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DOKTORI DISSZERTÁCIÓ

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THE MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING PRACTICE OF TEACHERS AND THE SELF-REGULATORY SYSTEM OF STUDENTS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

(A tanárok motivációs gyakorlata és a diákok önszabályozó tanulása
az angolórán)

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation intends to uncover how secondary school English teachers' motivational teaching practice and their students' self-regulation interact, with a special emphasis being placed on the relationship between teachers' motivational strategies and the students' motivational disposition. The aim of the study was to identify potential patterns in how teachers motivate their students to learn, and also to establish the nature of the link between the teachers' motivational repertoire and their students' self-regulation.

The study is of mixed methodology, and includes both quantitative and qualitative elements. Questionnaires were used to uncover statistical relationships between various factors in student motivation, such as differences between groups of students in how they are motivated, and correlations of scales and motivated language learning behaviour; regression analysis was used to show predictor variables of motivated language learning behaviour. Interviews, on the other hand, served to map out teachers' and students' opinions and beliefs. Observation was used to complement data collection. The participants in the main study included five teachers and 101 of their students from two different secondary schools.

The findings include (i) references to the motivational teaching practice of the teachers, (ii) the role of motivational strategies in the motivational teaching practice and motivated language learning behaviour, (iii) results on the extent to which secondary school students are self-regulating, and (iv) the complex interplay between motivational strategies and self-regulation. The study draws important conclusions about pedagogical practice in general, and further research in particular.

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PART I
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

The earliest inspiration as to the topic of this dissertation came at the very beginning of my teaching career, when, like most new teachers, I had to face the realities of teaching first hand for the first time. Although university does its best to prepare future teachers for as many situations in teaching as possible, it soon becomes evident that this preparation has its limitations. It takes only a few distressing moments for a newly-graduated teacher to realise that not everyone is interested in learning English, and after this initial shock they try to find the causes. In some cases, they try to apply some of the techniques that were taught at university, among which we can find motivational strategies. If a teacher is more committed, they can start action research or a PhD course.

However, it is not only teachers who would like to learn more about students' motivation. The reasons for why students act the way they do have attracted a great number of both researchers and applied linguists, all looking to find answers to this question. Motivation research dates back decades, and although in the educational setting Gardner and his colleagues' work focussing specifically on English-speaking Canadians learning French (e.g., Gardner, 1985, 2001, 2006; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) is the first to be acknowledged, the concept of motivation seized researchers' imagination well before the Canadian scholars' investigations (Fodor, 2007). In terms of psychology, other researchers were interested

in more general questions, and, working in very different research paradigms such as behaviourism or cognitive psychology, developed several theories that explain aspects of human behaviour. Four of these theories are presented in this dissertation in Chapter 2 (Goal theories, Self-determination theory, Attribution theory and Action control theory).

What is more interesting to a teacher of English, however, is the use of these theories in relation to language. Educational psychology started to apply some of these theories mentioned above, and at the same time researchers drew attention to the classroom from a wide context (such as Gardner's socio-educational model). In addition, classroom-inspired applications, for instance motivational strategies and learning skills development aimed at fostering autonomy, were created that had a direct relevance in teaching language. Other issues, such as classroom dynamics and self-regulation research, found their way into teachers' life and their teaching practice. Although in Hungary a relatively old-fashioned method is typically still used in teaching, and more situation- and context-bound methods are needed (Nikolov, 2009a, 2009b), this dissertation highlights examples of best practices and attempts to suggest paths for development.

There is still a great number of questions that are unanswered. For instance, more information is needed on how motivation changes over time (longitudinal studies), what are the variables that are more intricably interrelated than was originally thought (cf. dynamic systems), what practices work effectively in the classrooms, and how students can become more autonomous learners. My dissertation aims to answer questions that are at the interface of motivation and self-regulation research, namely, how teachers can use their teaching practice more effectively, how their teaching

practice affects their students' motivation to learn, and how the students can develop their own self-regulatory system.

The dissertation is divided into two parts: Part I provides an overview of the theoretical background to the study, while Part II details the actual research that was conducted. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 discusses two main trends in researching human behaviour: motivation and self-regulation. In both cases, the roots and origins of the concepts, the research conducted and the theories developed are presented, along with the evolution of the concepts. Furthermore, applications directly relevant to the classroom, such as the motivational teaching practice or motivational strategies in the case of motivation, and developmental stages and instructional aspects in the case of self-regulation, are considered. The theories and concepts that are directly relevant to my research are highlighted, and finally, the potential interactions through which motivation and self-regulation research can inform and feed on each other are presented.

Part II of the dissertation consists of five chapters. Chapter 3 reports on the methods used in the research. Firstly, the rationale and the research niche are introduced, then the research questions are posed. Next, the pilot studies, including details of the participants, instruments and setting, and the necessary changes that were put forward, are outlined. Finally, the methods of the main study, including the participants and the setting, the instruments and procedures, and the data analysis, are discussed.

In Chapters 4 and 5 the results are presented, with explanations and analysis given in Chapter 6, in the discussion section. Chapter 4 details the results of the quantitative analysis. This includes the descriptive statistics of the scales, a comparison of the scales, a comparison of the teachers on the different scales, and the establishment

of relevant relationships between the various scales of the questionnaires and the criterion measure, namely motivated language learning behaviour.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the qualitative data gathered during the interviews. This chapter is organised according to the following themes which emerged during analysis (cf. Maykut & Morehouse, 1994): managing the class (materials, feedback, praise, humour, etc.), the intangible side of teaching (the atmosphere in class, the teacher's personality and the teacher-student relationship), motivating by goals, and various self-regulation-related issues, such as autonomy, building blocks of self-regulation, how to foster self-regulation, etc.

Chapter 6 discusses the issues arising in Chapters 4 and 5. It makes an attempt to give an explanation of the data which emerged, and highlights interconnections between factors that were previously not known or clear. This chapter is organised with reference to the research questions, so that all the issues addressed in Chapter 3 are dealt with. Finally, Chapter 7 summarises the findings, considers the limitations of the study and the pedagogical implications, and makes suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION AND OF SELF-REGULATION

There has long been an interest in why people behave in certain ways and, when doing so, what the triggers of the action are, and what surface manifestations can be observed as a result of launching action. Research on motivation and self-regulation is mostly interested in exactly these questions, that is, what are the causal and behavioural aspects of engaging in an activity. Motivation research can inform us about the deeply rooted causes of action, as well as identification issues, and also how behaviour is controlled. In addition, classroom-based research can help to provide psychological insights, in terms of actual teaching and learning. Self-regulation research, on the other hand, can provide us with information as to how these often hidden or invisible reasons take shape, in the form of planning, executing and monitoring action. More often than not, only these overt behaviours lend themselves to teacher intervention, and it is at exactly this point where motivation and self-regulation research can inform each other about why people act in a certain way at a certain point in time. In this chapter, I will present these two paradigms on researching human behaviour, and at the end of the chapter I will show how the two lines of research connect with each other, and how combining the two approaches in one research project can produce potentially fruitful outcomes as to classroom-based research in order to understand student behaviour in more depth.

2.1 Motivation research

Motivation is an oft-cited concept when it comes to language teaching and learning (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994a, 2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2009a, 2009b; Gardner, 1985, 2001, 2006; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993), most probably because teachers are eager to find new approaches and techniques which might result in more successful language learning. Motivation research can help us uncover these issues and, combined with research in self-regulation, autonomy, and strategies in language learning to name just a few, can also help inform us about further issues, such as the interrelation of motivated learning behaviour, self-regulation and autonomy in different learner groups (Kormos & Csizér, in press) or programmes to help students foster language learning skills and cooperation in English classes (Szénásiné Steiner, 2011). There are as many definitions of motivation as there are research studies and research paradigms, which, at times, makes it challenging to compare results. In this chapter, therefore, I will describe motivation and how researchers conceive of it depending on their scholarly interest.

2.1.1 The socio-educational model of second language acquisition

Motivation research in psychology and education dates back decades, and models and theories have come a long way since the first concepts were formulated. Gardner and his colleagues' pioneering research in Canada (e.g., Gardner, 1985, 2001, 2006; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) defined motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language" (Gardner, 1985, p. 10). The research was carried out in a second language learning environment, and thus focusses

on second language acquisition (SLA) in the classroom. In SLA the L2 has an essential role as a vehicle of communication (Ellis, 1994) as opposed to foreign language learning (FLA), which usually takes place in classrooms in an environment where the target language is not spoken by the community in everyday situations (such as learning English in Hungary). Gardner and his associates studied native English speakers learning French and found that attitudes play a key role in motivation. The focal point of the social-psychological or social-educational model is the fact that attitudes towards L2 speakers and the L2 community play a crucial role in determining achievement (L2 learning behaviour) (Gardner, 1985), and at its core lies the composite element of the integrative motive, which is made up of integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation.

Integrativeness is “a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community” (Gardner, 2001, p. 5), while attitudes toward the learning situation reflect “attitudes toward any aspect of the situation in which the language is learned” (Gardner, 2001, p. 5), including factors related to the course, the teacher, the material, etc. Integrativeness and attitudes, constantly influencing each other, are the antecedents of motivation, and the three together form integrative motivation. Integrative motivation leads to language achievement, which is supported by language aptitude as well as other factors, including goals, aspirations, attributions or instrumental motivation. However, Tremblay and Gardner’s (1995) study on the socio-educational model, using structural equation modelling, showed that the basic structure of the model remains the same, regardless of other variables introduced.

Two pairs of ideas, the integrative-instrumental dichotomy and the motivation or orientation dilemma, induced heated debate and considerable misunderstanding about the Gardnerian model. Gardner incorporated several similar terms, including integrative

motivation, integrative motive, and integrativeness within one model (giving rise to several questions and harsh criticism), while instrumental motivation was not part of the model. After stripping down the theory to the instrumental-integrative motivation dichotomy, where individuals learn an L2 for external reasons (instrumental motivation), or for the sake of learning the language (integrative motivation), the concept earned him world-wide recognition. However, recent advances in motivation research have shown that there is a far more complex interplay between motivational antecedents, and that these terms are not mutually exclusive (e.g., Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009).

What Gardner (1985) meant was that an individual who was integratively motivated had both the desire to learn the target language and the favourable attitudes to do so. It is nevertheless motivation, rather than other variables or orientations, that leads to language achievement. Integrative motivation is “a complex of attitudinal, goal-directed, and motivational attributes” (Gardner, 2001, p. 6). Integrative motivation is often confused with integrative orientation, which is conceived of as the reasons for studying a language. In Gardner’s view, reasons do not lead to achievement, only motivation. Confusion over the terms led several researchers to question the validity of the concept, to make an attempt to reformulate it, or even to abandon it altogether. Dörnyei (2003, 2005), for example, argues that the “core aspect of the integrative disposition is some sort of a psychological and emotional *identification*” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 97, original emphasis). In the original Gardnerian sense this identification meant the L2 community, but, as Dörnyei (1990) pointed out, identification can occur in the absence of an L2 group. Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) showed that, although integrativeness plays a key role in motivation, this might mean a different kind of

identification, that is, an identification process taking place within one's self-concept, rather than a sense of identifying with the L2 community.

The instrumental-integrative dichotomy spread not only throughout the research community but also amongst language teachers. Furthermore, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), developed by Gardner and his colleagues, which measured motivation in the socio-educational paradigm, became easily accessible and widely used. This instrument comprises the following 11 scales: motivational intensity, desire to learn French, attitudes toward learning French, integrative orientation, attitudes toward French Canadians, interest in foreign languages, French teacher evaluation, French course evaluation, French class anxiety, French use anxiety, and instrumental orientation. Several studies used or adapted the AMTB to assess students' language learning motivation, and even meta-analyses were carried out (e.g., Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant & Mihic, 2004; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). These studies suggested a strong support for the model with several antecedents, but they also indicated that motivation is the dominant antecedent of achievement.

A summary of the research verifying the use of the AMTB can be found in the meta-analysis conducted by Masgoret and Gardner (2003). Having reviewed 75 studies with independent samples that had been conducted using the instrument, the authors claimed to have found "strong support for the proposition that integrative motivation promotes successful second language acquisition" (p. 154). They hypothesised that (i) previous findings using the AMTB were consistent, and achievement, attitudes, motivation and orientations were positively linked; (ii) there is a stronger relationship between attitudes, motivation, and orientations to language achievement in second language environments as opposed to foreign language environments; and (iii) age and

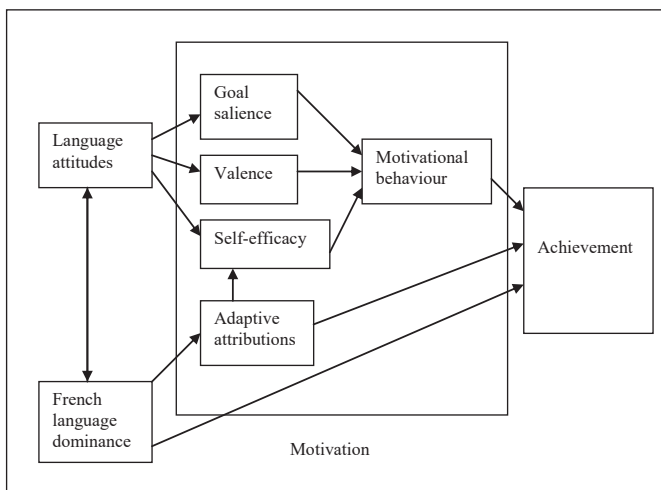
experience have no clear moderating effects on language achievement. They demonstrated the validity of the model, and also stated that the strongest correlations among the ones that had been proposed were between achievement and motivation. Several variables were linked to achievement, but of these, motivation was the most powerful. The authors strongly rejected the criticism of Au (1988), who claimed that there is no conclusive evidence for the validity of the socio-educational model of motivation. Their rejection was based on the various non-consistent definitions used throughout the research which had taken place subsequent to Gardner and his colleagues' original theories (most of which were not related to Gardner's (1985) elaboration of motivation or integrativeness), on the fact that the instruments used were not related to the AMTB, and also on the fact that the meta-analysis included several of the studies mentioned by Au (1988).

Tremblay and Gardner (1995) expanded the socio-educational model by including persistence, attention, goal specificity, and causal attributions besides attitudes, motivation and achievement in their model of second language acquisition. According to Dörnyei (2003), this was the first model to explicitly link orientation studies and Goal theories. Figure 2.1 shows a simplified version of the model. All the suggested paths proved significant, suggesting that goals, valence and self-efficacy mediate the relationship between attitudes and achievement, and also that French language dominance, which is "an indication of ability to use the French language" (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995, pp. 509-510), and motivational behaviour directly influence achievement.

Gardner and his associates' work laid a solid foundation for investigating motivation, which is still traceable in current research and classroom applications. The concepts of effort, desire, attitudes, goals, orientations and integrativeness, some of

which are directly or indirectly present in my study in the form of the ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self (cf. integrativeness), instrumental orientation, international orientation (cf. orientation vs. motivation) and self-efficacy, are crucial aspects of motivation. Although the term of integrativeness seems to have been replaced by the concept of the L2 self, the basic building blocks of Gardner's theory have not been superseded and are incorporated into this study.

Figure 2.1 A simplified version of Tremblay and Gardner's (1995, p. 510) expanded model of second language learning motivation



2.1.2 Theories of motivation in psychology

What follows is a brief description of some influential theories of motivation in psychology, namely: Goal theories, Self-determination theory, Attribution theory, and Action control theory. The selection of these theories reflects the importance attached to

these notions as the recent, classroom-based conceptualisations of motivation (e.g., Dörnyei, 2009b; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010) draw heavily on them, incorporating several elements from these theories. However, other important issues such as self, identity and dynamic systems have also emerged throughout the evolution of motivation research. These subjects will be examined in Section 2.1.5.

2.1.2.1 Goal theories

Goal theories are based on the presupposition that most human behaviour is goal-oriented (Locke & Latham, 1999). Although goals have long been studied in psychology, there still seems to be some confusion about the definition of the term (Elliot & Fryer, 2008). They can be explained as anchor points or guiding principles (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000), “the ‘engine’ to fire the action and provide the direction in which to act” (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 25), or, more precisely, “a cognitive representation of a future object that the organism is committed to approach or avoid” (Elliot & Fryer, 2008, p. 244). Others view goals as “the cognitive link between our general motives and specific behaviours” (Shah & Kruglanski, 2000, p. 102). In defining goals, the following features can be taken into account or ignored: internal representation, focus on the future, desired possibility, movement or the focal point of movement, commitment, affect, standards of behaviour, wishes and fantasies; in some cases goals are treated as quasi-synonyms to needs, motives or drives (Elliot & Fryer, 2008). Needs, however, have been replaced by goals in psychological research, according to Dörnyei (2001b). Two Goal theories are widely recognised: the Goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990), and Goal orientation theory (Ames, 1992).

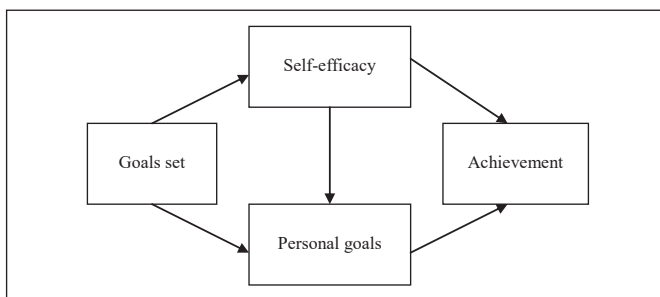
Goal-setting theory

The basic tenet of Goal-setting theory is that humans set and pursue goals, which have certain properties. According to Locke and Latham (1999), three important goal properties are specificity, difficulty and commitment to the goal. Regarding specificity, a goal can be vague or specific. The achievement of humans with specific goals is more likely than that of people with vague goals (Dörnyei, 2001b). Atkinson (1958) found that achievement will correspond to an inverse U-shaped curve, where lower achievement and very difficult goals correspond. However, this finding was challenged in more recent research, which concluded that the more difficult a goal, the greater the achievement (Fodor, 2007; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996), and that specific and difficult goals lead to higher achievement (Locke & Latham, 1999). In addition, goals that are attractive or important will lead to higher goal commitment. A goal conflict can arise if one's commitment to different goals is not clear, which can be detrimental and eventually lower goal commitment (Shah & Kruglanski, 2000). Some other aspects that have been studied in connection with goals are the intensity of goals, the goals of others (i.e., goals set by teachers or parents), and the effect of peers or rewards (Locke & Latham, 1999). The goal construct of Locke and Latham is widely used, and researchers in the self-regulation paradigm tend to conceptualise goals in a similar fashion (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

Goals affect behaviour in the following ways: (i) they direct attention and effort, (ii) they regulate effort expenditure, (iii) they encourage persistence, and (iv) they activate search for action plans and strategies (Dörnyei, 2001b; Locke & Latham, 1999). Maes and Gebhardt (2000) suggest that goals tend to be fulfilled if (i) they are important to the individual, (ii) they are neither too difficult nor too easy to achieve, and (iii) fulfilment is within a set time. At the same time, goals, achievement and self-efficacy

are interrelated, in that people with higher self-efficacy set higher goal challenges, have higher commitment to these goals, attribute their failures to insufficient effort instead of lack of cognitive abilities (cf. Attribution theory), consider themselves capable of carrying out action (cf. Expectancy-value theory), and do not withdraw from action in the face of difficulty (Bandura, 1994). Locke and Latham's (1999) conceptualisation of these three concepts can be seen in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 The interrelationship of goals, self-efficacy and achievement (Locke & Latham, 1999, p. 28)



Goal orientation theory

Goal orientation theory was put forward to explain children's learning and performance (Dörnyei, 2001b; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). It is assumed that there are two main types of goals directing behaviour. The first type is a learning goal (also referred to as mastery goal, task goal, task-involved goal, task orientation, or mastery orientation), which involves developing new skills and improving competence, with focus on the content (Dörnyei, 2001b; Pintrich, 2000); the second type is a performance goal (or ego-involved goal, ego orientation, or performance orientation), which emphasises self-worth, surpassing others, or getting good grades (Dörnyei, 2001b;

Pintrich, 2000). According to Pintrich and Schunk (1996), the distinction between these two types of orientation is analogous to the intrinsic-extrinsic motivation. Other types of goals which cannot be classified in either of the above categories include social goals that students display in learning or in a classroom setting, in order to fulfil social aspirations (Fuente Arias, 2004).

Both learning and performance goals can have two foci: approach or avoidance. However, it is not clear whether avoidance-mastery goals exist in actual reality (Pintrich, 2000). Current research emphasises the intricate relationship between these different types of goals, highlighting that, in itself, no type of goal is superior or inferior, and that social goals seem to have a complementary function to both learning and performance goals (Fuente Arias, 2004; Pintrich, 2000). Bacsá (2008) showed that both types of goals are present and clearly distinguishable in 13-year-old Hungarian learners of English, and hypothesised that this distinction relates to the style of teaching (i.e., traditional vs. modern methods), but this latter presupposition lacks evidence (cf. Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). Józsa (2007) points out that well-developed mastery and performance orientation, in conjunction, prompt adaptive students, and is characteristic of self-regulating learners with high levels of achievement. Avoidance behaviours often lead to approach behaviours and vice versa (Carver & Scheier, 2000), just as the extrinsic or intrinsic nature of these goals can be turned into each other as a function of the goal (Józsa, 2007).

