-confidence is higher in the group of students whose native language is English (M= 4.13). However, the difference between the two mean scores is not statistically significant at .05 level, as shown by Independent Samples Test (i.e., $p=.821$).

6.2.8.8 L2 Self-Confidence by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and parents' L1?

As to L1 Parents relationship, students whose both parents are not English have the highest mean score (M= 4.35). However, One-way ANOVA shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores ($p= .620 > .05$). Additionally, a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test reports no statistically significant results at .05 level.

6.2.8.9 L2 Self-Confidence by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and school type?

SchoolK has the highest level of Self-Confidence (M= 4.18). As shown by One-Way ANOVA output (i.e., $p=.388$), there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level. Besides, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test does not reveal any statistically significant results.

6.2.8.10 L2 Self-Confidence by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 self-confidence and school term?

In the first term, respondents have a slightly higher level of linguistic self-confidence (M= 4.17). However, there is no statistically significant difference between the means cores as $p > .05$ ($p=.494$).

6.2.9 L2 Anxiety Relationships

6.2.9.1 L2 Anxiety by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and gender?

As to Gender relationship, Table 66 shows that females' L2 anxiety is higher (M= 4.03) than males. Independent Samples t-Test (Table 67) demonstrates that the difference between the two gender groups is statistically highly significant at .05 level (p=.000).

Table 66
Gender Relationship (L2 Anxiety)

L2 ANXIETY	GENDER	Group Statistics		
		N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	186	3.34	1.13
	Female	173	4.03	1.11

Table 67
Independent Samples t-Test (L2 Anxiety-Gender Relationship)

L2 ANXIETY	t-Test for Equality of Means			Sig. (2-tailed)
	Equal var ass	F	t	
		.31	-5.86	.000

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.9.2 L2 Anxiety by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, Former Colony students have a higher mean score (M= 4.33). One-way ANOVA does not reveal any statistically significant difference between the mean scores as p-value is >.05 (p= .515). Since one group has just one case and the population sample is homogeneous (i.e. 339 out of 358 respondents have a UK nationality), no Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test was carried out.

6.2.9.3 L2 Anxiety by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and school year?

As to School Year relationship (Table 68), Year 8 has the highest mean score (M= 3.89). As shown by One-way ANOVA output (Table 69), the difference between mean scores is statistically significant ($=.029 < .05$). Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test (Table 70) highlights statistically significant differences between Year 10 and Year 7, 8, 9.

Table 68
School Year Relationship (L2 Anxiety)

L2 ANXIETY	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL YEAR	N	Mean
	7	90	3.73
	8	53	3.89
	9	169	3.73
	10	40	3.14
	11	9	3.52
Total		361	3.68

Table 69
Difference between School Year Group Means (L2 Anxiety)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	14.73	4	3.68	3.73	.029
Within groups	480.40	356	1.35		
Total	495.13	360			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 70
Post Hoc Test (L2 Anxiety-School Year Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: L2 ANXIETY			
LSD			
(I) SCHOOL YEAR	(J) SCHOOL YEAR	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
7	8	-.15716	.435
	9	-.00015	.999
	10	.58796(*)	.008
	11	.21111	.604
	8	.15716	.435
8	9	.15701	.391
	10	.74513(*)	.002
	11	.36827	.380
	7	.00015	.999
9	8	-.15701	.391
	10	.58812(*)	.004
	11	.21126	.595
	7	.00015	.999
10	8	-.74513(*)	.002
	9	-.58812(*)	.004
	11	-.37685	.380
	7	.58796(*)	.008
11	8	-.36827	.380
	9	-.21126	.595
	10	.37685	.380
	7	-.21111	.604

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.9.4 L2 Anxiety by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and the foreign language learnt?

Both respondents who are studying French and Spanish and French and German have the highest mean score ($M=4.1111$). However, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the FL groups involved in the survey, as One-way ANOVA output reveals that $p=.952 (>.05)$. Moreover, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available as one group (Fre-Spa-Ger) has less than two cases.

6.2.9.5 L2 Anxiety by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and previous abroad FL learning experience?

Students who have not experienced Foreign Language courses abroad have a higher mean score (3.7007) than those who have. However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p>.05$ ($p=.888$).

6.2.9.6 L2 Anxiety by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and number of FL study years?

As to Years Study relationship, respondents who have learnt a foreign language for 3 years have the highest L2 anxiety level ($M= 3.8137$). However, One-way ANOVA analysis shows no statistically significant difference between the means, as p-value is $.558 (>.05)$. Moreover, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available as one group has less than two cases. Finally, Pearson Correlation Test shows a negative correlation between L2 Anxiety and Years Study ($r = -.076$), which is not statistically significant because $p = .160 (>.05)$.

6.2.9.7 L2 Anxiety by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and L1?

As to anxiety relationship, students who do not speak English as a native language have a higher score ($M= 3.8222$) than those who do. However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the two mean scores as $p>.05$ ($p=.632$).

6.2.9.8 L2 Anxiety by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and parents' L1?

With regard to anxiety relationship, students whose parents' native language is English have the highest mean score (M= 3.6922). However, One-way ANOVA reveals that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant as $p=.426 (>.05)$. Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test shows no statistical evidence of significance at .05 level.

6.2.9.9 L2 Anxiety by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and school type?

Table 71 reports that SchoolK students have the highest level of L2 Anxiety (M= 3.78). Besides, as we can infer from Table 72, One-way ANOVA analysis shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores, as $p= .006 (<.05)$. Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test (Table 73) shows statistically significant differences between the means of the following groups: SchoolK and SchoolW; SchoolH and SchoolW.

Table 71
School Type Relationship (L2 Anxiety)

INSTRU_PREVENTION	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	229	3.78
	SchoolH	64	3.76
	SchoolW	69	3.28
Total		362	3.68

Table 72
Difference between School Type Group Means (L2 Anxiety)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	13.89	2	6.95	5.16	.006
Within groups	483.06	359	1.35		
Total	496.95	361			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 73
Post Hoc Test (L2 Anxiety-School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: L2 ANXIETY			
LSD			
(I)SCHOOL	(J)SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SchoolK	SchoolH	.02354	.886
	SchoolW	.50339(*)	.002
SchoolH	SchoolK	-.02354	.886
	SchoolW	.47985(*)	.018
SchoolW	SchoolK	-.50339(*)	.002
	SchoolH	-.47985(*)	.018

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.9.10 L2 Anxiety by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 anxiety and school term?

As to School Term relationship, students scored a higher mean in the first school term (M = 3.73) than in the last one. However, Independent Samples t-Test outcome reveals no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level (p=.339).

6.2.10 L2 Attitudes/Interest Relationships

6.2.10.1 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and gender?

With regard to L2 attitudes/interest relationship, females have a higher score (M= 3.97) than males (Table 74). In addition, Independent Samples t-Test output (Table 75) demonstrates that the difference between the two mean scores is statistically significant at .05 level (p=.015).

Table 74
Gender Relationship (L2 Attitudes/Interest)

L2 ATT/INT	Group Statistics			
	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	182	3.63	1.24
	Female	163	3.97	1.30

Table 75
Independent Samples t-Test (L2 Attitudes-Gender Relationship)

L2 ATT/INT	t-Test for Equality of Means		
	Equal var ass	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
		-2.438	.015

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.10.2 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, Former Colony mean has the highest mean score (M= 4.00). One-way ANOVA output shows that p-value is slightly greater than the significance level (i.e. $p = .054$). Hence, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores. Moreover, the population sample is homogeneous (325 out of 344 students have a UK nationality), and a Multiple Comparisons post hoc test was not available because one group (i.e., Former Colony) has less than two cases.

6.2.10.3 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and school year?

Descriptive statistics on School Year relationship (Table 76) reports that Year 11 students have the highest mean score (M= 3.98), whereas Year 10 students have the lowest one (M= 3.40). One-way ANOVA analysis shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant at .05 level ($p = .197$). However, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test (Table 77) demonstrates that there is a statistically significant difference between Year 9 and Year 10 as p-value is below .05 (i.e., $p = .049$), as students' L2 interest decreases sharply in Year 10.

Table 76
School Year Relationship (L2 Attitudes/Interest)

L2 ATT/INT	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL YEAR	N	Mean
	7	91	3.88
	8	49	3.57
	9	163	3.87
	10	34	3.40
	11	9	3.98
Total		346	3.79

Table 77
Post Hoc Test (L2 Attitudes- School Year Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
(I) SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL YEAR	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
7	8	.31617	.162
	9	.00990	.953
	10	.48352	.060
	11	-.09426	.832
8	7	-.31617	.162
	9	-.30627	.141
	10	.16735	.557
	11	-.41043	.375
9	7	-.00990	.953
	8	.30627	.141
	10	.47362(*)	.049
	11	-.10416	.811
10	7	-.48352	.060
	8	-.16735	.557
	9	-.47362(*)	.049
	11	-.57778	.227
11	7	.09426	.832
	8	.41043	.375
	9	.10416	.811
	10	.57778	.227

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.10.4 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and the foreign language learnt?

As to Foreign Language relationship (Table 78), the highest mean score is represented by students who are studying both French and Spanish (M = 5.60). Besides, if we consider students who are studying only one language, the highest mean score is represented by Spanish (M = 4.00), whereas the lowest one is that of German (M= 2.58). One-way ANOVA shows that the difference between mean scores is statistically highly significant at .05 level, as indicated by p-value = .000 (Table 79). As a group has less than two cases (i.e., Fre-Spa-Ger), a Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available. Nevertheless, as we can infer from descriptive statistics (Table 78) with regard to L2 Interest, it is clear that there is a great difference between Spanish or French students and German ones.

Table 78
Foreign Language Relationship (L2 Attitudes/Interest)

L2 ATT/INT	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	158	4.00
	French	154	3.68
	German	17	2.58
	Fre-Spa	3	5.60
	Fre-Ger	4	3.55
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	4.80
	Spa-Ita	5	4.44
Total		342	3.80

Table 79
Difference between FL Group Means (L2 Attitudes/Interest)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	47.37	6	7.90	5.24	.000
Within groups	504.43	335	1.51		
Total	551.80	341			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.10.5 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and previous abroad FL learning experience?

As to Abroad Courses relationship, students who have never experienced any FL course abroad expressed higher interest ($M = 3.80$) than the other group who have. However, as Independent Samples t-Test demonstrates, there is no statistically significant difference between the two mean scores at .05 level (.333).

6.2.10.6 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD6- FL Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and number of FL study years?

RQ3-Subquestion: Is there any significant correlation between students' L2 attitudes/interest and number of FL study years

As to FL Years Study relationship, the highest mean score is represented by those students who have studied FL for 2 years ($M = 4.03$). However, as One-way ANOVA output indicates, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p = .287$). Moreover, as one group has less than two cases, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available. Interestingly, Pearson Correlation Test (Table 80) shows a negative Correlation between L2 Interest and Years Study ($r = -.115$), which is statistically significant at .05 level

($p=.036$). This means that the longer students have studied a foreign language the less interest they manifest.

Table 80
Bivariate Correlation between L2 Attitudes/Interest and FL Years Study

		Pearson Correlations	
		L2 ATT_INT	YEARS STUDY
L2 ATT/INT	Pearson Corr	1	-.115(*)
	Sig. (two-tailed)		.036
	N	347	334
YEARS_STUDY	Pearson Corr	-.115(*)	1
	Sig. (two-tailed)	.036	
	N	334	377

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

6.2.10.7 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and L1?

As to L1 Student relationship, students whose first language is English have the highest mean score ($M= 3.80$). However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups at .05 level ($p=.485$).

6.2.10.8 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and parents' L1?

As to L1 Parents, those respondents whose parents both speak English have the highest mean score ($M= 3.81$). However, as One-Way analysis demonstrates, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.613$). Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test does not show any statistical evidence of significance at .05 level.

6.2.10.9 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between L2 attitudes/interest and school type?

Descriptive statistics on School Type relationship (Table 81) shows that SchoolH mean score is the highest one (i.e., 4.09) and SchoolW the lowest one (i.e., 3.50). As we can infer from Table 82, One-way ANOVA reveals a statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.032$). In addition, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test shows that there is a statistically significant difference between SchoolH and SchoolW at .05 level (Table 83).

Table 81
School Type Relationship (L2 Attitudes/Interest)

L2 ATT/INT	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	222	3.78
	SchoolH	66	4.09
	SchoolW	59	3.50
Total		347	3.79

Table 82
Difference between School Type Group Means (L2 Attitudes/Interest)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	11.16	2	5.58	3.48	.032
Within groups	552.36	344	1.61		
Total	563.52	346			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 83
Post Hoc Test (L2 Attitudes-School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: L2 ATTITUDES/INTEREST			
LSD			
(I)SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SCHOOLK	SCHOOLH	-.31826	.074
	SCHOOLW	.27737	.136
SCHOOLH	SCHOOLK	.31826	.074
	SCHOOLW	.59563(*)	.009
SCHOOLW	SCHOOLK	-.27737	.136
	SCHOOLH	-.59563(*)	.009

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.10.10 L2 Attitudes/Interest by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 attitudes/interest and school term?

As to School Term relationship, First Term has the highest mean score (M=3.85). However, the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant at .05 level (p=.289).

6.2.11 L2 Cultural Interest Relationships

6.2.11.1 L2 Cultural Interest by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and gender?

As to Gender relationship, female students scored the highest mean value (M=3.17). Independent Samples t-Test shows, however, that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as p= .070 (>.05).

6.2.11.2L2 Cultural Interest by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, Former Colony respondents have the highest mean score ($M=3.75$). However, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available because this group has only one case and the population distribution sample is homogeneous (326 out of 344 have a UK nationality). Finally, One-way ANOVA output shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant at .05 level ($p=.812$).

6.2.11.3L2 Cultural Interest by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and school year?

Descriptive analysis on School Year relationship shows that Year 11 has the highest mean score ($M= 3.31$). However, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.546$). In addition, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test does not reveal any statistical evidence of significance.

6.2.11.4L2 Cultural Interest by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and foreign language learnt?

As to foreign language relationship, Fre-Spa-Ger group has the highest mean score ($M= 3.75$) and German has the lowest one ($M=2.65$). However, the first group has just one case and, therefore, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test is not available. Anyway, One-way ANOVA demonstrates that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean score as $p=.570 (>.05)$.

6.2.11.5L2 Cultural Interest by SD5- Abroad FL Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and abroad FL courses?

Students who have had a FL learning experience abroad have a highest mean score ($M= 3.32$) than those who have not. However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant at .05 level ($p=.197$).

6.2.11.6L2 Cultural Interest by SD6- Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and number of FL study years?

As to FL Years Study relationship, the group of respondents who have studied FL for 13 years has the highest mean score (M=3.50). However, this group has only one case. Therefore, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not carried out. Furthermore, One-Way ANOVA output does not reveal any statistical evidence of significance at .05 level as $p = .865$.

Pearson Correlations Test was also conducted, which shows $r = 0$, which implies an absence of correlation between Cultural Interest and Years Study, and no statistical significance ($p = .996$).

6.2.11.7L2 Cultural Interest by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and L1?

As to L1 Student relationship, respondents whose native language is not English have a highest mean score (3.18). However, One-Way ANOVA analysis shows no statistically significant difference between the two mean scores at .05 level ($p = .647$).

6.2.11.8L2 Cultural Interest by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and parents' L1?

Descriptive statistics report that respondents whose mother or father does not speak English as a native language have the highest mean score (M=3.31). However, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p = .384$). Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test does not reveal any statistical evidence of significance as well.

6.2.11.9L2 Cultural Interest by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and school type?

As to School Type relationship, the highest mean score is represented by SchoolH (M=3.25). However, One-way ANOVA analysis does not reveal any statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p = .208$). Similarly, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test shows no statistical evidence of significance at .05 level.

6.2.11.10 L2 Cultural Interest by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' L2 cultural interest and school term?

As to School Term relationship, the first term has a slightly higher mean (M=3.10) than the last one. However, Independent Samples t-Test does not show any statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level (p=.475).

6.2.12 Attitudes towards L2 Community Relationships

6.2.12.1 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and gender?

As to Gender relationship (Table 84), females have a higher mean score (M= 3.99) than males. Moreover, Independent Samples t-Test (Table 85) reports a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups (p= .001<.05). This means that females' attitudes towards FL native speakers are better than males'.

Table 84
Gender Relationship (Attitudes L2 Community)

ATTITUDES L2COMMUNITY	GENDER	Group Statistics		
		N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	180	3.57	1.15
	Female	167	3.99	1.20

Table 85
Independent Samples t -Test (Attitudes L2 Community– Gender Relationship)

ATTITUDES L2COMMUNITY	t-Test for Equality of Means	
	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Equal var assumed	-3.33 .001

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.12.2 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, the group defined as “Other” has the highest mean score (M=3.83). However, One-way ANOVA analysis shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level (p=.721). Finally, as Former Colony group has less than two cases, a Multiple Comparisons post hoc test is not available.

6.2.12.3 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and school year?

As to School Year relationship, Year 7 has the highest mean score (M=3.88), whereas Year 10 has the lowest mean (3.53). As One-way ANOVA output demonstrates, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p = .643 (>.05)$. Similarly, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test reveals no statistical evidence of significance at .05 level.

6.2.12.4 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and the foreign language learnt?

Descriptive statistics on Foreign Language relationship (Table 86) shows that respondents who are studying both Spanish and Italian scored the highest mean (i.e., 5.15), and that those who are studying only German scored the lowest one (i.e., 3.42). As we can see in Table 87, One-way ANOVA analysis reports that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p = .004$).

Table 86
Foreign Language Relationship (Attitudes L2 Community)

ATTITUDES L2 COMMUNITY	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	157	3.91
	French	161	3.59
	German	16	3.42
	Fre-Spa	2	4.25
	Fre-Ger	4	4.88
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	5.00
	Spa-Ita	5	5.15
Total		346	3.77

Table 87
Difference between FL Group Means (Attitudes L2 Community)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	26.60	6	4.43	3.25	.004
Within groups	461.81	339	1.36		
Total	488.41	345			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.12.5 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and previous abroad FL experience?

Descriptive statistics report that respondents who have never experienced a FL learning course abroad have a greater mean score (M= 3.77) than those who have. However, Independent Samples t-Test reveals that the difference between the means of the two groups is not statistically significant at .05 level (p= .651).

6.2.12.6 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and number of FL study years?

RQ3-Subquestion: Is there any significant correlation between students' attitudes towards L2 community and number of FL study years?

As to Years Study relationship (Table 88), students who have studied FL for one year have the highest mean score (i.e., 3.96). However, One-way ANOVA output shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant as p= .187 (>.05). As we can see in Table 89, Pearson Correlation test shows a statistically significant negative correlation (r=-.141) between attitudes towards L2 Community and Years Study at .05 level (p=.010). This means that the longer students have studied a foreign language the less positive attitudes towards L2 Community they manifest.

Table 88
Years Study Relationship (Attitudes L2 Community)

ATTITUDES L2 COMMUNITY	Group Statistics		
	Years Study	N	Mean
	1	56	3.96
	2	120	3.85
	3	67	3.76
	4	46	3.86
	5	13	2.98
	6	8	3.56
	7	14	3.38
	8	8	3.28
	13	1	3.25
Total		333	3.78

Table 89
Bivariate Correlation between Attitudes L2 Community and FL Years Study

		Pearson Correlations	
		ATT_L2 COMM	STUDY YEARS
ATT_L2COM.	Pearson Corr	1	-.141(**)
	Sig. (two-tailed)		.010
	N	349	333
STUDY YEARS	Pearson Corr	-.141(**)	1
	Sig. (two-tailed)	.010	
	N	333	377

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

6.2.12.7 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and their L1?

As to L1 Student relationship, respondents whose native language is not English have the highest mean score (M=4.25). Independent Samples t-Test, however, shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level (p= .159).

6.2.12.8 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and their parents' L1?

As to L1 Parents relationship, descriptive statistics show that students whose parents' native language is not English have the highest mean score (M= 4.03). However, One-Way ANOVA analysis does not report any statistically significant difference between the means at .05 level (p=.651). Similarly, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test does not reveal any statistical evidence of significance at .05 level.

6.2.12.9 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and school type?

Descriptive statistics in Table 90 reports that SchoolH has the highest mean score (M= 4.03) and SchoolW has the lowest mean score (M= 3.33). In addition, Table 91 shows that the difference between the mean scores is statistically significant as p=.002 (<.05). Finally, Multiple Comparisons post hoc test (Table 92) shows that there is a statistically significant difference at .05 level between SchoolK and SchoolW (p=. 002); SchoolH and SchoolW (p=.001).

Table 90
School Type Relationship (Attitudes L2 Community)

ATT_L2 COM.	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	222	3.83
	SchoolH	62	4.03
	SchoolW	65	3.33
Total		349	3.77

Table 91
Difference between School Type Group Means (Attitudes L2 Community)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	17.82	2	8.91	6.51	.002
Within groups	473.82	346	1.37		
Total	491.64	348			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 92
Post Hoc Test (Attitudes L2 Community-School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: ATT_L2 COMMUNITY			
LSD			
(I)SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SCHOOLK	SCHOOLH	-.20230	.230
	SCHOOLW	.50303(*)	.002
SCHOOLH	SCHOOLK	.20230	.230
	SCHOOLW	.70533(*)	.001
SCHOOLW	SCHOOLK	-.50303(*)	.002
	SCHOOLH	-.70533(*)	.001

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.12.10 Attitudes towards L2 Community by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' attitudes towards L2 community and school term?

As to School Term relationship, First Term has the highest mean score (M= 3.87). However, Independent Samples t-Test shows no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level (p= .103).

6.2.13 Integrativeness Relationships

6.2.13.1 Integrativeness by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and gender?

As to Gender relationship (Table 93), female students have the highest mean score (M= 3.58). As we can see from Table 94, Independent Samples t-Test reports a statistically significant

difference between the mean scores of the two groups ($p = .006 < .05$). This means that females have a more positive attitude and want to identify with the target language, speakers and culture more than males.

Table 93

Gender Relationship (Integrativeness)

INTEGRATIVENESS	Group Statistics			
	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	182	3.23	1.22
	Female	167	3.58	1.20

Table 94

Independent Samples t-Test (Integrativeness-Gender Relationship)

INTEGRATIVENESS	t-Test for Equality of Means		
	Equal var. ass.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
		-2.747	.006

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.13.2 Integrativeness by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, Former Colony group has the highest mean score ($M=4.00$). As this group has less than two cases Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test is not available. Independent Samples t-Test shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant at .05 level as $p=.353 (>.05)$

6.2.13.3 Integrativeness by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and school year?

As to School Year relationship, Year 11 has the highest mean score ($M=3.701$). One-way ANOVA analysis reveals that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant as $p=.541 (>.05)$. Similarly, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test does not reveal any statistical evidence of significance at .05 level.

6.2.13.4 Integrativeness by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and the foreign language learnt?

As to Foreign Language relationship, students who study both French and German have the highest mean score ($M= 4.50$). One-way ANOVA analysis shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant as $p=.123 (>.05)$.

Furthermore, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test was not carried out as one group has less than two cases.

6.2.13.5 Integrativeness by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and previous abroad FL learning experience?

Descriptive statistics on Abroad Courses relationship report that those students who have not experienced any foreign language course abroad have a higher level of Integrative L2 motivation (M= 3.41) than those who have. However, as Independent Samples t-Test reveals that $p=.347 (>.05)$, there is no statistical significant difference between the mean scores.

6.2.13.6 Integrativeness by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and number of FL study years?

As to Years Study, respondents who have studied FL for 13 years have the highest mean score (M=3.67). One-way ANOVA analysis reveals no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.956$. As a group has less than two cases, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available. Finally, Pearson Correlation test reveals a negative correlation ($r=-.038$) between Integrativeness and Years Study. Yet, no statistical evidence of significance was found at .05 level ($p=.492$).

6.2.13.7 Integrativeness by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and first language?

As to L1 Student, respondents whose native language is English have the highest mean score (M=3.41). However, as Independent Samples t-Test demonstrates, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups as $p=.551 (>.05)$.

6.2.13.8 Integrativeness by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and their parents' native language?

Students whose parents' native language is not English have the highest mean score (M= 3.54). One way ANOVA analysis shows no significant difference between the mean scores as

$p=.757 (>.05)$. Finally, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test does not reveal any statistical evidence of significance.

6.2.13.9 Integrativeness by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and school type?

As shown in Table 95, SchoolH has the highest mean score (3.70). However, One-way ANOVA analysis shows that the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant at .05 level. ($p=.084$). However, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test (Table 96) shows that there is a statistically significant difference between SchoolH and SchoolW at .05 level ($p=.039$). This means that SchoolH students like and identify with the target language speaking people and culture more than SchoolW students.

Table 95
School Type Relationship (Integrativeness)

INTEGRATIVENESS	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	223	3.36
	SchoolH	63	3.70
	SchoolW	66	3.26
Total		352	3.40

Table 96
Post Hoc Test (Integrativeness- School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
(I)SCHOOL	(J)SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig
SCHOOLK	SCHOOLH	-.33817	.051
	SCHOOLW	.10266	.545
SCHOOLH	SCHOOLK	.33817	.051
	SCHOOLW	.44084(*)	.039
SCHOOLW	SCHOOLK	-.10266	.545
	SCHOOLH	-.44084(*)	.039

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.13.10 Integrativeness by SD10- School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' integrativeness and school term?

As to School Term relationship, First Term has the highest mean score ($M= 3.43$). However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.624$).

6.2.14 International Posture Relationships

6.2.14.1 International Posture by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and gender?

As described by group statistics, females have a higher mean score (M=3.38) than males. Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.112$).

6.2.14.2 International Posture by SD2- Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and nationality?

As to Nationality relationship, Dual Nationality group has the highest mean score (M= 3.68). One-way ANOVA analysis, however, shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.742$). As one group has just one case, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test is not available.

6.2.14.3 International Posture by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and school year?

As to School Year relationship, Year 11 has the highest mean score (i.e., 3.65). One-way ANOVA shows that p-value is .688 ($>.05$). Therefore, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores.