Classroom situations shed light on why goals are so important in the teaching-learning process. As mentioned above, Boekaerts and Niemivirta (2000) describe goals as anchor points and guiding principles, and it is this property of goals that can help students frame their learning and give them reference points. In a classroom setting, goals should be clear, specific, measurable, challenging and realistic. Both short-term

and long-term goals should be set, they should have a confirmed completion date, and teachers should provide feedback on them (Dörnyei, 2001a). Proximal goal-setting is of utmost importance (Dörnyei, 2001a; Locke & Latham, 1999) as it increases self-efficacy, positively influences self-appraisal, and short term-goals encourage persistence in students (Locke & Latham, 1999). In a classroom setting, proximal goals are translated into “natural subgoals” (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 82), such as forthcoming tests or a book to read at the weekend. Although goals are considered of great importance in language teaching, they are very much underutilised strategies in teaching (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001a; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Mezei, 2007; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

The relevance of Goal theories in the classroom is easy to comprehend. Classroom work is organised around goals (Mezei, 2011), and two phases of Dörnyei’s (2001a) motivational teaching practice directly address the issue of goals. In the stage of generating initial motivation (second phase), teachers encourage the students to identify with the goals of the class, while in the stage of maintaining and protecting motivation (third phase) the students are encouraged to set goals, and are prevented from abandoning goals. In fact, most teachers’ work develops student learning by encouraging students to set and pursue goals. Moreover, the issue of motivation, i.e., motivating the students to learn and self-regulation, which is at the heart of this research project, cannot be imagined without the presence of goals.

2.1.2.2 Self-determination theory

Human beings are born with an intrinsic interest, natural curiosity, and are challenge-seeking (Ryan & Deci, 2000) – this realisation stands at the heart of Self-


determination theory. Deci and Ryan (1985) formulated this theory in order to account for the “natural processes of self-motivation and healthy psychological development” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 68), and developed a continuum of motivations, which are often reduced or simplified to the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy. Extrinsic motivation refers to “the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71), in other words, in order to receive some extrinsic reward or avoid punishment. It is a “natural inclination toward assimilation, mastery, spontaneous interest, and exploration” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70). On the other hand, intrinsic motivation refers to “doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71). In their view it is human nature to have “the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one’s capacities, to explore, and to learn” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70).

Variability in intrinsic motivation is explained by Cognitive evaluation theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The factors that play a role in this theory are relatedness, competence and autonomy, but they only interact if circumstances are supportive. Thus, optimal challenge, choice, acknowledgement of feelings, opportunities for self-direction or activities with an appeal of novelty, challenge or aesthetic value will be conducive to intrinsic motivation; tangible rewards, threats, deadlines, directives, or imposed goals will hinder it.

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is explained by Organismic integration theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), which highlights the different forms that extrinsic motivation can take. It is important to note that these forms are not distinct points, rather, they can be placed along a continuum and express “the differing degrees to which the value and regulation of the requested behavior have been internalised and integrated” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 71). Contextual factors determine the extent to

which internalisation takes place, and inevitably one does not pass through all the stages. The authors (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) describe amotivation, meaning no real intention to act, as the third important form of self-regulation. Table 2.1 shows the different types of motivation with the corresponding regulatory styles.

Table 2.1 The self-determination continuum (based on Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000)

Behaviour	Motivation	Regulatory style	Examples
 Nonself-determined	Amotivation	Non-regulation	Not valuing the L2
		External regulation	Teacher's praise, parental confrontation
	Extrinsic motivation	Introjected regulation	Doing homework in order not to feel guilty
		Identified regulation	Learning a language which is necessary to pursue a hobby
Self-determined	Intrinsic motivation	Integrated regulation	Learning a language because it is part of being educated
		Intrinsic regulation	Finding delight in learning a new way to express an idea in the L2

The following description of these types of regulation are based on Ryan and Deci (2000) with examples from Dörnyei (2001b), Noels (2001), and Noels, Clément and Pelletier (1999). The least self-determined form of motivation is amotivation, which expresses a lack of motivation which can be the result of not valuing an activity, not feeling competent enough, or not expecting the desired outcome. External regulation occurs when one performs an activity contrary to one's personal desires, in order to comply with external demand and control, often resulting in alienation; it was typically contrasted with intrinsic motivation in early studies. Introjected regulation occurs to avoid feeling guilt or anxiety, and also when people want to demonstrate ability; combined with external regulation, introjected regulation forms a controlled motivation composite. Identified regulation happens when one accepts and values an action. Integrated regulation is rather similar to intrinsic motivation, but it is considered

separate because of the extrinsic outcome that is attached to it. In some studies identified regulation and integrated regulation are grouped together to form an autonomous motivation composite (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

An issue for Deci and Ryan is how to promote a sense of autonomy that would facilitate intrinsic motivation. Autonomy in their view is related to the feeling of volition (Ryan & Deci, 2000), rather than to independence, collectivist or individualistic acts. Also, extrinsically motivated acts can be turned into more intrinsic forms of motivation but only if three basic needs – relatedness, competence and autonomy – are present. They are innate and universal, but can differ culturally. If these three needs are not in evidence, alienation and ill-being can result.

Noels, Clément and Pelletier (1999) found that more self-determined individuals are likely to experience less anxiety and greater motivational intensity, and are more likely to persist with language studies. Learners with amotivation feel less competence, greater anxiety, lower motivational intensity and less desire to continue their language studies. The teacher's communicative style was found to have an effect on self-determination, in that supporting autonomy and providing informative feedback enhance the sense of self-determination and enjoyment. This finding, however, might not be relevant in the case of extrinsically motivated students.

Intrinsic motivation stems from the self (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, it is not surprising that in line with the degree of internalisation in Self-determination theory, Dörnyei's (2009a) self-guides can play a role in internalisation in the form of promotion (ideal self) and prevention (ought-to self) (Dörnyei, 2009a; Noels, 2009). Noels (2009), in connection with self and identity issues, and also related to the motivated involvement in the learning process, raises some questions in connection with the theory. One concern is the overlap between intrinsic and internalised extrinsic

motivation, another concern is the hypothesised primacy of autonomy, as autonomy might be viewed differently in Western and Eastern cultures. In addition, there has been debate among researchers regarding the interrelationship between autonomy, forms of self-determination, and identity issues on the one hand, and collaboration, competence, Asian cultures, and different contexts on the other hand. Regardless, Ryan and Deci (2000) consider autonomy to be related to volition, as was pointed out above.

Relevance of the theory to the classroom environment can be found, for example, in the idea of making the students move along the continuum so that they become more self-determined. This is important for the reasons Noels, Clément and Pelletier (1999) discovered, namely, that more self-determined students will feel more competent and more persistent. Dörnyei (2001a) recommends greater student involvement in the teaching-learning process, promoting learner autonomy and offering choices to students as ways of fostering autonomy and self-determination. In addition, Dörnyei's (2001a) list of motivational strategies includes several techniques to enhance self-determination and intrinsic motivation.

2.1.2.3 Attribution theory

Attribution theory holds that people are motivated to carry out action because they want to understand their surroundings by way of identifying causes of events. These perceptions will cause them to act in a certain way, thus, people will attribute their success or failure to different causes in the environment or themselves (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Weiner, 1992). These attributions are various and can be grouped into different categories, such as achievement, interpersonal attraction, wealth/poverty, or health/illness (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). The most frequent attributions are, however,

aptitude, skill, effort, difficulty, luck, mood, family background, and help from others (Dörnyei, 2001a; Graham, 1999; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). It must be pointed out that these attributions are perceived causes of events and are sometimes far from reality (cf. learned helplessness), in other words, they are explanations for success or failure (Dweck, 1999). These explanations or attributions can have a far-reaching effect on subsequent behaviour.

Attributions have different dimensions; according to Weiner (1992, 2007), these dimensions are the locus dimension, the stability dimension, and the controllability dimension.

1. Locus: This dimension places causes within or outside the individual (i.e., internal or external causes), that is, whether it emanates from within the individual or belongs to the environment. A typical internal cause is aptitude or effort, a typical external cause is task difficulty or luck.
2. Stability: This dimension concerns itself with the effects of time and differing situations on a cause, in other words whether the cause is fixed or variable. For instance, skill or ability are perceived as stable causes, whereas mood and luck are unstable causes.
3. Controllability: This is a dimension concerned with the control one has over a cause. In the case of effort, for instance, one has a high control, while in the case of luck or difficulty of the task, one has no real control.

These attributions play a variety of effects on individuals and are linked to achievement expectations (Dweck, 1999; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). For example, in a test, if one attributes causes to internal factors, such as effort, it is fairly easy to work harder and achieve better grades next time. On the other hand, if one perceives one's failure in a test as a result of teacher bias or task difficulty (both external causes), these attributes

will still remain hard to control next time. In the case of failure, stable, internal and uncontrollable causes are the most detrimental (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996), while if an individual attributes success to an internal and stable cause (e.g., aptitude), they are more likely to succeed. Learned helplessness is a maladaptive strategy to failure (Dweck, 1999).

However, it is possible to affect people's attributions. Pintrich and Schunk (1996) highlight that it is the lack of knowledge about attributions that can lead to poor outcomes, not the decision to attribute causes to negative factors. Dweck (1999) views attributions in the context of individuals' self-theories and goals, while Williams and Burden (1997) experimented with teachers' attribution profiles to highlight the individual patterns in people's attributions. The classroom relevance of Attribution theory is clearly visible in Dörnyei's (2001a) attempt to encourage teachers to promote motivational attributions in their students since attributions, as was seen above, can affect language learning and achievement in fundamental ways.

2.1.2.4 Action control theory

Although Action control theory is not a fully-formed theory (Dörnyei, 2001b), it explains several aspects of motivation that are worthy of investigation, including the temporal phases of action, the distinction between volition and intention formation, and crossing the Rubicon. The first aspect is temporal phases in motivational processing. As implementing action requires distinct steps prior to initiating action, by identifying the stages that lead to actual performance it is possible to investigate motivation from a dynamic, rather than static, viewpoint (Heckhausen, 1991). Since there are several points between the arousal of motivation and the implementation of action where a

process can be abandoned, this approach to motivation highlights the fact that considering motivation as a stable factor cannot account for certain types of learning withdrawal, such as dropping out of a course or language learning altogether, or becoming demotivated.

Another aspect is the fact that volition and intention formation are different from motivation. Intention formation and initiation of action have been identified as the two “critical junctions in the path from motivation to action” Heckhausen (1991, p. 11). This means that the will to act in itself is not enough to launch action, and actually performing an act is a separate stage that bridges the gap between motivation and action.

A third aspect of the model is the so-called “crossing the Rubicon” effect, which is directly related to volition and intention formation as referred to above. Heckhausen (1991) and Kuhl (1987) made a distinction between wanting to do something (volition) and actually carrying out action (performance). This distinction explains behaviour when one intends to perform an act, for instance, learning a language or going to a language course, but fails to do so because of the gap between volition and implementation. The model also explains early abandonment of certain undertakings. Making this last step is referred to as crossing the Rubicon (Dörnyei, 2001b).

According to Dörnyei (2001b), this model gave rise to ensuing research into self-regulation, for instance, more specifically self-regulatory mechanisms and strategies that are related to motivation and affect. Self-regulation is a possible way of referring to these mechanisms – from choice of goal and intention formation to performance. Indeed, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) used Action control theory as the basis for their process model of L2 motivation, upon which Dörnyei (2001a) built his motivational teaching practice. In sum, Action control theory helps to clarify the

potential discrepancy between people's aspiration, intention and performance in a way that it becomes clear why it is not enough to only have the dream to speak a language for instance, or why there are so many people who fail to learn a language due to the lack of intention formation or inability to cross the Rubicon. Classroom relevance of the theory can relate to situations in which students seem to be motivated, but fail to carry out action or do not have a good record of achievement. In addition, it can help identify students who have problems with intention formation or the volitional aspects of action, instead of labelling them lazy or demotivated.

2.1.3 The cognitive-situated period

The realisation that the macrocontext (i.e., Gardner and his colleagues' line of investigation) was different from the microcontext (i.e., the classroom where L2 learning takes place in most countries) led to a shift in conceptualising motivation, as researchers attempted to develop education-friendly approaches to motivation. The focus on the classroom provided more real-life insights into the teaching-learning process, and took into account the needs and possibilities of L2 learners. In their seminal paper Crookes and Schmidt (1991) explained why motivation research to date was no longer satisfactory. Factors such as motivation research's sole focus on social-psychological aspects, its lack of link to classroom situations, and the lack of a clear distinction between attitudes and motivation led Crookes and Schmidt to "reopen the research agenda" (p. 469).

Researchers' active participation in the ensuing discussion was well documented in *The Modern Language Journal* in 1994, wherein Gardner and Tremblay (1994a, 1994b), Dörnyei (1994a, 1994b), Oxford (1994), and Oxford and Shearin (1994)

exchanged their opinions about motivation and motivating students to learn. What is common in these views is the wish to expand the theoretical framework (Oxford & Shearin, 1994): they used Gardner and his associates' early work as a starting point, and urged that other fields in psychology and education be incorporated (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994a). Although Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Dörnyei (1994a), and Oxford and Shearin (1994) did not intend to imply that Gardner and his associates' work was directly related to teaching languages, they all made a step forward in applying Gardner's results to the field of language teaching.

The shift in focus, and the common understanding that more insights into classrooms were needed, opened up new paths to uncovering motivation in students. Motivation research found a new platform in the 1990s, the classroom, which inevitably led to the formulation of new approaches, newly designed conceptualisations of motivation, and the reinterpretation of the role of students and teachers alike. In the following sections, the most important undertakings will be summarised: Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) seminal paper; Dörnyei's (1994a) model of foreign language learning motivation; Williams and Burden's (1997) interactive model of motivation; and the research into motivational strategies.

2.1.3.1 Crookes and Schmidt's research agenda

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) consider second language learning “an extended process, often taking place both inside and outside the classroom over a number of years [and in which] the learner takes an active role at many levels of the process” (p. 483). They analysed four levels of learning in order to map the connection between motivation and second language learning. These are as follows: (i) the micro level, that

is, the motivational effects on cognitive processing, (ii) the classroom level, (iii) the syllabus level, and (iv) out-of-class and long-term factors. They also suggested that a motivation theory should not be limited to incorporating particular groups or contexts exclusively. Table 2.2 summarises the concepts they considered essential in renewing thinking on motivation.

Table 2.2 The four levels of Crookes and Schmidt’s motivation for second language learning (based on Crookes & Schmidt, 1991)

Level	Concepts discussed	Related areas
Micro level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • attention to input • learning strategies 	allocation of attention: voluntary, not entirely voluntary, involuntary metacognitive strategies: directed or selected attention
Classroom level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • activities • need for affiliation • interest and curiosity • feedback • self-perceptions • materials 	relevance group work less conventional techniques and materials role of performance goals and rewards past experiences, locus of control, self-efficacy, learned helplessness interest (format & content)
Syllabus/ curriculum level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • needs analysis 	self-management, metacognitive strategies, motivational skills training
Outside the classroom/ long-term learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • formal vs. informal settings • motivational conflicts 	taking advantage of the situation, persistence, contact with natives strategies, goals

The strength of this conceptualisation lies in the fact that the authors managed to distinguish different areas in motivation research, all of which are closely linked to the actual teaching-learning process that takes place in the classroom. The concepts discussed corresponding to these levels, however, seem to be to a certain extent haphazard, and thus far from complete. Mention of parents and peers could have been made, and it is curious that the impact of the teacher is missing from the framework. It should be noted, however, that Crookes and Schmidt did not claim that they would create a full model, and this factor should be taken into account when considering any criticisms of their work.

Based on the framework presented in Table 2.2, the authors went on to outline a research agenda in order to address the questions they felt were missing from current research on motivation. They did so in the belief that the problem was due partly to the fact that the methods used for investigation were limited (mostly correlational) in nature, and also that the socio-educational model was “so dominant that alternative concepts have not been seriously considered” (p. 501). Nevertheless, they revealed the link between motivation research and the classroom, and their article paved the way for future research, serving as a reference point, even if only indirectly and implicitly, for much classroom-based research.

2.1.3.2 Dörnyei’s tripartite model

A somewhat similar model to that of Crookes and Schmidt’s (1991) is Dörnyei’s (1994a) conceptualisation of motivation in the foreign language classroom. However, it is more organised in the sense that the areas covered in the model seem to correspond to all the important aspects of the teaching-learning process; furthermore, Dörnyei drew on existing psychological research (general, industrial, cognitive developmental and educational psychology) when developing the framework. Table 2.3 shows the components of foreign language learning motivation, as conceived by Dörnyei (1994a).

Table 2.3 Components of foreign language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 1994a, p. 280)

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative motivational subsystem Instrumental motivational subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for achievement Self-confidence * Language use anxiety * Perceived L2 competence * Causal attributions * Self-efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL	
<i>Course-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
<i>Teacher-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Affiliative drive Authority type Direct socialization of motivation * Modelling * Task presentation * Feedback
<i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientedness Norm & reward system Group cohesion Classroom goal structure

The fact that Dörnyei draws on different branches of psychology and various motivational theories is due to the multifaceted nature and role of language, which, according to him, inevitably results in a theory of an eclectic nature. His model consists of three levels: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level, which correspond to the three basic elements of the language learning process (the L2, the L2 learner, and the L2 learning environment), respectively. The language level consists of two subsystems which relate to Gardner's work, highlighting affective, social and cultural elements, as well as some extrinsic and pragmatic reasons (cf. integrative and instrumental motivation). The second level, the learner level, includes two main components, the need for achievement and self-confidence, the latter incorporating other elements such as anxiety, competence, attributions, and self-efficacy. These constituents draw on different traditions in motivation research: Achievement theory, Expectancy-value theory, Clément's linguistic self-confidence

(Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994), Attribution theory, and Bandura's (1986, 1994) self-efficacy. Finally, the third level, the learning situation level, is divided into three components: course-specific motivational components, teacher-specific motivational components, and group-specific motivational components. The first addresses issues related to the syllabus, the material, the teaching method, and the learning task (cf. Crookes & Schmidt, 1991); the second comprises elements such as pleasing the teacher, authority type, and socialisation (this latter element broken into modelling, task presentation, and feedback); and the last relates to issues that are of the utmost importance when dealing with groups, namely, goal-orientedness, the norm and reward system, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure (cf. group dynamics: Csizér, Holló & Károly, 2011; Dörnyei, 1997; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998).

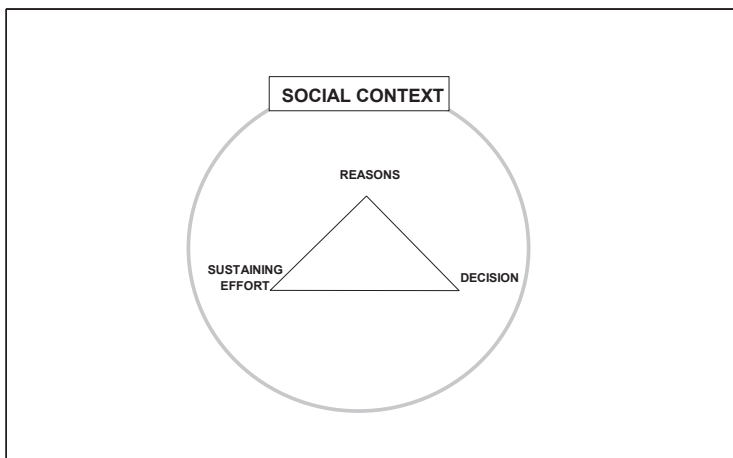
The model itself is of a theoretical nature, however, parts of it have been tested empirically (the ones that correspond to existing theories in motivation research, e.g., Gardner and his associates' research projects). Dörnyei's aim was to expand the thinking on motivation and relate it more closely to the classroom setting. Therefore, on the basis of the model of foreign language learning motivation, Dörnyei also presented a list of thirty motivational strategies, directly applicable to the classroom. This list also serves as the basis for one of the questionnaires applied in this study.

2.1.3.3 Williams and Burden's interactive model of motivation

A more dynamic model is presented by Williams and Burden (1997), who take a social constructivist perspective on motivation. Their model is composed of three stages: reasons for doing something → deciding to do something → sustaining the effort, or persisting. These three stages do not act as a simple chain, but rather affect one

another in a non-linear manner (see Figure 2.3). In this interactive model, Williams and Burden consider the first two stages as initiating motivation, whereas the third one refers to sustaining motivation. The three stages are placed into a social context since language learning cannot be separated from social issues as was discussed above. They regard their model as “essentially cognitive”, but one that “fits within a social constructivist framework” (p. 120). Thus, the authors define motivation “as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)” (p. 120). This conceptualisation of motivation involves reference to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, perceived task value, arousal, learner beliefs including agency beliefs, locus of causality and of control, motivational style, goals, significant others, and feedback. In addition, the model also takes temporal perspectives into account.

Figure 2.3 Williams and Burden’s interactive model of motivation (1997, p. 122)



Williams and Burden's (1997) framework of L2 motivation is summarised in Table 2.4. It shows how internal and external factors have an effect on one another in a dynamic fashion, and also on the decision to act although no relationship or priority was intended (Williams & Burden, 1997). Csizér (2003) pointed out that, because of the several layers Williams and Burden built the model on, it is not possible to test it empirically within a single framework, but it does serve as an excellent guiding point for empirical research such as the one reported in this dissertation.

Table 2.4 Internal and external factors contributing to motivation (Williams & Burden, 1997, pp. 138-140)

Internal factors	External factors
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intrinsic interest of activity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arousal of curiosity • Optimal degree of challenge 2. Perceived value of activity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal relevance • Anticipated value of outcomes • Intrinsic value attributed to the activity 3. Sense of agency <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Locus of causality • Locus of control • Ability to set appropriate goals 4. Mastery <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feelings of competence • Awareness of developing skill and mastery in a chosen area • Self efficacy 5. 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 6. Attitudes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To language learning in general • To the target language • To the target language community and culture 7. Other affective states <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confidence • Anxiety, fear 8. Developmental age and stage 9. Gender 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Significant others <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents • Teachers • Peers 2. 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 3. 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 4. The broader context <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wider family networks • The local education system • Conflicting interests • Cultural norms • Societal expectations and attitudes

2.1.3.4 Motivational strategies

For decades there was no interest in devising a systematic approach to motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 1997, 1998); rather they were considered “unsystematic “bag-of-tricks” approaches” (Good & Brophy, 1994, p. 212). Without an attempt to list or categorise these techniques, research was focussed on needs analysis (Jones & Jones, 1990). Good and Brophy’s (1994) and Brophy’s (1987) considerations were the first to offer a more orderly reflection on the issue. Brophy (1987), for example, organised his “starter set of motivational strategies” (p. 45) around five points:

1. Essential preconditions: preliminaries without which motivational strategies cannot succeed,
2. Motivating by maintaining success expectations: this idea draws on achievement motivation, efficacy perceptions, and causal attributions,
3. Motivating by supplying extrinsic incentives: that is, connecting successful task performance and rewards,
4. Motivating by capitalising on students’ intrinsic motivation: in other words emphasising interest and enjoyment,
5. Stimulating student motivation to learn: taking academic activities seriously.

This starter set consists of 33 motivational strategies; the Good and Brophy (1994) framework is an extension of it, in a more detailed format. The authors of these collections do not report on empirical data collection, however, Jones and Jones (1990), generated data on the basis of 400 teachers’ experience.

In this respect, the study Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) conducted is a step forward. They carried out a nationwide study to investigate the perceived frequency and usefulness of motivational strategies in Hungary. The end result is the “Ten

commandments for motivating language learners” (see Table 2.5), which includes the ten most important motivational techniques as suggested by teachers. A particularly interesting finding is that promoting goal-orientedness (an idea also expressed by Oxford and Shearin [1994]), and the teacher’s behaviour in motivating students are relatively underused techniques. It is emphasised nevertheless that “no motivational strategy has absolute and general value” (p. 224). The strength of this study lies in its empirical nature. Unfortunately, teachers’ beliefs were not contrasted with students’ opinions to make the results more valid.

Table 2.5 Ten commandments for motivating language learners (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 215)

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

The Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) study was replicated with similar results by Xavier (2005) in Brazil, and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan. The studies suggest cultural variation in the importance and use of motivational strategies. The findings of the Cheng and Dörnyei study show that goals are still problematic almost a decade later in a completely different cultural context, and that there are also some mismatches between actual (reported) use and attached importance in the case of certain strategies. The most underutilised strategy in this study was “make the learning tasks more stimulating” (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 167). The main finding, however, was that there are some strategies that seem to be culturally bound, and some that are likely to be universal. The culturally dependent strategies include autonomy-related issues, creating

interesting classes, and recognising effort and hard work; the universal strategies include teacher behaviour as a model, promoting self-confidence, creating pleasant classroom climate, and presenting tasks properly.

A comprehensive collection of motivational strategies, along with a precise definition, is found in Dörnyei's (2001a) motivational teaching practice, which offers 35 motivational strategies (macrostrategies), with more than 100 concrete suggestions (microstrategies). According to Dörnyei (2001a), motivational strategies "refer to those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect" (p. 28). Dörnyei (1994a) also emphasises that these strategies are "not rock-solid golden rules, but rather suggestions" (p. 280) that may work with one teacher but not with another one, or may fail to work on a given day. The first collection of motivational strategies was based on his tripartite model's three levels: the language level, the learner level, and the learning-situation level, while the motivational teaching practice is a logical follow-up to the process model of motivation by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). Dörnyei himself (2001a) emphasises the logical structure of this approach, illustrating how the process of motivation, from arousal to evaluation, can be followed. The motivational teaching practice can be seen in Figure 2.4, with the corresponding macrostrategies in Table 2.6.

Figure 2.4 Motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 29)

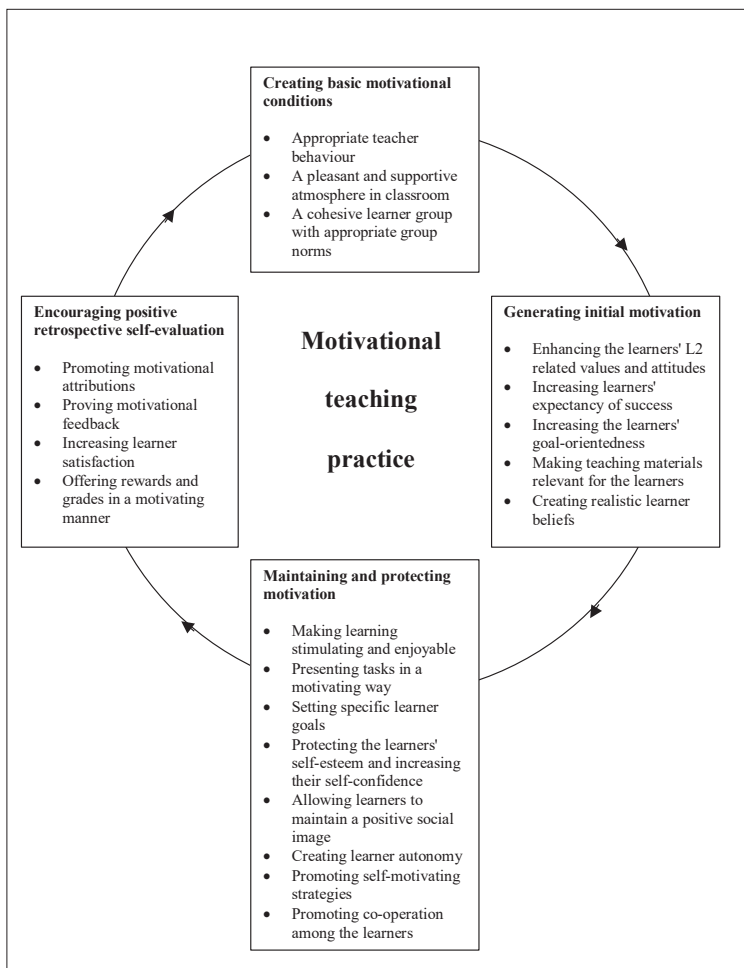


Table 2.6 Motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2001a)

-
1. Demonstrate and talk about your own enthusiasm for the course materials, and how it affects you personally.
 2. Take the students' learning very seriously.
 3. Develop a personal relationship with your students.
 4. Develop a collaborative relationship with students' parents.
 5. Create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom.
 6. Promote the development of group cohesiveness.
 7. Formulate group norms explicitly and have them discussed and accepted by the learners.
 8. Have the group norms consistently observed.
 9. Promote the learners' language-related values by presenting peer role models.
 10. Raise the learners' intrinsic interest in the L2 learning process.
 11. Promote 'integrative' values by encouraging a positive and open-minded disposition towards the L2 and its speakers, and towards foreignness in general.
 12. Promote the students' awareness of the instrumental values associated with the knowledge of an L2.
 13. Increase the students' expectancy of success in particular tasks and in learning in general.
 14. Increase your students' goal-orientedness by formulating explicit goals accepted by them.
 15. Make the curriculum and the teaching materials relevant to the students.
 16. Help to create realistic learner belief.
 17. Make learning more stimulating and enjoyable by breaking the monotony of classroom events.
 18. Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing the attractiveness of the tasks.
 19. Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by enlisting them as active task participants.
 20. Present and administer tasks in a motivating way.
 21. Use goal-setting methods in your classroom.
 22. Use contracting methods with your students to formalise their goal commitment.
 23. Provide learners with regular experiences of success.
 24. Build your learners' confidence by providing regular encouragement.
 25. Help diminish language anxiety by removing or reducing the anxiety provoking elements in the learning environment.
 26. Build your learners' confidence in their learning abilities by teaching them various learning strategies.
 27. Allow learners to maintain a positive social image while engaged in the learning tasks.
 28. Increase student motivation by promoting co-operation among learners.
 29. Increase student motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy.
 30. Increase the students' self-motivating capacity.
 31. Promote effort attribution in your students.
 32. Provide students with positive information feedback.
 33. Increase learner satisfaction.
 34. Offer rewards in a motivational manner.
 35. Use grades in a motivating manner, reducing as much as possible their demotivating impact.
-

The above-mentioned sets of suggestions have both their merits and drawbacks.

The strength of them lies in the fact that various aspects of the learning process have been taken into account, and the scholars have provided teachers with a wide range of motivational strategies to use in the classroom to motivate their students to learn. However, this is a drawback at the same time because, as Dörnyei (1997) notes, over-long lists are discouraging and threatening in the sense that they focus teachers'

attention on how much they do not do, rather than how much they do. One particular criticism that should be pointed out is that most of the above-mentioned lists of strategies are based on “sound theoretical considerations” (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 2), and only a few researchers have made an attempt to look at these strategies where they are most needed, in the language classroom. As Csizér (2003) put it, “[a] serious limitation of motivational strategy research is that no empirical studies have been conducted to test the actual usefulness of these strategies in motivating language learners in classrooms” (p. 74), a valid observation, as also pointed out by Bernaus and Gardner (2008).

There are some exceptions, however, as the following three studies show. Mezei and Csizér’s case study (2005) sought to link Dörnyei’s (2001a) suggestions, i.e., motivational strategies, the teacher, the students and the setting, in a secondary school environment in Budapest. The study aimed to show how a teacher uses motivational strategies in class, and what effect this has on the students. They found that the motivational teaching practice can indeed be linked to motivated student behaviour, that the motivational strategies mostly used concerned the first and third phases of Dörnyei’s (2001a) model, and that both the teacher and the students had difficulty in articulating their views on motivational strategies.

Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) examined how teachers’ motivational teaching practice and their students’ language learning motivation are interrelated. A student questionnaire was developed, and a post-lesson teacher evaluation scale was also used. The authors consider their observation scheme, the MOLT (Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching), a novel approach in motivational strategy research. The research design allows for real-time observation of these strategies, and later the items lend themselves to statistical analyses. The researchers found that there is indeed a link between teachers’ motivational teaching practice and motivated language learning

behaviour. Furthermore, the motivational teaching practice affects students' appreciation of the course in the long run, which, in turn, has an impact on students' approach to specific tasks.

Finally, a case study on an English teacher without a teaching qualification (Mezei, 2008b) suggested that most probably a teacher's ability to motivate or not is not a function of a BA or MA degree. The personality of the teacher seems to play a more vital role in motivating students to learn (cf. Heitzmann, 2008); in addition, experience can have favourable effects. This study showed that the teacher and her students can feel that the teaching-learning environment is motivating, even though the teacher is not qualified (although the students had no knowledge of this fact at the time).

Part of motivating students to learn is to improve their own skills to motivate themselves. These techniques are called self-motivating strategies, their focus being on self-regulatory processes and autonomy, both of which are crucial in that it is the student who is responsible for his/her own learning in the first place. Dörnyei (2001a) divides self-motivating strategies into five categories: commitment control strategies, metacognitive control strategies, satiation control strategies, emotion control strategies, and environmental control strategies. Wolters (1999), on the basis of factor analytical results, mentions interest enhancement, performance self-talk, self-consequating, mastery self-talk, and environmental control as part of motivational regulation, and at the same time predictors of the use of learning strategies. Pintrich (2000) gives an overview of strategies to control motivation and affect, while Réthy (2003) considers how the learning environment can affect language learning motivation, and, closely linking her ideas to motivation and self-regulation, what the key concepts of quality teaching are.

Numerous hints, suggestions and pieces of advice have been put forward by researchers, in order that teachers might become more effective educators. The lists seem to be endless; however, researchers also argue that it would be impossible to incorporate all the suggestions into our teaching practice, and what works today might be ineffective tomorrow (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994a). In spite of this, more empirical research is needed to unravel links between teachers' everyday practice and motivated language learning behaviour. Dörnyei (2001a) claims furthermore that

“What we need is *quality* rather than quantity. A few well-chosen strategies that suit both you and your learners might take you beyond the threshold of the ‘good enough motivator’, creating an overall positive motivational climate in the classroom. Some of the most motivating teachers often rely on a few basic techniques” (p. 136).

This section has illustrated attempts to equip teachers with techniques that will help them to motivate their students, by using concrete advice generated from logical considerations and mostly questionnaire studies. It is clear, however, that the research carried out so far is lacking in a number of areas, including utilising student involvement in research, combining the investigation with other directly relevant issues such as autonomy or self-regulation, and measuring the effect of motivational strategies on motivated language learning behaviour. This dissertation will seek to close these gaps.

2.1.4 Temporal perspectives

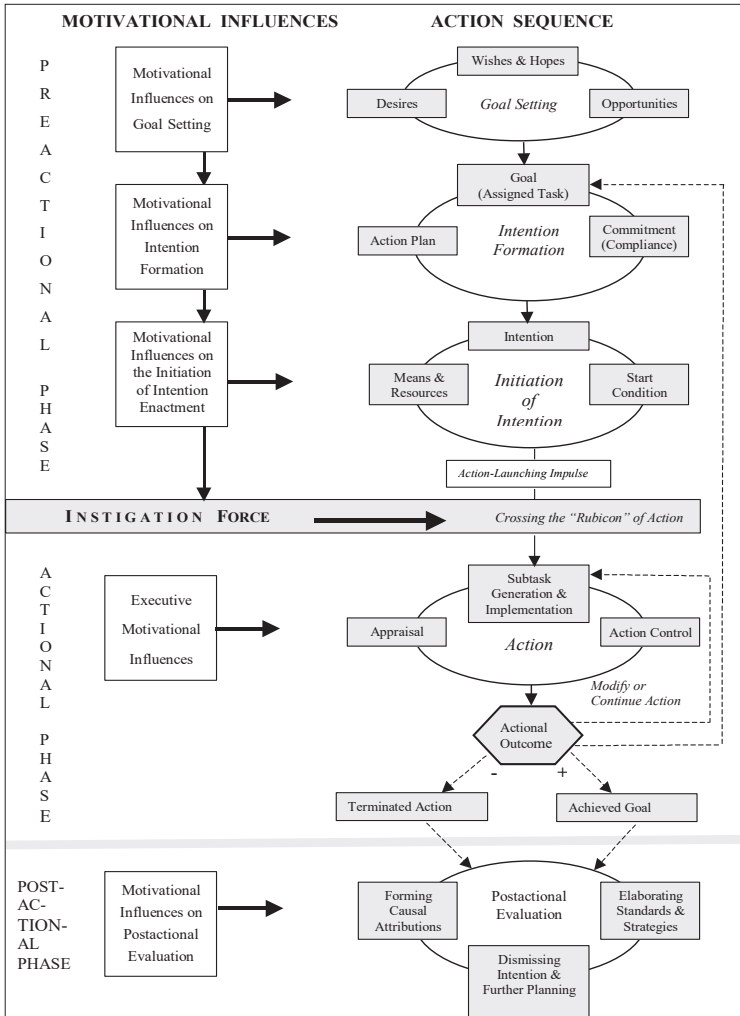
Prior to the education-friendly models of motivation, the element of time was not considered part of research. However, including temporal perspectives in any kind of motivational theory seems plausible for at least two reasons, according to Dörnyei (2001b): (i) in contrast to several studies conceptualising motivation as stable, it evolves

gradually, and (ii) as language learning is a long-term endeavour, with “the daily ebb and flow of motivation” (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 16), it cannot be expected to remain constant. He proposes that different motivational theories can fully explain the behaviour of a student, yet, they might seem to contradict each other, simply because they provide explanation for behaviour in different phases of a long-term undertaking. Dörnyei further argues that although it is a truism to say that motivation changes over time, only a few theories account for the changing nature of motivation (cf. Action control theory). Longitudinal studies, therefore, are needed in order for us to be able to explain motivational changes.

Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) model of motivation grew out of the need to include temporal aspects and motivational influences in the classroom in a motivational theory, and also challenged the previous disregard of motivation being dynamic and changing. Their model, closely linked with research on motivational strategies, considered this crucial element in language teaching. They posit a three-stage framework, with two dimensions and complex subprocesses (see Figure 2.5). The first dimension is motivational influences, referring to “the energy sources and motivational forces that underlie and fuel the behavioural process” (p. 47); the second dimension is action sequence, which represents

“the behavioural process whereby initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into goals, then into intentions, leading eventually to action and, hopefully, to the accomplishment of the goals, after which the process is submitted to final evaluation” (p. 47).

Figure 2.5 Dörnyei and Ottó's process model of L2 motivation (1998, p. 48)



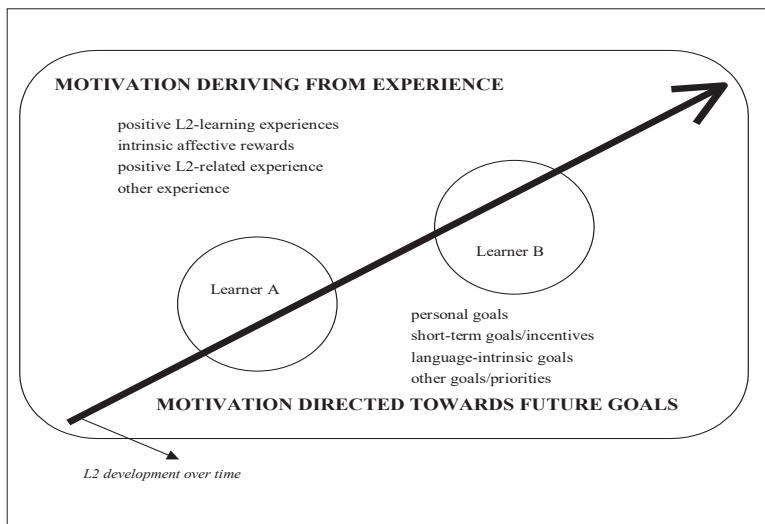
In the preactional phase, the following actions take place: goal setting, intention formation, and initiation of intention enactment. This initial phase is where vague ideas

and future goals start to take shape, and wishes, hopes, desires, and even opportunities might later turn into concrete goals. Intention formation expresses the idea that goals, as evidenced by both an action plan and commitment, have taken shape (cf. Goal theories). The final sequence, initiation of intention, shows that the individual has the intention, means and resources in hand, and is prepared to start to carry out action. The next step is to cross the Rubicon. This concept comes from Action control theory (Heckhausen, 1991), and expresses the idea that implementation of action is ready to begin, with the learner's intention now transformed into action. In the next phase, the actional phase, subtask generation and implementation, appraisal, and action control are realised with an actional outcome. The individual can then modify their goal or continue action, or alternatively move on to postactional evaluation via terminated action or an achieved goal. The final phase, postactional outcome, refers to a broader perspective in terms of evaluation, based on a comparison between expectancies and reality, rather than on ongoing evaluation. Following this final phase, the cycle then begins again. This model served as the basis for Dörnyei's (2001a) extensive collection of motivational strategies.

Another important temporal model is Ushioda's (2001). She carried out research among university students in order to investigate how temporal aspects shape motivational thinking, and also attempted to identify patterns of thinking that are effective in sustaining motivation. She managed to detect this temporal framework, and proposed that the factors underlying the motivational disposition of these students can be classified as either causal (a reference to language learning history and experiences related to it) or teleological (a goal-directed, future-referenced behaviour). On the basis of this, Ushioda (1998, 2001) conceptualised a motivational framework related to time, as presented in Figure 2.6. Learner A is motivated by positive learning experiences, while Learner B's motivation is in contrast goal-directed. Ushioda pointed out that

Learner A's pattern can change, and become similar to that of Learner B over time. This is crucial, as it implies that by shaping the learners' thinking and exposing them to positive experiences, their motivational objectives can become more integrated and goal-oriented. This conceptualisation of motivation breaks with previous motivational theories in the sense that the motivation leading to proficiency chain is now mediated by students' thought processes and belief structures. Consequently, this view of motivation is also closely linked with autonomy (Ushioda, 2001).