6.2.14.4 International Posture by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and the foreign language learnt?

Descriptive Statistics on Foreign Language relationship show that students who are studying three languages (i.e., French, Spanish and German) have the highest mean score (M= 4.40). As shown by One-way ANOVA output ($p= .884>.05$), the difference between the mean scores is not statistically significant. Moreover, since one group has less than two cases, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test was not available.

6.2.14.5 International Posture by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and previous abroad FL study experience?

As to FL Abroad Courses relationship, students who have experienced a language learning course abroad have a higher mean score ($M= 3.36$) than those who have not. However, Independent Samples t-Test reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.695$).

6.2.14.6 International Posture by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and number of study years?

As to Study Years, students who have studied English for 13 years have the highest mean score (3.80). One-way ANOVA output shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.731 (>.05)$. Furthermore, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test is not available as one group has less than two cases. Finally, Pearson Correlation test was carried out, which shows a negative correlation ($r= -.005$) between International Posture and Study Years. However, this result is not statistically significant as $p= .923 (>.05)$.

6.2.14.7 International Posture by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and L1?

As to L1 Student relationship, respondents whose native language is other than English have the highest mean score ($M=3.66$). However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p= .159$).

6.2.14.8 International Posture by SD8-L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and parents' L1?

One-way ANOVA analysis reports that respondents whose parents' first language is not English have the highest mean score ($M=3.64$). As $p=.296 (>.05)$, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level. Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test also reveals no statistical evidence of significance at .05 level.

6.2.14.9 International Posture by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and school type?

As to School Type relationship, SchoolW has the highest mean score (M= 3.46). One-way ANOVA shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.277 (>.05)$.

6.2.14.10 International Posture by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' international posture and school term?

As to School Term, International Posture seems to be higher in the last term (M=.3.32) than in the first one. However, Independent Samples t-Test output shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.788 (>.05)$.

6.2.15 L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate (L2 IWTC) Relationships

6.2.15.1 L2 L2IWTC by SD1-Gender

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and gender?

As to Gender relationship (Table 97), females have a higher mean score (M=3.48) than males. As we can see from the Independent Samples t-Test (Table 98), there is a statistically significant difference between the two mean scores as $p= .000 (<.05)$. This means that female students are more willing to communicate in L2 in an intercultural context than male students.

Table 97
Gender Relationship (L2 IWTC)

L2 IWTC	Group Statistics			
	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. dev
	Male	191	2.99	1.21
	Female	172	3.48	1.19

Table 98
Independent Samples t-Test (L2 IWTC-Gender Relationship)

L2 IWTC	t-Test for Equality of Means	
	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Equal var ass	-3.910 .000

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.15.2 L2 IWTC by SD2-Nationality

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and nationality?

One-way ANOVA on Nationality relationship shows that Former Colony group has the highest mean score (4.00). Moreover, it reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.809$. Finally, as Former Colony group has just one case, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test is not available.

6.2.15.3 L2 IWTC by SD3-School Year

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and school year?

As to School Year relationship, Year 7 has the highest mean score ($M=3.34$). One-way ANOVA output shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.688 (>.05)$. Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc test was also conducted, but with no statistical evidence of significance at .05 level.

6.2.15.4 L2 IWTC by SD4-Foreign Language

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and the language learnt?

As to Foreign Language relationship (Table 99), students who are studying both Spanish and Italian have the highest mean score ($M= 4.94$). One-way ANOVA (Table 100) shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level ($p=.012<.05$). As one group has less than two cases Multiple Comparisons post hoc test is not available.

Table 99
Foreign Language Relationship (L2 IWTC)

L2 IWTC	Group Statistics		
	FL	N	Mean
	Spanish	167	3.21
	French	167	3.15
	German	16	3.23
	Fre-Spa	3	4.17
	Fre-Ger	4	4.56
	Fre-Spa-Ger	1	4.50
	Spa-Ita	4	4.94
Total		362	3.23

Table 100
Difference between FL Group Means (L2IWTC)

	One-way ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between groups	24.16	6	4.03	2.79	.012
Within groups	512.87	355	1.45		
Total	537.02	361			

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.15.5L2 IWTC by SD5-Abroad Courses

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students'intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and previous abroad language learning experience?

As to Abroad Courses relationship, students who have experienced a foreign language course abroad have the highest mean score (M=3.47). However, Independent Samples t-Test shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.231 (>.05)$.

6.2.15.6L2 IWTC by SD6-Study Years

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students'intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and the number of FL study years?

ONE-WAY ANOVA on Years Study Relationship shows that Year 1 has the highest mean score (M=3.38). Moreover, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.954 (>.05)$. Pearson Correlation Test shows a negative correlation ($r= -.043$) between Intercultural Willingness and Years Study. However, there is no statistical evidence of significance at .05 level ($p=.420$).

6.2.15.7L2 IWTC by SD7-L1 Student

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students'intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and their L1?

As to L1 Student, respondents whose native language is English have the highest mean score (M=3.22). However, as Independent Samples t-Test shows, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores as $p=.836 (>.05)$.

6.2.15.8 L2 IWTC by SD8- L1 Parents

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and their parents' L1?

As to L1 Parents relationship, respondents whose mother or father's first language is not English have the highest mean score (M=3.31). However, there is no statistically significant difference between the means scores at .05 level as $p = .782$. Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test also shows no statistical evidence of significance between the mean scores.

6.2.15.9 L2 IWTC by SD9-School Type

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and school type?

As to School Type relationship (Table 101), SchoolH has the highest mean score (M= 3.45). However, One-way ANOVA output shows no statistically significant difference between the mean scores at .05 level as $p = .126$. As shown in Table 102, Multiple Comparisons Post Hoc Test reveals a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of SchoolH and SchoolW at .05 level (i.e. $p = .043$). This means that SchoolH students are more willing to communicate in L2 in an intercultural context than SchoolW students.

Table 101
School Type Relationship (L2 IWTC)

INTEGRATIVENESS	Group Statistics		
	SCHOOL TYPE	N	Mean
	SchoolK	232	3.21
	SchoolH	65	3.45
	SchoolW	69	3.03
Total		366	3.22

Table 102
Post Hoc Test (L2 IWTC-School Type Relationship)

Multiple Comparisons			
Dependent Variable: L2 IWTC			
LSD			
(I) SCHOOL	(J) SCHOOL	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
SCHOOLK	SCHOOLH	-.24479	.153
	SCHOOLW	.18369	.273
SCHOOLH	SCHOOLK	.24479	.153
	SCHOOLW	.42848(*)	.043
SCHOOLW	SCHOOLK	-.18369	.273
	SCHOOLH	-.42848(*)	.043

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

6.2.15.10 L2 IWTC by SD10-School Term

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' intercultural willingness to communicate in L2 and school term?

As to School Term relationship, Intercultural Willingness is higher in the first term (M= 3.29) than in the last term. However, t-Test output reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups at .05 level (p= .192).

6.3 Qualitative Analysis

The major research findings of the qualitative analysis are synthesized in a matrix, according to the study research questions (Fig. 33). This L2 motivation framework clearly displays the themes, categories and subcategories emerged from the 5 and 6 phases of the qualitative analysis process, which enabled me to organize the major qualitative results under a number of section headings/subheadings, each of which corresponds to a different theme or category found in the study.

In each of the coming sections, I will also provide a table for each analyzed category, which shows the related theme, sub-categories and the supporting most significant respondents' statements, derived from the final version of the Microsoft Excel spreadsheet used during the qualitative analysis process (Phase 5). In addition, within the thick description of the research findings, I will also highlight the relationships/correlations between categories, which will be eventually discussed in Chapter Seven.













RQ	THEMES	CATEGORIES/SUBCATEGORIES	KEYS
RQ1 RQ2	Student-Related Factors	1. Instrumentality 1.1 Students' beliefs and awareness of L2 utility 1.2 Students' intention to use L2 for pragmatic purposes 1.2.1 Promotion 1.2.2 Prevention 1.2.3 Travel orientation ----- 2. Individual differences 2.1 Age 2.2 Gender 2.3 L2 personal ability 2.4 Effort ----- 3. Affective dimension 3.1 L2 Anxiety 3.2 L2 Self-confidence ----- 4. Perceptions and Attitudes/Interest towards L2 4.1 Perceptions of L2 difficulty 4.2 Attitudes towards grammar 4.3 Willingness to communicate in L2 4.4 Culture-related orientation	S-1  ----- S-2  ----- S-3  ----- S-4 
RQ4	Contextual Factors	1. Socio-cultural context ----- 2. Family/Parental influence ----- 3. School system policies and barriers	C-1  ----- C-2  ----- C-3 
RQ5	Teacher-related Factors	1. Teacher motivation ----- 2. Teacher beliefs about the importance of learning languages in England ----- 3. Teacher role in promoting L2 motivation	T-1  ----- T-2  ----- T-3 
RQ6	The L2 Learning Experience	1. Teaching strategies/approaches and effective activities ----- 2. Use of the target language in the L2 classroom	E-1  ----- E-2 

Figure 33. Framework of Categories Derived from the Qualitative Research Analysis

6.3.1 Student-Related Factors Affecting L2 Motivation (RQ1; RQ2)

6.3.1.1 Instrumentality (S1)

By re-examining the various interview scripts, it was firstly possible to identify the first overarching category of the study, i.e., *Instrumentality*, which represents one of the major motivational factor related to student. This was obtained by following the various phases of the coding process during the analysis of qualitative data and was eventually reorganized into a more selected set of subcategories, hierarchically classified, as displayed in Fig. 34.

According to this classification, *Instrumentality* represents a broad category encompassing two components: 1) student's perceptions/beliefs or awareness of L2 utility and 2) student's reasons to use the L2, which involve a component of learner intentionality. The

second component of *Instrumentality* involves three different kinds of *pragmatic purposes* or *regulatory orientations* that learners use to achieve their goals:

1. *Promotion-focused orientation*, which is related to beneficial gains of L2 proficiency, related to one's future studies, future employment, good salary...);
2. *Travel-focused orientation*, which refers to learning a foreign language with the purpose of using it to travel internationally
3. *Prevention-focused orientation (Ought-to Self)*, when students are obliged to study a foreign language in order to fulfil the school requirements or for fear of negative outcomes, such as failing exams, getting lower grades or disappointing one's parents.

According to the *Instrumentality* framework shown in Fig. 35, therefore, it was firstly possible to interpret the teachers' beliefs about students' awareness of the importance of learning foreign languages in secondary school. As we can infer from a number of excerpts, most respondents agree that many students do not understand or are aware of "the benefits despite what [teachers] put in place for them" (TK1-S1b).

As especially highlighted in various interviews (eg., TK2-S1b; TW2-S1a; TH3-S1b; TW10-S1c), students often state that learning foreign languages is "pointless" because wherever they go abroad they can speak English. Similarly, when asked how important it is to learn foreign languages in England, teachers explain that generally people do not place value on it because they are firmly convinced that they do not need to speak languages. Learning foreign languages is therefore considered as "a niche subject" and, unfortunately, Brexit has strengthened this stance (TW10-S1a).

THEME
Student-Related Factors
CATEGORY
Instrumentality (S1)
SUBCATEGORIES
<p>1. Students' Beliefs and Awareness of L2 utility</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“I don't think a lot of students are aware of the benefits of learning a language... I'm honest”. (TK1-S1a) “I don't think that many of them value it, I think a lot of students say: ‘Why do I have to do this?’” (TH3-S1a) “Why do we have to learn Spanish if everybody speaks English?”(TW10-S1c) “In England we don't need to speak languages and it's still a niche subject, it's not widely accepted by parents of our students. (TW10-S1a) “I think the majority – they're aged 14-15 – don't see the point in learning a language, they don't get it!”(TW10-S1b)</p> <hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/> <p>2. Students' Intention to Use L2 for Pragmatic Purposes</p> <hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/> <p>2.1 Promotion-Focused Orientation</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“They cannot even imagine themselves using the language.”(TK4-S1c) “With languages, in particular, they don't see the importance of what they are doing now for their future.” (TK4-S1d) “I think that part of the issue really is they don't really see the relevance to their everyday life.” (TW10-S1d)</p> <hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/> <p>2.2 Prevention-Focused Orientation</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“They don't see why they need to learn languages, they do it because they are told they have to.”(TK2-S1a) “So, I think so many of our students of course have to do it in Year 7 and 8, and then when they're not that aware, they're probably forced.” (TH10-S1a)</p> <hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/> <p>2.3 Travel Orientation-Focused Orientation</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“They don't find learning a foreign language important at all, they don't see the point because they always say: ‘I won't go to France, what's the point?’ or ‘I won't go to Spain, what's the point?’” (TK4-S1a) “I think a lot of students say... I'm not going to France, Germany or Spain to stay ...or why do we need to do this if everybody well speaks English anyway? What's the point?”(TH3-S1b) “Well, I think...Spanish is more popular than French now, and I think that because people see Spain as a holiday destination.” (TW10-S1d)</p>

Figure 34. Instrumentality (S1) Categorical Framework Derived from the Qualitative Research Analysis

In spite of teachers' numerous attempts to promote learners' L2 motivation by highlighting the benefits of studying a foreign language, many English students *lack aspiration* and do not see FL learning in the light of future self-promotion. A lot of students believe that studying a foreign language will not be necessary in their lives or careers since they are not willing to leave their country in the future (TK2-S1b). One of the teachers underlines that “with languages, in particular, [students] don't see the importance of what

they are doing now for their future”, which indicates *lack of learners’ future time perspective* and which – in her opinion – depends on the students’ age (TK4-S1c).

The above considerations reflect a widespread way of thinking, “a mindset [...] that is symptomatic of lots of people in Hull that they don’t see a language would take me places” (TK2-S1c). Such responses, therefore, confirm that most students do not intend to study and use the foreign languages studied at school for pragmatic purposes; consequently, the lack of *self-promotion* and *travel components of Instrumentality* result to be among the major factors that cause students’ demotivation in this qualitative study.

As highlighted by *causation coding* employed in the 2^o *cycle coding* (Phase 4^o) of the qualitative analysis process, a *causal relationship* between *lack of travel orientation* and *lack of L2 interest*⁵⁸ was also found: some learners are not interested in learning foreign languages “because” they really believe that they will never go to the target language country, as clearly emerges from three different teachers (TK4-S1a; TK5-S1a; TK6-S1a) responses. As a result, students believe that learning a foreign language in school is not “a real subject” (TK5-S1a), that is to say, it is not a subject that can be considered relevant to their lives.

The emphasis placed by the respondents on students’ *lack of travel orientation* proves teachers’ belief that this factor plays a major role in L2 student motivation. Accordingly, Spanish is more popular than French in the North-East schools since, for students who often travel abroad during school holidays, Spain represents the favourite tourist destination. In fact, despite the fact that learning French is more beneficial than Spanish in terms of business and job prospects, it is less popular. This can be explained by the fact that kids do not see the relevance of learning a foreign language “to their everyday life” or their future career (TW10-S1d), and again, this reflects a *lack of promotion-focused orientation* in most students motivational profile.

Another significant *causal relationship* is also found when teachers maintain that *travel orientation* depends on students’ *socio-economic background*. As TK6 explains, if some students “come from a poor background where parents have not given them the opportunity to travel abroad... they will see no point in learning” (TK6-S1a). In this respect, another teacher reports that a lot of people in Hull have not even been out of Hull; hence, they “cannot even imagine themselves using the language” (TK4-S1c). In other words, they are not able to

⁵⁸ the L2 Attitudes/interest component of L2 motivation will be addressed in detail in one of the coming sections of this chapter.

envision themselves as future L2 users, which reflects the *lack of the ideal component* of the L2 self.

On the contrary, according to teachers' responses, students' *prevention-focused orientation* represents a significant motivational factor. Some students don't learn a foreign language because they want to, but because they have to do it (TK2-S1a). Thus, learning a foreign language is generally perceived as a school requirement that all students must fulfil. This is especially the case for students in Years 7 and 8, a period when they are not aware of the importance of learning a foreign language and, most likely, when they feel obliged to study it (TH10-S1a). Interestingly, not only this finding highlights the significant impact of the *prevention* component of Instrumentality on student L2 motivation, but also its *relationship* with students' *low awareness of L2 importance* during the first stage of Secondary School, which ultimately indicates a significant *correlation* with students' *age*.⁵⁹ Conversely, when students are more aware and "it's a choice" to study languages, the number of those who pick up this subject is reduced but represents "far more motivated students [...] that want to do it" (TB10-S1).

6.3.1.2 Individual Differences (S2): Age, Gender, L2 Personal Ability and Effort

As displayed in Fig. 35, another relevant category derived from the qualitative data analysis, is *individual differences*, which encompasses four sub-categories: *age*, *gender*, *L2 personal ability* and *effort*. According to most respondents, *age* is a significant individual factor impacting students' L2 motivation. As already mentioned in the previous section, students' *awareness* of the importance of learning a foreign language is influenced by *age*, as the youngest students (Years 7 and 8) are less aware of the benefits (TK6-S2a) and less concerned about their future than the oldest ones (TK4-S2a). On the contrary, youngest students are the most motivated to learn languages. At the end of Primary School (Year 6) and at the beginning of Secondary School (Year 7), students are "usually quite excited to start learning a language because it's a new subject" (TW2-S2b) and "seem very keen" (TW10-S2b).

⁵⁹This aspect will be addressed in more detail at the beginning of the coming section.

THEME	
Student-Related Factors	
CATEGORY	
Individual Differences (S2)	
SUBCATEGORIES	
1. Age	<p align="center">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“I think at Primary School... we’re going to Primary School in year 6 ... and they’re usually quite excited to start learning a language because it’s a new subject. Hmm...so year -7 so pretty, so kindyou... eleven-year-olds, twelve-year-olds are so quite excited to learn a language. I’d say between thirteen and sixteen ..that’s when they can start to be.....hmm...less caught” (TW2-S2b). “...the younger they’re probably the less aware.” (TK6-S2a)</p>
2. Gender	<p align="center">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“Gender...I find in year 7 it doesn’t matter. You know, they are all keen to learn. As soon as they get in year 8 and in year 9 I find that males (the boys) drift off for a little bit. So, there are some of them staying on track and by the time they get in year 9 and 10 you might lose some of the girls, but then, by 10 to year11 everyone seems to being focused again”.(TK2-S2b) “I find that girls are a bit more dedicated than boys. So, there are differences.” (TK4-S2b)</p>
3. L2 Personal Ability	<p align="center">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“I appreciate that it’s important and all students should be allowed to learn a language, but not every student is able to (TK2-S2a) “I think... yeah, I do find the lower the ability, the more passive behaviour and they don’t want to learn a language.” (TK5-S2a)</p>
4. Effort	<p>“...they won’t revise anything at home” (TK4-S2C) “they don’t go home and revise what they’ve done every lesson, they do not speak Spanish at all or French for over six days. So, what they’ve learnt in the last lesson they forgot(TK2-S2b)</p>

Figure 35. Individual Differences (S2) Categorical Framework Derived from the Qualitative Research Analysis

Student L2 motivation undergoes important variations across Secondary School and is characterized by significant fluctuations. Thus, in Year 8, students’ enthusiasm “tends to die down a little bit” (TH10-S2a) and in Year 9 we find the most demotivated students. (TK2-S2b). However, “with the age comes a little more of maturity” and older students are more motivated because they chose to study languages at a GCSE stage (TH3-S2a). Thus, by the time students get into the GCSE (Years 10 and 11), L2 motivation of those who are still focused will come back again, whereas those who aren’t will still struggle with learning (TW1-S2a). Despite these considerations, TH3-S2a also points out that age is not always a determinant as there are different kinds of students in all age groups.

TK1's response is particularly meaningful. On the one hand, in contrast to other teachers, he assumes that *age* is not "a massive factor" in learning a foreign language. On the other hand, however, he agrees that youngest students are enthusiastic about languages because they are at the beginning of Secondary School, whereas their motivation drops by the time they reach Year 8. TK1 also reports that, in Years 9 and 10, L2 motivation still decreases because of students' development throughout adolescence, which also affects the other subjects in a similar way (TK1-S2a). TH10 (S2a; S2b) explains the reasons why L2 motivation reaches a trough from Year 7 to Year 8: students are adolescents and "noticeably [...] change a lot"; they find this subject "hard and boring"; they perceive it as an obligation; their parents do not encourage them.

Another important point is that with the age students become more mature and more engaged. Therefore, at GCSE stage, they are more interested in L2 learning because they study foreign languages by choice and they usually display a "knowledge or aptitude" for languages (TH3-S2a). This is especially the case when students pick foreign languages as an option after Year 8. These are the most motivated students, but represent a minority, a "niche" (TW10-S2b).

Interestingly, TK2 (S2c) highlights an important *relationship* between *age* and *gender*: in Year 7 students are all interested in foreign languages, but in Year 8 and 9 girls are more keen than boys. According to the same teacher, in Year 8, L2 motivation decreases and bottoms out in Year 9, even for some girls. However, in Year 10/Year 11 it increases again because students are more mature and more focused on learning in general.

When asked to what extent gender affects students' motivation, most respondents agree that girls are "more dedicated" (TK4-S2b) in learning a foreign language than boys and that teachers usually "struggle to motivate boys more than girls to progress in the language" throughout the different stages of secondary school (TW1-S2a). Moreover, as learning a foreign language is generally perceived as a quite difficult task, boys are less motivated, tend to put less effort to overcome difficulties and, therefore, "shine less at that" than girls (TW2-S2a).

For obvious reasons, however, some teachers take account of proper exceptions. For example, TH3 (S2a) concludes that, even though teachers generally believe that girls are more interested in foreign languages than boys, she cannot say with certainty that "gender really matters" due to the fact that a lot of boys in her classes like German. Another respondent maintains that typically girls tend "to favour languages more than boys"; yet, this pattern does

not apply to every situation (TW10-S2b). Most importantly, TK6 (S2b) disagrees with those national statistics saying that boys are less interested in learning foreign languages than girls because he believes that the teacher's role is a more significant motivating factor than gender.

Other significant findings concern the impact of students' beliefs about their own ability and L2 learning difficulties on L2 motivation. Some teachers report that learning a foreign language is generally perceived as a difficult task. Hence, capable students tend to be more interested, whereas less able students tend to give up learning, especially after the first year. Therefore, TW2 (S2a) openly states that L2 motivation "depends on the ability of students". Similarly, TK5 (S2a) reports that "the lower the ability, the more passive behaviour" students manifest. This statement establishes a significant *relationship* between *student L2 ability* and *effort*. Finally, TK2 (S2a) assumes that learning a foreign language "is not for everybody". Even though he recognizes that "all students should be allowed to learn a language", he believes that they should not be obliged to study it because not everyone is able to.

As already discussed, *gender, age, L2 personal ability* and *student's perceptions of L2 difficulties affect effort and motivated behaviour*. Thus, at home, students don't usually revise what they've done at school and, therefore, forget what they've learnt in the last lesson (SK2-b). The amount of time and effort spent on studying languages is usually not sufficient to cover most of the contents and to successfully achieve the targets expected at GCSE level. This is especially due to the fact that most students do not place much importance on languages and tend to privilege GCSE subjects such as Maths and English (TK4-S2c).

6.3.1.3 Affective Dimension (S-3): L2 Anxiety and L2 Self-Confidence

The affective dimension of student L2 motivation is another overriding factor derived from the qualitative data analysis. In this study, it comprises two contrasting sub-categories: *L2 anxiety* and *L2 Self-Confidence* (Fig. 36). As pointed out by some teachers, a significant number of students feel anxious about using the target language, especially in a communicative way. At times, even the most able students feel "apprehensive because they feel that they don't want to make any mistakes on any of the spoken elements" (TK1-S3a), which means that they overemphasize the importance of form at the expense of communication. Moreover, a lot of students "really struggle with the listening and the speaking because of lack confidence primarily" and they prefer writing and reading activities because they are less worried about making mistakes (TK1-S3b). This statement reveals a

significant relationships between student *lack of L2 self-confidence* and *perception of L2 difficulties*, which ultimately affects L2 achievement.

THEME
Student-Related Factors
CATEGORY
Affective Dimension (S3)
SUBCATEGORIES
<p>1. L2 Anxiety</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“With regards to speaking they are a little more apprehensive because they feel that they don’t want to make any mistakes on any of the spoken elements and then might feel silly because they are trying to speak a foreign language.” (TK1-S3a)</p>
<p>2. L2 Self-Confidence</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“If they are successful to do it, they can actually do it and you design your lessons so that everyone achieves, which is what we should do all the time. But we still gonna get some students who find languages difficult and they don’t see why they have to do them, and then they get demotivated.”(TK2- S3a)</p> <p>“I think if they find it difficult they often switch off and then they are not very motivated to continue”. (TK5-S3a)</p>

Figure 36. Affective Dimension (S3) Categorical Framework Derived from the Qualitative Research Analysis

As TK2 (S3a) explains, *successful learning experience influences students’ further achievements and self-esteem positively*; therefore, teachers should “design [their] lessons so that everyone achieves” (TK2-S3a). Conversely, when students find it difficult to learn a foreign language, this undermines their L2 self-esteem and expectancy of success, which finally leads to demotivation. These assumptions are, finally, synthesized by TK2 (S3b): “It’s a confidence thing: as soon as students start losing confidence - which they do - [...] they struggle and it’s detrimental to their education”. In a similar vein, TK5 (S3a) points out that if students struggle with learning languages, “they often switch off and then they are not very motivated to continue”.

6.3.1.4 Student Perceptions and Attitudes/Interest towards L2 Learning (S4)

Most teachers agree that students’*perceptions/attitudes towards learning a foreign language differ depending on the L2 learning situation* - whether it is focused on grammar or on learning skills, such as spoken, listening or writing, or on culture (Fig. 37). Again, teachers highlight a *significant relationship between student perceptions/attitudes and individual ability*. Learning a foreign language is often perceived as difficult and less able students tend

to enjoy it at the beginning of secondary school when they can access to it a little easier but, then, when it becomes more complex, they lose motivation (TW1-S4a). *This applies all the more to grammar*: lower ability students find it more difficult as “they do not understand the basics in English” as well and, therefore, need more teaching support (TK5-S4c).