Figure 2.6 Ushioda's conception of motivation (2001, p. 118)



Longitudinal studies can validly tap into the changes of student motivation, and two such studies carried out among Hungarian students are worth mentioning. The first study, carried out by Nikolov (1995, 1999), was based on research conducted between 1977 and 1995 with three groups of pupils, aged six to fourteen. The focus of the study

was the motivation and the motivational influences affecting these children's language learning behaviour. Nikolov found that the most important factors were the learning situation and motivating tasks. The teacher had a dominant influence on student motivation, and praise and rewards also played a key role. Some evidence of instrumental motivation was found, but integrative motivation could not be detected, although contact with native speakers was more frequent than usual. It was not a specific aim of this study to investigate motivational changes, however, it gives an invaluable insight into children's motivation and thus serves as a well-established basis for comparing the results of different age groups. Further research with children and their motivational disposition can be found in Nikolov (2003, 2004), Nikolov and Curtain (2000), Nikolov and Mihaljevic (2006), Moon and Nikolov (2000). These studies serve as an excellent basis for comparative research with different age groups (e.g., secondary school students, university students and adults: Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kormos & Csizér, 2008).

The other impressive longitudinal study is Heitzmann's (2008) doctoral dissertation. She, in contrast to Nikolov, designed research specifically in order to find out how motivation changes over time. Her findings are manifold, and the results concerning the dynamic and changing nature of motivation, summarised below, revealed

“an interaction between students' proficiency level, their motivating experiences, and the goals that they pursued at various stages of the L2 learning process. The changes in their motivational behaviour indicated a discernible trend roughly corresponding to annual cycles. It was found that at an early stage they were mostly inspired by positive L2-related experiences and instrumental motives. Over the years, however, these were complemented by mastery motives, as students set themselves various short-term goals. By attaining these sub-goals they became aware of their progress, which strengthened their mastery goal. This in turn enhanced their intrinsic motivation and had a positive effect on the learning outcome” (p. 192).

Not only do Heitzmann's findings give support to the dynamic nature of motivation, but they also complement Dörnyei's (1994) conceptualisation of motivation. Furthermore, Heitzmann (2008) managed to identify the temporal dimension on the learning situation level affecting course-specific motivational variables (cf. Table 2.3), and she also proved that the Dörnyei-Ottó model (1998) is applicable in an educational setting.

2.1.5 New advances in motivation research

A major reformulation of thinking on motivation research has taken place in the past few years. What follows is the summary of Dörnyei's (2005, 2009a) point of view. Along with colleagues (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006), Dörnyei has reinterpreted the term integrativeness, and established a strong foundation for his new motivation theory, the L2 motivational self system. This new theory is rooted in research on self and identity, applying the advancements in personality and motivational psychology, and creating "an intriguing interface" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 99) between them.

A broader interpretation of Gardner's (1985, 2001) integrativeness became urgent in light of studies that did not manage to detect this concept or found contradicting results (Dörnyei, 2005). In addition, the variables that seemed to play a crucial role in motivated language learning behaviour did not have clear relationships to each another, which made the concept of motivation rather confusing. Dörnyei (1990, 1994a) also pointed out, using Hungary as an example, that the absence of a close relationship with native speakers means that the relevance of a second/foreign language speaking community and the L2 speaker was not necessarily straightforward. Thus, in

their study Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) called for the reinterpretation of the term, pointing out that there might be an identification process involved in learning. This identification, however, is metaphorical, rather than an identification in the Gardnerian sense, that is, identification with target language speakers.

Dörnyei (2005, 2009a), drawing on the work of Higgins (1987, 1996), and Markus and Nurius (1986), discusses motivation in terms of the possible, ideal and ought-to selves. Possible selves refer to what one might become, would like to become or is afraid to become. The ideal self refers to what one would, in an ideal situation, wish to be like, while the ought-to self refers to characteristics and qualities one thinks one should possess. Dörnyei (2009a) argues that the most attractive feature of conceptualising motivation in terms of selves is that it can take into account behaviour that “goes beyond logical, intellectual arguments when justifying the validity of the various future-oriented self types” (p. 21). Imagery and imagination play a central role in the theory, in that a possible or future self state becomes attainable once it is visualised (on condition that it is plausible). This is the same idea Bandura (1994) put forward in connection with people of high self-efficacy: these people visualise success scenarios and thus, through positive self-guides, improve their performance.

Future-oriented thoughts and self-guides imply goals. Carver and Scheier (2000) assert that someone’s self and goals overlap. According to Higgins’ (1987, 1996) Self-discrepancy theory, motivation means a wish to reduce the gap between the actual self and future standards (ideal or ought selves), adding that these self-guides can include a promotion or prevention focus (ideal self and ought self, respectively). In essence, this is the fuel of people’s motivation to act (cf. goal definitions). Dörnyei (2009a) points out, however, that certain conditions must be present in order for these mechanisms to come into effect. These are as follows:

1. Availability of an elaborate and vivid future self-image,
2. Perceived plausibility,
3. Harmony between the ideal and ought selves,
4. Necessary activation,
5. Relevant procedural strategies,
6. The offsetting impact of a feared self.

In the light of the above, the L2 motivational self system comprises the following constituent parts, or levels (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a):

1. Ideal L2 self: the L2-specific facet of the ideal self. This category addresses traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives.
2. Ought-to L2 self: this dimension is about avoiding negative outcomes and approaching positive ones. It corresponds to extrinsic types of instrumental motives.
3. L2 learning experience: it is concerned with the language learning environment and comprises executive motives. This dimension is different from the previous two self-guides, in that it is at a different level.

Dörnyei (2009a) argues that his new theory of motivation is in line with earlier conceptualisations. It does not contradict the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985, 2001), or the extended version of it (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), and in addition, it bears close resemblance to Noels' (2003) conceptualisation of motivation, which is a combination of three components: (i) intrinsic reasons inherent in learning a language, (ii) extrinsic reasons, and (iii) integrative reasons. In Dörnyei's (2009a) view, the L2 learning experience, the ought-to L2 self, and the ideal L2 self are the counterparts of Noels' concepts respectively. He also finds parallels in the construct of Ushioda (2001), the eight dimensions of which, according to Dörnyei (2009a), can be grouped as (i)

actual learning process, (ii) external pressures/incentives, and (iii) integrative disposition.

Research has been carried out in order to prove the validity of the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) surveyed Japanese, Chinese and Iranian students of English on the same basis as Dörnyei and his colleagues had done in three waves (Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006). The findings support both the Hungarian study, and also the reconceptualisation of integrativeness. The Japanese, Chinese and Iranian samples showed similar patterns to the Hungarian sample, which proves the context-independent nature of the theory. In addition, the authors suggest that the Integrative factor should be replaced by the ideal L2 self, on the basis of the fact that this latter factor explains a greater variance in motivation than Integrativeness.

Csizér and Kormos (2009) compared the structural models of secondary school and university students. They found that the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self are distinct concepts, as the correlations between them are weak or not significant. The ideal L2 self has an impact on motivated language learning behaviour, in that it is a valid replacement for Integrativeness. Attitudes towards English are not only a crucial aspect of language learning, but also influence the future self-concept. Since self-concepts tend to change to a great extent during the years of secondary and tertiary education, it is not surprising that the authors draw attention to the fact that a positive self-concept influences motivation, and language lessons influence expended effort, and as such the role of motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a) is invaluable.

Ryan (2009) investigated the relationship between the ideal L2 self and motivation among Japanese learners of English. He argues that a model that can sensitise between cultures but at the same time is able to describe local characteristics is

of utmost importance. This research project was built on the longitudinal Hungarian study mentioned above (Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006), and brought interesting results to light. In spite of the fact that the correlation between integrativeness and effort is roughly the same in the Hungarian and the Japanese samples, when nationality is removed from analysis, the correlation with learning effort is greater. In Ryan's interpretation this means that the Japanese learners consider the community of L2 speakers and nationality as separate constructs, which questions the traditional factor of integrativeness. He assumes that the Canadian studies seized a local form of a broader concept, which could be relabelled as the ideal L2 self.

Finally, an exploratory research study by Al-Shehri (2009) is presented here in support of the L2 motivational self system. The author made an attempt to link motivation, imagination, and visual style. He hypothesised that visual types of learners have a stronger imagination, which leads to a more vivid and stronger ideal self. His results show that visual style and imagery account for 47% variance in the ideal L2 self, a very high figure. He calls for more research on this topic.

Despite the evidence presented above, MacIntyre, MacKinnon and Clément (2009) express their concern in connection with this new motivation theory. While they appreciate it as a good basis for further research, they caution against the speedy replacement of Integrativeness with the ideal L2 self. They voice their concerns through identifying six criticisms:

1. Measurement problems, which might be diverse and inconsistent as opposed to the well-established AMTB,
2. Naming problems, in that new names and overlapping terms further complicate issues, rather than solve them,

3. Cultural variation, problems associated with the different ways in which Eastern and Western cultures might conceive of the self,
4. The problem of possible selves and goals, i.e., setting goals do not necessarily affect performance,
5. The problem of possible selves changing over time: possible selves might work better as long-term goals than as short-term goals,
6. The problem of possible selves and identity, in that the construction of self and identity is not clear through time and space.

The researchers support the model by concluding that it can be used in education research contexts, can give account of student motivation outside specific contexts (i.e., Canada), and has an explanatory power in case of multiple and conflicting motives. Dörnyei himself (2009a) lists some practical implications of the ideal L2 self as an effective motivator:

1. Construct the ideal L2 self: create the vision,
2. Enhance imagination: strengthen the vision,
3. Make the ideal L2 self plausible: sustain the vision,
4. Activate the ideal L2 self: keep the vision alive,
5. Develop an action plan: operationalise the vision,
6. Consider failure: counterbalance the vision.

To summarise, the L2 motivational self system provides a fresh reconceptualisation of integrativeness, paves the way for further research, and broadens the scope of L2 motivation research. The self is a powerful motivational resource, which is attested to by the collection of studies in Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009), and the new ideas emerging from the concept.

Integrating Dynamic systems theory (DST) into motivation research is an even more recent development in this area. Although explaining some areas of human behaviour with the help of dynamic systems is not a new idea, especially in self-regulation (e.g., Carver & Scheier, 2000; Karoly, 1993), applying DST in individual differences research, and explaining these ID factors in terms of attractors and repellers is unique (Dörnyei, 2009b). The cognitive, motivational and emotional systems are so intertwined that linear descriptions can no longer give justice to their complexity. One slight change in one element of the system can lead to completely different trajectories, and thus behaviours. An attractor or attractor state is an element in the system that draws or attracts other elements (cf. goals, Carver & Scheier, 2000 and IDs, Dörnyei, 2009a), while a repeller is a least likely state an element in the system is attracted to. Thus, as Dörnyei (2009b) explains, self-guides can be considered as powerful attractors, and the L2 motivational self system

“outlines a motivational landscape with three possible attractor basins, one centred around the internal desires of the learner, the second around the motivational regulations of social pressures exercised by significant or authoritative people in the learner’s environment, and the third around the actual experience of being engaged in the learning process” (p. 218).

According to Dörnyei, any one of these three attractors should be enough to motivate someone to learn an L2, but, actually, if all three attractors play their part, success is more likely.

2.1.6 Interim summary

This brief overview has shown that motivation research has come a long way since Gardner’s (1985) socio-educational model. Explaining why individuals succeed in language learning has become an increasingly complex issue. However, tendencies can

be observed in the approaches research has taken, and three main phases can be outlined as follows:

1. Macro perspective: Gardner and the integrative motivation,
2. Micro perspective: classroom-based, education-friendly approaches,
3. Non-linear, dynamic approaches.

What characterises the first phase is a search for the basic building blocks of motivation, in the hope of being able to answer the very basic question of what fuels people to pursue language studies. This perspective took a mainly uniform view of students, which manifested itself in the application of quantitative, mostly correlational studies that increasingly used more complex instruments, such as, structural models. Integrative motivation was understood as a composite of integrativeness, appropriate attitudes and motivation (i.e., effort and desire), and the whole process was assumed to be guided by a desire of identification with target language speakers.

The early 1990s witnessed a growing interest in what actually happens in classrooms, where the learning process takes place. A call for a more individualised look, with more qualitative-like research methods, was inevitable. New elements, such as the teacher, classroom effects, needs, materials, and perceptions, were introduced as focal points of research. The term education-friendly reflected a greater focus on the surroundings and the environment of the students and teachers, and the idea of students as individuals was also taken into account. Although it was dynamic models that mainly found their way into research (e.g., Williams & Burden, 1997), it was tendencies that were mostly investigated. Case studies and other qualitative methods were used as a result of the shift from the positivist research paradigm to the qualitative perspective.

Currently the trend is towards more dynamic ways of investigation (Dörnyei, 2009b; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010) and mixed-method research (Dörnyei, 2007a).

Current thinking on behaviour seems to require abandoning linear methods, and applying dynamic systems in investigating human behaviour in general, and motivation in particular, as elements in a system interact in multiple ways. Self-regulation is a straightforward example of this thinking. In the next section I will outline what self-regulation involves, and, at the end of this chapter, I will consider the common ground that motivation research and self-regulation research can inhabit, especially in an educational setting.

2.2 Self-regulation research

As motivation research evolved in the 1970s, some researchers' effort focussed on attempting to explain the simple fact that some language learners seemed to be more effective and successful than others. These more effective and successful language learners were labelled the good language learners (GLLs), and a series of studies were conducted on their approaches to language and language learning (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). The researchers found some basic characteristics common to all these students; in addition, they apply certain strategies that might be the key to their success. Learning strategies are important because they are said to have a "mediating role" between learner factors and learner outcome (Ellis, 1994, p. 529).

In the 1990s, different taxonomies were created in order to classify these strategies. As a result of these additional taxonomies (Dörnyei, 2005; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), our understanding of learning strategies did not unfortunately become clearer, as would have been expected, rather, the different classifications and definitions obscured the overall picture, and more and more criticism

was levelled against the nature, origin and scope of learning strategies. In the end, the term language learning strategy was abandoned in favour of the more promising phrase self-regulation (Dörnyei, 2005). In Dörnyei's (2005) opinion, it is not so much the types of learning strategies learners use that are of importance, but rather the fact that a choice is made and effort is expended. This is in line with the way the self-regulation paradigm considers learning. It gives a broader perspective, and shifts focus from product (i.e., strategies) to process (i.e., self-regulation) (Dörnyei, 2005).

2.2.1 Good language learners

Research on strategies used by GLLs was justified by the belief that the techniques or strategies better students use to facilitate language learning are identifiable, and thus teachable to poor language learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Weinstein, Husman & Dierking, 2000). Better understanding of these strategies can help foster self-regulation (Randi & Corno, 2000).

Rubin (1975) characterised GLLs along the following lines:

- They are willing and accurate guessers, and have a high tolerance for ambiguity.
- They have a strong motivation to communicate, they paraphrase or use gestures if needed.
- They are not inhibited.
- They analyse, categorise and synthesise, and look for patterns in language.
- They practise a lot.
- They monitor their own speech as well as that of others.
- They focus on meaning.

As for classrooms, Rubin (1975) suggested that three variables (aptitude, motivation and opportunity) need to be present so that the success of teaching is improved. Furthermore, she pointed out that variations in strategy use may exist as a function of task, learning stage, age, context, individual styles and cultural differences in cognitive learning styles.

In Stern's view (1975), the following features are characteristic of GLLs and good language learning:

- They have a personal learning style, an insight into learning a language, and specific techniques.
- They display an active approach to learning tasks, and take the initiative.
- They have a tolerant and positive approach to native speakers and the L2.
- They know how to approach the language.
- They like experimenting, they plan and implement a system of revision, and they are good at guessing.
- They search for underlying meaning.
- They practise.
- They use the language in real communication.
- They do self-monitoring, they learn from their own mistakes.
- They learn to think of the L2 as a separate system.

The strategies of GLLs are closely linked to motivation and self-regulation. Those students who are considered to be better learners are at the same time considered intrinsically motivated, whilst those who are perceived to be extrinsically motivated are less likely to be considered good students (Ehrman, 1996b). Okada, Oxford and Abo (1996) suggest that better language learners apply a host of strategies in order to become more self-directed and improve performance. Naiman et al. (1978) found

attitude and motivation the best predictors of language learning success. Although a study by Sillár (2004) showed that the observations made by Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975) about the learning strategies of the GLL are applicable thirty years on, Albert's (2004) case study revealed a more intricate relationship between learner beliefs and learning strategies, in that positive beliefs and awareness do not necessarily prompt the use of learning strategies. Furthermore, effective learners are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, and find ways to eliminate their limitations (Lin, 2001). Interestingly, students with average capabilities benefit more from (metacognitive) strategy training than exceptional students (Csikos, 2007; Lin, 2001).

Norton and Toohey (2001) questioned the traditional view of GLLs. GLLs were considered to have better control of linguistic devices, and their rate of acquisition was supposed to be faster. The authors, however, suggest that the social nature of learning is reflected in the higher rate of success of GLLs. They suggest that it is not only internal characteristics and learning strategies that are of importance when assessing the success of good language learners, but also their actions in different communities. They also highlighted the fact that identity-related research had shown that these processes are more complex (cf. Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). On the basis of the above, it can be expected that “there would be many different kinds of “good language learners”” (Rubin, 1975, p. 49).

2.2.2 Learning strategies and motivation

Although the field of language learning strategies offered much potential for research, the term itself has never been fully clarified, and several inconsistencies have remained. Language learning strategies were conceived of as “techniques, approaches or

deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, and recall of both linguistic and content area information” (Chamot, 1987, p. 71), or as “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language. These strategies can facilitate the internalisation, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language” (Oxford, 1999, p. 518).

Studies have shown that there is a strong link between strategy use and motivation. Okada, Oxford and Abo (1996) found that total strategy use among English speaking learners of Japanese and Spanish was associated with intrinsic motivation, effort and desire to use the language. They also found evidence of gender and cultural variation relative to learning strategy use. Csikos (2007) gives account of differences between the reading strategies of American students and L2 learners of English. In this study, non-native speakers were found to use more types of strategies, such as activating previous knowledge, previewing the text, setting the pace of reading, or reading aloud difficult parts. According to Zimmerman (2000), “attributions of errors to learning strategies are highly effective in sustaining motivation” (p. 23) because they can be corrected and contribute to adaptive behaviour. O’Malley and Chamot (1990), and Wenden and Rubin (1987) imply that more proficient learners use a wider range of strategies and do so more consciously than their less proficient peers.

Research has also suggested that it is worth investing time in strategy training, especially through overt explanation and practice (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996). Lin (2001) shows how this works with metacognitive strategies in the case of domain-specific knowledge and skills, and also in the case of knowledge about the self-as-learner. She found that transfer did not always happen and that prompting in itself was not enough, but later on teachers needed to develop and sustain these strategies. Locke and Latham’s (1999) view is that appropriate strategies will be used in the case of

specific and difficult goals. Effective strategy use can increase students' success in specific content domains (Randi & Corno, 2000). In this respect, metacognitive strategies are prominent because they "make use of knowledge about cognitive processes and constitute an attempt to regulate language learning by means of planning, monitoring, and evaluating" (Ellis, 1994, p. 538).

2.2.3 Regulation and self-regulation

Humans are capable of regulating or managing their behaviour, their moods, their emotions and so on, because they are equipped with this faculty by default (Carver & Scheier, 2000; Demetriou, 2000). This means that they are in possession of certain means which have helped them survive and maintain harmony in their lives (Shapiro & Schwartz, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). According to Demetriou (2000), self-regulation is the "dynamic or active aspect of self-understanding" (p. 245).

The definition of self-regulation, however, is not straightforward (Molnár, 2004). It seems that there is no common agreement between researchers as to what areas self-regulation covers or what components it includes (e.g., Vancouver, 2000), nevertheless, it is a multidimensional construct (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; Pintrich, 2000) and human behaviour is itself a regulatory event (Carver & Scheier, 2000). Kuhl (2000) argues that several forms of self-regulation are conceivable with different component parts, while Matthews et al.'s (2000) S-REF (self-regulative executive function) model outlines different modes of self-regulation.

Most definitions describe self-regulation either as a process, action or form of behaviour (e.g., Demetriou, 2000; Hoban & Hoban, 2004; Lemos, 1999; Matthews et al., 2000; Molnár, 2002a; Pintrich, 2000; Shapiro & Schwartz, 2000); as a capacity,

ability or aptitude (e.g., Lemos, 1999; Molnár, 2002a; Randi & Corno, 2000; Réthy, 2002, 2003); as a system concept (e.g., Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000; Karoly, 1993), or as a combination of different components including, for instance, thoughts, feelings and actions (Zimmerman, 2000). Moreover, self-regulation can be defined as strategies (Pintrich, 1999), mediating processes (Vancouver, 2000), or “the degree to which individuals are active participants in their own learning” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 191). In addition, students’ adaptation of their approaches to learning (Winne, 1997) and problem solving (Brownlee, Leventhal & Leventhal, 2000) are considered self-regulatory, too.

In the light of these considerations, two definitions are presented here, one concentrating on self-regulation as a process, the other on self-regulation as a capacity. It is worth noting that, apart from this difference, the main component parts (planning, goals, monitoring, context/environment) are essentially the same. One of the most comprehensive definitions comes from Pintrich (2000), according to whom

“a general working definition of self-regulated learning is that it is an active, constructive *process* whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment. These self-regulatory activities can mediate the relationships between individuals and the context, and their overall achievement” (p. 453, emphasis added).

As opposed to the above definition of self-regulation as a process, Lemos (1999) defines self-regulation as

“the individual’s *capacity* to modulate behaviour according to internal and external changing circumstances; it involves the self-implementation of specific operations such as planning, executing, and monitoring” (p. 471, emphasis added).

As Hiemstra (2004) points out, there is a considerable confusion about the term itself (see also Boekaerts, Pintrich & Zeidner, 2000). Associated terms and concepts

include self-directed learning, self-direction in learning, self-education, self-planned learning, autonomous learning, learning projects, autodidactic learning, and even self-efficacy. Even more varied vocabulary is used to refer to or paraphrase the concept, including terms such as independent learner, intrinsically motivated learning, isolated learning, self-acquired knowledge, self-managed learning, solitary learning, teacherless individual learners and unsupervised learning. Indeed, Zeidner, Boekaerts and Pintrich (2000) suggest that related constructs need to be differentiated. According to Pintrich (2000) however, the proliferation of terms should be allowed to continue, if the constructs under observation express real difference in nature. At the same time, he calls for definitions to be clarified.

In some cases researchers make an attempt to include in their definition as many aspects as possible, as a way of synthesising approaches (e.g., Matthews et al., 2000). In other cases, they seek to create a model that can explain universal phenomena in human behaviour (cf. Boekaerts, Pintrich & Zeidner, 2000). The terms goals and intentions are frequently attached to the definition of self-regulation (e.g., Pintrich, 2000; Réthy, 2002, 2003; Shapiro & Schwartz, 2000; Vancouver, 2000, and Molnár, 2002a, 2003; Rheinberg, Vollmeyer & Rollett, 2000 respectively), indeed “[g]oals refer to what students are consciously attempting to accomplish” (Schunk & Ertmer, 2000, p. 634). This is why goals are crucial in self-regulation, and serve as reference-points.

It is not clear, however, whether the terms Hiemstra (2004) cites refer to similar, identical or completely different concepts of self-regulation. It should be noted that there have also been attempts to narrow down the term. Brockett (1985), for instance, has suggested that self-directed readiness (perceived self-regulation) and the related self-directed readiness scale can appropriately characterise individuals in school settings only. Nevertheless, self-regulation has come to serve as an umbrella term replacing the

term learning strategy and, at the same time, has broadened the perspective of research (Dörnyei, 2005).

As was mentioned above, regulation can refer to a host of notions that can be regulated (i.e., subsystems), for instance regulation of motivation, behaviour, cognition, and context (Pintrich, 2000; Wolters, 1999); action (Heckhausen, 1991); affect or emotions (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000); or goals (Lemos, 1999; Shah & Kruglanski, 2000). Matthews and his colleagues (2000) argue that different forms of regulation, for instance self-regulation of mood and self-regulation of cognition, are often difficult to distinguish from each other. Apart from the area to be regulated, two modes of regulation, engaging in or withdrawing from a problem (cf. approach/promotion, and avoidance/prevention, Higgins, 1997; Pintrich, 2000), can also be distinguished. These approaches are considered to be independent as they are supposed to be regulated by different brain mechanisms (Carver & Scheier, 2000). Nevertheless, breaking down the concept into manageable units or subsystems has made it possible to study this complex construct (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000). Self-regulation as a system concept, thus, explains the phenomenon in terms of behaviour management and interactive processes between these subsystems, acknowledging the fact that different control systems exist which can interact with each other but which, on their own, have no explanatory force (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000; Demetriou, 2000; Karoly, 1993).

There seems to be an agreement concerning self-regulation, in that it is present to differing extents (Zimmerman, 2000) in everyone (e.g., Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). According to Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, the capacity to self-regulate is a basic function of human behaviour. Also, researchers seem to agree that self-regulation is not a homogenous concept (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000; Boekaerts, Pintrich & Zeidner, 2000; Kuhl, 2000), that it is an important concept

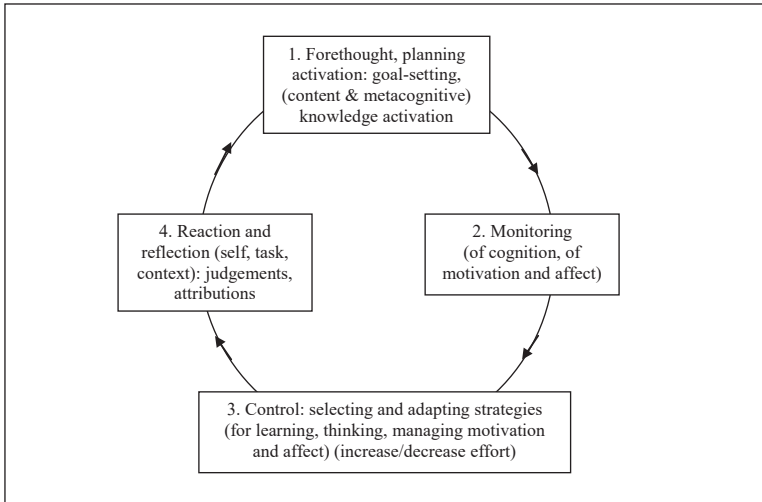
in teaching and learning, and that it is related to student efficiency in learning (Molnár, 2001). Lemos (1999) emphasises the importance of personalisation, internalisation, effort, goals, autonomy and motivation in self-regulation.

Some researchers have visualised self-regulation in the form of a cycle, with distinct but not necessarily separable phases (e.g., Karoly, 1993; Pintrich, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). Table 2.7 shows these stages of self-regulation, while Figure 2.7 shows my attempt at synthesising these different approaches. These researchers label the phases by different names and in line with dynamic systems theorising (cf. Section 2.1.5) add that self-regulatory processing is not necessarily linear, and earlier feedback loops and overlaps might exist (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000; Molnár, 2003; Pintrich, 2000).

Table 2.7 Stages or phases of self-regulation

Karoly (1993)	Pintrich (2000)	Zimmerman (2000)
1. goal selection	1. forethought, planning, and activation	1. forethought (task analysis, self-motivation beliefs)
2. goal cognition		
3. directional maintenance	2. monitoring	2. performance/volitional control (self-control, self-observation)
4. directional change or reprioritization	3. control	
5. goal termination	4. reaction and reflection	3. self-reflection (self-judgement, self-reaction)

Figure 2.7 Phases of self-regulation (based on Pintrich, 2000)



Although self-regulation seems to be a promising framework to explain behaviour, it has turned out to be, at certain points, rather complex and confusing. Some of the problem issues that further research needs to clarify are as follows:

- How can research account for the apparent double-nature of the concept, i.e., self-regulation as aptitude and self-regulation as process? What does self-regulation *not* include? Can *not acting* be considered self-regulation (Pintrich, 2000)?
- Do people self-regulate, or are they self-regulated (Brownlee, Leventhal & Leventhal, 2000)? In other words, do people set goals, prioritise, etc. or do others, for example significant others in the case of teaching-learning, choose their goals?

- How do autonomy and self-regulation relate to each other? Does one comprise the other? Or do they share some characteristics or behaviour patterns?
- How do strategies and self-regulation relate to each other? Are they the same or is one of them the manifestation of the other? What is strategic behaviour and how is it different from self-regulation and autonomy?
- What are the different areas of self-regulation? What areas can we regulate in ourselves? Is it possible that we can regulate certain areas only because we are autonomous? How do these different areas relate to each other?

Although these points warrant further research, and it is not the aim of this dissertation to clarify these issues, I use the self-regulatory paradigm for multiple reasons:

1. It is a framework that is flexible enough to highlight both stable and dynamic aspects of the teaching-learning process (for example, the kind of strategies used in an English lesson and how), and it can also trace changes, including feedback loops and development.
2. The self-regulatory paradigm offers a broader interpretation of the learning process, covering aspects such as learning strategies, self-motivation and autonomy.
3. It can incorporate both student and teacher points of view into one study.
4. It utilises established instruments developed for research purposes; in contrast, Dynamic systems theory, which would in practice allow for more dynamic and flexible insights, does not yet have appropriate tools that can be applied in SLA-related research (Dörnyei, 2009).

Based on what is presented above, my definition is as follows: self-regulation is both an active, constructive process that adapts to changes during the learning process, and a capacity that builds on internal (e.g., self-efficacy, goals) and external factors (e.g., parents, teacher, classroom events). It can be developed, and allows for the changes perceived throughout learning.

2.2.4 Autonomy or self-regulation?

Self-regulation presupposes a great deal of autonomy in language learning, and these two concepts are sometimes treated together (Dörnyei, 2001a). In Brockett's (2006) view, "[s]elf-directed learning is about freedom, autonomy, and choice" (p. 33). While some researchers consider autonomy as the ultimate aim of language teaching (e.g., Holec, 1987; Little, 2007), others are more cautious (Benson, 2001) believing that the overload of options may have detrimental effects, and in extreme cases might result in frustration or depression (Brockett, 2006). Autonomy in language learning and proficiency in a target language are closely related and intertwined (Little, 2007), in a way that the more reflectively the students self-regulate themselves, the less dependent they are on external circumstances (e.g., classroom-related issues) (Réthy, 2001).

Some researchers conceptualise autonomy as being narrower in scope than self-regulation (Benson, 2001; Rivers, 2001), while others believe self-regulation leads to autonomy (Kormos & Csizér, in press). In the definition of autonomy, its nature as a capacity is emphasised: it is "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (Benson, 2001, p. 47). Control is understood as responsibility, but its parameters are vague, in that control can address decision-making, managing learning, planning, and acquiring resources (Knowles, 1975) amongst others (see Table 2.8). Little (1990)

emphasises that it is not a teaching method and it does not equate with self-instruction. However, if we look at the main points that autonomy and self-regulation can cover, we can see a considerable overlap, which makes their distinct nature highly questionable (compare also Hiemstra's [2004] terms discussed in Section 2.2.3).

Table 2.8 The areas of self-regulation and autonomy

	Self-regulation			Autonomy
	Karoly (1993)	Pintrich (2000)	Zimmerman (2000)	Holec (1981)
1. Goal selection		1. Forethought, planning, and activation	1. Forethought (task-analysis, self-motivation beliefs)	1. Determining objectives
2. Goal cognition				2. Defining contents, selecting methods
3. Directional maintenance		2. Monitoring	2. Performance/volitional control (self-control, self-observation)	3. Monitoring the procedure
4. Directional change or reprioritization		3. Control		
5. Goal termination		4. Reaction and reflection	3. Self-reflection (self-judgement, self-reaction)	4. Evaluation

The relationship between autonomy in language learning and motivation has long been recognised (Dörnyei, 2003; Little, 2007). Self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), for instance, postulates that intrinsic motivation, which is a basic human need, is facilitated by conditions supportive of autonomy and competence, and that the freedom to choose is a prerequisite of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a). Noels, Clément and Pelletier (1999) found that teachers who supported language learner autonomy created higher levels of motivation in students who were intrinsically motivated, but did not create higher levels of motivation in those whose motivational disposition was rather extrinsic. Dörnyei's (2001a) extensive list of motivational strategies includes autonomy,

too, mentioning, for example, that teachers should “Increase student motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy” (p. 108).

Nevertheless, autonomy is in human nature, and should be focussed on (Little, 2007), for instance by involving students in setting their own goals (Williams & Burden, 1997). Although students tend to be reluctant to take responsibility for their learning (Dörnyei, 2005; Little, 2007), they must be encouraged and supported throughout the teaching-learning process (cf. Dörnyei’s motivational strategies, 2001a). Teachers should allow for scaffolding, and the gradual phasing out of teacher control (Little, 2007) in order to build higher autonomy in their students. Thus the teacher can “help the student help himself” (Rubin, 1975, p. 45), even when the teacher is absent. Reflective regulation based on cognitive, affective and volitional aspects can, thus, feed back on these cognitive, affective and volitional factors, and can positively influence the self as well (Réthy, 2001). Although teachers might become discouraged in their efforts to support their students on the way towards autonomy, they should not give up but be confident that they will reach their aims (Dörnyei, 2001a).

In the light of the above, autonomy and self-regulation cannot be regarded as two entirely different concepts. Autonomy is considered to be broader (Benson, 2001), encompassing the management of the content of learning beyond the control of cognition, emotion, motivation and behaviour (self-regulation). However, Pintrich’s (2000) definition and Kuhl’s (1985, 1987) self-regulatory strategies suggest that self-regulating learners are able to manipulate their environment in order to manage learning, and a certain degree of autonomy is presupposed in self-regulating learners (Dörnyei, 2001a). Therefore, I will use the concept of self-regulation in this dissertation as it suits the aim of my study for the following reasons:

- Autonomy is loosely defined, and definitions lack real content (Benson, 2001),
- Autonomy is restricted to capacity and control (Holec, 1981; Little, 1991), and excludes dynamic processes (however, I am aware of views regarding autonomy as behaviour, and measuring it accordingly, e.g., Benson, 2001; Little, 2007),
- In so doing, there seems to be little room for development in this area, which is incompatible with current trends in SLA research (Dörnyei, 2009b),
- In the Hungarian educational system, it is naïve to presuppose learners have an ability and possibility to control the content of learning, so the framework of self-regulation using an instrument that measures self-directedness, the Learning experience scale (Stockdale, 2003), seems satisfactory enough to analyse the situation in Hungarian secondary schools.

2.2.5 Characterising self-regulation and the self-regulating learner

In this section, after reviewing the main points concerning self-regulation, the teaching-learning process and the students will be described from a self-regulatory point of view. Some basic assumptions about learning and regulation will be presented, along with the characteristics of the self-regulating learner as perceived by the teacher.

2.2.5.1 Teaching, learning and self-regulation

According to Pintrich (2000), there are four basic assumptions about learning and regulation as follows:

1. Active, constructive assumption,
2. Potential for control assumption (not necessarily any time, any context),
3. Goal, criterion, or standard assumption,
4. “[S]elf-regulatory activities are mediators between personal and contextual characteristics and actual achievement or performance” (p. 453).

Agreeing with Pintrich’s second assumption, Paris and Winograd (2001) also claim that students exercise control across contexts, relationships and situations, and that the first and second assumptions are central issues in discussing autonomy.

For self-regulation to happen, the following three conditions need to prevail within the system: it needs to have (i) a self-monitoring function, (ii) an organized system of self-representations (i.e., a self-system), and (iii) self-modification skills and strategies (Demetriou, 2000). From an instructional point of view, these three points can be understood as challenging tasks, the self ready to act, and appropriate environmental conditions (Réthy, 2002).

Although it is clear that learning does not happen in isolation, the concept of self-regulation lays a heavy emphasis on the individual (Jackson, Mackenzie & Hobfoll, 2000). Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) highlight that it is a common misconception that self-direction is equated with learning in isolation; they reinforce the fact that external sources and assistance (i.e., peers and a teacher) are usually needed. It is personal responsibility, however, that is a basic precondition of self-regulation. If students develop with the help of, or through, self-regulation, they become more intrinsically motivated (Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999).

According to Paris and Winograd (2001), awareness of thinking or metacognition, the use of strategies, and the concept of situated motivation are three basic characteristics of self-regulated learning. Metacognition, in their view, includes

analysing one's own thinking, using metacognitive knowledge in making plans and selecting strategies, and interpreting performance. With strategies, it is important to note that Paris and Winograd mean being strategic, not simply having strategies, so it is not enough to expect students to become more self-regulating simply by equipping them with strategies. Motivating students involves expectancy-value beliefs, self-efficacy, and goal-setting.

To summarise, it can be stated that, for self-regulation to happen, the teacher must rely heavily on the above criteria in order to foster more initiative and autonomy on the part of the students. Dörnyei's (2001a) extensive list of motivational strategies comprises advice on these aspects of teaching. In addition, several authors have formulated lists, provided specific advice, or offered strategies that promote self-regulating, motivated, autonomous and open learners without imposing hard-and-fast rules (e.g., Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Raffini, 1996, and Section 2.1.3.4).

2.2.5.2 The self-regulating learner

According to Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) simply replacing the term learning strategy by the self-regulating learner has shifted the emphasis, rather than solved the problem. They claim that the self-regulating learner is a "superhuman person" (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003, p. 612) and this person bears a close resemblance both to the GLL and a motivated language learner. Teachers characterise the self-regulating learner, and self-regulation in general, along the following lines (Molnár, 2002a, 2002b):

1. Learning is student-initiated, and the students persistently carry out the task.
2. Students are autonomous and use efficient learning strategies.
3. Students are able to reflect on their work.

4. Self-regulated learners are typically interested in learning, able to set intrinsic and personal goals, realistic about their own knowledge, and love learning (Molnár, 2002a); they are also self-confident, diligent and persistent (Molnár, 2002b). Wolters (1999) adds that self-regulating learners possess a wide range of adaptive motivational beliefs and attitudes, which help them direct and control their learning.

Successful self-regulating learners are aware of the learning process – of both the goal, and how to achieve it (Brockett, 1985). This ties in with some of the key features of self-regulation and self-regulated learning (e.g., Paris & Winograd, 2001; Réthy, 2003), and is in line with how most researchers describe self-regulation in general.

The self-regulating learner is also similar to the motivated learner in several respects. Taking some of the definitions of motivation into account, it can be said that a motivated learner is someone who intends to learn the language (Gardner, 1985), is willing to expend effort on it (Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 2001a), has positive attitudes towards the language and/or the L2 speakers (or the L2 culture), and has clear goals (Williams & Burden, 1997). The motivated language learner will most probably also possess positive attributions about the language or language learning, have high self-efficacy and/or self-worth (Williams & Burden, 1997), and be hard-working and persistent, with a selection of self-motivational and learning strategies at their disposal (Dörnyei, 2001a). Table 2.9 compares the GLL, the motivated language learner and the self-regulating learner. It can be seen that there is no clear distinction between the three concepts, however, the term motivated language learner has replaced GLL, and nowadays the term self-regulating learner (or self-regulated learner or autonomous learner) is used instead (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003). This is a more global

view, which reflects a shift in focus from a repertoire of characteristics to skills or competences, in the sense of what one is able and willing to do. The same shift can be seen in relation to theories of motivation (see Section 2.1).

Table 2.9 The key characteristics of the GLL, the motivated language learner and the self-regulating learner

GLL (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975)	Motivated language learner (Dörnyei, 2001a; Williams & Burden, 1997)	Self-regulating learner (Molnár, 2002a, 2002b)
Active, using their initiative, tolerant, positive, not inhibited	Positive attitudes; positive attributions; high self-efficacy & self-worth, confidence (Williams & Burden, 1997)	Proactive; interested in learning, love learning; self-confident; positive attitudes
Experiment (willing and accurate guessers, high tolerance for ambiguity, real life communication)	Willing to expend effort (Dörnyei, 2001a)	Adaptive motivational beliefs and attitudes to direct and control learning (Wolters, 1999)
Plan (analyse, categorise, synthesise, look for patterns)	Clear goals (Williams & Burden, 1997)	Able to set intrinsic and extrinsic goals
Monitor oneself and others		Reflectivity
Learning and communication strategies (paraphrase, gestures)	Self-motivating strategies and learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2001a); resources (Williams & Burden, 1997)	Efficient learning strategies
Practice	Practice	Practice
	Hard-working, persistent (Dörnyei, 2001a)	Diligent, persistent
Know how to approach L learning		Aware of the learning process
Focus on meaning, learning to think in L2		

2.2.6 Development and teachability of self-regulation

In this section, issues relating to how self-regulation can be instructed, and what points need to be considered when applying certain approaches, will be discussed. Also,

self-regulatory strategies will be treated, and failures and dysfunctions in self-regulation will be addressed.

2.2.6.1 Developmental stages in self-regulation

Although self-regulation appears in humans as early as the age of three, it is only in mid-adolescence that individuals begin to pursue goals and subordinate behaviour to pre-planned actions and targets (Demetriou, 2000). It seems likely that the development of self-regulation is both a socially-situated process, characterised by imitation (Demetriou, 2000), and an individual progress where learners go through developmental stages (Zimmerman, 2000). In particular, the understanding of the mind, self-image, and self-development all develop in parallel to each other as children grow older. Table 2.10 shows the major steps in this development, based on Demetriou (2000). He claims that within individuals the awareness of mind and self is fostered by observation, interaction, self-regulation, and regulation by others, in other words, co-regulation turns into self-regulation, a mechanism Demetriou calls internalisation.

Zimmerman (2000) hypothesises four developmental stages of how self-regulatory skills evolve but, in contrast to other developmental stage models, he proposes that learners might not go through them in a linear fashion (cf. dynamic systems). The four stages are as follows: (i) observation, (ii) emulation (previously called imitation), (iii) self-control, and (iv) self-regulation. Independent use of skills occurs in the self-control stage, while adaptive behaviour emerges in the fourth stage only. In his view, sequential development will result in easier and more effective mastery of the target material. At the same time, it is stressed that the inborn ability to control cognitive processes gives rise to self-regulation (McCombs, 1999). In addition,

as Boekaerts and Niemivirta (2000) underline, the processes in self-regulation stem from “the identification, interpretation, and appraisal of an opportunity to learn” (p. 418). There is a belief that people differ in their ability to self-regulate (Rheinberg, Vollmeyer & Rollett, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000), which raises the question as to what extent instruction can improve strategy use, and also whether self-regulation is an additional ID factor.