Although grammar is perceived as the most difficult of all learning goals, nevertheless a large proportion of the new GCSE is based upon it (TB10-S4b). Its importance is finally emphasized in relationship to effective L2 communication, even though sometimes the most able students in the last stage of school (i.e., Key-Stage 5) feel worried about accuracy, which prevent them to speak confidently (TH3-S4c).

THEME
Student-Related Factors
CATEGORY
Perceptions and Attitudes/Interest towards L2 (S4)
SUBCATEGORIES
<p>1. Perceptions of L2 Difficulty</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“Languages are very hard to learn, they are not easy to learn...students don’t love, they find it hard, they don’t want to do it!”(TW10-S4a)</p>
<p>2. Attitudes towards Grammar</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“I can understand their confusion and why they find it difficult; therefore, they are not motivated because they find it hard and they don’t understand. They don’t know their own grammar in England, so that makes things much more complex. So, I think that maybe it’s an issue that could be targeted from English rather than from languages.”(TK4-S4a)</p> <p>“Another factor we find is a lack of grammatical understanding of their own language: they don’t know how to conjugate verbs or they don’t know terminology such as subject, verb, object and...- direct and indirect objects – they don’t know these things very much.” (TH3-S4a)</p>
<p>3. Willingness to Communicate in L2</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“I think it depends on their ability. Often my top-set or my higher-set groups are much more willing to speak with people from different countries, or willing to have trips or things like that, or language assistants...”(TK5-S4a)</p>
<p>4. Culture-Related Orientation</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“... I think students are quite keen and engage quite well with looking at different areas and elements of culture within that country.” (TK1-S4c)</p> <p>“ I think Spanish is more... hmm... well-received... the culture and...quite a lot of our students go to Spain... quite a lot! So, they like. Most students prefer learning Spanish than French or German... and they seem more receptive towards Spanish culture; whereas the French culture... I’d say ...hmm... they don’t find it as interesting.”(TW2-S4a)</p>

Figure 37. Perceptions and Attitudes toward L2 Learning (S4) Categorical Framework

Interestingly, some teachers highlight that English students find it difficult to learn a foreign language because of “their own misconceptions about their own language”(TK1-S4b). Indeed, a very poor knowledge of English and overuse of colloquial language “hinders the progress of [L2] learning”, as TK1(S4a) explains. In this respect, TH3 (S4a) reports that English students are not able to analyze their own language because of “lack of grammatical understanding [...]: they don’t know how to conjugate verbs or [...] terminology such as subject, verb, object”.

In different interviews (TK2-S4b; TK6-S4 a,b; TK4-S4a), we find that a lot of English teachers don’t teach English grammar and sometimes they even lack this kind of knowledge. This fact “makes things much more complex“ and is, therefore, “an issue that could be targeted from English rather from languages” (TK4-S4a). As they have never studied English grammar at school, they struggle even more so in learning a foreign language grammar, which “they find it hard and don’t understand”(TK4-S4a). However, this does not necessarily mean that students do not like grammar. In fact, TK6 (S4c) says that his students enjoy learning grammar and being aware of how a foreign language works.

Given the above premises, teaching grammar becomes essential “in every single” foreign language lesson”. That’s why teachers have reviewed their schemes of learning “to ensure that grammar is robust”. English students need to work more on grammar to be able to use the language effectively and, in view of the GCSE in particular, to “manipulate” and “use the language spontaneously”(TW1-S4d). Hence, over the last years, some teachers tend to mainly focus on grammar points in their lessons (TH3-S4d). Indeed, the new specifications place more importance on grammar than in the past (when grammar was not taught explicitly), which is now believed to be more enjoyable and useful (TH10-S4a).

According to TB10 (S4a,c), students “like a broad range of language skills” but usually struggle with the listening skills. With regards to L2 speaking, this is considered “a crucial skill” to develop. Low down in the school students find it difficult because they have not developed this skill yet but, as they get older, they tend to increase their ability to use the target language and, as a rule, they speak it in the last year. Youngest students prefer the spoken and, as they get older and gain a better understanding of it, they also enjoy the grammar. Importantly, these statements, therefore, highlight an *important relationship between age and attitudes towards L2 learning (i.e., L2 Willingness to Communicate and Attitudes towards grammar)* This is especially true for those students who have chosen to

study languages and are motivated to learn a broad range of L2 skills. Finally, students in Sixth-form speak the target language almost the entire lesson and generally enjoy speaking.

Again, as TK5 reports in different excerpts (S4a,b), *individual L2 ability* is believed to *impact student's attitudes towards L2 learning, especially studentwillingness to communicate in the target language*. “Top-set [...]groups are much more willing to speak with people from different countries, or willing to have trips or things like that, or language assistants”, whereas “lower ability students [...] aren't very motivated to do the language, or aren't very able”. Indeed, “the lower the ability, the more passive behaviour” they show because as “they find it difficult, they often switch off and are not very motivated to continue”. Interestingly, by adding thatthese students“don't really want to integrate or learn about the other country” TK5's assumption also highlights the *important impact of students' perceptions of L2 difficulty on the integrative component of L2 motivation (or integrativeness)*.

Another important point is that not every student likes speaking in the target language and that this depends on the class dynamics(TW10-4b). In addition, a number of findings reveal a *positive correlation between student L2 learning experience andL2 Willingness to Communicate*. In this regard, teachers report that students usually enjoy speaking French or Spanish, especially with a native language teacher and that students “absolutely love it” when they talk to language partners during international exchange programs (TK2-S4a).

In another excerpt we found that,with people outside the classroom, students find it hard to speak in the target language, they get nervous and, therefore, do not enjoy speaking (TW1-S4c). This means that student *L2 Willingness to Communicate is strongly affected by their linguistic Self-Confidence*. Finally, either students have never had any opportunity to speak in the target language with a native speaker at school or, when they had the opportunity to converse in the presence of a language assistant, many found it difficult and felt “self-conscious” and reluctant to speak (TH3-S4b).

To conclude, as severalresponses suggest, students seem to be more motivated to learn a foreign language when they deal with topics related to L2 culture and during school trips, in which “they show their best attitudes” towards the language (TH3-S4b). Thus, as most teachers agree that students are interested in L2 culture, in line with the new GCSE specifications, they tend to promote cultural topics in many ways (eg., films; cultural highlights on L2 country), which make the language lessons more relevant (TK1-S4c). Interestingly, students are usually interested in learning Spanish language and culture, whereas they do not seem to appreciate French culture in the same way (TW2-S4a).However,

students find it difficult to accept L2 culture point of view at times. Even when they are interested and curious about the target language culture, they sometimes “can’t understand why that culture is different and they expect that everybody just thinks the way they would do” (TK5-S4d).

6.3.2 Contextual Factors (RQ4)

6.3.2.1 Socio-Cultural Context (C1)

As depicted in Fig. 38, among the major contextual factors highlighted in the current study, some teachers report that *the demographic of the area* represents “the biggest drive in the lack of [student L2] motivation”, which also reflects “a naive attitude that the students have” and a widespread mindset within the city (K1-C1a,b). Thus, many students manifest low ambition and do not recognize the value of learning a foreign language due to poor *socio-cultural background*, which becomes, therefore, a prominent factor especially for students from disadvantaged backgrounds, whose parents’ inner attitudes towards languages represent the major barrier (K2-C1a). For financial reasons these students cannot afford to go on holidays abroad (K6-C1a), and, generally, they do not even “have the ambition to go” (TH10- C1a,b).

THEME
Contextual Factors
CATEGORY
Socio-Cultural Context (C1)
SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS
“Social background I think possibly is the biggest one...” (TH3-C1a) “I think the biggest factor is the social area, social area... of the demographic... I think that’s the biggest drive in the lack of motivation for students who want to learn a language.”(TK1-C1b)

Figure 38. Socio-Cultural Context (C1) Categorical Framework

Interestingly, students’ lack of motivation and the fact that “languages are not compulsory” mirror “not just something from the students” but, most importantly, a general feeling shared across the whole country, “something that is acquired from their culture” (TK4-C1a) and that has also been exacerbated by Brexit (TK5-C1a). Indeed, *narrow-mindedness* and *socially shared ethnocentrism* are also believed to be major barriers. In this respect, a respondent highlights the fact that, being his school predominantly a “British white school” located in a small provincial sea-side town, students generally don’t see people other than their fellow countrymen in a favourable light and, therefore, this affects L2 motivation negatively (TB10-C1-a,b).

6.3.2.2 Family/Parental Influence (C2)

As we can see from Fig. 39, most teachers believe that the *negative influence of parents* is one of the biggest barrier for students’ motivation to learn a foreign language, as many of them do not see the benefits of learning languages and are not supportive at all (TK1-C2a; TK2-C2a; TH3-C2a; TK5-C2a; TK6-C2a,b; TH10-C2a). Besides, those parents who themselves had an unsatisfactory experience in learning a foreign language at school, may even deter their children from studying a foreign language and have a detrimental impact on their L2 interest and self-esteem (TK1-C2a). Although there are not many parents who encourage their sons or daughters to learn languages, there is a minority of students who manifest a positive attitudes, even if they belong to different family backgrounds(TW1-C2a).

Against any kind of generalization, however, some respondents (eg., TW2-C2b) point out that a lot of parents acknowledge the importance of learning a foreign language. This is generally the case when parents are well-read or well-travelled, which affects students’ motivation positively (TH10-C2b; TB10). Again, this supports the assumption that the social background has a huge impact on student motivation (TH3-C2a).

THEME
Contextual Factors
CATEGORY
Family/Parental Influence (C2)
SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS
“Their parents are not supportive, their parents like “ We don’t need to do languages, it’s not that important”. As soon as they are told so by their parents you’ll fight a losing battle, which is really difficult. That’s the biggest overriding factor for me.”(TK2- C2a) “...especially from parental hmmm.... backgrounds; if their parents don’t support them in doing it they don’t even do it...” (TK5-C2a)

Figure 39. Family/Parental Influence (C2) Categorical Framework

6.3.2.3 School System Policies and Barriers (C3)

As we can see from many excerpts, teachers report about *recent Government policies* (eg., *EBacc Reform*) and *school system barriers* affecting L2 learning motivation (Fig. 40). When asked about the current situation of language teaching in secondary schools, most respondents report low uptakes of languages at GCSE and A-Level in their schools, which are consistent with the national trend. Most students have to study a language at GCSE level; however, only a small percentage of them (i.e., the most able learners) succeed and choose languages at A-Level (TW10-C3c; TW2-C3a). In order to improve the current situation of foreign language

learning in secondary schools in the UK, the Government “has narrowed the Curriculum” and “driven towards making foreign languages part of the core curriculum” in every school. Nevertheless, in many schools, students still need to choose whether to continue or give up languages after Year 8, few students opt to do languages GCSE and even fewer choose languages at A-Level (TB10-C3b).

Furthermore, the Government has put a policy in place and pushes towards the 90% of the National EBacc, but it has not actually provided any practical support or strategies to enable schools to realistically achieve the target required by law and dumps problems on schools (TW10-C3g). Even though the EBacc Reform has affected languages to the extent that schools are trying harder to push for higher percentages of students doing languages at the GCSE, few schools in Hull are aiming at 70% of students since the majority has just achieved 50%. In addition, schools in Yorkshire are generally less competitive than those in the South of England (TW10-C3e).

THEME
Contextual Factors
CATEGORY
<p>School System Policies and Barriers (C3)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>... I think teaching time - with 5 hours every 2 weeks - is not very much. So, to get GCSE grades, the expectations of the GCSE, in the new GCSE we have to focus on the controlled assessment as well on the most important skills... and that is a quite demotivating factor for most students who have so much controlled assessment to do (H3-C3a)</p> <p>“Oh, the Government has put a policy in place. So, they say you need to have hmm..., you know, ideally, nationally we should be 90% doing foreign languages, but there is no support, or help with that strategy hmm... and it’s up to the schools, then, to be able to do/achieve it... and, you know (TW10-C3g)</p> <p>“I think that they personally made exams too difficult. So, it puts pupils off, especially now, because they changed all the exams.” (TK5-C3a)</p>

Figure 40. School System Policies and Barriers (C3) Categorical Framework

With regards to the EBacc Reform, there has been a mixed reaction. According to some respondents, this policy has not affected teaching significantly, but just the numbers of students. In fact, to hit the target of a minimum percentage of GCSE students required by law, in some schools Modern Foreign Languages have become a core subject, whereas in others they are compulsory for a certain percentage of top-band students (TH10-C3a,b,c). According to other respondents, although this reform has not led to big changes in the last few years, however, it could have a greater impact on languages in the future if the Ofsted and other sorts of school inspections placed more emphasis on it (TW1-C3b).

On the contrary, according to other responses, the EBacc has affected languages positively. Being measured on the Baccaulaureate, schools are currently taking this subject much more seriously than in the past(TK2-C3d). Moreover, to meet the EBacc and in view of the new GCSE, the MFL curriculum has changed. Now schools need to place more emphasis on languages and on the quality of teaching so as to ensure that students are very confident with all the the four skills. This should also have a big impact on teaching resources and funding, which often representbig barriers to students' attainment of the National Curriculum, especially at Key Stage 4 (TK1-C3b,c,d).

Low funding for promoting language in schools is indeed an issue. The Government's good intentions are not backed up with adequate funding for teaching resources, language labs, exchange programmes and other similar activities. For example, the costs involved for a language lab are so high that "would far outweigh the benefits" (TK1a). With regards to exchange programs, moreover, there are a lot of obstacles. To name a few, many students are reluctant to stay with a host family abroad; all the rules of the Health and Safety policy may also be a problem (TW10-C3i).

Another relevant pointhighlighted in the interviews is that many students are obliged to choose a foreign language at the beginning of Secondary Schoolwhen they are not aware of the importance. Thus, when they have to opt for five optional subjects in view of the GCSEs - in Year 8 - they tend to pick subjects other than languages (TH10-C3a), which usually are those subjects where they get the best results (TW2-C3b). In addition, in those schools where languages are core subjects for most students, due to the fact that languages are perceived difficult (TW1-C3a), about 40% of students give up on them after Year 8 and, by the time they get to Year 11 (in view of the GCSE), they focus on other core subjects such as Maths, English and Science. In light of this, some teachers believe that foreign languages should not be compulsory but a choice for students (TK2-C3a, b).

The fact that languages are "a little bit further down the listthan the other subjects", therefore, does not help any further and represents a significant barrier hindering L2 student motivation (TW1-C3c). To make it worse, most students and parents do not value languages. In this regard, Brexit has not helped change people's mindset andlanguages continue to be a "niche subject",being perceived by the majority of students as "very hard"and involving a lot of effort (TW10-C3e).Thus, even though teachers "put a huge importance on languages" and a lot of effort into trying to motivate all the students as much as possible, not every learner is

responsive and willing to make progress, even more so if he feels under pressure (TW1-C3c).

Despite the above difficulties, schools are trying to do their best to increase students' GCSE uptake of languages in accordance with the EBacc and teachers are hoping that the new GCSE might help with that. Besides, a number of schools are strengthening networking to share good practices and even the subjects (when there are only 2 or 3 students in a language class) so as to encourage students to keep on studying foreign languages (TW10-C3d).

From Year 7 teachers focus on all the four skills (i.e., listening, reading, speaking and writing) to ensure that students achieve their learning targets in accordance with the GCSE provisions (TW10-C3b). By reporting that language learning has now become "just target-driven" to the detriment of students' motivation, a significant number of interviews reveals a negative picture of the current situation of language teaching in secondary school (TW10-C3a). Furthermore, teachers report that language learning is mainly result-oriented even at A-level and when teachers put in place activities such as exchange programs and language clubs, aiming at enhance students' motivation and self-confidence and at improving uptake in modern languages (TW2-C3b).

Importantly, the new GCSE controlled assessment that students have at the end of Year 11 worries them more than the previous one because it is more complex and demanding, especially for German. Moreover, students have to study many subjects and tend to prioritise some of them (TH3-C3a). In another excerpt we find that the new GCSE "puts pupils off" since it has become so difficult now that few students achieve a high level. In fact, most of the students focus more on accuracy than on communication and many lose interest because grammar is "such a difficult thing" for them and do not see languages "as a resource to be able to develop on in the future" (TK5-C3a)

As previously mentioned, teachers believe that time constraints (i.e., just 2 hours a week) are one of the major barriers to meet the expectations of the new languages GCSE, which puts pressure on both teachers and students, affecting their motivation negatively. A great amount of class time is allocated to developing the skills required to complete the controlled assessment, which involves two written and two spoken in order to get GCSE grades. This preparation is "a quite demotivating factor" (TH3-C3a); the fact that students have too many controlled assessments makes language lessons dry and does not leave students much time for enjoyment. Teachers do not have much time to devote to engaging pair-work or group-work activities focused on speaking or culture-related topics, let alone in

classes with a large number of students. Activities such as pen-pal projects do not tend to last, as they just add stress and add work to teachers who “are always under pressure in order to meet the target placed” (TW10-C3h).

Being 2/3 hours a week not sufficient for languages, it becomes very difficult for most students to achieve all the learning objectives of the National Curriculum without any extra work at home (TK5-C3b,c). Actually, students “do not revise languages at all at home,nor they do it when they have an exam”, unless they are very keen on them. In addition, as languages are generally seen as less important than the other GCSE subjects, no extra time is given to students at school in preparations for the GCSE, whereas students spend full days for the other subjects (especially English and Maths), even at the expense of languages. Unfortunately, this happens even in those schools where languages are compulsory for 3 out of 5 classes (TK4-C3b,c).

To conclude, TK6 (C3a)’s response is particularly significant because it summarizes the main points. In short, the Government have recently put in place active policies in order to upgrade language teaching and make learning more relevant for students (i.e., making a foreign language compulsory in Primary School, changing statutory programmes of study and attainment targets for languages in the National Curriculum). Nevertheless, whatever policies on language learning have been in force thus far and will be put in place in the future - as the Government will always promote languages as a matter of principle -there will still be some issues the Government should address. Firstly, they have made the new GCSE more difficult and schools will not be able to hit all the targets required. Secondly,they will need to face the shortage of language teachers and the fact that it could become even harder for schools to recruit or keep qualified language teachers after Brexit, given that a lot of language teachers are nationals of other EU countries.

6.3.3 Teacher-Related Factors (RQ5)

6.3.3.1 Teacher Motivation (T1)

According to most respondents, *intrinsic motivation* is the major reason accounting for the decision to teach foreign languages. As we can see from Fig.41, teachers report that motivation for teaching languages stems from “just the enjoyment” of this job and from seeing students’ progress over time (TK2-T1b). Their “love for languages which started in [themselves]” is even helpful to endure one’s career, especially in periods of work-related stress near the exams (TH3-T1b). Later in one’s career teacher intrinsic motivation also helps

keep on challenging themselves, and grow both personally and professionally by experiencing innovative teaching practices. This affects student motivation positively (TK2-T1b).

According to teachers' accounts, moreover, positive memories of antecedents L2 learning experience at school and previous good teachers influenced their personal career choice (TK2-T1a; TH3-T1a). Teacher's awareness and first-hand experience of the benefits of learning a foreign language are also considered to have affected their choice. These are: a special calling or inherent interest for teaching; the opportunity to continue their own education and to experience different cultures abroad; a strong desire to provide service to society within their home city (TK1-T1a).

THEME
Teacher-Related Factors
CATEGORY
Teacher Motivation (T1)
SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS
<p>"I think that I got passion for it because of teachers that I had had already instilled, and a lot of enthusiasm ... um... for language learning..."(TK1-T1a)</p> <p>"Um... when...it was a subject at school that I enjoyed the most... and I had a great teacher at school and it was a subject I found easy to learn and I got the most enjoyment from, and that's all I could transfer that into a profession and teaching andI started teaching and enjoyed it so I didn't so in any other careers."(TK2-T1a)</p>

Figure 41. Teacher Motivation (T1) Categorical Framework

6.3.3.2 Teacher Beliefs about the Importance of Learning Languages in England (T2)

As we can see from Fig. 42, teachers' beliefs about the benefits of learning a foreign language are considered to have a high impact on students' L2 motivation as they can affect their behaviour. Teachers believe that, from the very beginning of secondary school, it is essential that they make learning languages "relevant and current" to students by creating realistic expectations about the multiple benefits of foreign languages, whether they go to University/ College or they look for a job (TK1-T2a; TK2-T2a,b; TH10-T2b).

Teachers make numerous attempts to "broaden [students'] horizons [not only]culturally but also in terms of their employability" (TB10-T2a,b). Teachers also emphasize that that learning a foreign language enables students to acquire a number of transferable skills (eg., comprehension; communication), which can facilitate their transition from education to employment, and to gain "insights into the culture and history" (TH3-T2a). These language skills, which are generally underestimated in England (TB10-T2b), are

beneficial to their first language as well (TK1-T2b; TK5-T2a). Furthermore, teachers believe that developing L2 communicative skills not only enables students to speak with people abroad but, given the lack of linguists, it is also essential in this country (TW1-T2a).

Most importantly, teachers highlight that it is absolutely necessary to ask themselves what they currently need to do in order to make students aware of the value of learning a foreign language, which does not just concern extrinsic goals such as one's future career but, especially, educational aims (TK6-T2a). Thus, in some excerpts, we find that language learning "widens [students'] cultural awareness as well as the knowledge of the world" (TK5-T2a).

Interestingly, teachers emphasize the educational value of broadening students' minds in order to educate them to be "global citizen ...[despite Brexit]" (TK2-T2c). Being British culture "quite naive" and "shut off" from the rest of the world - due to the insularity of England - teachers believe that it is really important that students develop an "understanding of different cultures", which ultimately affects the overall development of the country (TK1-T2-c). Even though the same respondent acknowledges the importance of enhancing students' cultural awareness within the L2 classroom, however, he also assumes that "that's primarily done out of [MFL teachers'] hands", since its "responsibility lies outside the MFL Department" in the SMSC area (TK1-T2-d).

THEME
Teacher-Related Factors
CATEGORY
Teacher Beliefs about the Importance of Learning Languages in England (T2)
SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS
"... I think English is the second language. So, English I think for business is possibly the most important language. However, learning a foreign language...I do believe is important but I'm not...I think it comes second after English, Maths and Science within a school...um... sorry,...as I've thought actually... English, Maths and Science then Languages..., but it's not for everybody."(TK2-T2a)
"Yeah, I know! I still think it's important. I still do because so many of our students go on to travel or work for companies.. and, as I said to them day by day: "you'll never know who you're gonna meet or where life is gonna take you..."(TH10-T2b)

Figure 42. Teacher Beliefs (T2) Categorical Framework

Even though English teachers recognize the unquestionable importance of learning a foreign language in England, however, they also acknowledge that for most British students it is less important than learning English, Maths and Science (TK2-T2a). Thus, teachers' attempts to implement initiatives promoting languages often fail to achieve their desired outcomes and get "a little bit worn-down" when students go on saying "Why do we have to

do this?” (TW10-T2a). Hence, teachers constantly need to talk to students about the “strong advantages” they may have in their future career if they learn a foreign language. With this in mind, they organize open evenings for new students and their parents and assemblies with students in order to promote languages and encourage them to continue studying them (TW1-T2b; TH10- T2a).

6.3.3.3 Teacher Role in Promoting L2 Motivation (T3)

Teacher role in promoting L2 learning motivation (Fig. 43) is another relevant factor emerged from the qualitative analysis. Many responses highlight that the relationality of teacher-student is central to the L2 learning process and, therefore, teachers firstly need to build a positive relationship with their students. By praising and being supportive of them, teachers are able to revive students’ enthusiasm for learning a foreign language and to turn their negative attitudes into positive ones. Besides, “buying into [teacher’s] charisma and enthusiasm about the subject”, students are more likely to continue to learn languages” (TK1-T3a). In addition to developing a positive relationship with students, teachers highlight other strategies to foster students’ engagement in learning: creating a positive emotional climate in the classroom, making lessons accessible to everyone, offering incentives (TK2-T3a,b).

THEME
Teacher-Related Factors
CATEGORY
<p>Teacher Role in Promoting L2 Motivation (T3)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“I think one of the key thing is just to build the relationship with the student. Um...generally I think that what could be more important – not just in language learning but in teaching in general is if you build a relationship and a rapport with that student and find some common ground and get on well with him.”(TK1-T3a)</p> <p>“I normally have quite successful groups of pupils because I put passion on what I do, and then I try to transfer that passion. So, when they see that their teacher is so keen in what he is doing, quite a lot of that transmits to them and then they put some passion on it, too.” (TK6- T3a)</p>

Figure 43. Teacher Role (T3) Categorical Framework

The *relevance of teacher motivation to student motivation and classroom effectiveness* represents another important factor, which has also a positive impact on students’ expectancy of success. When students “see that their teacher is so keen in what he is doing, quite a lot of that transmits to them and then they put some passion on it, too” (TK6-T3a). Besides, by negotiating “targets that are great to them” and by setting specific and incremental L2 goals that are achievable, teacher can increase students L2 motivation, get them to expend more

effort and establish adequate levels of performance and success. This is called “the school policy of ‘good, better and even better’”. Finally, to boost student’s motivation and expectancy of success, other effective strategies are mentioned such as “making students feel valued”, clarifying learners’ subsequent targets and relating lessons to a wider and meaningful learning context (TH3-T3a,b).

Another excerpt reveals that, by showing enthusiasm about teaching and “bringing the subject alive” in various ways (through language assistants in the classroom or activities such as trips or visits in foreign schools), teachers can have a positive impact on student motivation. In particular, when students find it difficult to learn languages, teachers should do more fun and creative activities rather than those focused on grammar so as to get more students involved in the lesson (TK5-T3a,b). Finally, teachers should diversify their lessons and make them engaging, encourage students with varied resources (TW10-T3-a).

6.3.4 The L2 Learning Experience (RQ6)

6.3.4.1 L2 Teaching Strategies/Approaches and Effective Activities (E1)

The characteristics of the learning experience and teachers’ implementation of specific teaching techniques and strategies play a major role in fostering student L2 learning motivation (Fig. 44). Importantly, if teachers “don’t get the motivation to foster the lesson” right from the start, it is difficult to achieve positive results (TW1-E1a). To promote student L2 motivation, teachers regularly use different types of resources, especially ICT, which has been increasingly used to give learners access to information, promote L2 interaction and communication, and enhance L2 vocabulary and skills (TK1-E1a,b).

THEME
The L2 Learning Experience
CATEGORY
L2 Teaching Strategies/Approaches and Effective activities (E1) SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS “We use ICT particularly to develop writing and reading ...um...and listening in some respects. For example, there is a very good website called “Lyricstraining”....that juniors can use it to listen to songs in the target language and fill in the gaps of the words that are out here. “(TK1-E1b) “I find really interesting doing cultural stuff with them... for example – even some people think that it’s stupid – I find that things like films and music very important. Hmm... the thing that I think personally motivates them the most is trips.”(TK4-E1a)

Figure 44. Teaching Strategies/Approaches and Effective Activities (E1) Categorical Framework

As teachers report, ICT is “embedded” in language teaching as they regularly use Powerpoint presentations and on-line resources with the interactive whiteboard. Internet, different ICT resources, iPads, and other devices are widely used by students (TB10-E1a, b), who enjoy quizzes, interactive programs, creating presentations, and writing e-mails to foreign students, which allow them to have an active role in L2 learning. Skype, e-Pals and e-Twinning Website are further useful tools widely used in order to let students communicate with foreign students (TK2- E1d,e). Some teachers use apps and free game-based learning platforms such as Scramble, Memrise and Kahoot, which they find useful and enjoyable (TK4-E1c); others use varied and exciting resources such as use video-clips, music, spelling competitions and cinema/theatre trips (TW2-E1b,c,d). Some schools have also launched on-line homework and weekly spelling tests (TB10-E1b,c).

Despite the advantages of using ICT in the L2 classroom, however, some respondents do not believe that technology “is used as effectively as it could be” because students often use it inappropriately, “rely[ing] too heavily on translating instead of using it incorporating the skills necessary” (TK1-E1a). Besides, as one of the teachers reports, the educational value of using ICT resources must always be clear and “meaningful”; hence, she tends to limit the use when it’s not necessary or appropriate (TK5-E1a).

The reliability of technology is another issue that sometimes discourages teachers from making use of it as often as they would like. Using technology is not essential; teachers can’t get by without” using textbooks and worksheets as they believe that authentic materials are the best resources that can be available in many ways (TH10-E1a,b). Conversely, in other schools ICT resources are the most used ones as MFL teachers no longer use textbooks (TW10-E1a). A respondent also reports to have experienced some “flipped classroom” activities by using specific resources such as Memrise (TW1-E1f).

When asked about CLIL approach to foreign language teaching, most respondents replied they had never heard about it before (TK2-E1b). Some teachers, however, have experienced different types of cross-curriculum activities, whereby they encourage students to link specific topic areas to other subjects such as English, Geography, Drama and Technology. Although most students enjoy cross-curricular project work in the L2 classroom, in which they are engaged in reading or listening to on-line material about different topics and can improve their L2 skills (TK1- E1c),however, teachers need to focus on the new GCSE and do not have enough time to spend on that sort of activities (TW1-E1e).

When it comes to “Cooperative Learning Approach” to learning foreign languages, teachers prefer pair-work because it encourages students to use the target language, especially in activities focused on speaking, listening and reading. In fact, some teachers do not rely on group-work because it requires a good discipline from all the students (TW10-E1c). Moreover, this approach “works well” in the L2 classroom, especially in mixed-ability groups, but it also depends on the dynamics of the group and students’ behaviours (TK5-E1b). Finally, teachers report that using this approach when focusing on the target language is difficult with lower-ability students or those who lack motivation. With these students, it is therefore used to encourage activities focused more on the culture rather than on the language (TK4-E1b).

Teachers believe that it is extremely important to put in place activities that are engaging and relevant to the students, where they can “practise to use” the target language (TK6-E1a). To this purpose, some teachers recall successful exchange programs and trips in France and Spain, followed by e-mail exchanges/chats through Skype, Facebook or Snapchat, which helped enhance students’ communication skills (TK2-E1a). Language competitions are also considered to be good opportunities for students to practise a foreign language and to promote a positive attitude towards the L2 culture. For example, every year a Japanese teacher runs a speech competition whereby students travel down to London and deliver a speech in Japanese in front of a lot of other schools (TW1-E1d).

Films and music are also believed to be useful to teach L2 culture and boost their motivation to learn languages (TK4-E1a). Introducing the target language culture is, therefore, a good start in order to motivate students at the beginning of Secondary School. Indeed, if the students know about the culture, they will see the point in learning the language (TK6-E1b). Moreover, dealing with the target language culture - especially during school trips - also raises students’ cultural awareness as it gives “a learning insight into the rest of the world” (TH3-E1a). Thus, teaching cultural awareness is considered by teachers to be one of the most important goal in language learning and it is becoming increasingly necessary, “especially nowadays with the animosity against different religions and cultures” (TK2-E1c).

To conclude, L2 teaching is still more focused on the language itself rather than on the L2 culture, which often tends to be neglected because of the exam preparation (TW1-E1b). In this respect, teachers report that, because of time constraints (students learn languages just for 2 hours a week) it’s often difficult to focus both on the language contents of the course and on

the culture, even though students enjoy the latter (TW10-E1b). Nevertheless, the most recent specifications place more emphasis on L2 culture and, hopefully, the new GCSE will lead to improvements in that direction (TW3-E1b).

6.3.4.2 Use of the Target Language in the L2 Classroom (E2)

The use of the target language in the classroom is the last motivational factor analysed in this study (Fig. 45). As we can see in various excerpts, practising the target language (especially Spanish) in various engaging and meaningful activities affects student learning motivation. In particular, using the spoken language is considered very useful in order to practise and memorize the main language structures (TK5-E2a). Since this skill “is really a big part in the GCSE”, some respondents consider it important to devote the time and effort necessary to focus on some speaking and mention some effective activities based on pair and group work such as A/B teams, round-robin activities and games such as spaceship (TK1-E2-a).

However, students “do not have many opportunities to speak other than in the classroom”. Thus, teachers encourage them to communicate in various and simple ways, by ensuring that they do not feel under pressure to speak (TW1-E2a,b). To create a safe and relaxed atmosphere in order to develop this skill, some teachers use the target language right from the start, by giving simple instructions and progressively building on what students already know. This enables them to increase their linguistic skill and self-confidence (TW2-E2a; TK4-E2-b). In some schools, with language assistants or native teachers students have also the opportunity to try out their own language skills on a real native speaker. With them they “feel more comfortable” and this has helped them with their speaking confidence, even though speaking is still perceived as difficult (TK4-E2b).

THEME
The L2 Learning Experience
CATEGORY
<p>Use of the Target Language in the L2 Classroom (E2)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS</p> <p>“They find it hard. They don’t get a lot of opportunities other than in the classroom. When they leave our classroom they don’t have a lot of opportunities to use it. In the classroom hmm... they enjoy doing speaking activities, they enjoy singing with each other and speaking the language, but they don’t necessarily enjoy it doing an enlargement.” (TW1-E2a)</p> <p>“Well, it varies from teacher to teacher. We do – I’m very keen on target language hmm... so, typically, there are some teachers I know they don’t use it very much hmm...but as a Head of Languages I’ve tried to promote it...”(TW10-E2a)</p>

Figure 45. Use of the Target Language in the Classroom (E2) Categorical Framework

Although the GCSE puts a lot of emphasis on it, however, speaking the target language in the classroom also depends on a number of factors. For instance, group characteristics and behaviour play an important role as it becomes difficult to speak in the target language with “more challenging groups, where behaviour is possibly an issue”(TW1-E2c) and teachers often neglect it because of the high number of students per class (TH3-E2a). Hence, even though they acknowledge the importance of practising this skill in the L2 classroom and the long-term benefits of language immersion, some respondents also admit that they do not speak the target language as much as the should in their lessons (TK2-E2a).

However, the use of the target language in the L2 classroom also “depends on the ability of the group”. In fact, with more able students teachers can employ it to give instructions and tell stories (TK5-E2b). Finally, even though the use of the L2 has been widely promoted in many schools, the amount of time allocated to speaking varies depending on the teacher. As some teachers are very keen on it, therefore, it is realistic to expect about 50%.of the time devoted to language teaching lower down in the school, and 70-80% for A-Level classes (TW10-E2a).

Interestingly, students do not usually see the point in using the language in a communicative way, unless the teacher is a native language teacher. Even in this case, they expect him to speak in English most of the time. As a matter of fact, speaking the target language in the classroom is not believed to be absolutely necessary in order to achieve a successful language lesson, even when the teacher is a native speaker. Since understanding comes first, teachers usually speak in English rather than in the target language, especially when they clarify grammar points.

Besides, teachers have evidence that some groups of students are able to achieve successful results even though they do not use the target language that much (TK6-E2b). Finally, as a native language (Spanish) teacher highlights, students usually “feel nervous” about speaking the target language at school and, therefore, she prefers to introduce it gradually (TK4-E2a). On the contrary, with higher ability groups of students in Year 7, she starts talking in Spanish and gradually increases the spoken(TK4-E2c).

7 Discussion

In this chapter, I will discuss the main results of the current study under the headings of each section, in relation to the research questions/subquestions.. Firstly, I will deal with the main themes/categories corresponding to the major L2 motivational factors found in the study. Secondly, I will highlight the major relationships between the factors, which resulted from the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative findings. In the meantime, I will relate the major findings and issues emerged from the study to existing research, with the purpose of gaining a more holistic and critical understanding of L2 secondary school students' motivation in the UK. Finally, in the concluding section, I will outline the main pedagogical implications and recommendations for teaching practice, in addition to the study limitations, contributions to knowledge and suggestions for future research in the same field.

7.1 Triangulation and Interpretation of the Major Findings

In order to address the primary research questions, the current mixed method investigation has explored a number of L2 motivational factors, which - as a result of the analysis of findings – fall into four different themes: *Student-Related Factors*, *Contextual Factors*, *Teacher-Related Factors*, *The L2 Learning Experience* (see Fig 33, section 6.3) Since each theme comprises diverse categories, encompassing a number of factors (subcategories), these will be discussed in detail in the coming sections and subsections of the present chapter.

As some of the factors (eg., *Promotion*, *Prevention*, *Travel Orientation*) have been explored both by the quantitative and the qualitative investigations, a *triangulation method* has been used, which at times highlights both consistencies and discrepancies between the findings of the two data sets. Wherever possible, I will therefore attempt to interpret the inconsistencies emerged from the analysis, providing the two types of data sources are not mixed as they relate to different stances - i.e., students' and teachers'.

7.2 Student-Related Factors (RQ1, RQ2)

In order to address RQ1 (i.e., *What are the reasons why English secondary school students lack motivation to study foreign languages?*) and RQ2 (i.e., *What are the major factors affecting student motivation/demotivation to learn foreign languages in secondary school?*), the major *student-related factors* affecting L2 motivation have been explored in the mixed-methods study. As shown by the qualitative analysis, these have been classified into 4

overarching categories - *Instrumentality, Individual Differences, Affective Dimension, Perceptions and Attitudes towards L2 Learning* (See Fig. 33) – in turn encompassing a number of components, which will be discussed in detail in the following sections. As a result of the triangulation approach to the mixed-methods study, however, a further category has emerged - *Future Self-guides* - including *Ideal L2* and *Ought-to L2 Selves*. Even though they show significant relationships with *Instrumentality*, these components will be discussed separately in different chapter sections.

<i>Classification of Student-Related L2 Motivational Factors</i>	<i>Chapter Section</i>
<i>1. Instrumentality</i>	<i>7.2.1</i>
<i>1.1 Promotion Orientation</i> <i>1.2 Prevention Orientation</i> <i>1.3 Travel Orientation</i>	
<i>2. Future Self-guides</i>	<i>7.2.2</i>
<i>2.1 Ideal L2 Self</i> <i>2.2 Ought-to L2 Self</i>	
<i>3. Individual Differences</i>	<i>7.2.3</i>
<i>3.1 Age</i> <i>3.2 L2 Effort and L2 Engagement</i> <i>3.3 Gender</i> <i>3.4. Perceived Language Aptitude</i>	
<i>4. Beliefs and Attitudes towards L2 Learning</i>	<i>7.2.4</i>
<i>4.1 Perceived L2 Usefulness</i> <i>4.2 Perceived L2 Difficulty</i> <i>4.3 L2 Attitudes/ Interest</i> <i>4.3.1 Attitudes towards L2 Skills (Listening; speaking...)</i> <i>4.3.2 Attitudes towards L2 Grammar</i>	
<i>5. Affective dimension</i>	<i>7.2.5</i>
<i>5.1 L2 Self-Confidence</i> <i>5.2 L2 Anxiety</i>	
<i>6. Other factors</i>	
<i>6.1 L2 Willingness to Communicate (L2 WTC)</i>	<i>7.2.6</i>
<i>6.2 L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate (L2 IWTC)</i>	<i>7.2.7</i>
<i>6.3 Attitudes towards L2 Community and L2 Culture</i>	<i>7.2.8</i>
<i>6.4 Integrativeness</i>	<i>7.2.9</i>
<i>6.5 International Posture</i>	<i>7.2.10</i>

Figure 46. Student-Related Factors as a Result of the Triangulation Process

In addition, as we can see from Fig. 46, the broad category of *Perceptions and Attitudes towards L2 Learning* derived from the qualitative analysis (see Fig. 28) has been renamed in this chapter as “*Beliefs and Attitudes towards L2 Learning*”, encompassing different factors from those emerged in the qualitative analysis. Finally, since the findings

show that students' beliefs/perceptions about L2 learning are strongly related to their *L2 Attitudes*, these factors will be discussed in the same section (7.2.4), whereas the major findings on *L2 Willingness to Communicate*, *L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate*, *Attitudes towards L2 Community and L2 Culture*, *Integrativeness* and *International Posture*⁶⁰ will be addressed in different sections, in order to better relate them to existing L2 motivation literature.

7.2.1 Instrumentality

As emerged from the analysis of the findings in section 6.3.1.1, *Instrumentality motivation* reveals *three different types of instrumental orientations: Promotion, Prevention and Travel*. Some inconsistencies, however, arise from the triangulation between quantitative and qualitative results. On the one hand, student questionnaire findings show that *Promotion and Travel Orientations* (which has a promotion focus as well) are significant factors in order to explain L2 students' motivation. On the other hand, teachers' interviews highlight that students' *lack of Promotion and Travel components of Instrumentality* are among the major reasons for students' L2 demotivation, since most of them are not motivated to learn languages at school for beneficial gains of L2 proficiency such as getting high-paying jobs, better education, travelling abroad.

One possible explanation for the above mentioned discrepancy may be that - as highlighted in a number of interviews - teachers have made great efforts in order for the students to be made aware of the importance of learning languages, especially in relation to future goals such employability. As a result, students may in general understand the instrumental value of learning languages (i.e., acknowledge the future benefits of L2 proficiency), even though they have not internalized it adequately because they do not believe that languages are "relevant and current" for their personal everyday life and future career.

In light of the above, the Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985a, 2000, 2008) allows us to better understand students' *perceived usefulness of languages*, which has been identified in this study as one of the two subcomponents of *Instrumentality* (section 6.3.1.1). By considering the L2 motivational process through SDT lens, indeed, we are able to interpret student *instrumentality beliefs* about learning languages along a *self-determination continuum from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation*. In this respect, Deci and Ryan's

⁶⁰ As already mentioned, these factors do not derive from the current study, but from the student questionnaire employed in the quantitative research and existing L2 motivation research.

(1985a) *Organismic Integration Theory* (OIT) is particularly useful because it highlights the process of internalization and integration of motivation into the self across a spectrum of different degrees of self-regulation (i.e., auto-determination), as displayed in Fig.2 (section 3.3.1). According to the SDT, we are therefore able to effectively interpret secondary school students' extrinsic rationales for learning languages as being related to values that the individual has not incorporated into the self-concept, due to the fact that they are not perceived to be relevant to them. Indeed, in line with a number of studies within the SDT (eg., Noels et al., 2003; Vallerand, 1997), the more internalized the reasons for learning a second language the more successful the learning experience will be.

In the current study, furthermore, students' perception of language learning in England as "pointless" is evidenced by the students' assumptions (reported by teachers) that they do not need to use languages as they are going to spend their whole lives in the UK and, when they go overseas, "everyone speaks English", due to the global predominance of English. The widespread belief that Global English is threatening L1 English students' L2 motivation has been also demonstrated by a considerable number of previous UK-based studies into L2 motivation (eg., Coleman, 2009; Graham, 2004; Lanvers, 2012, 2014; Taylor & Marsden, 2014) and reports (eg., Tinsley & Board, 2013a). Importantly, some investigations especially highlight the negative impact of the special status of English on instrumental motivation (eg., Burstall, 1978; Burstall et al., 1974; Green, 1975, as cited in Coleman et al., 2007, p. 254; Graham & Santos, 2015, p. 72).

In particular, the qualitative findings in this study seem to depict a scenario similar to that outlined by Graham (2004, pp. 2-3), who uses Dörnyei and Csizér's (2002, p. 421) words to describe the study of foreign languages in England in relation to student motivation as a "losing battle". Although this scholar acknowledges that, over the years, Modern Foreign Languages "have experienced some success in increasing the number of students" in English secondary schools, she describes the situation of languages uptake as "pyramidal in shape", an analogy already used by Lambert (2002, p. 350) to refer to the dramatic decline of languages in schools and universities in the United States.

According to teachers' responses, *the lack of student Travel Orientation* is thought to be one of the most influential dimensions in students' L2 demotivation because it affects their attitudes/interest towards L2 learning negatively. By contrast, the importance of the *Travel* component of L2 motivation is emphasized in those interview excerpts reporting higher levels of L2 motivation in a small number of students who prefer Spanish to the other

languages because they are most likely to spend their holidays in Spain. This finding is parallel to those of Parrish and Lanvers (2018), which indicate that English students of Spanish, French and Italian learn these languages for travel and holidays. It also bears some similarity with Graham et al.'s (2016) findings, which show that the travel component of L2 motivation remained at a constantly high level, in spite of the decrease of students' general attitudes towards French by the end of Year 7.

Importantly, in some interviews it is explicitly assumed that *Travel Orientation* is correlated to student's *socio-economic background*; the latter having a great impact on the overall *Instrumentality* construct as well.⁶¹ These findings support previous studies (i.e., Belmechri, & Hummel, 1998; Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Kruidenier & Clément, 1986), suggesting that *travel* and *instrumental* orientations are important factors directing and sustaining L2 motivation, and are dependent on the socio-cultural context.

In the current study, a number of significant findings also highlight that, among the already mentioned regulatory orientations affecting student motivational behaviour, *Prevention Orientation* represents the most influential factor, showing consistent results both from the quantitative and qualitative investigations. As teachers report, being foreign languages compulsory in the first two years of Secondary School, the large majority of students study for extrinsic and pragmatic reasons such as meeting the school requirements and avoiding bad results. This result corroborates the finding from descriptive statistics showing that Year 7 scored the highest mean value ($M = 3.83$, as reported in section 6.2.7.3). In addition, other qualitative findings suggest that *Prevention Orientation* is still high even later, after Year 8 - when students keep on studying languages out of choice. This is especially true when languages represent a GCSE subject and, hence, students are subject to the external high pressure of controlled assessment preparation⁶².

A different pattern of results was obtained in previous studies conducted by Dörnyei and his colleagues (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Dörnyei et al., 2006) and, more recently, by Martinovič (2018, p. 149), which show that, since pragmatic motives with a promotion focus have a stronger impact on L2 learner behaviour and L2 learning achievement, they are better predictors of L2 motivation than external factors associated with *Instrumentality-Prevention* (eg., avoiding bad grades). The discrepancies with the current study, however, are justified by

⁶¹ As described in detail in section 6.4.1.1, I am referring to the two components of *Instrumentality*: 1) student's perceptions/awareness of L2 utility; 2) student's regulatory orientations.

⁶² The impact of these external factors on L2 motivation in England will be discussed in more detail in section 7.4.

the fact that these dimensions are context-dependent. Moreover, as other scholars have already pointed out (eg., Dörnyei, 2005; Martinovič, 2018, pp. 133-134), research into L2 motivation “needs to adopt a two-tier approach”: one for the study of English and another for the study of LOTEs (the study of other languages other than English), such as the current study.

Finally, the evidence of previous studies “is mixed regarding the force of instrumental orientation for language learning”, and shows that “this force seems unlikely to be strong enough to sustain language learning when it is no longer compulsory” (Graham, 2004, p. 6). It is against this backdrop that, in line with previous research (Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Graham, 2004), the teacherstaking part in thecurrent research seem to agree thatthey need to provide a positive school experience in order to compensate the relative lack of instrumental orientation and motivate their students.

7.2.2 Future Self-Guides: Ideal L2 and Ought-to L2 Selves

Another significant finding of this study is that *Instrumentality motivation* presents two distinct motivational regulatory dimensions - *Prevention-focused/Ought-to L2 Self* and *Promotion-focused/Ideal L2 Self* - which is in line with previous research (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Dörnyei, 2009a, p. 31; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Higgins, 1987, 1998; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Taguchi et al., 2009).⁶³

Ahigh degree of commonality between *Instrumentality-Promotion* and *Ideal L2 self* was indeed inferred from the content of a number of interview fragments. Responses such as “With languages, in particular, they don’t see the importance of what they are doing now for their future” (TK4-S1c) clearly reveal both the students’ *lack of future direction and long-term aspirations* (i.e., *Ideal L2 self*) and *lack of self-promotion* - which represents quite a challenge for teachers (see section 6.4.1.1).

The above and other statements such “they cannot even imagine themselves using the language”(TK4-S1c) not only clearly indicate that the *lack of L2 imagination/visualisation* be interpreted as one of the major reasons of student demotivation to study languages in secondary school (RQ1) but, by contrast, also implicitly suggest that in teachers’ opinion this component in general plays a significant role in L2 student motivation. Interestingly, this

⁶³ These studies found strong correlations between *Instrumentality-Promotion* and *Ideal L2 self*, on the one hand, and *Instrumentality-Prevention* and *Ought-to self*, on the other hand (see section 3.7).

finding is consistent with previous research emphasizing the significance of *L2 student visualisation/imagery* in L2 motivation.

The importance of the visionary dimension of L2 motivation was firstly underlined by Markus and Ruvolo (1989), and Ruvolo and Markus (1992) in relation to *possible self-guides*, in their original conceptualisation of “possible selves”(see section 3.6.1.2). Drawing on these works, Dörnyei (2009a) pointed out that the visualisation of *possible self-guides* should be vivid, well-defined and grounded on realistic expectations in order to affect L2 student motivation significantly.

The pedagogical implications of the impact of L2 learner *visualisation* on L2 motivation have also been confirmed by further research developments in this field (eg., Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Kim & Kim, 2011; You & Chan, 2015; You et al., 2016), as discussed in detail in Chapter 4 (sections 4.2, 4.2.1). In particular, recent studies on the impact of *L2 learner visualization* upon *L2 motivational intensity* have ultimately lead to the conceptualization of DMCs (Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir, 2015; Dörnyei, Muir, & Ibrahim, 2014; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013) as already seen in section 4.2.2.

Contrary to the bulk of research within the L2MSS⁶⁴, which has been mainly conducted in EFL university learning contexts, the quantitative results of the current study show *a weak Ideal L2 Self* across all secondary school years (M= 3.03). This finding is corroborated by the qualitative research. In addition, by exploring the relationship between *Ideal L2 Self* and *School Year*, we found that this component reaches its highest value in the last Year (Year11) (see section 6.2.2.3), even though the difference between the *School Years* means in relationship to *Ideal L2 self* was not significant. Descriptive statistics also show that this self-guide is slightly higher than the *Ought-to L2 Self* (M= 2.79), the latter suggesting that students do not feel obliged nor do they seem to feel any external pressure to learn languages in order to meet others’ (i.e., parents, peers, teachers’) expectations(see section 6.1.3).

Interestingly, the *lack of the Ought-to L2 Self delineation* obtained from the quantitative survey is consistent with previous research showing a lack of fit for the *Ought-to*

⁶⁴As already discussed in Chapter 3 (section 3.11), Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, p. 91)’s review of literature highlights that nearly all large-scale validation surveys on the L2MSS conducted between 2005-2014 found the *Ideal L2 self* as a powerful predictor of *motivated behaviour* and *effort (Criterion measure)*. These studies were carried out in diverse learning environments and countries: England (Busse, 2013) Hungary (Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Kormos & Csizér, 2008); Saudi Arabia (Al-Shehri, 2009); Japan, China, and Iran (S. Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009); Indonesia (Lamb, 2012); Pakistan (Islam, Lamb, & Chambers, 2013); and Sweden (Henry, 2009, 2010).

L2 Self in many studies on the L2MSS⁶⁵, which show “weak relationship between Ought-to L2 Self and motivational measures” (Papi et al., 2018, p. 2), failing to energize student motivational behaviour significantly (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013, p. 454).

Scholars have explained the above issue in different ways. It seems particularly relevant to the current study, for example, to mention Csizèr and Lukács’ research (2010, p. 6), which attributes such results regarding the *Ought-to L2 self* to the participants’ age by assuming that “secondary school students are relatively young to internalise the pressure the environment might put on them”. On the contrary, other studies (eg., Taguchi et al., 2009, conducted in China) suggest that, when language learning is highly exam-oriented and great pressure is put on student’s academic achievement, it is likely that the *Ought-to L2 Self* have an impact on L2 effort and persistence.

Similar considerations have led some scholars (eg., Lanvers, 2016a, 2017a; Papi et al., 2018; Taylor, 2013; Thompson & Vásquez, 2015) to propose expanded conceptualizations of the L2MSS, with more emphasis on the *Ought-to L2 Self* dimension, drawing on insights derived from Higgins’ (1987) *Self-Discrepancy Theory*. For example, Papi et al. (2018, p. 20) suggest the need for research to account for the different regulatory orientations and prevention-related motives in the operationalization of the *Ought-to L2 Self* by taking into account different *Own/Other* standpoints (section 3.11).