Table 2.10 The major steps in the development of understanding the mind, self-image and self-regulation (based on Demetriou, 2000)

Age	Understanding the mind	Self-image	Self-regulation
0-1 years		Differentiation of the body and outer world	Neurophysiological and sensorimotor modulation
1-2 years	Implicit metarepresentation (banana used as a telephone)	Self-recognition in the mirror	Sensorimotor schemes under intentional control
3-5 years	Understanding that thinking is internal mental activity, differentiation between perception, knowing and thinking	Self-concept is based on observable characteristics	Self-control: awareness, toddlers can follow requests but cannot delay gratification
6-8 years	Understanding the stream of consciousness and inner speech, the content of thought can be related with ongoing activity	Self-descriptions are generally positive and inaccurate	Self-regulation through inner speech, attention, motivation and stimulus control
8-10 years	Understanding the constructive nature of thought, differentiation between cognitive functions	Global self-worth, integrating self-representations	Short-term goals; mastery over thought, emotional factors and behaviour
11-13 years	Different kinds of the same cognitive function can be distinguished, differentiation between different thought domains	Higher-order abstractions about the self	Interest about the future, middle-scale planning, systematic regulation of every-day activities
14-16 years	Awareness of particular cognitive processes and operations	Accurate global self-concept	Planning the future

2.2.6.2 Instructional aspects of self-regulation

Students, both children and adults, need instruction as to how to go about learning in general, and in how to use learning and self-regulatory strategies in particular (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; Little, 2007; Locke & Latham, 1999; Paris & Winograd, 2001). Randi and Corno (2000) highlight the elements of teaching that can allow teachers to facilitate and create opportunities for self-regulation. These are as follows:

- Encourage students to meet challenges.
- Build communities.
- Use explicit and scaffolded strategy instruction.
- Use diagnostic performance evaluation.
- Use curriculum-based assessments.

The reason why the initiation of self-regulation in the classroom-context lies with the teacher might be that traditionally students expect the teacher to provide them with material, resources, motivation, and control (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000). As was discussed above, self-regulation is a human characteristic (Molnár, 2002b; Zimmerman, 2000), but one which shows different levels of mastery in different individuals (Zimmerman, 2000). In this respect, self-regulation can be conceived of as an ID factor, but it is one that can be improved (McKeachie, 2000). According to Winne (1997), self-regulatory strategies can be learnt to a varying extent, but students need to be instructed, and they need to be provided with plenty of practice and appropriate feedback in class.

Randi and Corno (2000) argue for the need for strategy instruction, because in this way students can be promoted as active learners, and their classroom intervention project is a good example of strategy instruction. Students first need to identify

strategies the hero Odysseus used in the face of difficulties he had upon returning home. They compile a list of their own strategies similar to those Odysseus applied. The students then read a hero quest of their choice, and discuss patterns and strategies the hero used to reach his goals. The students generate their own list of strategies, and then carry out a jigsaw task based on the same tale focussing on different aspects of self-regulation. After reconvening in a different set of groups, there is at least one expert on the various self-regulatory strategies in each group. They exchange their ideas and finally, as a group, write a contemporary quest using as many strategies as possible. The project work includes analysis of setting goals, how to overcome obstacles, what led to changes in the hero's behaviour, and what the hero learnt from his experiences.

Randi and Corno (2000) are in favour of teacher innovations when it comes to self-regulation. This can happen in any of the micro-stages of self-regulation (Pintrich, 2000), or between teachers and researchers (Randi & Corno, 2000). Zimmerman (2000) highlights the importance of socialising agents such as parents, teachers, coaches, and peers in this process. Students should be allowed to create their own learning episodes, which can lead to the development of effective self-regulation (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000). Teacher planning is shown to be adaptive, and tasks are co-constructed between teachers and students (Randi & Corno, 2000).

Paris and Winograd (2001) present a five-step action plan for teachers to implement self-regulatory strategies in teaching: (i) precontemplation, (ii) contemplation, (iii) preparation, (iv) action, and (v) maintenance. They suggest that, via explicit instruction, teachers can increase their own metacognitive understanding, which, in turn, will help instruction. Modelling, explicit discussions, and reflective analyses, in their opinion, leads to increased self-regulatory strategy use in students, although, as they state, students need self-regulation for different purposes.

When opportunity and necessity harmonise, the appropriate environment for the development of self-regulation arises (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000). In this context trust and risk-taking are encouraged (Randi & Corno, 2000). Zimmerman (2000) argues that self-regulation can be enhanced if teachers model and verbalise their strategies. However, the development of self-regulation, and thus self-regulatory strategies in the classroom is not an easy undertaking (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000). Students should not consider the teacher as the main source of knowledge and control but need to take control of their learning, and also need to be knowledgeable about their own needs and pursue nontrivial goals. The role of the teacher is also interesting: it has been proved in medical research that the same person can have a different effect on the participant (patient) as a function of race and social environment (Brownlee, Leventhal & Leventhal, 2000), and this may well be the case in teaching as well.

It must also be mentioned that instruction can be detrimental to fostering self-regulation. Kanfer and Stevenson (1985) found that tasks demanding high levels of cognitive processing can interfere with self-regulation, and thus lower performance efficiency. In addition, such situations lead to abandonment of the task. Although the authors carried out their research under laboratory conditions in clinical settings, the results warrant caution.

2.2.6.3 Self-regulatory strategies

It is claimed that all students use self-regulatory strategies to some extent (Molnár, 2002b) although, as was seen above, the definition of learning strategies and strategies in general is not straightforward. In addition, research uses the term self-regulatory strategy or strategies for self-regulation without an attempt to define the

concept. There is a tacit understanding that they exist, and that they exist in the form and with the properties that are appropriate in a given context. Self-regulation viewed as problem solving or “managing self-machinery” (i.e., focus on the self and the feelings of the self) (Brownlee, Leventhal & Leventhal, 2000, p. 371) can include narrow (more concrete) and broad (less specified) actions as self-regulatory strategies.

There have been attempts, however, to assign these strategies to well-defined categories. Kuhl (1985, 1987), for instance, listed six types of control as self-regulatory strategies, as follows:

1. Attention control: the active control of attentional focus.
2. Encoding control: selecting the relevant features of the stimuli.
3. Emotion control: eliminating emotional states that are detrimental to volition.
4. Motivation control: strengthening the feedback on motivation.
5. Environment control: manipulating the environment in a way that is conducive to emotion and motivation control strategies.
6. Cognition control: optimising decision-making.

Pintrich (2000) gave concrete examples of strategies (to control motivation and affect), which can be considered as self-regulatory strategies:

- controlling self-efficacy through positive self-talk,
- increasing extrinsic motivation,
- increasing intrinsic motivation,
- maintaining a mastery-oriented focus,
- increasing task value,
- self-affirmation strategy (decreasing value of task to protect self-worth),
- controlling emotion through self-talk,

- invoking negative affects,
- defensive pessimism, and
- self-handicapping (decrease of effort, procrastination).

These strategies are fewer in number than those strategies used to control cognition, but are nevertheless worth investigating. In addition, Pintrich listed some behavioural control strategies, such as increasing effort, persistence, and help seeking, and also mentioned contextual control and regulation strategies that might include student-initiated control and regulation of academic tasks, classroom climate and structure. Moreover, Section 2.2.6.2 showed how students themselves can invent self-regulatory strategies with appropriate teacher help.

Lemos (1999) and Réthy (2003) studied motivational strategies and what motivated students to learn, in the context of self-regulation. Furthermore, Wolters (1999) used the framework of cognitive and metacognitive strategies to discuss secondary school students' motivational regulation, learning strategies, effort and classroom performance. He identified self-consequating, environmental control, interest enhancement, performance self-talk, and mastery self-talk as distinct strategies emerging from the concept of motivational regulation. In Hungary, Molnár (2002a, 2002b, 2003) conducted research on self-regulation, concluding (Molnár, 2003) that conscientious students are more persistent and use more self-regulatory strategies. In addition, persistence, interest, learning skills and intrinsic motivation have an effect on the extent to which self-regulatory strategies are efficient in 14-year old and 17-year old secondary school students. She did not manage to confirm a natural improvement in self-regulatory strategies as students grow older. Mezei (2008a), however, found some evidence that this improvement might come with maturing as a learner, not as a function of age.

A final observation from Zimmerman (2000) is that “[n]o self-regulatory strategy will work equally well for all persons, and few, if any, strategies will work optimally for a person on all tasks or occasions” (p. 17) – a claim Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) and also Dörnyei (2001a) called teachers’ attention to when analysing motivational strategies.

2.2.6.4 Failures and dysfunctions in self-regulation

Ideally, applying some sort of learning or self-regulatory strategy would result in enhanced efficiency and performance, on the other hand, defence mechanisms (Ehrman, 1996a) such as learned helplessness, procrastination, task avoidance, or cognitive disengagement (Zimmerman, 2000), do not lead to increased language learning or better results. These protective steps are directed at face-saving or ego-protection, and a host of psychological illnesses and disorders can, to some extent, be considered failures in self-regulation (Endler & Kocovski, 2000).

Among the causes of the failure in self-regulation are a lack of social learning experiences, apathy, disinterest, mood disorders (e.g., depression), cognitive problems (Zimmerman, 2000), or inappropriate goal-setting resulting in problems with self-efficacy (Endler & Kocovski, 2000). Also, strategy failure can occur, causing the student to change the strategy or goal, use a coping strategy, or invest more (or less) effort (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000). According to Boekaerts (1998), reaction to strategy failure can take five forms: (i) mindful effort, (ii) disengagement, (iii) danger control, (iv) self-handicapping, and (v) avoidant behaviour. Whether deciding not to act is a form of self-regulation is subject to debate (Paris & Winograd, 2001; Pintrich, 2000).

Intervention to treat these dysfunctions can be helpful, but both adaptation and flexibility are necessary on the part of the student or the patient (Zimmerman, 2000). In clinical research, coping with illnesses, goals and self-management have been the focus of recent research (e.g., Brownlee, Leventhal & Leventhal, 2000; Creer, 2000; Endler & Kocovski, 2000; Maes & Gebhardt, 2000). Brownlee, Leventhal and Leventhal (2000) have identified the nature of a disorder (e.g., its symptoms), its time line (how fast its development is), its consequences, the expectations (i.e., the cause), and controllability as five representations of an illness that influence possible treatment procedures, and thus further influence selection and maintenance procedures. In a similar vein, treatment procedures, in other words teaching and learning how to learn, can have an effect on selection and maintenance procedures, that is, self-regulatory strategies in a classroom setting.

2.2.7 Interim summary

As with the evolution of motivation research, approaches to studying language learning behaviour (i.e., what makes someone a good language learner) have progressed considerably. Initially, it was only the concrete tools language learners used that were the focus of interest. Later, however, the principles behind those tools came into the spotlight, along with the routines or stages language learners manifest when approaching language learning (or other activities). Studying these techniques has inevitably become more and more complex, however, it is not clear how language teachers can benefit from this research in terms of teaching these techniques to students, or making students more aware of these strategies as a consequence of our deeper understanding. The shift in research focus includes the following research avenues:

1. Good language learners,
2. Language learning strategies,
3. Self-regulation.

When GLLs were the focus of research, lists of behaviours and concrete manifestations of behaviour were observed and presented (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). These lists were no more than a simple catalogue of what was thought to be a representative description of excellence in language learning, and no real systemacity was involved.

As our understanding developed, seemingly exhaustive lists of categories and subcategories emerged, along with definitions of language learning strategies, which were believed to lead to more effective ways of language learning. The problems, however, soon became clear. On the one hand, these definitions were problematic in the sense that the exact nature of language learning strategies remained unclear and vague, and thus it questioned the legitimacy of their very existence; on the other hand, categories overlapped and sometimes missed important considerations. Therefore, language learning strategy research gradually began to be replaced by self-regulation research (Dörnyei, 2005).

Self-regulation research is a step forward because it can concentrate on two aspects of behaviour simultaneously. Firstly, it can reveal the active and dynamic side of behaviour, and analyse how people in general and students in particular organise and manage behaviour from intention-formation until execution and reflexion; and secondly, it can advise them on techniques and strategies as to how to approach language learning and enhance efficiency.

2.3 Motivation and self-regulation

Motivation and self-regulation research focus both on human behaviour and the reasons behind it, and how people perform action. While the focus of interest is somewhat different, both lines of research can inform each other about current trends in order to contribute to a deeper understanding of the intricate processes of human behaviour in general, and learning in particular. In this section, I will give an overview of how the most important theories of motivation, i.e., those addressed above, feed self-regulation research, and the effect of the findings of self-regulation research on motivational enquiries. Table 2.11 shows the most important aspects of the theories of motivation discussed in this chapter, and also their relevance in self-regulation.

Gardner and his colleagues' (Gardner, 1985, 2001, 2006; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) interpretation of motivation focussed on the effects of effort, desire, goals and attitudes on motivation. These aspects are all prerequisites for a healthy (i.e., not maladaptive) self-regulatory process. At the same time, goals and effort help students overcome difficult stages of learning, and favourable attitudes contribute to working out adaptive strategies to cope with difficulty.

Goal theories (Ames, 1992; Locke & Latham, 1990) emphasise the importance of setting and pursuing goals, which is a cornerstone of self-regulation. Goals are the milestones, without which the process of learning is impossible. When considering goals in regulating any kind of behaviour, it is of utmost importance that the teacher whose responsibility it usually is sets appropriate goals. Students must target mastery orientation, since at the heart of the self-regulatory paradigm lies the concept of

acquiring knowledge rather than simply performing exercises. Moreover, learning goals foster intrinsic motivation and lead to more effective strategies (Dweck, 1999).

Table 2.11 The contribution of theories of motivation in psychology to self-regulation

Theory	The most important aspects of the theory of motivation	Relevance in self-regulation
Socio-educational model	Effort, desire, goal Favourable attitudes towards learning the language (Gardner, 1985, 2001, 2006; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993)	Prerequisites for regulation Sustaining motivation and thus fuelling self-regulation
Goal theories	Goals (specificity, difficulty, commitment) Mastery and performance orientation (Ames, 1992; Locke & Latham, 1990)	Setting and pursuing goals Mastery orientation
Self-determination theory	“natural process of self-motivation” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 68) Regulatory styles (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000)	Regulation is self-determined, non-regulation is out of the question
Attribution theory	Causes Attributions (aptitude, skill, effort, difficulty, luck, mood, family background, help-seeking, etc.) (Weiner, 1992, 2007)	Finding adaptive causes and attributions (although maladaptive regulation also exists) Monitoring (and comparing)
Action control theory	Intention, volition, performance Crossing the Rubicon (Heckhausen, 1991; Kuhl, 1987)	Crossing the Rubicon: from non-regulation to regulation (potential area for teacher intervention)

Deci and Ryan’s Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) encapsulates the very nature of self-regulation. They outlined the continuum of regulatory styles, which allows one to take increasing amounts of responsibility for one’s own actions. This idea is present in the concept of learning episodes (Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000), where students adapt (regulate) their learning, in light of their goals in a given setting. Identification, interpretation and appraisal are also involved, and the aim is to create a learning environment where the students, with appropriate help from the teacher, can develop effective forms of self-regulation.

Attribution theory (Weiner, 1992, 2007) can inform us about the links between past success and failures, and current achievement. For self-regulation to be effective, adaptive strategies and attributions are necessary to handle potentially harmful past experiences. Although one is aware of maladaptive forms of regulation, bearing in mind the aim of the teaching-learning process, those negative forms should be ignored. Forming effective attributions in the students is the joint responsibility of the teacher and the parents. Finding the relevant causes for potential failure will not necessarily lead to learned helplessness, which makes self-regulation ineffective, if not impossible. In addition, considering causes realistically, and comparing outcomes with origins of behaviour, are a prerequisite for monitoring behaviour in an adaptive manner.

Finally, Action control theory (Heckhausen, 1991; Kuhl, 1987) contributes to self-regulation research, by distinguishing the different phases between intention and action. In self-regulation these phases signify points for potential intervention by the teacher. Identifying problem areas, such as whether the student has a problem with setting a goal or pursuing it, allows for potentially successful teacher intervention, especially if the student is equipped with help-seeking devices. Furthermore, the idea of crossing the Rubicon manifests itself in the form of assisting and supporting the student in breaking through the barrier between non-regulation and regulation, from which point effective regulation can start to take place.

These points are identified as the most important situations where motivation research can inform self-regulation research and subsequently vice versa. The notions of consciousness and intention, which in the definitions of self-regulation take the form of control, planning and monitoring, indicate that these aspects of learning and behaviour should be addressed in more depth by motivation research. Action control theory and Self-determination theory take these notions partly into account, but this is definitely an

area where the self-regulatory paradigm offers a broader view. Furthermore, the very nature of regulation is an aspect that makes the concept of self-regulation more promising when investigating human behaviour. The antecedents of motivation studied by this line of investigation are also present in self-regulatory enquiries, for example goals and the environment that guide and constrain on behaviour (Pintrich, 2000).

Motivation and self-regulation research in conjunction can pinpoint those areas in a student's development (such as attributions, goal-setting, and strategy training, cf. the hero quest in Section 2.2.6.2) that require teacher intervention, either in the form of gentle assistance or direct help. In spite of the fact that being motivated and being a self-regulatory learner implies that learning can take place alone, as a solitary act (Peters & Gray, 2005), it is rather an undertaking embedded in a social context, especially in countries where learning a language happens primarily in the form of classroom learning, such as in Hungary. Therefore, combining the two paradigms is a valid point of view in studying teachers' motivational strategies and students' self-regulation in the English language classroom.

2.4 Summary

This chapter has outlined two important approaches to studying human behaviour with a special focus on the field of education: motivation and self-regulation research. The aim of this chapter was to summarise the trends in educational research that contributed to the launch of this research project, and that shaped it until the very last moment. Motivation is the root of all human behaviour, in that it guides behaviour in complex and intricate ways, and has direct and indirect links to behavioural outcomes. It can be studied from a macroperspective (cf. Gardner and his associates'

line of investigation), or from a microperspective (cf. classroom-based research). Motivation research can explain trends in behaviour (quantitative approaches), uncover individual actions (qualitative approaches), and build models and describe profiles of students. In educational research a gradual shift from the macroperspective to classroom-based solutions has taken place, and currently researchers are trying to combine dynamic approaches into motivation research. Additional lines of research that contributed to my research included motivational strategies and the motivational teaching practice, which are believed to foster motivated language learning behaviour.

Self-regulation research is another aspect of investigating human behaviour. This chapter explored how a relatively limited point of view (focussed on good language learners and learning strategies) found new impetus in self-regulation. The combination of expertise in the characteristics of GLLs, learning strategies and control over various aspects of behaviour led researchers to examine the classroom from a different angle, attempting to consider how students manage their learning. Furthermore, instructional aspects of self-regulation, including developmental stages, dysfunctions in self-regulation, and autonomy, were examined.

The combination of why and how students act (motivation and self-regulation respectively) can extend our knowledge of the processes in learning. A lot of classroom-based research needs to be generated (Nikolov, 2009a, 2009b) in order to gain more in-depth insights into the teaching-learning process and the motivation of students, and it is the aim of this dissertation to contribute to that research.

PART II

THE STUDY

The second part of this dissertation consists of a detailed report on the research methods and findings. Chapter 3 presents the methods that were used in the study, including the rationale, the research gap, the research questions, the participants, the setting and the instruments. In Chapter 4, I will present the findings of the quantitative analysis, and in Chapter 5, I will give account of the findings of the qualitative analysis. Chapter 6 contains the discussion resulting from my research, in which I will offer answers to the research questions posed, using data from both the quantitative and the qualitative analyses. Finally, in Chapter 7, conclusions will be drawn, and the limitations and the pedagogical implications of the study will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Rationale, research niche and research questions

What is clear from the literature review previously discussed and my own observations is that (i) the focus of motivation research has shifted towards a more cognitive (and dynamic) conceptualisation, where the student is an active participant of the learning process, rather than being merely the passive recipient of the benefits of teaching; (ii) both sides, that is, teachers and students, play a prominent role in the process of generating motivation; and (iii) attitudes, strategies, techniques, beliefs and awareness all seem to have become important concepts in the teaching process,

replacing the overarching terms of aptitude or knowledge of learners that were believed to play key roles in achieving academic success (cf. Dörnyei, 2009b).