In line with the above studies, therefore, we will not make use of the current quantitative findings in order to invalidate the theoretical foundation and practical value of the *Ought-to L2 Self*, but to question whether its original conceptualisation by Dörnyei (2009a, p. 29) can be applied to any FL/L2 learning context, in particular to those secondary school settings where the target language is not English (i.e., LOTEs)⁶⁶ - as in the present study.

Furthermore, contrary to the quantitative findings, a *multifaceted and expanded Ought-to L2 self* construct has emerged from the qualitative analysis of this study, whose impact upon L2 motivation proves to be anything but marginal. Secondary school students’ L2 motivational profile seems to be influenced by diverse *Ought-to L2 Self* (prevention) *concerns*, depending on a wide range of external/contextual factors (i.e., the pressure from teachers to meet the school requirements of the National Curriculum; the school system policies and barriers, the

⁶⁵ As already written in section 3.11, Papi et al. (2018) and Al-Hoorie (2018) provide a detailed account of issues related to previous conceptualizations and measurements of the *Ought-to L2 self*. These authors discuss a bulk of research findings. In particular, Al-Hoorie (2018) presents a meta-analysis of 32 research studies addressing the L2MSS main components and related issues.

⁶⁶ In fact, almost all studies on the L2MSS and the *Ought-to L2 self* have been conducted at university, in EFL learning contexts.

new GCSE exam and related controlled assessment preparation, as discussed in detail in section 7.4.2.

The above qualitative findings are parallel to those of other studies conducted in England (eg., Coleman et al., 2007; Graham, 2004; Lanvers 2016a, 2016b; Taylor & Marsden, 2014; Williams et al., 2002), which indicate that students are mainly concerned with complying with external expectations coming from parents and the educational system. Indeed, according to the teachers involved in the current study, these external forces - being unsupportive in most of the cases - represent important factors affecting L2 student demotivation. Given these considerations, therefore, we can argue that a substantial number of contextual aspects—i.e., supportive/unsupportive influences on L2 student motivation—should be taken into account in the operationalization of the *Ought-to L2 Self* in future research. This also suggests that additional items should be therefore included in the student questionnaire, in order to account for a wider range of *Ought-to L2 Self* attributes than those addressed in Dörnyei's (2009a) L2MSS.

Likewise, previous studies have highlighted that a proper reformulation of the *Ought-to L2 Self* (eg., Lanvers, 2016a, 2017a) - as it applies to the context of L2 learning in the UK - requires a manifold delineation, especially of the *Other* standpoint, in order to explore the different supportive and unsupportive external influences affecting L2 secondary school student L2 motivation. These concerns are similar to those that led Busse (2010) to outline a new expanded model of L2 motivational system, in order to place due attention to the importance of a number of contextual factors operating at different (i.e., macro-, exo-, meso-, micro-) levels upon the individual's L2 motivational self-system.

Another important finding obtained from the qualitative research in this study is that the *Ought-to L2 Self* beliefs (attributes) seem to be internalized by secondary school students in different ways⁶⁷, according to a *self-determination continuum* from *extrinsic* to *intrinsic* motivation⁶⁸ reflecting the *Other-Own* dialectics. In addition, since these standpoints appear as components of a complex dynamic system⁶⁹, they should not be conceptualized as mutually exclusive (i.e., reflecting an extrinsic/intrinsic dichotomy), but as interconnected

⁶⁷ These ways are also affected by a number of important variables such as *age*, *gender*, *school year*, *socio-economic background*, as we can see in detail in the coming sections.

⁶⁸ Deci and Ryan's (1985a, 1985b) *Self-Determination Theory* clearly provides useful interpretation means to explore L2 student motivational dynamics in the UK learning context, as also other relevant studies suggest (eg., Busse, 2010, p. 266).

⁶⁹ In this study, the qualitative investigation shows that the *Ought-to L2 Self* changes over time, depending on diverse external factors/circumstances.

factors affecting L2 motivation, and interacting with the individual *actual self-beliefs* (eg. *self-efficacy beliefs*) and *possible ideal futureself-beliefs* (i.e., *Ideal L2 Self*), as embedded in a complex framework. Within this complex framework of L2 motivational factors, the *Ought-to L2 self* dimension thus appear as the *interface between the individual self sphere and the social-relational sphere*, mediating student perceptions/beliefs across the self-determination continuum.

7.2.3 Individual Differences

7.2.3.1 Age

As already mentioned in section 6.3.1.2, teachers believe that *Age* is a significant factor affecting L2 student motivation, since students' enthusiasm for languages fades across the secondary school years. On the contrary, their responses also show a significant *positive correlation between age and L2 awareness* (see section 6.3.1.1). As these findings suggest, youngest students in the transition stage from primary to secondary schools appear to be more motivated to study languages because it is a new subject, even though they are less aware of the importance than the oldest ones. This fact is explained by their age: the youngest learners don't see the point of learning languages in a wider life context or future perspective.

Depending on the student age, furthermore, L2 motivation undergoes important fluctuations across the school years. Firstly, it decreases in Year 8 and reaches a trough in Year 9, which is ascribed by some teachers to students' development as adolescents affecting other subjects in the same way. Later on, it increases at GCSE stage (Years 10 and 11), especially when it comes to students who have chosen to study languages, who are more mature and engaged. These findings are in line with those obtained by Gottfried et al. (2001, p. 10), which shows that, in spite of the general decline of academic intrinsic motivation across the adolescent years, "from age 16 to 17 there is a slight increase of motivation". This trend has been explained by the fact that as High School (i.e., Secondary School) students progress towards further education, "the patterns of High School performance are already known to them [...] and that their future directions are more charted" than in the past.

The findings that secondary school students' L2 motivation decreases with age endorse the conclusions drawn by many previous studies (eg., Chambers, 1999; Ghenghesh, 2010; Lanvers, 2017a; Özek, 2000; Phillips & Filmer-Sanke, 1993; Williams et al., 2002, p. 516; Zammit, 1993), and especially they are in accord with Mitchell's (2003) review of studies (see section 2.4), which suggests that secondary school students are motivated to learn

languages during Year 7, but that this positive outlook wanes on the next two years. In particular, we have found similarities with Chambers' (1999) and Phillips and Filmer-Sankey's (1993) results, which demonstrate that students' early enthusiasm for languages wanes after the first year, between Years 7 and 9.

Regarding the finding that the adolescent growth significantly affects students motivational "switching off" in languages as well as other subjects, however, we call for caution because, in line with other studies, this topic requires further investigation. Williams et al. (2002, p. 523) reach similar conclusions when they raise the question whether the decrease of L2 motivation with age is partially due to the general "adolescent disenchantment", which have a broader impact on the overall school learning process. Indeed, as Taylor (2013) also reports, there is a shortage of studies exploring the relationship between adolescent identity and language learning, which is affected by a complex web of social relations and represents an important area that requires more evidence.

7.2.3.2 L2 Effort and L2 Engagement.

The quantitative findings on *Criterion Measure* (i.e., *L2 Effort*) show that the amount of effort students devote to studying languages is barely enough, and that this variable undergoes some changes over time. In particular, the significant relationship between *L2 Effort* and *School Year* (corresponding to RQ3 subquestion, section 6.2.1.3) shows a decrease in L2 effort after Year 7. Indeed, this proves to be barely acceptable in Year 7 (M=3.79), then it slightly decreases in Year 8, but in Year 11 (when students take their GCSE) it reaches the highest value (M=3.81), which is slightly higher than Year 7. However, only the differences (showing L2 effort decrease) between Year 7 and Year 10, and between Year 9 and 10 (when it reaches the minimum value) prove to be statistically significant.

The finding that students in Year 11 are the most engaged is confirmed by the qualitative finding that, in the last school years (GCSE stage), students seem to invest the most effort. However, as teachers repeatedly explain, this mainly concerns students that learn languages by choice, who represent a minority, "a niche" (6.3.1.2 section). Moreover, the *decrease of L2 Effort in relationship with School Year* (and age) has also been found by Ghenghesh (2010, p. 132), even though with a different pattern: Years 7 and 8 scored higher mean values than the years 9 -10 counterpart.

If, in the questionnaire scale, *Criterion Measure* is generically operationalized as *L2 Effort*, in the qualitative investigation, it is more specifically referred to as *student Effort*,

engagement in L2 learning activities or assignments (homework) they are expected to complete, which has proved to be low for a large number of students, especially the less able. On the contrary, students who opted for languages after the compulsory stage show higher engagement and motivated behaviour.

Similar concerns have been addressed by earlier studies. Indeed, *engagement research* started off as a theoretical model for understanding students' dropout and promoting school completion (Christenson et al., 2008; Finn, 1989, 2006), and has developed into a multitude of research covering the adolescent years (eg., Blumenfield et al., 2005; Christenson et al., 2012), some investigations addressing the decline of student engagement during transition from primary to secondary education (eg., Eccles et al., 1993).⁷⁰ Most interestingly, some studies suggest that engaged students put forth more effort and are able to self-regulate their behaviour towards goals (Klem & Connell, 2004), and most recent findings reveal a mutual relationship between intentional self-regulation and school engagement (Stefánsson, 2017; Stefánsson et al., 2018).

Most importantly, the current findings raise the question whether *purposeful effort* (i.e., *intentional engagement*), which especially characterizes students who study languages by free choice, should count more in terms of motivated behaviour and actual L2 engagement than the effort that is merely induced by significant others such as teachers or parents. Interestingly, this process is more clear if viewed through the *Self Determination Theory* lens (Deci & Ryan, 1985a, 2000, 2002). According to the Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), by providing “the what (i.e., goal content) and why (i.e., process)” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 228), the three psychological needs (*competence, relatedness, and autonomy*) are necessary conditions for the learner's optimal psychological functioning in order to initiate behaviour and pursue their learning goals.

With regards to the present study, therefore, one major factor which may explain why most secondary school students are poorly engaged is that their *perceived need for autonomy* is not satisfied. In line with Assor (2012, pp. 421-423), this need is fulfilled only when learners are granted “optional choice” and their “inner compass” is nurtured, i.e., “their direction-giving and authentic values, goals and interests” are realized. Thus, the fact that most secondary students feel obliged to learn languages in the first stage of secondary school, and that they perceive that this study is “not relevant” to their current or future goals, reflects

⁷⁰To be more precise, Eccles et al. (1993) carried out their research in the USA, addressing transition from elementary to junior high school.

that they are not experiencing “authentic reasons” for learning languages (i.e., as emanating from the authentic self), which ultimately affects their overall school engagement in the L2 learning experience. In addition, these conclusions confirm Connell and his co-workers’ findings (Connell et al., 1994; Connell & Wellborn, 1991, 1994), which clearly suggest that, in order to adequately understand the multidimensional construct of engagement, it is essential that teachers assess whether the activities are relevant to their current and future goals.

Given the above, the importance of investigating students’ *language choice* in relation to student future *engagement* in learning languages, emerges as an important aspect that requires, nevertheless, further research. Earlier findings in L2 motivation research have already demonstrated the relevance of *language choice* in relation to L2 student motivational construct. For example, Dörnyei and Clément’s (2001, p. 415) large-scale study employed two criterion measures – i.e., language choice for future studies and intended effort – in relationship to seven motivational components (i.e., Direct Contact with L2 Speakers; Instrumentality; Integrativeness; Vitality of the Community; Cultural Interest; Milieu; Linguistic Self-Confidence) and found that Integrativeness was the best predictor of language choice and intended effort.

Another relevant point emerged from the current findings is that, when languages become optional (i.e., post-14), the Government devolves individual schools to make decisions concerning languages policy to grant students’ choice, which take into account criteria based on achievement and ability, but not important factors related to student motivation for languages. Besides, as through their selection criteria the school themselves convey the idea that language choice is not as free as it might seem, but “only for the brains”, we can argue that this school practice may affect most students’ intentional engagement and attitudes towards languages negatively.

The above findings are compatible with those of Parrish and Lanvers (2018),⁷¹ which demonstrate that students who are given free choice, or no choice at all, manifest higher levels of intrinsic motivation towards languages and an overall higher autonomous regulation than those students who were selected by school based on high attainment (i.e., past good grades, ability). Notably, our findings match Parrish and Lanvers’s conclusion that school practices

⁷¹ Parrish and Lanvers (2018) carried out a questionnaire-based study in 437 secondary schools in England, investigating the relationship between school policy choices regarding modern foreign languages (MFL) and student motivation for MFL beyond the age of 14 (i.e., when languages are not compulsory). With regards to the student sample, they adapted the *Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ-A)* (Ryan & Connell, 1989), based on the Self-Determination Theory.

and policies selecting students to continue MFL study post-14 based on past high achievement encourage students to adopt motivational orientations that are detrimental to L2 motivation and, ultimately, to L2 learning outcomes.

Furthermore, by adopting a *Self-Determination interpretation*, our analysis leads us to the same considerations as Parrish and Lanvers' (2018), when they suggest that students' perceptions of language usefulness/importance (which varies by type of language) plays a significant role in their decision-making. Based on our findings we, moreover, agree with these scholars that schools should develop school policies that ensure equal treatment to all students (i.e., free choice for all or compulsory for all) in order to increase students' intrinsic motivation, engagement in the subject and - in the case of students' free choice - the level of *identified regulation*. Indeed, according to Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985a, 1991), with *identified regulation* the learner is able to consciously value learning outcomes/goals, as this stage of self-determination represents an early form of autonomy (though still instrumental) which enables the individual to activate motivated behaviour towards them. Indeed, according to Deci et al. (1999) goals are effective if they become internalized by the individual to some extent.

Finally, in line with the Self-Determination Theory, we can conclude that, since most secondary students do not see the benefits and do not value languages, which affects language choice negatively, school leaders need to redirect their policies by taking more account of L2 student motivation dynamics and by encouraging teachers to gradually support students' autonomy so as to achieve higher forms of self-determination, which primarily starts - as suggested indeed by the teachers interviewed in the current study - by actually enhancing language learning in secondary schools and by fostering students awareness of language usefulness.

7.2.3.3 Gender

Firstly, *Gender* has been explored as a "socio-demographic variable" (see Appendix A) in relation with the motivational factors involved in the student questionnaire, in order to answer RQ3. Secondly, from the qualitative analysis this category has also emerged as one of the major *individual differences* affecting L2 student motivation. As a result of the mixed methods research, we may conclude that this variable plays an important role in shaping L2 student motivation. Indeed, as Fig. 47 indicates, female students show a significant higher mean value than males in relationship to 9 out of 15 L2 motivational factors (i.e., 60%)

examined in the quantitative research. This quantitative finding is compatible with a considerable amount of studies reporting substantial gender differences in L2 motivation literature (eg., Dobson, 2018; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Kissau, 2006a, 2006b; Kissau et. al., 2010; Lin & Warschauer, 2011; Mitchell, 2003, 2011; Taylor & Marsden, 2014).

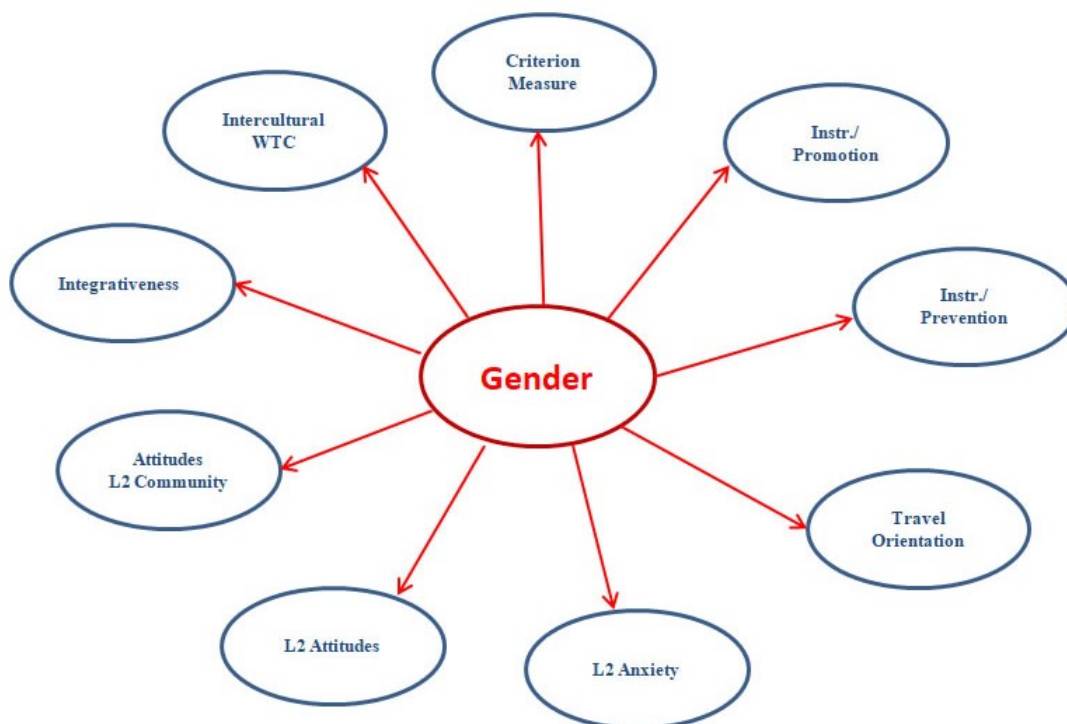


Figure 47. The Impact of Gender on L2 Motivational Factors (Relationships)

In particular, the quantitative findings demonstrate that girls display more positive attitudes towards the language studied, L2 speakers and are more willing to communicate in the target language in intercultural/international contexts. These results are in line with other secondary school-based studies conducted in England (Phillips & Filmer Sankey, 1993; Williams et al., 2002, pp. 507-509), which emphasize more pronounced integrative motives among females than males.

Furthermore, a great number of other findings (eg., Bacon & Finneman, 1992; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Mori & Gobel, 2006; A. Taylor, 2000; Yang, 2003) consistently indicate that girls tend to show greater integrative motivation (i.e. *Integrativeness*), whereas there is not a consensus among scholars on gender differences regarding *Instrumentality*. For instance, Bacon and Finneman (1992) show higher level of *instrumental motivation* among females; Dörnyei and Clément (2001) reveal higher degree of

instrumental motivation among females for the study of some languages but not others; Martinović (2018) finds that *Instrumentality Prevention motives* play an important role in motivating girls rather than boys; whereas other studies (eg., Shaaban & Ghaith, 2000) indicate no differences.

The presence of systematic gender differences in literature especially regarding *Integrativeness* has also been addressed by Henry (2011b). In line with other studies (eg., Barton, 1997), this scholar suggests that these differences may be explained by the fact that females are characterized by different interpersonal qualities, more openness and greater desire to establish interaction with others than males, which can be related to differences in the construction of self construals and, therefore, interpreted through the lens of recent self-based approaches within the *possible selves* domain, as also suggested by Knox (2006). In this respect, however, we are not able to provide any plausible interpretation based on our findings, and we believe that this point demands further research.

With regards to *Criterion Measure*, the statistically significant finding that *girls spend more effort than boys* in studying languages (see section 6.2.1.1) is confirmed by the qualitative results. The majority of teachers assume that *L2 Effort* and *L2 Engagement* (i.e., *Criterion Measures*)⁷² are meaningfully affected by *Gender*. Especially after Year 8 - when student motivation generally decreases and L2 learning is perceived to be difficult by most students (both males and females) - girls typically are “more dedicated” to studying languages than boys and tend to put more effort to overcome L2 difficulties, which is the reason why they outperform the male counterpart. Indeed, as the teachers report, they are likely to progress and shine more than boys throughout the various stages of secondary school. Interestingly, by highlighting that, after the first year of secondary school, girls are more keen than boys in studying languages, the qualitative investigation has also revealed a positive correlation between *Criterion Measures* and *School Year* (and *Age*) in relationship to *Gender*.

The above findings support Burstall’s (1975) and Davies’ (2004) strong evidence of lower attainment scores for British boys than girls with respect to language learning. In particular, on accounting for boys’ disaffection and underperformance in French at KS4 (i.e., Years 10-11), Davies (2004) explores students’ perceptions and attitudes towards languages, and finds that the marked differences between the two cohorts evolve according to their age (Study Year) and language learning experience. Most importantly, Davies’ study also reveals

⁷² As already discussed in the previous section, on comparing the quantitative and qualitative results we conclude that, overall in this study, *Criterion Measure* include both the categories of *L2 Effort* and *L2 Engagement*.

that the boys' demotivation and underachievement in MFL are not related exclusively to KS4 but start as early as Year 7 and increase with age.

Furthermore, the current findings are in line with Malpass (2014, pp. 10-11), which confirms that "the gender split is remarkably consistent over time". This scholar shows that "girls are more likely than boys to enter MFLs at A-Level", with the proportion of male A-Level entries being similar with regards to French and Spanish (i.e., around one third of the total entry). However, this scholar also reveals that the gender gap is slightly different in German (i.e., 40% being males). If we compare this finding with our research, we also find a similar result in the qualitative analysis, with a teacher assuming that "gender doesn't really matters" in her German classes as boys enjoy learning this language very much (see section 6.3.1.2).

Overall, with regards to the gender impact on L2 achievement, the available evidence in literature supports the gender gap L2 learning, with females outperforming boys in languages (Van der Slik et al., 2015). However, in line with Williams et al (2002), and as some teachers explicitly reported, we would warn against any reductionist interpretation that male students are necessarily not interested and underachieving in languages, by highlighting the importance of the strong impact of the *learning experience* on student motivation instead.

7.2.3.4 Perceived Language Aptitude

Other relevant findings concern the impact of *student perceived ability* to learn foreign languages. As reported in various interview excerpts, most students do not see languages in a favourable light. Instead, they perceive them as difficult and only for the most able. Such beliefs are also shared by some teachers who, during the interviews, explicitly assume that not every student is able to learn an L2. Besides, by assuming that "the lower the ability the more passive behaviour" learners show, the teachers establish a significant relationship between *perceived L2 ability* and *effort*, which also affects *motivated behaviour* significantly.

The above findings are consistent with those suggesting that in England students typically perceive foreign languages to be difficult and for the most able (eg., Fisher, 2001; Graham 2002, 2004; Graham et al., 2012). In particular, Graham's (2004) investigation into students' attitudes towards French reports that *low ability* and *task difficulty* are the main reasons of students' underachievement in this subject.

Since most students *lack confidence* in their ability to progress in language study, they give up on them, especially after the first year. This proves that there is a significant

relationship between student perceived L2 competence/language aptitude and their decision making. Furthermore, most of the time, their decision is encouraged by the school itself. Indeed, many schools select students to continue studying languages post-14 only on grounds of high academic performance. This tendency contributes to the reputation that “languages are hard” and is well-documented in other studies (Lanvers, 2017a, 2017b; Parrish & Lanvers, 2018) and reports (Filmer-Sankey, Marshall, & Sharp, 2010).

Widening the frame of reference to L2 motivation research in general, we may better understand these findings in the light of previous investigations into student *self-efficacy beliefs* and *perceived language aptitude*. As a number of studies (Bandura et al., 1996; Dörnyei, 2001a; Ehrman, 1996) point out, *self-efficacy* plays an important role in influencing learners’ motivation, attitudes towards languages, and academic performance. A number of studies also suggest that *perceived self-efficacy* greatly increases learners’ persistence (Schunk, 1981, 2003; Zimmerman, 2000). In addition, our findings are compatible with Vallerand’s (1997) notion of “amotivation”, which is not considered to be caused by an initial lack of interest but by the learner’s feelings of incompetence. In accordance with this study, we may assume that, by making learners feel inadequate to learn languages, negative *capacity-ability beliefs* and *strategy beliefs* play a key role in demotivating students.

Our findings on *student perceived L2 aptitude* are consistent with those obtained by Coleman et al. (2007), which demonstrate that this variable decreases after the first Year of Secondary School, even though it stabilizes in Year, 8 and 9. Indeed, in line with Dörnyei (2010b) and Singleton (2014, 2017), we may also argue that the notion of *L2 aptitude* cannot be considered as a fixed trait, but rather as dynamic and malleable, interacting with other learners’ attributes (motivation and attitudes), and susceptible to the influence of external factors, language experience and awareness. Thus, if the teachers acknowledge this notion of L2 aptitude, they might be able to help students change their preconceived beliefs and develop learning strategies in order to achieve success instead.

Furthermore, as in line with *Attribution Theory* (Weiner, 1974, 1986) self-efficacy is held to be influenced by the process of causal attributions, teachers may also help their students change maladaptive attributional patterns in accounting for their underachievement in language learning and focus more on internal and controllable factors, (ie., effort and strategy use) in order to boost their motivation to succeed, as also other studies (eg., Dörnyei, 2001a; Zohri, 2011) suggest. Indeed, as earlier findings (eg., Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams et al., 2002) demonstrate, as students grow older, their reasons for success are more

external, which involves that teachers need to help them develop beliefs in their own L2 learning abilities and a greater meta-cognitive control of their own L2 learning process through the acquisition of proper strategies.

7.2.4 Beliefs and Attitudes towards L2 Learning

As already discussed in the previous sections, students' *perceived usefulness* of languages as a school subject and *perceived L2 difficulty* affect their *Attitudes/Interest towards L2 learning* significantly. In particular, *perceived L2 difficulty* has detrimental effects on student's choice to study languages post 14, since most of them believe that learning languages is hard and, after the first two school years, they lack confidence in their ability to progress to an advanced L2 study (GCSE and A-Level). According to the qualitative analysis, student *perceived L2 difficulty* also affects their *Attitudes towards L2 culture* and *Integrativeness*.⁷³ In other words, since most students find it hard to learn a second language, "they switch off" and show a lack of openness towards the L2 culture and speakers.

The findings that students' *attitudes are linked to their beliefs*, and that these are based on their evaluation of previous experiences, learning situation or outcomes are consistent with previous studies (eg., Gabillon, 2007; Wenden, 1999). Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) also explain that self-efficacy beliefs, perceived goal-difficulty and perceived L2 competence play an important role before engaging in L2 learning tasks/activities. Further empirical findings (eg., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Gardner, 2001) have also demonstrated the impact of learner beliefs of the target language upon L2 attitudes.