The aim of my research project was to investigate how teachers motivate students to learn as well as how students self-regulate themselves, to map teachers' and students' beliefs about these processes, and to attempt to find a link between the two sides in a belief that it is possible to combine the effects of motivating teachers and self-regulating students. As a result of reviewing the literature, the following can be stated:

1. It is scarce to find empirical studies that investigate how teachers can motivate their students to learn with the help of motivational strategies (an exception is Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Although researchers have recently focussed directly on this issue (e.g., Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2009), the Cheng and Dörnyei study focussed on Taiwan, while the Guilloteaux and Dörnyei study used an instrument that was too structured, and which neglected the contribution of interviews as a research tool (McCracken, 1988).
2. There is an apparent lack of research into investigating to what extent students feel motivated as a result of the teacher using motivational strategies (i.e., the link between teachers and students in the teaching-learning process). The studies that were mentioned relied heavily on one type of instrument: observation (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2009), questionnaire (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Wolters, 1999), or interview (Lemos, 1999). A research project that intends to map and link both sides need to incorporate more varied instrumentation (cf. triangulation, Szokolszky, 2004). I have not found research that has focussed

equally on students and teachers in the hope of finding a strong link between the two sides.

3. Csizér (2003) argued that small-scale qualitative studies can shed light on motivational strategies.
4. Dörnyei's (2001a) model of motivational teaching practice serves as a suitable and useful starting point, but it cannot reveal a comprehensive picture without considering both the teachers' and the students' opinions and beliefs in considerable depth.
5. There is an increasing need for developing students' self-regulatory strategies (Molnár, 2002a, 2003), and also for mapping the Hungarian situation (Molnár, 2002a). Molnár's (2002b) claim that all students use self-regulatory strategies is a good starting point.
6. Earlier studies (Mezei, 2007, 2008b; Mezei & Csizér, 2005) revealed that teachers instinctively use several motivational strategies that can collectively be identified as the motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a).

Having considered the above-mentioned statements, I decided to carry out a study that concentrated on investigating an issue that is the focus of present-day motivation research (i.e., self-regulation and motivational strategies), but using a methodological approach that has been only partially applied in studying these issues (a combination of interviews, classroom observation, and questionnaires). This resulted in a research project of mixed methodology (Dörnyei, 2007a; McDonough & McDonough, 1997), aiming to try and better understand the personal stories of the participants (qualitative approach) and the interplay of various motivational and self-regulation-related variables (quantitative approach).

My research was guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the nature of secondary English teachers' motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a)?
 - 1a. What motivational strategies do they use in class?
 - 1b. How do the motivational teaching practice and the motivational strategies have an effect on motivated language learning behaviour?
2. How do these teachers view their attempts to motivate their students to learn?
 - 2a. What does it mean to these teachers to motivate their students to learn?
 - 2b. What beliefs and attitudes are involved in these views?
3. How do secondary school students regulate (Pintrich, 2000; Stockdale, 2003) their learning English?
 - 3a. What elements of self-regulation are present in students' learning English?
 - 3b. Is there a statistically significant difference between the groups that can be detected as the effect of the teacher?
4. How do secondary school students perceive their self-regulatory system (Pintrich, 2000; Stockdale, 2003)?
 - 4a. To what extent are the students aware of self-regulation?
 - 4b. To what extent are the students self-directed language learners?
 - 4c. How do learning experiences (Stockdale, 2003) and the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a) relate to each other in students?
5. How do secondary school students view the motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a) of their English teacher?
 - 5a. How do students perceive their teacher's efforts to motivate them?

- 5b. Is there a statistically significant difference between the teachers in their motivational teaching practice?
6. What are the links between the motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a) of teachers, and the self-regulated language learning (Stockdale, 2003) of their students?
- 6a. Is there a statistically significant link between the motivational teaching practice, and the extent to which the students are self-regulated?
- 6b. Is there a difference between how different teachers' motivational teaching practice has an effect on self-regulated learning?
- 6c. How are the motivational teaching practice and self-regulated learning related?

To answer the questions above I conducted a study of mixed methodology, preceded by two pilot studies which focussed on validating the instruments. The mixed methods study finds solid support in the fact that both opinions, beliefs and individual viewpoints were explored (qualitative aspect), and also that a large amount of students' motivational dispositions and attitudes to motivational strategies were investigated (quantitative aspect). The pilot studies served as validating the instruments used in the main study. The following sections outline how the pilot studies were conducted, with reliability coefficients where relevant, and present the methodology of the main study.

3.2 Pilot study 1: Validating the interview guides

In order to gain a credible insight into teachers' and students' view concerning the motivational teaching practice, the motivational strategies teachers use, and how in general they motivate their students to learn, two interviews needed to be developed. A

teacher interview guide and a student interview guide, including sections related to motivation, autonomy and beliefs, were thus constructed so as to find answers to these questions. As the topics and questions were decided in advance, the interviews were as such semi-structured, and can be considered interview guides (Patton, 2002). However, the format was flexible enough to allow for slight changes in the wording and order of the questions during the interview if necessary.

The teacher interview schedule went through the validation process, which was documented in Mezei (2006), and the student interview followed the same steps. What follows is a short summary of that process:

1. Literature review and brainstorming: This first step served to orientate and narrow down the focus of the research area by collecting and organising the main ideas related to the motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a). By studying the literature, and after a period of self-reflection, the most important groups of questions were identified, and some sub-topics listed, all of them relating to how teachers motivate their students to learn. Two main threads were identified: (i) teachers' strategies as to how they motivate their students, and (ii) attitudes and beliefs about these strategies.
2. Teachers' ideas: Five teachers of English and German in a secondary school were asked to elaborate on their opinions regarding motivational strategies, and were also asked to finish the sentence "I motivate my students to learn by ...". These contributions were typed up and compared to the points of the initial brainstorming session. The potential participants' opinion strongly contributed to the credibility and dependability of the research instrument by mapping the territory.

3. First creation of categories: At this point three aspects of the research were dovetailed – (i) Dörnyei’s (2001a) motivational teaching practice and the related motivational strategies, (ii) my initial ideas about the issue, and (iii) the teachers’ point of view –, this multiple aspect helping to create the categories used as a basis for the interviews. The fact that these three aspects covered noticeably similar ideas further ensures that construct validity is appropriate.
4. First version of the interview guide: These categories were expanded into actual questions. First, the logical thread of the interview was established, then questions were created with sub-questions. Prompts were added in order to elicit more detailed answers if necessary, this procedure helping to fine-tune the sessions in that prompts can turn into questions or give rise to alternative questions.
5. Expert view: After the first version of the interview was ready, an expert on the topic was asked to give her opinion about the interview guide. She suggested that the order of the questions should be rethought, and also that some further minor changes should be made.
6. Interview: It was also part of the interview strategy to select the most appropriate teachers to participate in the study. In this case, three teachers, Cecília, Daniella and Ernesztina (see Section 3.4.1.1) agreed to be interviewed. The interview was transcribed after it had taken place, and sent to the interviewee for further comments.
7. Analysis and fine-tuning: In the case of these interviews, the interviewees did not comment further on them. The script was carefully read and analysed, and some modifications were made, mostly in wording. Some new

questions were added by introducing the prompt as a better question, or by rewording other prompts.

8. Cyclical repetition of fine-tuning: The interview, analysis and fine-tuning processes were repeated on two more occasions.

The final version of the teacher interview can be seen in Appendix A, along with the student interview in Appendix B. The pilot interviews lasted between 40 and 60 minutes.

With the student interview, the same steps were taken as had been carried out during the teacher interview process, but this time, the teacher interview served as a basis for the interview since the aim was to tap into the same areas of interest, that is, the motivational teaching practice of teachers and the motivational strategies they use. Thus, it was fairly simple to compare the teacher and student aspects, since the interviews were built up following the same logic and the same focus of research interest. The three pilot student interviews lasted between 15 and 25 minutes. Before the interview started, each participant, teachers and students alike, was informed about the aim of the interview, the main issues to be discussed, and the expected length of it. At the beginning of the interview, all of them were asked to agree to be interviewed and recorded.

3.3 Pilot study 2: Validating the questionnaires

Considering the aims of the main study, three questionnaires were needed: (i) a Motivational strategies questionnaire to measure what motivational strategies are present in the teachers' motivational teaching practice according to the students; (ii) a self-regulation questionnaire to measure to what extent students can be considered self-

regulating learners and autonomous (Learning experience scale); and (iii) a Motivation questionnaire to establish the students' motivational disposition.

The Motivation questionnaire I used did not need piloting because it is an already validated questionnaire (Kormos & Csizér, 2008). Although the Kormos and Csizér study also included adult learners in their scope, the population and the setting were primarily the same in the two studies: secondary school students of English in Budapest. The Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale, however, needed testing. The former one did not exist as a questionnaire, and the latter one was only validated in English by Stockdale (2003).

As a first step, an initial version of each questionnaire was formulated by translating Dörnyei's (2001a) motivational strategies and Stockdale's (2003) questionnaire items into Hungarian. The items obtained were read by a student, and fine-tuned on the basis of their suggestions. After this, the questionnaires went through the think-aloud protocol: a 13-year-old student and a 17-year-old student filled out the questionnaires, then expressed their opinion on the wording and clarity of the items. Some items were reworded, but most of them remained intact. This was followed by administering the questionnaires to a group of students. Altogether 88 students filled them out in five classes in the secondary school where Teacher 3, Cecília, teaches. Piloting of the questionnaires took place in early 2010.

The basic biodata of the 88 students who participated in the actual pilot study can be seen in Table 3.1. They were all from the same secondary school in Budapest, the majority of them studied English as a second language, but one class participated in a bilingual education programme. Altogether they were from five different classes, but the number of language groups involved was not revealed as the students filled in the

questionnaires with the head teacher, not with the English teacher, in order to avoid bias.

Table 3.1 The biodata of the students participating in validating the questionnaires

Year	Number of students	Gender		
		Boys	Girls	Missing gender
9	13	3	10	0
9	26	9	14	3
9	15	3	12	0
11	23	9	13	1
11 (bilingual)	11	6	2	3
Altogether	88	30	51	7

Both questionnaires contained questions that needed to be answered on a five-point scale, and students needed to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with the statements. The items covered four areas in the case of each questionnaire, as follows:

Motivational strategies questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2001a)

1. Creating the basic motivational conditions (eight questions): the preconditions that are necessary to further motivational attempts. Example: The atmosphere in the English lessons is pleasant.
2. Generating initial motivation (eight questions): ways of encouraging learners to identify with the goals of the classroom, enhancing values and attitudes, and increasing expectancy of success. Example: We formulated and accepted explicit class goals.
3. Maintaining and protecting motivation (fourteen questions): preventing students from abandoning goals, getting bored of activities and being distracted. Example: The teacher uses goal-setting methods in the classroom.

4. Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation (six questions): appraisals and reactions to successes and failures. Example: The teacher promotes effort attributions in the students.

Learning experience scale (Stockdale, 2003)

1. Initiative (six questions): students' effort to do work in addition to what is required at school, or their desire to find materials outside school without the teacher. Example: I frequently do extra work in a course just because I am interested.
2. Control (six questions): organising learning to become more successful and more motivated. Example: I always effectively take responsibility for my own learning.
3. Self-efficacy (six questions): belief in one's capacity to produce effects. Example: I am certain about my capacity to take primary responsibility for my learning.
4. Motivation (seven questions): motivation to take part in lessons, enjoy the lessons and complete course requirements. Example: I complete most of the activities because I WANT to, not because I HAVE to.

The pilot study mostly concerned analysing the questionnaire items with the help of SPSS; principal component analysis was carried out, and reliability measures were calculated. Principal component analysis was used to identify the loadings of the various items on the scales, and items with weak loadings or items that loaded on another factor were removed in order to make the scale more reliable. Reliability coefficients (Cronbach alphas) were computed, with a figure above .70 being

considered acceptable (Dörnyei, 2007a), which was the case with half of the scales in the first round. The number of components means how homogenous the scale is: the fewer components obtained, the more homogenous the scale is, in other words, the items measure the same concept. Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 below summarise the findings.

Table 3.2 The components, reliability coefficients and later removed items of the Motivational strategies questionnaire items

Scale	Components obtained	Reliability coefficient	Items removed
Creating the basic motivational conditions	3	.733	24, 30
Generating initial motivation	2	.414	36
Maintaining and protecting motivation	5	.782	11, 14
Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation	2	.597	27, 32

Table 3.3 The components, reliability coefficients and later removed items of the Learning experience scale

Scale	Components obtained	Reliability coefficient	Items removed
Initiative (Teaching learning transaction component)	2	.674	25
Control (Teaching learning transaction component)	2	.585	13, 23
Self-efficacy (Learner characteristic component)	2	.782	1, 7, 12
Motivation (Learner characteristic component)	2	.712	16, 18

As can be seen from these tables, the reliability coefficient of four scales were acceptable after the first run, one was very close to acceptable, two were slightly below acceptable, and only one scale was really problematic. In the case of the self-efficacy scale of the Learning experience scale, the components showed an unusual separation into two components, which needed closer examination. The items removed column indicates which items needed to be removed at first glance. However, after one or more variations were run, these items changed too. The finalised version can be found in Table 3.4 and Table 3.5.

After removing the items, a new analysis was computed to check the reliability coefficients again. The self-efficacy scale was broken into two, and the one with the higher reliability coefficient was kept. Table 3.4 and Table 3.5 summarise the removed items, finalised reliability measures, and how much improvement was achieved by the reliability analysis.

Table 3.4 The removed items, new reliability coefficients and improved reliability of the Motivational strategies questionnaire items

Scale	Items removed	New reliability coefficient	Improvement
Creating the basic motivational conditions	12, 24, 30	.741	.008
Generating initial motivation	36	.752	.338
Maintaining and protecting motivation	11, 14	.783	.001
Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation	27, 32	.647	.050

Table 3.5 The removed items, new reliability coefficients and improved reliability of the Learning experience scale items

Scale	Items removed	New reliability coefficient	Improvement
Initiative (Teaching learning transaction component)	25	.828	.154
Control (Teaching learning transaction component)	13, 23	.703	.118
Self-efficacy (Learner characteristic component)	1, 7, 12	.884	.102
Motivation (Learner characteristic component)	16, 18	.762	.050

Reliability improved in all cases; however, the fourth scale of the Motivational strategies questionnaire fell below the expected figure, even if this discrepancy is small. In the case of the first and third scales of the Learning experience scale, the improved figures were consistently above .80, which is a very good result. Two items were added to the fourth scale of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and one item was added

to the self-efficacy scale of the Learning experience scale, so that the scales were not too short.

3.4 The main study

In this section, the main study's participants, setting, instruments and procedures, including data collection and analysis, will be described in detail. Since the pilot studies played a prominent role in shaping the main study, this resulted in the embedded nature of the two phases of the research, especially in regards to the participating teachers. The main study focussed on two teachers and their students, none of whom participated in the pilot phase, with additional data from three other teachers (interviews mainly) and some of their students (interviews and/or questionnaires).

3.4.1 Participants and setting

3.4.1.1 The teachers

Altogether five teachers participated in the research, all of them being selected by criterion sampling (see below). They volunteered to participate in the study for no financial compensation. Pseudonyms are used throughout the study, and in order to make it easier to read the dissertation, the nicknames that are used to identify the teachers 1 to 5 are in alphabetical order, from A to E.

Table 3.6 Profiles of the participating teachers

	Teacher 1 Annabella	Teacher 2 Boglárka	Teacher 3 Cecilia	Teacher 4 Daniella	Teacher 5 Ernesztina
Gender	Female	Female	Female	Female	Female
Location	Budapest, secondary grammar school (8 years)	County capital, secondary grammar school (8 years)	Budapest, secondary grammar school (8 years)	Budapest, language school	Budapest, language school + vocational training school
Teaches	English, mentor teacher	English, History	English	English	English, Social studies
Age group	10-18-year old students	10-18-year old students	14-19-year old students	Adults only	18-20-year old students, adults
Years of experience	more than 25 years	10 years	6 years	10 years	11 years
Year of data collection	2010	2010	2006	2006	2006
Instruments used	Teacher interview; student interview; observation; student questionnaires	Teacher interview; student interview; observation; student questionnaires	Teacher interview; student interview	Teacher interview	Teacher interview

Only two of the teachers (Annabella and Boglárka) participated in all parts of data collection, in other words the teacher interview, the student interviews, three questionnaires with the students, and classroom observation. Three of them volunteered to provide differing data: the teacher interview and student interviews in the case of Cecilia, and teacher interviews only in the case of Daniella and Ernesztina. These latter three teachers participated in the validation of the interviews (see Section 3.2). All of the teachers are female and three of them teach English only; the other two teach History and Social studies, respectively, in addition to English. Four of them are located in Budapest, the fifth lives in a county capital. Three teachers teach in a secondary school only, while the other two also teach in language schools and one of those two participates in vocational training as well. They have extended teaching experience, with four of them having between 6 and 11 years experience, and one is a really

experienced teacher, with more than 25 years experience. The profiles of the five teachers, along with the types of data they supplied and the instruments used are detailed in Table 3.6.

In qualitative research the sampling procedure is guided by a desire to gain a deep and meaningful insight into certain phenomena (e.g., Szokolszky, 2004). Considering this fact, criterion sampling (Dörnyei, 2007a) was used, the participants being chosen because they met certain criteria that were important in the research study. In this study, two such criteria were established beforehand: firstly, that no beginner teachers were to be asked to participate, and secondly, that the participating teachers needed to have a good reputation, that is, they needed to be recommended by a fellow teacher and/or appreciated by the students as a good teacher. The first criterion can be established on objective grounds, however, it is not easy to draw the line where one can no more be considered a beginner teacher. Good reputation is even less straightforward, nevertheless, the interviews and subsequent observation supported my choice. These teachers fulfilled the two criteria established beforehand. At the same time, the sampling strategy can be considered homogenous sampling (Dörnyei, 2007a) as the participants shared very similar attributes (except for the length of experience), and also purposive sampling (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993) as they were considered to be representative of the phenomenon under study. The reason why there was no comprehensive sampling plan was that, due to the intensive nature of teachers' working lives, it was not easy to convince them to participate in a research study.

3.4.1.2 The students and the setting

The students of Annabella were in year 9 (age 15) at the time of data collection. They were in one class but in two different groups, streamed according to their level of English knowledge. Twenty-nine students filled in both questionnaires and three students were interviewed (but one of them did not fill in the questionnaires). Eighteen of the twenty-nine students belonged to the stronger group, studying an intermediate-level course, and eight students were in the weaker group, with a pre-intermediate level of knowledge. Their secondary school is in Budapest, and students attend the school between the ages of 10 and 18. The school is not specialised in any way, but considers religious education important. These students participated in both the observation and the questionnaire parts of the study, and in addition, three of them as well as Annabella were interviewed. The pseudonyms of Annabella's students are Ádám, Adél and Ábel.

Boglárka's students come from four different classes (groups) in year 9 and 10. Altogether sixty-three students filled in the questionnaires and five students were interviewed. The classes learn English in groups that are decided beforehand on the basis of what foreign language they learnt previously (if any), and sometimes, if there are too many applicants for a language, on the basis of achievement (i.e., grades in other subjects). Classes that are marked A (for example 9.A) are always stronger students who previously learnt English or participated in a year of intensive language learning. Their school is a secondary school of good reputation, and considered the best in its town (a county capital); the teachers treat the students accordingly. They are not specialised in language teaching, however, teachers consider language learning of utmost importance, and consistently transmit this message to their students. These classes took part in the observation and also filled in the questionnaires; in addition,

Boglárka was interviewed, along with five students, whose pseudonyms are Bea, Buda, Betti, Bori and Brigi.

Cecília participated in one of the pre-studies to this dissertation, in which the teacher interview was validated. Later, three students (Csilla, Csaba and Csenge) were interviewed in order to validate the student version of the interview guide on motivating students to learn. Their secondary school is average, in the sense that it does not specialise in any particular subject area. In the case of these students and teacher, no observation took place and no questionnaires were filled in, but the students and Cecília were interviewed. However, with the exception of Csaba, this English teacher was not their English teacher.

Table 3.7 Profiles of the participating students

	Annabella's students	Boglárka's students	Students from Cecília's school	University students
Number of students	29	63	3	9
Boys	9	22	1	2
Girls	17	41	2	7
Missing gender	3	0	0	0
Place of study	Secondary school, Budapest	Secondary school, town of county status	Secondary school, Budapest	University, Budapest
Age	15	15-16	18-19	~20
Groups	Stronger: 18 Weaker: 8 Unknown: 3	9.A: 16 9.B: 17 10.A: 14 10.B: 16		
Instruments used	Questionnaires; student interview; teacher interview; observation	Questionnaires; student interview; teacher interview; observation	Student interview; teacher interview	Questionnaires; student interview
Students interviewed	Ádám, Adél, Ábel	Bea, Buda, Betti, Bori, Brigi	Csilla, Csaba, Csenge	Fanni, Flóra

The fourth group of students consisted of nine students in tertiary education, who were taught by myself. They attended a prestigious university in Budapest and had ESP in their English lessons at the university. They filled in the questionnaire on a voluntary basis and two of them (Fanni and Flóra) agreed to be interviewed. Table 3.7 summarises the data of the participating students. Note that the nicknames of the students were chosen in harmony with the first letter of the corresponding teacher's nickname, thus, Annabella has *Ádám*, *Adél* and *Ábel* as students, and so on.