However, descriptive statistics displayed in section 6.1.10 show outcomes that are not consistent with the qualitative findings, as student *L2 Attitudes/Interest* scored a positive mean value. This finding is parallel to a substantial number of previous findings. For example, some studies show that this factor strongly affects students' L2 effort (eg., Claro, 2016; Kormos et al., 2011; Syed, 2016; Taguchi et al., 2009⁷⁴), or represents the best predictor of L2 motivated behaviour (Azarnoosh, 2014).

Furthermore, *Gender* relationship with *L2 Attitudes/Interest* mentioned in the previous section - demonstrating that female students are more interested than boys - is in line with earlier findings (Malpass, 2014). Also, the relationship with *School Year* (RQ3, see section

⁷³As, in this investigation, both *Attitudes towards L2 culture* and *Integrativeness* have been explored to account for L2 student motivation/demotivation, they will be discussed in more depth in sections 7.2.7 and 7.2.8.

⁷⁴ However, Taguchi et al. (2009, p. 87), demonstrate that, in China, Attitudes towards Learning English plays a less important role than in Japan and in Iran in influencing learners' effort.

7.2. 3.1) proves to be significant in this study, showing that student *L2 Interest* fluctuates over time, since it drops sharply by Year 10 and, then, it increases again to reach its peak in Year 11. A similar pattern has been obtained in previous literature, especially by Gottfried, Fleming and Gottfried's (2001) longitudinal study, which encompasses the span of school years from middle childhood (i.e. middle elementary school) through late adolescence (end of high school).

Importantly, a considerable number of findings (eg., Chambers, 1999; Graham et al., 2016; Mitchell, 2003, p. 20; Phillips & Filmer-Sankey, 1993) confirm that students' positive outlook on languages fades after the first year of secondary school (as already mentioned in section 7.2.3.1). In this study, a number of qualitative findings are also consistent with Azarnoosh (2014), which ascribes the decline of motivational/attitudinal factors with age to the compulsory nature of language learning, in line with other studies conducted in various countries (Dörnyei et al., 2006; Henry, 2009; Koizumi & Matsuo, 1993; Lamb, 2007; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Williams et al., 2002).

As evidenced by the *relationship with Foreign Language* (RQ3 subquestion), the type of language studied also influences student *L2 attitudes* meaningfully. Overall, students show interest towards Spanish and French, whereas they manifest negative attitudes towards German. This finding is at odds with Williams et al.'s (2002, p. 520) mixed methods research, in which students exhibited "a stronger liking and desire for German" than for French.

However, as already shown in section 7.2.3.3, if we consider *Gender differences*, boys' attitudes towards German are generally positive, which does not differ much from Williams et al.'s (2002) findings. Interestingly, these scholars explained the boys' preference for German in terms of socio-cultural reasons, being French considered a more feminine language than German. These findings are in complete accordance with Dörnyei and Clément's (2001, p. 413) large-scale investigation into students (aged 13-14)'s attitudes towards 5 different languages (English, German, French, Italian and Russian), which confirm the gender-bias among learners, i.e., that "German is a more masculine language", whereas French and Italian are preferred by females.

The strong impact of *the specific school learning context* (i.e., *L2 class experience*; the school context and system) upon *L2 Attitudes* represents another promising result, as demonstrated both by the quantitative and qualitative findings. In this respect, by showing significant differences between the schools involved in the survey, the *relationship with*

School Type (section 6.2.10.9) reveals that student *L2 Interest* depends on the characteristics of the school context.

As emerged from the qualitative analysis, several qualitative findings indeed demonstrate that *student L2 Attitudes* are strongly influenced by the characteristics of *L2 learning experience*. As we can infer from various interviews, *enjoyment* and *perceived lesson/ language relevance* are considerant important factors influencing *L2 student Attitudes*. These findings tie in with Taylor and Marsden's (2012, p. 20) investigation conducted in Yorkshire, which explores secondary school students' attitudes to language learning and their intention to study a language GCSE. Taylor and Marsden's findings suggest that three major elements affect pupils' *L2 Attitudes*: *language/class enjoyment*; *perceived language/class relevance for their future*; *perceived competence*. Most importantly, these scholars find mutual relationships between the three factors (graphically represented as a triangle), and that the *enjoyment* factor represents the "top factor".

Another important result in this study is that the *L2 learning situation* not only affects students' general *Attitudes towards L2 learning*, but also their *Attitudes towards the various components* of language learning (i.e., *L2 grammar and skills*). Since the *L2 Learning Experience* component of *L2 motivation* represents an essential dimension to account for secondary school student *L2 motivational profile* in the UK, we will therefore devote an entire section (see section 7.6) of this chapter.

Finally, as highlighted by the qualitative analysis, *student L2 Attitudes* vary depending on the various *L2 skills/components difficulty*. According to our qualitative findings, students enjoy a broad range of *L2 skills*. Even though both listening and speaking are considered difficult by students in the first school years, the latter skill is the component of *L2 learning* that they enjoy the most. Student *perceived L2 difficulty* particularly affects their *Attitudes towards L2 Grammar* and *L2 Willingness to Communicate*. These findings are similar to those obtained by Gabillon (2007, pp. 1-16), which highlight that speaking and listening skills are perceived by students as "difficult skills to master", and that *perceived L2 difficulty* affects *L2 enjoyment/L2 Attitudes* and *L2 Willingness to Communicate (L2 WTC)* negatively.

However, according to our findings, *L2 WTC* and *attitudes towards grammar* improve over the years. Again, this result especially concerns those students who choose to study languages, which are usually the most able ones. Low down in the school, these learners struggle with the spoken and grammar, but when they gain a better grammatical

understanding and more confidence in speaking, they show positive attitudes towards the language studied.

According to the teachers' responses, the fact that students struggle with grammar does not imply that they do not enjoy learning it, but that they have never studied it properly and/or that English teachers have approached it in a wrong way. Students' poor knowledge of their own language and overuse of colloquialism and slang prevent a lot of students to progress in L2 learning. In particular, students' lack of understanding of English grammar is considered to be one of the main reasons why they find it difficult to analyze foreign languages and is believed to be an issue that should be targeted firstly by teachers of English rather than from those of foreign languages. In fact, many students enjoy learning about L2 grammar and being aware of how a foreign language works.

The above considerations have significant teaching implications as teachers not only need to use appropriate methods and approaches to motivate students to learn the target language grammar, but primarily need to challenge the misconceptions and common myths surrounding grammar, which is a view especially shared by Larsen-Freeman (1997a). Nevertheless, despite the recent reassertions of the importance role of grammar in language teaching (as discussed in detail by Dobson, 2018; Liviero, 2017; Pachler et al., 2014), external factors such time constraints and teachers' pressure to ensure that students achieve the language targets expected (especially at GCSE stage) have a bigger impact on teachers' practices and students' L2 Attitudes than teachers' theoretical and methodological beliefs regarding the most appropriate ways of teaching grammar and the other components of language learning.

7.2.5 Affective Dimension: L2 Self-Confidence, L2 Anxiety

According to the quantitative analysis (section 6.1.8), students show an adequate level of *Self-Confidence*, since a good number of students believe they are capable of achieving their L2 learning goals successfully. The quantitative analysis also highlights meaningful results concerning the relationship with the type of foreign language studied, since students of Spanish have a higher level of self-confidence than those of French and German, showing a highly significant difference especially with the German cohort (see section 6.2.8.4). However, the above quantitative findings are not consistent with the qualitative results (see section 6.3.1.3) indicating that most students struggle with the listening and the speaking due to their lack of L2 self-confidence.

A number of qualitative findings also suggest a significant *positive correlation* between successful *L2 Learning Experience* and *L2 Self-Confidence*, which ultimately affects *Self-Efficacy* beliefs, *L2 Achievement and Willingness to Communicate in L2*. These findings are parallel to Clément et al. (1994) and Edwards and Roger (2015), which demonstrate that *L2 Self-Confidence* significantly affects *L2 proficiency* and *L2 Willingness to Communicate*, and that the relationships between the three constructs are reciprocal and cyclic. Furthermore, the significant positive correlation between *L2 Self-Confidence* and *Willingness to Communicate in L2 (WTC)* emerging in the qualitative findings of the current study (section 6.3.1.4) is compatible with McIntyre et al.'s (1998) model of WTC, in which *Self-Confidence* is conceptualized as a component of the *WTC* construct.

Regarding *L2 Anxiety*, descriptive statistics (see section 6.1.9) demonstrate that the vast majority of students feel uneasy and nervous when they speak the target language, especially with people other than their classmates because they are afraid of making mistakes. The qualitative findings lead to similar conclusion, showing that even the most able students feel anxious about speaking the target language and “apprehensive” because they do not want to make mistakes when they speak for fear of negative evaluation (section 6.3.1.3).

The above results are similar to Campbell and Ortiz (1991, p. 159) who found that nearly half of all L2 students experience debilitating levels of language anxiety, and corroborate previous findings suggesting that fear of speaking a foreign language, low self-perceived L2 proficiency (Mahmoodzadeh, 2013) and fear of making mistakes in the target language (Liu & Jackson, 2008) are among the major causes of L2 anxiety. Other similarities have been found with Horwitz et al. (1986), which establishes three different forms of L2 anxiety related to different performance situations: *communication apprehension*, *test anxiety* and *fear of negative evaluation*.

On these grounds, we may assume that *L2 anxiety* plays an important role in Secondary School students' motivational profile, and that this can be held as a reason why a lot of students decide against FL study after the age of 14. This is in line with Dewaele and Thirtle (2009, p. 644) investigation conducted in London, which reveals that those learners that decided to drop out of foreign languages suffered from significant high level of *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA)*. The relationship between *L2 anxiety* and students' drop-out has also been found by Bailey et al. (2003), who demonstrate that high anxious students are more likely to give up. Indeed, other previous relevant studies such as Dörnyei

(2005) suggest that inhibition, anxiety, and risk-taking play an important role in L2 learning motivation and may ultimately shape the success in mastering a foreign language.

As already mentioned, the relationship between *L2 Anxiety* and *L2 performance* resulting from the qualitative analysis shows strong similarities with Horwitz et al. (1986, p. 127), which refers to *communication apprehension* as “a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating” in the target language in front of others or in groups. Likewise, our qualitative findings reveal that many students find it difficult and get nervous when they happen to speak with a native speaker for the first time. For instance, they shy away in the presence of language assistants and, in general, with people outside the L2 classroom. These results also corroborate Dewaele et al. (2008) findings that student’s level of language anxiety is higher while interacting with strangers than talking with schoolmates.

Based on the above findings, we may therefore assume that *low frequency of language use* and *scarce exposure to authentic L2 communication* may be considered important factors causing *L2 student anxiety*. By contrast, our results also demonstrate that high frequency of use especially in study abroad (SA) contexts is conducive to students’ *L2 Self-Confidence* and *L2 Willingness to Communicate*, as teachers report when talking about previous exchange programs. These findings tie in with Clément et al.’s (2003, p. 194) *Proposed Model of Second Language (L2) Communication*, in which *frequency of L2 Contact* and *Quality of L2 Contact* variables are strong predictors of *L2 Confidence* and, consequently, of *L2 Willingness to Communicate* (see section 7.2.6).

The above findings are also compatible with earlier evidence showing that SA experience decreases L2 anxiety significantly (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2015) and affects speaking proficiency positively (Mora & Valls-Ferrer, 2012). Also it has been emphasized by Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005), who define “the time spent in the host environment” as one of the six “motivation transformational episodes” - i.e., salient recurring temporal patterns - affecting L2 motivation (see section 3.4.3). Interestingly, Shoaib and Dörnyei’s findings suggest that time spent in L2 speaking countries during school trips or exchange programs is likely to change the learners’ perceptions/beliefs about L2 learning and, therefore, enhances their motivation towards languages. Conversely, the first encounter with a native L2 speaker, especially without any previous preparation, can be detrimental to L2 motivation.

Another important outcome of this research is that student *beliefs about languages* and the various components of L2 learning represent a potential source of L2 anxiety. This is in accordance with several studies (Altan, 2006; Horwitz, 1983; Peacock, 2001) underlining the

significant impact of learner beliefs about language learning on L2 anxiety, especially when these beliefs derive from unrealistic expectations. According to these studies, the clash between L2 beliefs and reality may indeed cause high level of L2 anxiety. Moreover, in this study, the finding that both *L2 Anxiety* and *Self-Perceived L2 Competence/ L2 Aptitude* are significant antecedents of L2 WTC is consistent with Yashima (2002).

It is worth noting that *gender-related differences* have also been found regarding *L2 Anxiety* in the current research, showing that girls are more anxious than boys. These findings are in line with those obtained by Abu-Rabia (2004), Park and French (2013), Piechurska-Kruciel (2008), revealing higher level of anxiety in females. However, the existing studies into gender differences in *Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)* have yielded inconclusive findings, some studies suggesting that males experience higher levels of L2 anxiety (eg., Campbell & Shaw, 1994), and others showing insignificant differences (eg., MacIntyre et al., 2002; Marzec-Stawiarska, 2014; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). The inconsistency of findings has been ascribed especially to the different contextual influences (i.e. the socio-cultural context, the characteristics of the L2 class) upon L2 anxiety (Marzec-Stawiarska, 2014; Park & French, 2013).

School Year relationship also highlights meaningful results. In Year 8, L2 anxiety reaches the highest level, whereas, in Year 10, students' anxiety decreases significantly in relationship to Years 7, 8, 9 (see Table 70, section 6.2.9.3). These findings may be explained by the fact that these students in Year 10 have developed higher level of self-efficacy than younger students, which is also supported by the qualitative results. However, as already said, these students represents a minority, i.e., the high achieving learners who chose to study languages after the compulsory stage.

To sum up, the current findings lead us to conclude that *L2 Anxiety has detrimental effects on L2 achievement* and that it interacts with a host of other factors and fluctuates over time. These conclusions are in line with Teimouri et al. (2018, p. 17). In particular, this scholar attributes “the ups and downs” of L2 anxiety to the age of students and the characteristics of the educational context. Indeed, as students grow older, they are more able to cope with L2 anxiety than primary school pupils because they have developed a range of metacognitive and affective strategies to master it. Nevertheless, the educational context (i.e., obligations and expectations) may produce further experiences that may increase L2 anxiety.

7.2.6 L2 Willingness to Communicate (L2 WTC)

The qualitative findings reveal that many students are not willing to communicate in the target language in the classroom due to many reasons. As already seen in sections 7.2.4 and 7.2.5, students' *L2 Willingness to Communicate (L2 WTC)* is strongly influenced by a number of factors: *L2 learning experience*; *L2 frequency of use/exposure*; *L2 self-confidence*; *perceived L2 difficulty*; *perceived L2 aptitude/competence*; *L2 anxiety*.

The above-mentioned relationships demonstrate the multiple individual and contextual influences on student' choice to initiate communication in the target language, which is compatible with MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) multi-layer model of L2 WTC. Moreover, the findings that individual characteristics such as *L2 anxiety* and *L2 perceived competence* are strong predictors of L2WTC are consistent with those from Baker & MacIntyre (2000), MacIntyre et al.(2001) and McCroskey & Richmond (1991).

Finally, from the qualitative investigation emerges that not only the *frequency of use/exposure* is crucial to the development of *L2 self-confidence* and, ultimately, of *L2 WTC*, but also the *qualitative aspects of L2 contact and experience with the target language*. This aspect has already been highlighted in past literature by Clément and colleagues (Clément, 1980; Clément et al., 2003, p. 192; Noels et al., 1996). In his social-context model, Clément (1980, p. 151) emphasizes the *quality of contact* with the L2 speakers by highlighting that the development of *L2 self-confidence* hinges on the “quality of pleasantness” of the contact situation, which ultimately leads to increased usage of, and communicative competence in the second language.

7.2.7 L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate (L2 IWTC)

In the quantitative investigation, students' *Willingness to Communicate* in the target language has also been explored in relation to intercultural contexts of L2 communication and, therefore, referred to as *L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate (L2 IWTC)*. The conceptualization of L2 IWTC in the current study (see section 5.3.1) is similar to Aubrey and Nowlan's (2013, p. 132) definition of *intercultural contact*,⁷⁵ According to these researchers, this factor represents one of the five key variables affecting L2 motivation. *Intercultural*

⁷⁵ In Aubrey and Nowlan (2013, p. 132), *intercultural contact* is defined as “any direct contact or personal interaction between a [...] student and an international student or other foreigner on or off campus in any language. This includes face-to-face spoken communication or interaction via phone, email, or online social networking sites”.

contact is not a novel concept in L2 motivation research, as it firstly appeared as a factor in Clément's (1980) model of L2 motivation, and subsequent studies highlight its important role. For example, Csizér and Kormos (2008) found that it significantly affects language learning attitudes and motivated learning behaviour.

Furthermore, the finding that students of Spanish are more willing to communicate in the target language in international/intercultural contexts than those of other languages demonstrates that L2 IWTC is significantly influenced by the foreign language studied (RQ3 subquestion addressing the relationship with *Foreign Language*, as seen in section 6.2.15.4). This result can be explained by the fact that, as reported by the teachers, students of Spanish have experienced exchange programs and trips in Spain, which have fostered interest in the target language and culture.

Finally, *School Type* also influences students' L2 IWTC (section 6.2.15.9). As the qualitative findings show, some schools have put in place activities such as trips or visits in foreign schools and/or exchange programs more than others, which have positively affected student L2 motivation and promoted further activities following the experience overseas (qualitative findings in section 6.3.3.3).

7.2.8 Attitudes towards L2 Community and L2 Culture

As the quantitative finding demonstrates (section 6.1.12), secondary school students show mildly favorable attitudes towards the community of L2 speakers, which is in line with the qualitative findings. *Gender relationship* (RQ3 sub-question, section 6.2.12.1) indicates that girls' attitudes towards the target language speakers are significantly more positive than boys'. Also *Foreign Language relationship* (RQ3 sub-question, section 6.2.12.4) shows that, overall, students' attitudes towards Spanish speakers are significantly more favorable than towards French and, especially, German. The number of *Study Years* students have been studying languages at school also has a meaningful impact upon students' *Attitudes towards L2 Community* (RQ3 sub-question, section 6.2.12.6), showing a significant *negative correlation* between the two variables. This implies that the longer the students have been studying a foreign language the less positive attitudes they have towards the L2 speakers. Finally, *School Type relationship* was also found significant (RQ3 sub-question, section 6.2.12.9), demonstrating that students' attitudes towards the target language community of speakers is affected by the type of school context.

According to the quantitative survey results, students manifest low interest towards the target language culture. Apparently, this finding is not consistent with the qualitative findings presented in section 6.3.1.4, which suggest that students show positive attitudes towards the L2 culture learnt at school. In line with the new GCSE specifications, MFL teachers promote several activities focused on cultural highlights on the country, in which students engage quite well with looking at different aspects of the target language culture, which foster L2 student motivation by making language learning relevant. From these findings, we may therefore conclude that most students enjoy L2 cultural-related topics at school, even though they do not generally show any particular enthusiasm for the L2 culture in itself, as the quantitative findings demonstrate.

If, on the one hand, the quantitative findings reveal no significant relationship between *Attitudes/Interest towards L2 Culture* and the *Foreign Language* studied (see section 6.2.11.4), on the other hand, the qualitative investigation highlights that secondary school students are generally interested in learning about the Spanish culture, whereas they do not seem to appreciate the French culture as well. Despite their interest towards the L2 culture, however, students sometimes find it difficult to accept the other culture point of view, which sometimes prevents them to understand cultural differences.

To conclude, the above findings differ from those obtained in earlier studies in which students' attitudes towards L2 culture and speakers appeared as significant predictors of students' L2 intended effort (Csizér & Kormos, 2008, p. 176). This discrepancy may be justified by the fact that, in our study, most students have few limited exposure to the target language culture and community of speakers, which they often see through a distorted lens like music, as one of the teachers suggest in line with Ghanizadeh et al. (2015).

7.2.9 Integrativeness

The qualitative and quantitative findings on *Integrativeness* fit together, indicating that most students show a general negative outlook on the target language and its culture, and unwillingness to learn about or integrate with the target language culture and speakers. Besides, *Integrativeness* is also affected by the *L2 Learning Experience* and the *School Type*. As evidenced by the *relationship with School Type* (RQ3 subquestion, section 6.2.13.9), a significant difference was found between the different schools involved in the study, in particular between SchoolH and SchoolW. This means that the learning environment

and its socio-relational context have a relevant impact on this motivational component, which therefore has many implications for teachers.

These findings are parallel to a number of studies conducted in the UK (eg.,Burstall, 1978; Burstall et al. 1974; Green, 1975, as cited in Coleman et al., 2007), which question the relevance of *Integrativeness* in L2 motivation, in contrast with a wealth of research findings obtained from other studies conducted in other countries (eg., Csizér & Dörnyei2005a; Dörnyei, 2009a; Gardner, 2001)⁷⁶, especially in learning contexts where English represents a foreign language. In line with Burstall et al. (1974) and Green (1975), the lack of this motivational component in this study may be attributed to the fact that English students do not have sufficient direct experience with the L2 speakers, with the exception of those from higher socio-economic background who are more likely to spend their holidays abroad, especially in Spain.

7.2.10 International Posture

The quantitative findings on *International Posture* in section 6.1.14 show students' low interest in international affairs and lack of openness towards the target language culture. As clearly depicted in section 6.3.2.1, these results match a number of qualitative findings indicating negative attitudes that reflectfeelingsshared across the whole country. According to the teachers, this “generalcultural view” has worsened since Brexit and represents a big barrier affecting L2 student motivation.

Even though the above findings seem to confirm the view of a considerable numbers of studies (Coleman, 2009; Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009; Graham & Santos, 2015;Lanvers & Coleman, 2013; Pachler, 2007), which depict the UK socio-political climate as hostile towards language learning and, at times, reflecting socially shared ethnocentrism and even xenophobia, however, only one respondent out of 11 in our investigation overtly mentions students' xenophobic attitudes. In fact, all the other respondents report students' negative attitudes mainly attributable to the “English is enough”bias, and to narrow-mindedness due to the specific socio-economic background of the area involved in the study. This conclusion, therefore, is more compatible with Lanvers e al. (2018) and Parrish and Lanvers (2018), who assume that the links between xenophobia and language learning are unlikely to be substantiated by evidence in the current UK Brexit context.

⁷⁶ See sections 3.6.1.1; 3.6.1.4; 3.7 of this study.

Furthermore, the findings on *International Posture* are different from a number of earlier studies (Kormos et al., 2011; M. Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2002, 2009) showing that this motivational orientation represents a key factor affecting L2 motivation. According to Yashima (2002, 2009), if learners have a strong *International Posture* they may be more willing to communicate in the target language even if they have no opportunity to live in or visit the country where the target language is spoken. In light of this, the lack of students' *International Posture* in our study can be held as one of the main reasons affecting *L2 Willingness to Communicate* negatively in the current investigation - the other reasons being the *lack of L2 Self-Confidence*, the *perception of L2 difficulty*, the *low frequency of L2 contact* and *L2 use*.

Another important finding regards the relationship between *Abroad Courses* and *International Posture*. Students' responses indicate that *International Posture* is higher when they have experienced a study abroad experience in the target language country. This outcome is consistent with earlier findings (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013; Geoghegan, 2018; Geoghegan & Pèrez-Vidal, 2019) showing that *Intercultural Contact* increases *International Posture*. Even though this quantitative result cannot be considered statistically significant because only 7% of students report this kind of experience, however, it is confirmed by the qualitative data.

Finally, as the student sample is homogeneous in the current investigation (96% with English as a first language; 90%, with both parents speaking English as a native language), it has not been possible to understand how students' and parents' different L1 may affect *International Posture*, which is a significant area that required further investigation.

7.3 Relationships between Socio-Demographic Variables and L2 Motivational Factors (RQ3)

In the current section, the most significant relationships between socio-demographic variables and L2 motivational factors will be discussed in order to answer RQ3 (i.e., *Is there any significant relationship/correlation between each motivational factor and a number of socio-demographic variables such as gender, nationality....?*).

As detailed in the quantitative analysis (section 6.2), only the following relationships proved to be significant: *Gender*, *School Year*, *Foreign Language*, *Study Years*, *L1 Parents*, *School Type* and *School Term*. Some of these relationships have already been discussed in the various sections addressing the various student-related motivational factors (eg., *Gender relationship*). The coming sections, therefore, will only present the major relationships, which

have not been sufficiently dealt with yet. Moreover, graphical representations will be provided in order to better visualize these relationships.

7.3.1 The Impact of School Year on Student Motivational Factors

As already mentioned, both qualitative and quantitative findings highlight *significant relationships* between *School Year* and a number of motivational factors. To scrutinize these relationships in order to address RQ3 sub-questions, firstly we examined the quantitative findings, which have been summarized in Fig. 48. Then, the triangulation approach allowed us to integrate these findings with the qualitative ones.

As the *School Year relationships* have already been discussed earlier in this study (see various sections addressing student-level motivational factors), in this section, we would just like to conclude that these findings ultimately highlight the *dynamic nature of L2 motivational components* across the various stages of secondary school. This result is consistent with a number of longitudinal studies demonstrating that learners' motivation "ebbs and flows" as students move through school (Azarnoosh, 2014; M. Lamb, 2007, 2011; Pintrich, 2003; Williams et al., 2002).

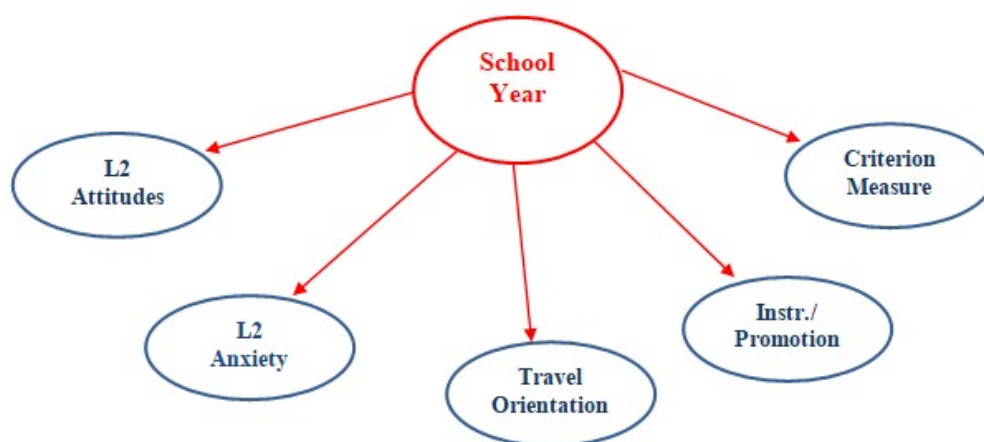


Figure 48. School Years Relationships

7.3.2 The impact of School Term on Student-Related Factors

Regarding the impact of *School Term* on student motivational variables, only the relationships with *Ought-to L2 Self* and *Travel Orientation* were found significant. In particular, the finding that the *Ought-to L2 Self* is higher at the end of the year can be explained as a result of

student's sense of obligation to study languages engendered by significant others (teachers and parents) in order to avoid negative outcomes (i.e., bad grades) at the end of the school year.

Finally, it is notable that the findings revealing the variations over time across the year demonstrate the dynamic nature of L2 motivational construct, which is in line with the main tenets of dynamic system theories (de Bot et al., 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a) and, especially with those studies focusing the temporal variation on different timescales (de Bot, 2012).

7.3.3 The Impact of Type of Language on Student Motivational Factors

As we can see from Fig. 49, L2 motivation varies according to the *type of foreign language* studied, which influences the various motivational dimensions. As earlier discussed, students prefer Spanish than the other languages, which is in line with the British Council's annual report on languages (Tinsley, 2019), showing a more stable picture of Spanish GCSE entries (just a 2% reduction) than French and German, which have seen a decline of 30% over the past five years. Indeed, the quantitative findings in the current investigation also show that German does not have as much general appeal as Spanish (see section 6.2.10.4.). Being typically associated to the British holidays, Spanish is seen in a positive light, as shown by the qualitative data in this study that are parallel to earlier research (eg., Pegrum & Hall, 2006).

Furthermore, our qualitative analysis shows that not only German but also French is perceived as a difficult language to learn, which is compatible with previous studies such as Bartram (2010), and Pegrum and Hall (2006). These findings are also well documented in the last annual Government's report about language learning (Long et al., 2020), which especially relates students' perceptions of French and German as hard to the school grading system (for more detail, see section 7.4.2). Additionally, the qualitative findings reveal that the major reason for the sharp decline of German GCSE uptakes is precisely that German is linguistically regarded as being difficult and requiring a lot of effort.

By comparing the above-mentioned results concerning German with earlier findings, however, we can see that there is no general consensus among scholars regarding students' attitudes towards this language, as there is limited research evidence, as Mitchell (2011, p. 59) also contends. This author suggests that scholars typically mention two reasons why learners prefer other languages to German: it is generally considered as a difficult language to

learnand “less attractive” than other languages for sociohistorical reasons,⁷⁷ as already mentioned in section 2.3 of this dissertation. Other findings from Bartram (2010) reveal that students show a mildly positive interest towards German, which is not affected by the negative representations conveyed by the British media.

On highlighting the relevance of the *impact of the L2 learning experience upon the type of Language*, in relation to students' choice to continue to study languages, our study is, in many respects, in line with Krüsemann's (2017). This investigation, conducted among secondary school students (aged 13-16) in England, explores students' rationales for the decision to continue or drop German post 14. Krüsemann reveals that the main reasons for the students' choice to continue with German are not instrumental but mainly related to “the enjoyment of the learning situation”. In addition, “a sense of personal relevance” is also mentioned in his study, as the students perceive German as “a worthwhile process requiring effort and persistence” (p. 4). Importantly, Krüsemann explains secondary school students' *self-efficacy and value beliefs* about German within the framework of *Expectancy-Value* (Taylor & Marsden, 2012, 2014; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000) and *Self-Worthy Theory* (Covington, 1984, 1992, 1998; Covington & Beery, 1976), which can also be useful to support our interpretation.

As already mentioned, the *cultural experience in the TL country* boosts motivation towards the TL language itself. However, exchange programs and trips are limited to few schools, and only 89% of students report to have had a study abroad experience in the past. Hence, it has not been possible to explore the specific relationships between study abroad experience and type of language, or language choice post 14, and compare our results with relevant findings from SA research, such as those reported by Geogheghan (2018), who suggests that SA is strongly affected by the type of target language (i.e., English, French and German in this case) with the Ideal L2 Self being higher in English.

⁷⁷This point has been discussed by Gapper (2005) and Krüsemann (2017). The latter, for example, explored secondary school students' discursive representations of German, the Germans, and Germany, by analyzing learners' beliefs through *metaphor elicitation*, i.e., a method previously used by Fisher (2013).

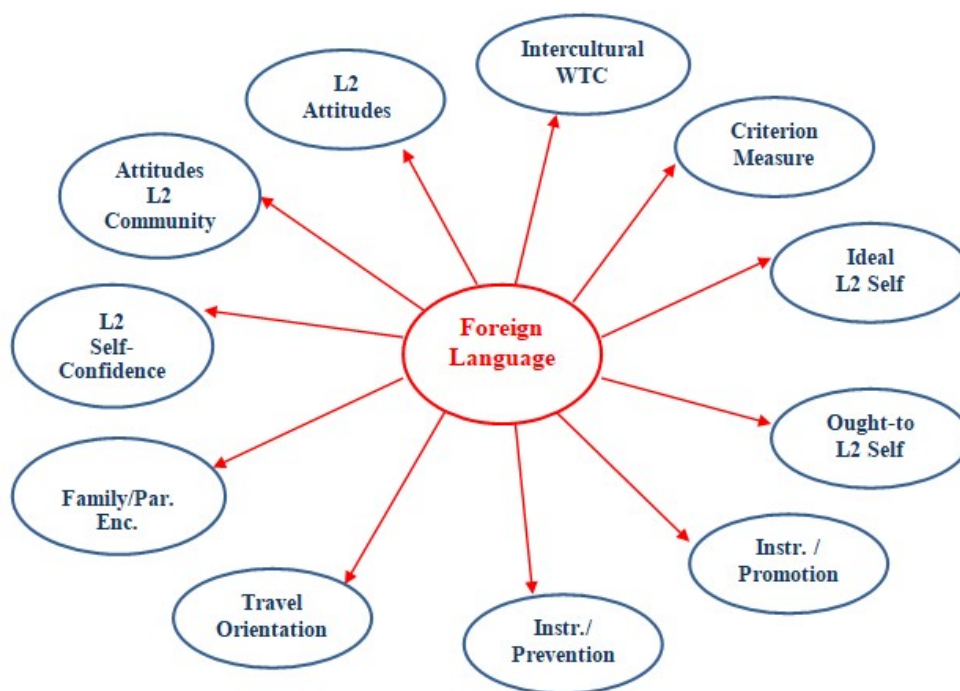


Figure 49. Foreign Language Relationships

7.3.4 The Impact of Study Years on Student Motivational Factors

As proved by the quantitative research, the number of years students have studied languages significantly affects their *Intended Effort*, *L2 Attitudes*, and *Attitudes towards L2 Community*. However, these findings are at odds with Martinovič (2018, p. 148), who found that the length of studying the L2 (i.e., *L2 Study Years*) did not significantly affect student' motivational disposition and effort. On the contrary, there are some similarities as the findings in both studies display no meaningful impact of *L2 Study Years* upon *Ideal L2 Self*, *Ought-to L2 Self*, *Instrumentality-Promotion*, *Instrumentality-Prevention*.

Finally, the quantitative analysis displayed in Table 80 (section 6.2.10.6) reveals a significant *negative correlation* between *L2 Attitudes/Interest* and *Study Years*, which indicates that the longer the students have been studying an L2 the less interest they show. However, to our knowledge, this outcome does not find any similarity with previous research findings and, therefore, requires further investigation.

7.3.5 The Impact of School Type on Student Motivational Factors

As we can clearly see from Fig. 50, *School Type* exerts a strong influence on L2 motivation construct, affecting 10 factors. In line with Coleman et al. (2007), this finding is encouraging as it suggests that when the school environment is supportive it is more likely to promote

student motivation towards languages. Over the last decades, the role of the educational context in promoting L2 motivation has warranted much research (eg., Clément et al.,1994; Gardner, 2007). In the coming pages, we will therefore discuss a number of situational factors inherent to the educational context in more detail.

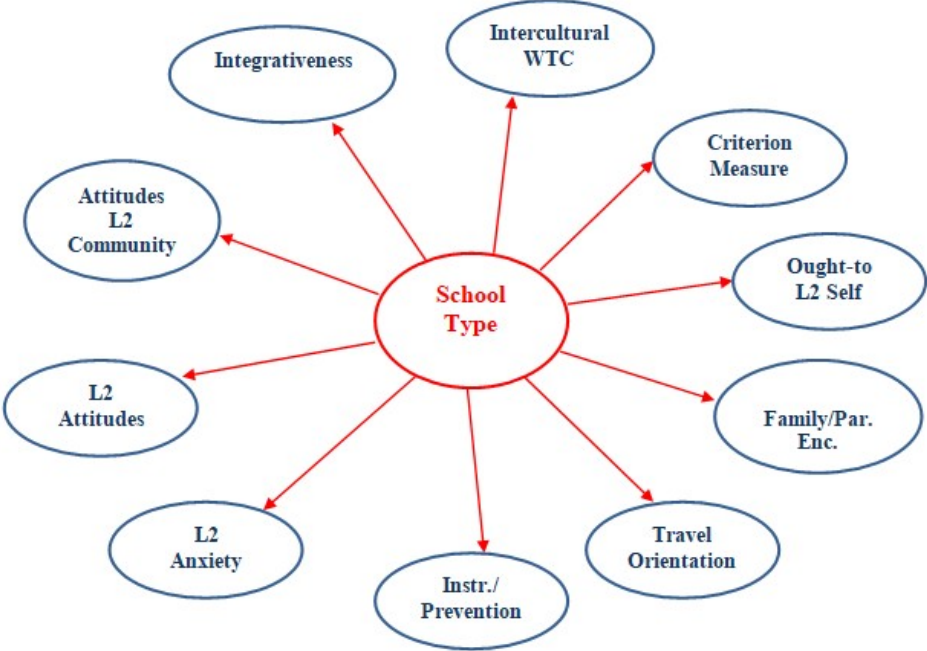


Figure 50. SchoolType Relationships

7.4 Contextual factors (RQ4)

The quantitative and qualitative data revealed significant changes in students’ L2 motivational profile, which clearly highlight a downward tendency across the course of the school years. Thus, in the attempt to account for the reasons for students’ disaffection with languages, we also explored a number of social and contextual factors that influenced students’ L2 motivational construct, which will be discussed in the following pages, in order to address RQ4(i.e., *What are the major contextual factors affecting L2 student motivation?*).

7.4.1 Socio-Economic Background and Significant Others

According to the qualitative findings, students’ preset beliefs about languages that are acquired from their socio-cultural environment mirror a “naive attitude” or “widespread mindset within the city”, which has a strong impact on *L2 Attitudes/Interest*. This evidence proves that *the socio-cultural context* represents one of the major barriers to students’ L2 motivation, which is in line with Gardner’s early work (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, & Lambert, 1959), in which the

social milieu plays a prominent role in shaping student *L2 Attitudes*. In addition, the fact that a lot of students don't recognize the value of language learning and manifest lack of aspiration for their future, reflects their poor socio-economic background, which negatively affects the choice to study languages and, therefore, languages GCSE take-up. These findings are parallel to a number of studies conducted in the UK context (eg., Coleman et al., 2007; Gayton, 2010, 2013; Lanvers, 2017a, 2017b, 2018; Pachler, 2007). In particular, Lanvers (2017a, 2017b) and Gayton (2010, 2013) provide evidence of the relationships between modern languages take-up beyond age 14 and socioeconomic variables, which mirror the social divide in language learning in the UK.

Furthermore, our qualitative findings reveal that, in conjunction with socio-economic background, *parents' perceptions toward the importance of learning languages* represent a contributing factor to students' lack of interest and low academic achievement in MFL, since they strongly affect student beliefs about languages and perceived L2 self-efficacy. Similar conclusions have been reached by other scholars. For example, Bandura et al. (1996) found that socio-economic factors had a direct effect on parents' sense of academic efficacy and aspirations for their children, which in turn had a substantial impact on students' academic achievements. Our results also corroborate Md Nordin et al.'s (2012, p. 106) findings, demonstrating that parents' involvement in their children' education, and the value they place on it, "marks the beginning of learning experience that shapes their attitudes towards learning".

The significant effect of *family influence* on student L2 motivation has also been recognized by a substantial number of other works (eg., Busse, 2010, 2013; Fisher, 2001; Gardner, 1985; Noels, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1997). In particular, the construct of *parental encouragement* has been used in a number of investigations (eg., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Csizér & Kormos, 2008; Gardner et al., 1999; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Kormos et al., 2011; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009).

Apart from highlighting the influence of parents, our findings also underline the importance of teacher's support in promoting student L2 motivation, which is especially in line with Williams and Burden's (1997) framework of *external factors* - including *significant others* (i.e., parents; teachers and peers) as one of the main components. In particular, the impact of *teacher role* on student motivational profile will be discussed in more detail in section 7.5 in order to answer RQ5, whereas the coming section will address other contextual

factors that were found to have a great impact on secondary school L2 motivation, i.e., *school system policies and barriers*.

7.4.2 The School System (Policies and Barriers)

In accordance with recent national surveys (eg., Tinsley, 2019) and studies conducted in the UK (eg., Coleman et al., 2007; Lanvers, 2017a; Lanvers et al, 2018; Macaro, 2008; Parrish and Lanvers, 2018), the qualitative findings confirm poor record of languages GCSEs and A-Levels in secondary schools. As reported in section 6.3.2.3, teachers believe that it is unrealistic to expect that the EBacc Reform may lead to 90% of pupils to sit a GCSE in a language by 2025 as only a few schools in Hull have achieved the 70%. In fact, the majority of pupils in this area has reached nearly the 50%, and the Government has not actually provided effective support or strategies to enable schools to reach the target. In addition, in the Yorkshire, schools are generally less competitive than those in the South of England, as also confirmed by other studies (eg., Graham, 2017).

Despite the Government's increased emphasis on the EBacc, a lot of schools make MFLs compulsory only "for a certain percentage of top-band students" (TH10) as other school performance measures (i.e., Attainment 8 and Progress 8) continue to count more than the Ebacc. Also, being the exam grading harder in languages than in other subjects - which has contributed to the reputation that languages are hard and produced detrimental effects on school's performance outcomes – schools tend to discourage and exclude ("disapply") low-attaining students from language study and GCSE exam, as reported by Tinsley & Board(2017).

As documented in many sources (eg., Gayton, 2010; Graham, 2017; Krüsemann, 2017; Lanvers, 2016c, p. 304, 2017a, 2017b, pp. 58-59; Tinsley & Board, 2017), since pupils with a disadvantaged background are much less likely to achieve high academic results than pupils from higher socio-cultural contexts, school management rationalizes school poor or good language provision in relation to their pupils socio-economic status (SES) background. Thus, school language provision and higher levels of take-up are associated with more advantaged schools (i.e. with higher SES intake).

As a result, this tendency has exacerbated the social divide in languages⁷⁸, which in Lanvers' words (2017b, p. 67) "is now unrivalled by that in any other subject", and has contributed to the *growing elitification* in language learning (Krüsemann, 2017): languages continue to be "a niche subject"- as the teachers report - and the "languages for all" perspective is still a Fata Morgana mirage, far to be reached. This has also been confirmed by the 2018/19 DfE report, indicating that the Government is not on track to meet its ambition for 75% of students to be studying all the EBacc subjects by 2022, since it has fallen a long way short with only 53% of students expected to be taking the EBacc by this time. Most importantly, as the DfE underlines, "the main barrier to the EBacc ambition is languages take up (with over 80% of pupils who take four out of the five subjects missing out on a language)" (DfE 2018/19, as cited in Long et al., 2020, p. 18).

Furthermore, as we can infer from the qualitative analysis, there is no consensus among teachers on the effects of the Ebacc upon language learning. Some respondents believe that schools are currently taking languages much more seriously than in the past (TK2-C3d), and that significant changes have been already introduced in the MFL curriculum. These teachers are hoping that the EBacc policy may have a positive impact on teaching resources and funding, which also represent a barrier to take into consideration.

As a matter of fact, similar beliefs are grounded in most recent evidence. As reported by Long et al. (2020) and Tinsley (2019) the Government has introduced the "national Recovery Programme for languages (2019) to reverse the UK's poor language performance and, most importantly, has established the "National Centre for Excellence for Language Pedagogy" (NCELP), with the mission to improve language curriculum design and pedagogy, and to support the implementation of languages so as to achieve a higher uptake and greater success at GCSE. Furthermore, in November, 2019, the exam regulator Ofqual announced that the grading standards in French and German would be brought in line with other GCSE subjects because these languages were found "consistently harder" and "were more severely graded" than the other GCSE subjects.

On the contrary, at the time of the current study interviews (June/July 2017), some teachers were more sceptical about the actual effectiveness of Government measures to upgrade language learning in secondary schools. In particular, they made this point clear when they raised some issues such as the problem of recruiting language teachers and finding

⁷⁸ the North-South divide in Languages GCSE uptakes has also been reported in the qualitative analysis of the current research, and has been confirmed by other sources (eg., Graham, 2017), which show that the North has generally lower levels of uptake than the South of the country.

enough financial resources in order to implement languages, especially after Brexit. These concerns are compatible with Dobson (2018, pp. 78-79), who laments “the lack of coherence and continuity in policy implementation”, the recent loss infrastructure of support for MFL teachers such as CILT and QCDA, which were broken up in 2011 under the impact of economic austerity, and the uncertainty of EU- funded programmes post-Brexit.

Other qualitative findings point to the small amount of time allocated for languages in secondary school, which contributes to the idea that learning languages is like “gardening in a gale”- as described by Mitchell (2011) by using the famous metaphor coined by Hawkins (1978, p. 8). This issue has also been raised by other studies (eg., Dobson, 2018; Lightbown, 2014; Stern, 1985; Swain, 1981). Similarly to Hawkins (1978), Stern (1985, p. 20) recommends that language instruction be more intense and more compact, arguing that “larger daily amounts of teaching time over shorter periods are more effective than very small amounts, [...]over a much longer period”.

The causal relationship between the amount of instructional time and learning outcome, however, has been challenged by these scholars. In line with Swain (1981), Stern (1985) himself in fact contends that, if on the one hand, increasing or intensifying time provides more in-class opportunities for language learning, on the other hand, it does not in itself ensure improved outcomes. In this respect, Lightbown (2014, pp. 4-6) argues that, even when more time is available, it is essential “to focus on the language itself” by providing a right balance of “meaning-focused and language-focused activities”, that are cognitively challenging and relevant to students.

Finally, some teachers lament lack of clear direction from the Government and policymakers for MFL education, the results-focused nature of language learning in secondary school according to the National Curriculum, summative standardised testing, severe grading and excessive emphasis on controlled assessments that characterizes the GCSE pedagogy, which is in line with prior studies (eg., Fisher, 2001; Hagger-Vaughan, 2016; Lanvers, 2016b; Mitchell, 2003, Pachler, 2007; Parrish & Lanvers, 2018).

In particular, Pachler (2007, p. 3) argues that “skills-based performance orientation rather than an emphasis on knowledge and understanding”, has been particularly detrimental to student L2 motivation. Furthermore, as clarified by Lanvers (2016b), educational management has translated the MFL curriculum and policy in a different manner - often more outcomes-oriented - than the way policy developers themselves might have originally intended. Finally, in our study, teachers’ responses are in line with Parrish and Lanvers’s

(2018, p. 281) findings suggesting that “the ways school leaders make decisions concerning language policy do not align with language provision that optimises student motivation”.

7.4.3 The Broad Context

The qualitative findings highlight that one of the key reasons why teachers find very difficult to motivate students to study languages at school is the belief that “English is enough”, which reflects the perceived global dominance of English, undermining the utilitarian/instrumental value of learning languages in the UK and ultimately affecting languages take-up. The notion that Global English is threatening motivation to study languages in the UK has gained empirical validation over the last decades and has been addressed by a number of studies (eg., Coleman et al. 2007; Lanvers, 2017a; Lo Bianco, 2014; Taylor & Marsden, 2014).

In a number of interviews, teachers also attribute the declining interest to negative societal attitudes, to the negative influence exerted by the UK wider public opinion and social climate, which is widely documented by previous research (eg., Coleman, 2009; Coleman et al., 2007; Dewaele, & Thirtle, 2009; Lanvers, 2012, 2013, 2017a).

Finally, by highlighting a climate of British hostility towards languages that is especially fostered by an insular mindset exacerbated by Brexit, the qualitative findings align with Coleman (2009), Graham and Santos (2015), Lanvers and Coleman (2013). Despite these findings, however, most recent studies suggest that there is little evidence that the UK has chosen the path towards monolingualism and that, in the post-Brexit era, the fact that “language skills will become even more crucial” might stimulate more interest towards language learning (Lanvers, 2018; Parrish & Lanvers, 2018).

7.5 Teacher-Related Factors (RQ5)

To answer TQ5 (i.e., *To what extent can teacher influence L2 student motivation?*) the qualitative analysis highlighted three major categories of *teacher-related factors* affecting L2 student motivation: 1. *teacher motivation*; 2. *teacher beliefs about the importance of learning languages in England*; 3. *teacher role* (see section 6.3.3). These results show similarity with earlier extended frameworks of L2 motivation, and especially with Dörnyei (1994), Williams and Burden (1997), and Busse (2010).

Firstly, the findings are compatible with Dörnyei’s (1994) multilevel conceptualization of L2 motivation, in which the *Learning Situation Level* encompasses *teacher specific motivational components*. Dörnyei especially focuses on teaching style and strategies (the

latter referred to as “Direct Socialization of Motivation”), namely *modelling, task presentation* and *feedback* (see section 3.3.3). By underlining the importance of *teacher-student relationality* in L2 student motivational process, the qualitative analysis also reveals that teacher’s *empathy with students* is another important factor, which, in Dörnyei’s words, is one of the teacher’s crucial characteristics that make teaching practice coherent with “the principles of person-centred education”.

The importance of implementing specific *teaching techniques and strategies* in order to enhance student L2 motivation (see section 6.3.4.1) is another important finding derived from the qualitative data, even though it’s not clear from the interviews how frequently and to what extent the teachers participating in the research use them effectively in their everyday practice.

The need for identification of proper strategies that are actually conducive to L2 student motivation has been also raised by Gardner and Tremblay (1994b) and Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), which led Dörnyei to put this aspect at the core of a number of subsequent investigations. Thus, Dörnyei (2001a) firstly provides more than 100 motivational strategies., which he classifies into four different stages: 1) creating the basic motivational conditions; 2) generating initial motivation; 3) maintaining and protecting motivation; 4) encouraging positive self-evaluation. Subsequently, Dörnyei(2005, pp.85-86) puts forth a tripartite pedagogical framework that teachers can apply to increase their student’s motivation, which is in line with Ottó-Dörnyei’s *Process-Model* of L2 motivation and can be viewed as “a good starting point in understanding motivational evolution”.

Furthermore, a considerable number of studies have emphasized the relationship between the use of motivational strategies by teacher and student L2 achievement (eg., Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus et al., 2009; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2011) and the relationship between students’ perception of the frequency and importance of their teachers’ motivational strategies (Safdari, 2018).

The emphasis on teacher’s *enthusiasm* is another aspect emerged from the qualitative data. Likewise, Dörnyei and Schmidt (2001) state that “the teacher’s level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that affect the learners’ motivation to learn”.Indeed, these scholars consider *intrinsic motivation* to be the most important factor in teacher motivation, which has also been confirmed in our findings, in which the *relevance of teacher motivation to student motivation and classroom effectiveness* represents an essential factor, strongly affecting students’ *expectancy of success*. The impact of teacher level of

motivation on student L2 self-efficacy and performance has also warranted attention of other researchers such as Chambers (1999).

Teacher role is also at the heart of Williams and Burden's (1997) L2 motivational framework. On investigating into the *external factors* affecting L2 student motivation, these scholars indeed include *teachers* as one of the *significant others* component and, in their work, especially focus on teachers' role as a "reflective practitioner" and on their beliefs affecting all the stages of student motivational process.

Finally, our findings are similar to Busse (2010, pp. 267-268), which has integrated *teacher-specific motivational components* specified by Dörnyei (2001c) into the *meso-level* of contextual factors, corresponding to Gurtner et al.'s (2001) multilayer framework of L2 motivation.

7.6 The L2 Learning Experience (RQ6)

In order to answer RQ6 (i.e., *To what extent do teachers employ effective teaching practices/strategies to boost L2 student motivation in English secondary school?*), the qualitative analysis has highlighted that the characteristics of the *L2 Learning Experience* represent an important component to take into account in L2 motivation research. This conclusion is in line with Dörnyei's (2005) *L2 Motivational Self System*, in which the *L2 Learning Experience* is conceptualized as one of the three major components of student L2 motivational construct.

Furthermore, on bringing out the importance of L2 activities that are "engaging and relevant to students", the qualitative analysis emphasizes the *actual involvement of the learner* in the L2 learning process, beyond the methodological choices, teaching resources and specific teaching strategies and approaches. This result is parallel to Dörnyei's (2019, p. 25) re-conceptualization of the *L2 Learning Experience* as "the perceived quality of the learner's engagement with various aspects of the language learning process", namely the school context, the syllabus, the teaching resources, learning tasks, peers and teachers (see section 3.12).

The above findings also resonate with Taylor and Marsden's (2012, p. 20) results. As already seen in section 7.2.4, these scholars explore the reasons for pupils' choice to continue or drop language study post 14+ and, therefore, low GCSE language uptake. They synthesize their findings in the *enjoyment-competence-relevance triangle*, which represents the major factors affecting students' *L2 Attitudes*. This study is particularly relevant to the current

investigation because it was conducted in three maintained schools in Yorkshire among Year-9 pupils in order to explore the rationales underlying the dramatic decrease of Modern Foreign Languages at KS4 in the maintained sector in England, but especially in the North East, Yorkshire and the Humber.⁷⁹

An important issue related to the L2 Learning experience is, furthermore, the *time allocated to teaching*, which is not sufficient in order to achieve all the expected goals (skills, grammar, vocabulary) properly, as teachers repeatedly report. This finding supports Macaro's (2014, pp. 117-118) argument that the reason English students are not able to apply grammar patterns in real language situations lies in "the paucity of exposure to the language" (an average of just 2 hours a week in England) rather than in the fact that they have not been taught grammar properly, since "a diet of free conversation" will not easily help develop the target language rule system effectively.

Despite all the difficulties and issues they meet in their everyday practice, however, the teachers underline that L2 grammar is an essential part of language learning, as it helps students use the language more spontaneously (TW1-S4d). Such belief is in line with the new GCSE specifications and is reflected in the renewed interest in the role of grammar in secondary schools in England, highlighted by many studies, such as Dobson (2018), Liviero (2017) and Pachler et al. (2014).

In accordance with the evidence provided by these scholars, furthermore, the teachers in our study report that grammar teaching has become "more explicit" according to the current National Curriculum (NC). Nevertheless, they acknowledge that, in the recent NC revision, there is no clear reference to any coherent methodological directions for MFL teaching practice. Hence, as inferred from the qualitative data, the teachers have adopted diverse interpretations and initiatives which mirror their personal beliefs rather than existing research.

The above conclusion is consistent with that drawn by Liviero (2017, p. 45), who argues that metalinguistic awareness is not addressed meaningfully in the new GCSE specifications and, although grammar teaching is more explicit than in the past, the examination is still "predominantly skill-based and notional-functional in focus". Besides, in the MFL curriculum specifications, there is little consideration of evidence-based research,

⁷⁹ These data were revealed by CILT (2010), as cited in Taylor and Marsden (2012, p. 3).

and no clear theoretical and methodological guidelines to support teachers, which has led to inconsistent teaching practices.

Another issue emerged from the qualitative data is that, due to time constraints and exam pressure, teachers have little opportunity to integrate the teaching of language and content (CLIL) in the L2 classroom, which would make language learning more relevant for students, enhancing the perceived importance attached to it. As other empirical findings show, furthermore, *the relationship between culture and content* plays an “invaluable role” in fostering students’ development of “cultural thinking awareness and criticality” (Parks, 2019, 2020).

This dual subject approach— which, in England, is mostly known as “cross-curricular” learning among secondary school MFL teachers— has been widely implemented in secondary schools in Europe, being designed and employed to enhance language learning outcomes especially in schools where most of the instruction takes place in the student L1. Over the last decade research on CLIL instruction has increased, with a number of findings (eg., Bower, 2017; Coyle, 2011, 2013; Dalton-Puffer, 2008, 2011) suggesting successful outcomes even at primary school level (Ambrossi & Constant-Shepherd, 2018), even though scholars call for further research (eg., Fernandez, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2018).

Importantly, even though the findings in our study suggest that teachers are aware that the educational value of learning the target language culture lies primarily in enhancing students’ cultural awareness, however, this aspect seems to have been overlooked in the L2 classroom, as it’s “responsibility lies outside the MFL Department”, that is to say, in the SMSC area⁸⁰ - as evidenced by the qualitative analysis (TK1-T2-d, quoted in section 6.3.3.2). This result resonates with Peiser and Jones’ (2013) study, which highlights that, even though the cultural dimension has appeared in subsequent school policy documents in terms of “Cultural Awareness” or “Intercultural Understanding”, its importance in the MFL classroom has been downplayed.

The *use of the target language in the L2 classroom* is the last point addressed by the qualitative analysis. The findings show that not every teacher maximizes the L2 use in the classroom as they should, even though most of them report that they often engage their students in specific communicative tasks in order to get them to practise the target language in

⁸⁰ SMSC (i.e., Spiritual, Moral, Social and Cultural Development) is an area of the school’s curriculum that focuses on the non-academic development of students, such as understanding and appreciation of different cultures. This area represents a wide umbrella of learning that covers a number of school subjects, including: RE (religious Education); PSHE (Personal, Social, Health and Economic); Sex Ed.; Politics; Philosophy and History.

a communicative way, as speaking is an important part of the GCSE. Yet, students do not have many opportunities to use it other than in the classroom. Teachers generally use the L1 in the classroom to clarify grammar points, and predominantly when they manage large groups where behaviour is an issue.

The above findings confirm previous research advocating the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom. Contrarily to a bulk of research that has dismissed the L1, a number of recent studies have indeed supported the appropriate use of the target language. It is noteworthy that, by emphasizing the L1 use as an effective classroom resource, these findings have opened new avenues for language teaching that bear important implications for teachers. According to this view, for example, Cook (2001) and Pan and Pan (2010) argue that, while teachers should maximize students' use of the L2 in the classroom, there is also the need for "an active and systematic use of the L1" that can be beneficial to conveying meaning, facilitating student comprehension of grammar, scaffolding in specific tasks, and organizing/managing the class.

7.7 Conclusions

Firstly, I will consider some theoretical implications that can be drawn from this thesis, which can serve as the basis for future research into motivation to learn languages other than English (LOTEs), especially in the UK context. One of the most relevant contribution of this study is that it illustrates the importance of combining various existing theoretical approaches in the field of L2 motivation research, in order to deeply probe the multifarious and complex nature of this phenomenon.

At the onset of the investigation, the foundations of our research rested upon the quantitative data derived from a pre-existing instrument, widely-employed within the *L2 Motivational Self System* domain⁸¹. However, as the research unfolded by incorporating the qualitative findings, the mixed-methods design enabled us to gain a a greater research scope and to interpret the findings through a multi-lens view. Relying on additional L2 motivation templates – i.e., *Self-Determination Theory*, *Attribution Theory*, *Expectancy-Value Theory*, *Self-Worthy Theory*, *Dynamic Systems Theory* - multiple perspectives led us to shed light on a wide range of contextual-dependent facets of L2 motivation at different levels of analysis.

As a result of the triangulation process, a multi-layer framework of L2 motivation therefore emerged, subsuming multifarious variables at different levels: 1) *the Student Level*

⁸¹Taguchi et al.'s (2009) student questionnaire was employed in a large-scale comparative study in order to validate Dörnyei's *L2 Motivational Self System* (see section 3.7).

2) the *Context Level* 3) the *Teacher Level*, 4) the *L2 Learning Experience Level*. In many respects, this motivational framework resonates with previous models of L2 motivation, especially with Busse's (2010) *Expanded L2 Motivation System*, Gurtner's (2001) *Multilayer Model of Context*, and Dörnyei's (1994) *Multilevel Framework of L2 Motivation*.

The several mutual relationships among the various factors, and the dynamic nature of the L2 motivational process, furthermore, led us to believe that the model obtained could be considered as a complex dynamic system. As we can clearly see from Fig. 51, the four levels can be conceptualized as subsystems, graphically represented as overlapping and nested together; however, the complex interplay of multiple components (variables) that make up the entire system of L2 motivation are difficult to visualize.

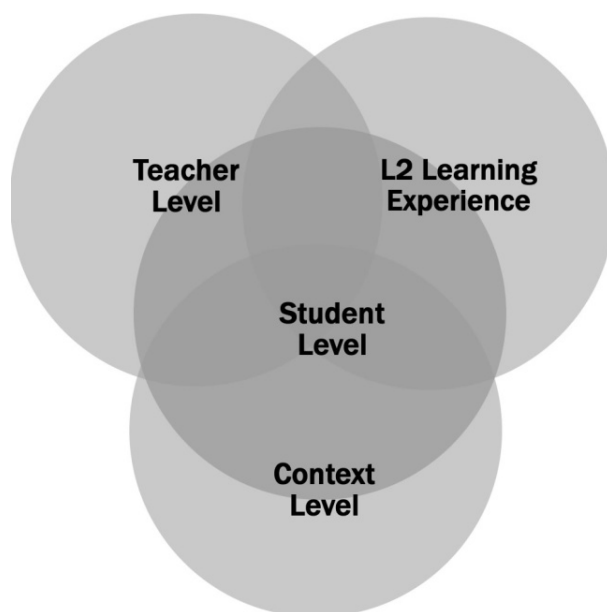


Figure 51. Conceptualization of Student L2 Motivation as a Four-Level Complex Dynamica System

Most importantly, as the *Teacher Level* and the *L2 Learning Experience Level* emerged as overarching themes from the analysis of data, they can be considered as two of the major components (subsystems) in the final model of L2 motivation, as displayed in Fig. 52. In this perspective, the L2 classroom experience represents the chronotope whereby the entire L2 motivation process unfolds in a complex web of relationships. The pedagogical and practical implications of this conclusion are made clear by the current thesis: teachers should place more attention on those teaching practices and activities that facilitate student L2 learning motivation, and especially promote those strategies that enhance student L2

metacognitive awareness. In other words, rather than focusing students' attention solely on learning the language, teachers can help learners understand and control their own learning process, by developing effective metacognitive skills that support and enhance both language motivation and proficiency.

Some methodological issues raised in the thesis should also be addressed in future research, concerning the necessity of implementing innovative qualitative methods to approach Complex Dynamics Systems in L2 motivation research, an issue that still requires further investigation at this stage of knowledge and experience in the field, as already pointed out in section 4.1.1. Nevertheless, these methodological considerations do not invalidate the significant results achieved in the current thesis, since the *triangulation method* enhanced the trustworthiness of the findings— also achieved through the consistency with previous empirical studies - and enabled us to make a promising contribution to the research in this field, overcoming some methodological impasses.

For example, we were able to disentangle some discrepancies concerning the operationalization of the *Ought-to L2 self*, whose lack of significance in the quantitative analysis is attributable to its original conceptualization and, consequently, to the related incomplete scale in the student questionnaire employed in the survey. This prevented us from quantitatively measuring a number of prevented-related motives and regulatory orientations that are crucial to understand English students' L2 motivational profile, which, on the other hand, we were able to identify thanks to the contribution of the qualitative analysis and to a *Self-Determination* interpretative approach to L2 motivation (see section 7.2.2).

Most importantly, the above considerations ultimately led us to recommend that an amendment of the *Ought-to L2 Self* scale of the student questionnaire should be made in further L2 motivation research, especially in the English context. In the new reformulation, *Ought-to L2 self* becomes the key to understanding how secondary school students self-internalize external influences, which affect their perceptions, beliefs and attitudes towards language learning. To our knowledge, in fact, very few studies have addressed, to some extent, the topic of how external factors influence L2 secondary school students' beliefs about language learning in the UK. Thus, this topic requires further investigation.

Although this study adopted a mixed-methods approach that enabled us to shed light on many aspects related to L2 motivation, recommendations for future research also regard the need to introduce more observational, longitudinal investigations, which will also help deeply explore the interplay of various dynamic systems involved in the L2 motivation

system (eg., *anxiety*, *L2 Willingness to communicate*) in real time, by capturing any variances in adolescent learners' motivation across different time-scales. Keeping in view the available resources and time, we were in fact not able to conduct class-based research that could benefit from innovative approaches (eg., the *idiodynamic method*), which have recently provided a valuable contribution to the research in this field.

Furthermore, the current study presents a number of limitations derived from the student sample type employed in the research. As this is composed of a homogeneous population (i.e., a British population, where 90% of both parents speak English as a first language), we were not able to measure the impact of the L1 (other than English) on L2 motivational factors. For this reason, therefore, our results are not generalizable to multicultural English school contexts where the MFL learnt at school represents student's L3 or L4.

Last but not least, this thesis also draws up relevant recommendations for both policy makers and teachers. As the important educational implications of the L2 culture in the L2 classroom have been downplayed across the various MFL policy documents to date, this aspect should be reconsidered and granted the right place in the MFL curriculum. Not only will this contribute to enhancing students' L2 motivation and intercultural awareness, but also it will be conducive to broadening students' minds and educating them to be global citizens, despite Brexit and the British insularism - as some teachers suggested. This process will ultimately result in significant consequences for British culture as a whole.

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APPENDIX A INITIAL FRAMEWORK OF L2 MOTIVATION VARIABLES				SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES	
Variables	Objectives	Questionnaire Items	Interviews		
1. Criterion Measure	Students' intended effort to learn the L2	6; 28; 32; 37	X	SD1	Gender 1. Male 2. Female
2. Ideal L2 Self	Students' vision of themselves using the L2 in the future	15; 18; 27; 33; 38	X	SD2	Nationality 1. UK 2. EU 3. Former Colony 4. Other 5. Dual Nationality
3. Ought-to L2 Self	The attributes students believes they ought to possess in terms of duties, obligations or responsibilities, in order to meet others' (peers', teachers' or family's) expectations and to gain their approval	12; 17; 35	X		
4. Parental Encouragement/ Family Influence	The support and encouragement that students perceive they have received from their parents	2; 10; 17; 36	X	SD3	School Year
5. Instrumentality (Promotion)	The regulation of learning behaviour in order to achieve practical or pragmatic goals such as making money, finding a good job or progressing to further studies	4; 13; 25	X	SD4	FL 1. Spanish 2. French 3. German 4. Other 5. French + Spanish 6. French + Ger 7. Fre + Spa + Ger 8. Spa + Ita
6. Travel Orientation	The importance of L2 learning in relation to students' desire to travel	1; 20	X		
7. Instrumentality (Prevention)	The regulation of learning behaviour in order to fulfil duties and obligations, and to avoid negative outcomes such as failure in an exam	14; 30; 41	X		
8. L2 Self-Confidence	Students' linguistic confidence	5; 39; 40	X	SD5	Courses Abroad 1. Yes 2. No
9. L2 Anxiety:	Students' uneasiness, discomfort or apprehension when learning a foreign language.	7; 19; 49	X	SD6	Years Study
10. Attitudes toward L2 Learning/ Interest	Students' attitudes/ interest towards languages	8; 21; 24; 29; 31	X	SD7	L1 student 1. English 2. Other
11. Cultural Interest	Students' attitudes and interest towards L2 culture	3; 22; 26; 50	X		
12. Attitudes toward L2 Community:	Students' attitudes towards L2 speakers	16; 43; 45; 46	X	SD8	L1 Parent 1. M. & F. Eng. 2. M or F not Eng. 3. M & F English
13. Integrativeness	Students' general positive outlook on L2 language and L2 culture; students' identification with L2 speakers.	42; 44; 48	X		
14. International Posture:	Students' interest in foreign or international affairs and openness toward different cultures	9; 11; 23; 34; 47	X		
15. L2 Intercultural Willingness to Communicate	Students' willingness to communicate in L2 with foreign speakers in an intercultural context.	51; 52; 53; 54	X	SD9	School 1. SchoolK 2. SchoolH 3. SchoolW
				SD10	School Term 1. First Term 2. Last Term

APPENDIX B

Combined List of the Items Included in the Student Questionnaire

Scales for statement-type items (Part 1):

- | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| 1 (Strongly disagree) | 2 (Disagree) | 3 (Slightly disagree) |
| 4 (Slightly agree) | 5 (Agree) | 6 (Strongly agree) |

Scales for question-type items (Part 2):

- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| 1 (Not at all) | 2 (Not so much) | 3 (So-so) |
| 4 (A little) | 5 (Quite a lot) | 6 (Very much) |

1) CRITERION MEASURE:

- 6. I would like to study Spanish/French/German even if I were not required.
- 28. I think that I am doing my best to learn Spanish /French/German.
- 32. If a Spanish/French/German course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.
- 37 I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning Spanish/French/German.

2) IDEAL L2 SELF

- 15. I can imagine myself writing Spanish/French/German e-mails/letters fluently.
- 18. I can imagine a situation where I am speaking Spanish/French/German with foreigners.
- 27. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using Spanish/ French/German.
- 33. The things I want to do in the future require me to use Spanish/French/German.
- 38. In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who has the ability to express his or her opinions or thoughts accurately in Spanish/French/German.

3) OUGHT-TO L2 SELF

- 12. Learning Spanish/French/German is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.
- 17. I have to study Spanish/French/German because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.
- 35. Studying Spanish/ French/German is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/ family.

4)PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT /FAMILY INFLUENCE

- 2. My parents encourage me to study Spanish/French/German.
- 10. My parents encourage me to take every opportunity to use my Spanish/French/German (e.g., speaking and reading).

17. I have to study Spanish/French/German because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.

36. My parents encourage me to attend extra Spanish/French classes after class (e.g., at Spanish/French/German conversation schools).

5) INSTRUMENTALITY (PROMOTION)

4. Studying Spanish/French/German can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job and/or making money.

13. Studying Spanish/French/German can be important to me because I think I'll need for further studies.

25. Studying Spanish/French/German is important to me because it offers a new challenge in my life.

6) TRAVEL ORIENTATION

1. Learning Spanish/French/German is important to me because I would like to travel internationally.

20. Learning Spanish/French/German is important to me because I plan to travel to Spanish/French-speaking countries in the future.

7) INSTRUMENTALITY – PREVENTION

14. Studying Spanish/French/German is important to me, because I would feel ashamed if I got bad grades in Spanish/French.

30. Studying Spanish is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score mark or a fail grade in Spanish/French/German proficiency tests (eg., GCSE exams).

41. Studying Spanish/French/German is important to me because, if I don't have knowledge of Spanish/French, I'll be considered a weak learner.

8) L2 SELF-CONFIDENCE

5. If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master Spanish/ French/German.

39. I am sure I have a good ability to learn Spanish/French/German.

40. I believe that I will be capable of reading and understanding most texts in Spanish/French/German if I keep studying it.

9) L2 ANXIETY

7. I would feel uneasy speaking Spanish/French/German with a native speaker.

19. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my Spanish/French/German class.

49. How afraid are you of sounding stupid in English because of the mistakes you make?

10) ATTITUDES TOWARD L2 LEARNING (INTEREST)

- 8. I like the atmosphere of my Spanish/French/German classes.
- 21. I always look forward to Spanish/French/German classes.
- 24. I find learning Spanish/French/German very interesting.
- 29. I really enjoy learning Spanish/French/German.
- 31. I think time passes faster while studying Spanish/French/German.

11) CULTURAL INTEREST

- 3. I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.
- 22. I like Spanish/French/German magazines, newspapers and books.
- 26. I like French/Spanish/German films.
- 50. Do you like the music of Spanish-/French-/ German-speaking countries (e.g., pop music)?

12) ATTITUDES TOWARD L2 COMMUNITY

- 16. I would like to chat with native speakers on social networking sites (Twitter, Facebook...).
- 43. Do you like the people who live in Spanish-/French-/ German-speaking countries?
- 45. Do you like meeting people from Spanish-/French-/ German-speaking countries?
- 46. Would you like to know more about people from Spanish-/French-/German-speaking countries?

13) INTEGRATIVENESS

- 42. How important do you think learning Spanish/French/German is in order to learn more about the culture and art of its speakers?
- 44. How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak Spanish/French/German.
- 48. How much would you like to belong to a group of people who communicate through Spanish/French/German?

14) INTERNATIONAL POSTURE

- 9. I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life.
- 11. I would like to experience a different culture through an educational and cultural exchange program abroad.
- 23. I often talk about events in foreign countries with my family and/or friends.
- 34. I often watch world news on television or the internet.
- 47. How much would you like to be considered a "citizen of the world"?

15) L2 INTERCULTURAL WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

51. How much would you like to have a Skype conversation in Spanish/French/German with a Spanish/French/German native speaker?
52. How much would you like to have a small-group conversation in Spanish/French/German with foreign students?
53. Would you like to communicate in Spanish/French/German to help a foreigner who is in trouble at a train station or a restaurant?
54. Would you like to talk in Spanish/French/German with a stranger on international topics?

APPENDIX C

L2 Student Questionnaire

This survey is conducted by the University of Almeria, Spain, to better understand the thoughts and beliefs of learners of Spanish/ French/German. This questionnaire consists of 3 sections. Please read each instruction and write your answers. This is not a test, so there are no “right” or “wrong” answers and you do not even have to write your name on it. The results of this survey will be used only for research purpose, so please give your answers sincerely. Thank you very much for your help!

PART 1

In this part, we would like you to tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by simply circling a member from 1 to 6. Please do not leave out any items.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

(Ex) I like skiing very much 1 2 3 4 5 6

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Learning Spanish/French/German is important to me because I would like to travel internationally						
2. My parents encourage me to study Spanish/French/German.						
3. I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.						
4. Studying Spanish/French/German can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job and/or making money.						
5. If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master Spanish/ French/German.						
6. I would like to study Spanish/French/German even if I were not required.						
7. I would feel uneasy speaking Spanish/French/German with a native speaker.						
8. I like the atmosphere of my Spanish/French/German classes.						
9. I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life.						
10. My parents encourage me to take every opportunity to use my Spanish/French/German (e.g., speaking and reading).						
11. I would like to experience a different culture through an educational and cultural exchange program abroad.						
12. Learning Spanish/French/German is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.						
13. Studying Spanish/French/German can be important to me because I think I'll need for further studies.						
14. Studying Spanish/French/German is important to me, because I would feel ashamed if I got bad grades in Spanish/French/German.						
15. I can imagine myself writing Spanish/French/German e-mails/letters fluently.						
16. I would like to chat with native speakers on social networking sites (Twitter, Facebook...).						

17. I have to study Spanish/French/German because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I can imagine a situation where I am speaking Spanish/French/German with foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my Spanish/French/German class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Learning Spanish/French is important to me because I plan to travel to Spanish-/French-/German-speaking countries in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I always look forward to Spanish/French/German classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I like Spanish/French/German magazines, newspapers and books.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I often talk about events in foreign countries with my family and/or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I find learning Spanish/French/German very interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Studying Spanish/French/German is important to me because it offers a new challenge in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I like French/Spanish/German films.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using Spanish/French/German.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I think that I am doing my best to learn Spanish/French/German.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I really enjoy learning Spanish/French/German.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Studying Spanish/French/German is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score mark or a fail grade in Spanish/French/German proficiency tests (eg., GCESE exams).	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I think time passes faster while studying Spanish/French/German.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. If a Spanish/French/German course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. The things I want to do in the future require me to use Spanish/French/German.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I often watch world news on television or the internet.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. Studying Spanish/French/German is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/ teachers/ family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. My parents encourage me to attend extra Spanish/French/German classes after class (e.g., at Spanish/French conversation schools).	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning Spanish/French/German.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who has the ability to express his or her opinions or thoughts accurately in Spanish/French/German.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I am sure I have a good ability to learn Spanish/French/German.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. I believe that I will be capable of reading and understanding most texts in Spanish/French/German if I keep studying it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. Studying Spanish/French/German is important to me because, if I don't have knowledge of Spanish/French/German, I'll be considered a weak learner.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PART 2

These are new questions, but please answer them the same way as you did before.

Not at all	Not so much	So-so	A little	Quite a lot	Very much	
1	2	3	4	5	6	
42. How important do you think learning Spanish/French/German is in order to learn more about the culture and art of its speakers?	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. Do you like the people who live in Spanish-/French-/German-speaking countries?	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak Spanish/French/German?	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. Do you like meeting people from Spanish-/French-/German-speaking countries?	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. Would you like to know more about people from Spanish-/French-/German-speaking countries?	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. How much would you like to be considered a “citizen of the world”?	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. How much would you like to belong to a group of people who communicate through Spanish/French/German?	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. How afraid are you of sounding stupid in English because of the mistakes you make?	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. Do you like the music of Spanish/French-speaking countries (e.g., pop music)?	1	2	3	4	5	6
51. How much would you like to have a Skype conversation in Spanish/French/German with a Spanish/French native speaker?	1	2	3	4	5	6
52. How much would you like to have a small-group conversation in Spanish/French/German with foreign students?	1	2	3	4	5	6
53. Would you like to communicate in Spanish/French/German to help a foreigner who is in trouble at a train station or a restaurant?	1	2	3	4	5	6
54. Would you like to talk in Spanish/French with a stranger on international topics?						

PART 3

Please provide the following information by ticking (√) in the box or writing your response in the space.

Gender: Male Female

Nationality:

Age :.....

School Year:

Foreign Language: French Spanish Other:.....

Spanish/French Courses Abroad: Yes No

I have been studying Spanish/French foryears.

APPENDIX D

Semi-Structured Interview Guide

- 1) How many Modern Foreign Language teachers are there in this school?
- 2) Are they newly recruited?
- 3) What recruitment procedures does the school follow for MFL teachers?
- 4) What kind of training for teachers and professional development does the government provide for teachers?
- 5) How many students are there in this school?
- 6) How many students study languages altogether?
- 7) How many foreign languages are taught in this school?
- 8) How many languages do you teach?
- 9) How long have you been teaching Modern Foreign Languages in secondary school?
How about in this school?
- 10) What qualifications did you achieve in order to teach Modern Foreign Languages?
- 11) How many classes do you currently teach?
- 12) How many students are there in each class?
- 13) How many hours do students study languages per week?
- 14) How important is it for your students to learn a foreign language?
- 15) What do you do to make them aware of the importance of language learning?
- 16) What are the major influences on students' motivation to learn languages?
- 17) Are your classes involved in any kind of student exchange program?
- 18) How do your students feel about communicating in the target language with other students from different cultures?
- 19) How do you usually start a language lesson? Describe the first five minutes of your typical lesson.
- 20) What strategies do you usually use to boost students' motivation?
- 21) What language activities do your students enjoy the most?
- 22) How about your students' attitudes towards the target language culture?
- 23) How do factors such as gender and age affect your students' motivation and attitudes towards languages?
- 24) To what extent do you use the target language in your classes?
- 25) What are your views on teaching grammar?

- 26) What do you know about CLIL approach to teaching languages?
- 27) What about the last languages GCSE results? Do they show a positive trend or are they below the expected levels?
- 28) What is the situation like in in this school in relation to the national statistics regarding languages GCSE uptake?
- 29) What are the main objectives of teaching foreign languages in this school?
- 30) How would you rank the various components of teaching-i.e., listening, reading, writing, speaking and culture - in importance and why?
- 31) What are the most focused skills in language teaching in your school?
- 32) How do you integrate ICT in your lessons?
- 33) What are the major constraints/barriers that hinder language learning in secondary school?
- 34) To what extent has the recent EBacc Reform affected MFL teaching in your school and in the UK?