3.4.2 Instruments and procedures

I initially approached the teachers, explaining the purpose of my study, asking for their consent to be interviewed and tape-recorded, and promising confidentiality on a number of occasions. Regarding the schools involved, the heads of school were provided with a short description of the research plan including the aim of the study, the instruments to be used, and the fact that names and places would be treated under pseudonyms, and any confidential information would be treated accordingly. The heads of school signed a form of agreement, and were offered the chance to be able to withdraw from the study at any time before data collection was completed. The teachers were informed about the same issues and could also withdraw from the study before the end of data collection. Both the heads and the teachers also had the opportunity to check the instruments being used beforehand. The students were asked to inform their parents about the research project, and their parents signed a form of consent. They were promised confidentiality, and could also withdraw from the study before the end of data collection. In the next sections, the finalised forms of the instruments are detailed along with some procedural remarks.

3.4.2.1 Interviews

Interviews with the participating teachers and some of their students were carried out, and validated as described above in Section 3.2. Both the teacher and the student interview guide can be found in Appendix A and B respectively.

The teacher interviews centred on the following issues:

- Background questions: what subject the teacher teaches, how long she has been teaching, and in what kind of institution;
- General questions about teaching: whether she likes teaching, and why;
- Motivational strategies: the most important motivational strategies as identified during validation and from Dörnyei's (2001a) motivational teaching practice (e.g., motivational strategies concerning atmosphere in class, relationship between the students and the teacher, rewards, feedback, praise, extra-curricular activities, or goals);
- Self-regulation and autonomy: whether the teacher spends time developing the students' autonomy, and if so, how; how her personal experience affects the way she develops (or does not develop) the students' autonomy;
- Rounding off: what the teacher means by motivating the students, what motivational strategies, if any, the teacher uses in her class, and whether she intends to spend more time developing autonomy and motivation to learn in students;
- Closing: whether the teacher has anything to add.

The student interview was built up as follows:

- Background questions: what languages the student is learning, whether s/he has spent a substantial amount of time abroad, whether s/he likes English in general and English classes in particular;
- Motivational strategies: the most important motivational strategies as identified during validation and from Dörnyei's (2001a) motivational teaching practice (e.g., motivational strategies concerning atmosphere in class, relationship between the students and the teacher, rewards, feedback, praise, extra-curricular activities, or goals);
- Self-regulation and autonomy: how autonomous the student considers himself/herself (i.e., how independent s/he is from the teacher), what extra related activities s/he does that is not in direct connection with what they do in class;
- Rounding off: how much the English teacher motivates the student to learn English, what the student would do differently if they were the English teacher;
- Closing: whether the student has anything to add.

The main body of the interviews, concerning motivational strategies and self-regulation, asked the participants the exact same questions, so that contrasts and comparisons between the students and the teachers could be made more easily. The other parts of the interviews focussed on the same issues but from a different point of view.

The interviews were recorded with the consent of the participants. In most cases they took place in school, but in some cases they were carried out in the home of either the teacher or the researcher. The length of the interviews with the teachers varied between 45 and 70 minutes, while the interviews with the students lasted between 15

and 25 minutes on average, except for one with a university student that lasted 44 minutes. The interview data was subject to qualitative content analysis as described below in Section 3.4.3.

3.4.2.2 Questionnaires

Three questionnaires were used in the study, all of which were distributed to the students. They cover three areas of interest: (i) the motivational disposition of the students (Kormos & Csizér, 2008), (ii) the motivational strategies their English teacher uses (Dörnyei, 2001a), and (iii) self-regulation (the Learning experience scale, Stockdale, 2003). The questionnaires were handed to the teachers to distribute to the students, and appropriate instructions as to how to do that were also included. As the questionnaires were considered to be too long, the teachers were asked to make the students fill in the questionnaires in two phases, and envelopes were provided so that the students would feel confident that their teachers had no access to their data. Due to the fact that the students had to fill in two questionnaires, their names were required to be able to match them.

The questionnaires contained questions that needed to be answered on a five-point scale, and students needed to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with the statements. In the case of each questionnaire the items covered the following areas:

Motivation questionnaire (Kormos & Csizér, 2008)

1. Ideal L2 self (five questions): the students' views of themselves as successful L2 speakers. Example: Speaking English would help me with my future career.

2. Ought-to L2 self (five questions): students' views of language-related issues and attributes they think they should possess. Example: To become an intelligent person, I need to speak English.
3. Instrumental orientation (four questions): pragmatic aspects of being able to speak a language well, such as a higher salary. Example: Nowadays, those who speak English have better jobs.
4. International orientation (six questions): students' views about English as an international language. Example: English is one of the most important languages in the world.
5. Milieu (four questions): the attitude of significant others about the importance of English. Example: People around me tend to think that it is good to speak languages.
6. Self-confidence (five questions): students' conviction as to how easily and how successfully they can learn English. Example: I am sure that I can learn a foreign language well.
7. Motivated language learning behaviour (five questions): students' efforts and persistence in learning English. Example: It is very important to me to learn English.

Motivational strategies questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2001a)

1. Creating the basic motivational conditions (four questions): the preconditions that are necessary to further motivational attempts. Example: The atmosphere in the English lessons is pleasant.
2. Generating initial motivation (six questions): ways of encouraging learners to identify with the goals of the classroom, enhancing values and attitudes, and

increasing expectancy of success. Example: We formulated and accepted explicit class goals.

3. Maintaining and protecting motivation (seven questions): preventing students from abandoning goals, getting bored of activities and being distracted. Example: The teacher uses goal-setting methods in the classroom.
4. Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation (five questions): appraisals and reactions to successes and failures. Example: The teacher promotes effort attributions in the students.

Learning experience scale (Self-directedness) (Stockdale, 2003)

1. Initiative (four questions): students' effort to do work after finishing it in school, or their desire to find materials outside school without the help of the teacher. Example: I frequently do extra work in a course just because I am interested.
2. Control (four questions): organising learning to become more successful and more motivated. Example: I always effectively take responsibility for my own learning.
3. Self-efficacy (four questions): belief in one's capacity to produce effects. Example: I am certain about my capacity to take primary responsibility for my learning.
4. Motivation (four questions): motivation to take part in lessons, enjoy the lessons and complete course requirements. Example: I complete most of the activities because I WANT to, not because I HAVE to.

3.4.2.3 Observation

Observation in this dissertation is a supplement to the two main instruments, the interviews and the questionnaires. Although it is a basic tool in qualitative studies, prolonged participation in the life of the classes was impossible for several reasons. However, ten lessons were observed with each teacher who agreed (Annabella, Boglárka and Daniella), and in one of the pre-studies (Mezei & Csizér, 2005) twenty lessons were monitored. The observation served as a follow-up to, or as a check on, what teachers and students talked about in the interviews.

In the pre-study mentioned above, no real observation sheet was used, as it was believed that pre-ordered categories would negatively influence data to be collected. This, as a matter of fact, rendered data analysis more complicated. As such, in this study some categories were established to facilitate note-taking, nevertheless, it remained note-taking as opposed to more highly-structured observation sheet, where tallying can be turned into statistics (e.g., Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). For the observation sheet, see Appendix F.

3.4.3 Data analysis

Data analysis consisted of both statistical analyses (the questionnaires), carried out with the help of the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), and qualitative content analyses (interview and observation data) as suggested by Maykut and Morehouse (1994). The following statistical procedures were computed:

- Reliability coefficients and the descriptive statistics of the scales were calculated, in order to identify how reliable the scales were and to establish the basic characteristics of the scales.
- Paired samples t-tests were run in order to compare the scales and to identify if there was an interdependence between the different scales of the questionnaires (motivational strategies and learning experience).
- Independent samples t-tests were run in order to identify if the teacher had an effect on the difference between the students' performance on the scales (motivation, motivational strategies and learning experience or self-regulation).
- Correlations were calculated between the different scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale, in order to identify the interrelatedness of the motivational teaching practice and the level of self-regulation (i.e., autonomy or learning experience) in students. In addition, correlations helped to identify a link between the motivational strategies of the teachers and motivated language learning behaviour of the students. In order to compare the strength of the correlations, the Fisher r-to-z transformation was used.
- Regression analysis showed which scales played the most important role in predicting motivated language learning behaviour.

Qualitative data analysis followed the steps of the so-called constant comparative method (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994) as was already described in the case of interview validation. Following the literature review, and exploratory studies not detailed above, the interviews were conducted, and the main themes were then identified in relation to the research questions. Emergent themes were also subsequently

inserted, reflecting an increasing understanding of the interviewees' stories. The thorough examination of the interviews allowed for grouping the subtopics around central themes and identifying the points of interest, as presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 4

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING PRACTICE AND SELF-REGULATION: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to uncover the relationship between the motivational teaching practice of the participating teachers and the self-regulation of their students, in the hope of finding meaningful links and effects between the two. Various aspects of these concepts were investigated using a range of tools from descriptive statistics to more advanced statistical analyses. These tools allowed for the investigation of those aspects of the research questions that needed solid support from statistics. The picture that has been pieced together sheds light on various facets of student motivation and the motivational teaching practice, which can potentially uncover relevant information as to how the two interact – this is all the more important because interviews themselves cannot reveal such close relationships. The motivational teaching practice, the self-regulation of students and the subtle effects they have on each other are focussed upon in this chapter; Chapter 5 will reveal additional information on the participants' beliefs and attitudes with the help of interviews.

The intention of this chapter, thus, is to gain an insight into how latent dimensions of the concepts under study are interrelated. More specifically, this chapter addresses questions such as the extent to which teachers use motivational strategies perceived by the students, how self-directed the students are, what scales are the most important when describing the students' motivational dispositions, how the students of Annabella and Boglárka differ on the scales of the motivational teaching practice and

self-directedness, and what are the best predictors of motivated language learning behaviour in this population of students. These questions are investigated with the help of the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), which analyses the statistical relationships between variables such as scales of the questionnaires, teachers and groups of students. First, descriptive statistics of the scales are presented along with reliability coefficients; then the established scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale are described; finally, correlational analyses of the scales and the relationship between the scales and the criterion measure, motivated language learning behaviour, are analysed.

4.2 Descriptive statistics of the scales

As was described in the previous section, both the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale underwent piloting to establish whether they contained reliable scales. Table 4.1 summarises the Cronbach alpha coefficients for both the pilot study and the main study in the case of each scale.

It can be seen that most of the scales have an appropriate value, but those values dropped in the case of three scales (creating the basic motivational conditions, initiative and milieu). The reliability coefficient of milieu dropped below the critical .60 value so it had to be excluded from further analysis, although it was not unacceptably and critically low. The other two were still above the acceptable .60 figure (Dörnyei, 2007a) so they were employed in further analysis. Explanations as to why lower reliability coefficients were obtained in the case of these three scales includes the fact that the research encompassed a comparatively less homogenous group of students from different schools (as opposed to one school in the pilot study), and the potentially

adverse effect of their names required on the questionnaires. In the case of milieu, it was impossible to increase reliability by excluding questions, because the scale comprised only four questions, and had already been validated. However, it remains to be answered why this scale did not work properly; a possible solution is random error due to the response format or administration error (Shevlin, Miles, Davies & Walker, 2000).

Table 4.1 Reliability coefficients of the scales in the pilot study and in the main study

Scales	Pilot study (N=88)	Main study (N=101)
Creating the basic motivational conditions	.74	.66
Generating initial motivation	.76	.80
Maintaining and protecting motivation	.81	.82
Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation	.65	.73
Initiative	.80	.76
Control	.60	.61
Self-efficacy	.62	.75
Motivation	.70	.75
Ideal L2 self	.83 ^a	.84
Ought-to L2 self	.31 ^a	.72
Instrumental orientation	.56 ^a	.72
International orientation	.73 ^a	.76
Milieu	.61 ^a	.57
Self-confidence	-.04 ^a	.94
Motivated language learning behaviour	.82 ^a	.84

^aKormos & Csizér, 2008

Apart from milieu, the other six scales from Kormos and Csizér's (2008) study proved to be reliable, and ought-to L2 self, instrumental orientation and self-confidence had a remarkably high reliability measure. This fact lends support to the reliability of the rest of the scales in this study. The fact that the reliability coefficients of the scales ought-to L2 self and instrumental orientation are considerably higher might refer to the fact that this population, in contrast to the Kormos and Csizér (2008) sample, consists mostly of secondary school students (with an additional nine university students) and

these motives are valued by this age group, who would thus supply a more homogenous range of answers. In other words, since duties, responsibilities and instrumental motives in general become increasingly important to this age group (see Nikolov, 1995, 1999, 2004), and these two scales include very similar components (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a), the fact that both increased in reliability seems normal and expected. Table 4.2 shows in more detail the descriptive statistics of the reliable scales (milieu excluded).

Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics of the reliable scales (N=101)

Scales	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard deviation
Creating the basic motivational condition	4.23	3.00	5.00	.52
Generating initial motivation	3.63	2.17	5.00	.66
Maintaining and protecting motivation	3.48	1.86	5.00	.67
Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation	3.60	2.20	5.00	.63
Initiative	2.92	1.00	5.00	.78
Control	3.79	2.00	5.00	.67
Self-efficacy	3.80	2.00	5.00	.72
Motivation	3.66	1.80	5.00	.67
Ideal L2 self	4.38	2.33	5.00	.64
Ought-to L2 self	3.91	1.40	5.00	.68
Instrumental orientation	4.13	2.25	5.00	.65
International orientation	4.31	2.83	5.00	.53
Self-confidence	3.62	1.40	5.00	.83
Motivated language learning behaviour	3.93	2.20	5.00	.69

The means vary between 2.92 (initiative) and 4.38 (ideal L2 self), but only the figures for initiative are below 3.00. The figures are not too high on average, and the figure for initiative is alarmingly low. The Learning experience scale is the only one out of the three questionnaires where there is no value above 3.80. This suggests that the students in this sample do not self-regulate themselves enough, and the result is not improved when the students are split into two groups, based on their teacher (Table 4.5). A closer look at the scores reveal that the motivational disposition of these students are

at the same level as in the case of other samples of Hungarian secondary school students (cf. Csizér, 2003; Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006; Kormos & Csizér, 2008), which on the one hand is support for the adequate sampling procedure, and on the other hand provides insight into the motivational disposition of average (i.e., not extreme) students. There is no data available regarding the motivational strategies and learning experiences in the same age group, but the comparative figures of the scales in the Motivation questionnaire suggest that these scores would be reflected if applied in other groups of Hungarian secondary school students. What follows from this is that the motivation of this population of students is average (that is, it does not deviate from previous research), that the motivational repertoire of the teachers (i.e., motivational strategies) reflects this, but that the self-regulation of the students shows some disparity. The reason why the values of the four scales of the Learning experience scale lag behind may be due to various factors: for example the emergence of self-regulating skills can only follow effective motivational strategies, and this may not have happened yet; alternatively it may be that the teachers are better at communicating motivational strategies than the students are at developing self-regulation; or there could be a potential discrepancy between the level of motivation and that of self-regulation, in that motivated language learning behaviour might be conducive to self-regulation and autonomy, as suggested by Kormos and Csizér (in press).

Regarding the motivational strategies, the result is slightly more promising as the value of creating the basic motivational condition is high enough, although this is the only scale where this is so. It suggests that the teachers, as perceived by the students, are able to lay the foundations for a motivating language learning environment, but then the process loses momentum, and not even the last phase is able to succeed in fulfilling its original aim to the expected level. Qualitative results may be able to find the answer

to why the teachers might not be able to sustain this momentum. The final stage of the motivational cycle, nevertheless, makes up for some of the loss. Section 4.3 shows the significant differences between the scales, while the similarities are shown in Section 4.5.

Overall, the values of the Learning experience scale provides the least positive figures of the three questionnaires among the students (Table 4.2). Anecdotal evidence supports this finding, with teachers in general complaining that their students are not autonomous enough, and also that their motivation to do so is questionable (3.66). If their self-efficacy improved (or was improved), this might lead to an overall increase in the figures of the scales in the Learning experience scale. Frequency counts (not displayed in a table) show that the variance observed in both scales does not reflect the normal bell-curve behaviour expected. The figures in initiative are the closest to a normal distribution, but this is the only scale where four students did not reach the average of 1.5, and furthermore only three students scored within the range of 4.51-5.00. The modus is the lowest too: 32 students scored between 2.51 and 3.00. The other three scales are skewed to the right, with two peaks in the case of control, overall low points in the case of self-efficacy, and one outstanding peak in the case of Motivation. The modus in the latter case is between 3.51 and 4 with 40 students in this range. In sum, the majority of the students is above 3.51 (60, 64 and 67 students in the case of control, self-efficacy and motivation respectively), but in the case of initiative, this figure is only 15. This result supports the anecdotal evidence, and suggests that the students' self-regulation suffers from serious deficit in that they are, on average, unable to actively take part in shaping English lessons. Although this is descriptive statistics only, later sections illustrate the crucial role initiative plays in both motivation and self-regulation.

The values of the Motivation questionnaire are the highest. Ideal L2 self proved to have the highest score, which could provide a useful indication as to how to motivate the students to learn, in that the integrative and internalised instrumental motives that this scale comprises (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a) could and should be promoted, with a special emphasis on the internalised component. The results of the qualitative data analysis (Chapter 5) shows how fostering the students' common sense and awareness can indirectly lead to increased motivation. This result, i.e., the prominent role of the ideal L2 self, is also in line with what Kormos and Csizér (2008) concluded. Instrumental orientation and international orientation of the students are also favourable, with values of 4.13 and 4.31 respectively. Among these scales, self-confidence has the lowest figure (3.62), and at the same time shows the highest standard deviation (.83). The students' self-concept (including self-confidence, self-efficacy, and self-worth among others) can have a motivational component, and can also impact other building blocks of the concept such as anxiety or a sense of achievement (Szenczi, 2008), ultimately affecting achievement in school (Kőrössi, 2004). As such emphasis should be placed on this component, especially because the psycho-social condition in general is low among Hungarian youth, compared to other European students (Elekes, 2009).

Although there is some variability in terms of individual scores, the values of standard deviation are in general not too high. Apart from self-confidence, initiative and self-efficacy display the highest standard deviation (.78 and .72 respectively). These scales are also among the ones that received the lowest scores. This indicates that the participating students form a relatively homogenous group, which, for the reasons mentioned above, can be considered a fairly good representation of secondary school students learning English in Hungary, with no extreme cases in either end of the motivational or self-regulatory continuum.

4.3 The scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and of the Learning experience scale

This section examines how the different scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale differ from one another, respectively. This comparison is important in that such analysis can shed light on whether these areas differ significantly from each other that they tap into different dimensions of the concept, and in so doing can explain potential sources of differences. Table 4.3 presents the comparison of the four scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire with the help of t-tests. The results reveal that the first phase of the cycle has a significantly higher value (4.23) than the others, and that the third phase of the cycle has a significantly lower value (3.48) than the rest of the phases. In other words, there is a significant difference between all the scales except for the second and fourth phases. This also not only means that creating the basic motivational conditions is the strongest scale, but that the third phase, maintaining and protecting motivation, received significantly the lowest overall score.

These significant relationships suggest that the motivational strategies provide a strong initial motivating force, but that later the teachers seem to lose momentum, and the final phase, encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation, though significantly higher than the third phase and significantly lower than the first phase, can reach only a value of 3.6. This strong start is also witnessed in the regression analysis model (Section 4.6), where only the first two phases play a role, albeit minor compared to other scales, in motivated language learning behaviour. These results are interpreted as the first phase has a key role in the motivational repertoire, and since the rest of the phases are significantly different from the first one, this first phase is of key importance in the

motivational teaching practice. The teachers' techniques (effort and/or enthusiasm) in the remaining part of the cycle fall short of the more dynamic initial motivational force. As the third phase, with an overall lowest score, is significantly different from the others, it can be concluded that the maintenance of motivation is the weakest part of the teachers' motivational repertoire. In other words, the teachers are very good at fuelling motivation at the beginning, but later, for various reasons, they cannot sustain the same level of motivation. The potential reasons for this could include the teachers becoming increasingly fatigued, an overly strong start making the subsequent normal values seem comparatively low, or the fact that the "honeymoon period" finishes and routine sets in. Further research is needed to strengthen or reject these explanations. Another issue to mention is that the first phase includes strategies that might involve fewer expectations, as opposed to the third phase in which new inspirations might be welcome. However, maintaining something seems to require more effort than creating it in the first place. To overcome this negative trend, student autonomy could contribute to a more positive recognition of the teachers' effort during the third phase.

Table 4.3 Comparison of the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire with the help of paired samples t-test

Scales	t-values
CBMC – GIM	13.56**
CBMC – MPM	13.26**
CBMC – EPRS	12.32**
GIM – MPM	3.75**
GIM – EPRS	.79
MPM – EPRS	-2.25*

*p<.05; **p<.01; CBMC=creating the basic motivational conditions; GIM=generating initial motivation; MPM=maintaining and protecting motivation; EPRS=encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

While a well-defined cycle can be identified in the case of motivational strategies, this is not the case with learning experiences. Table 4.4 shows, with the help

of t-tests, the differences between the scales of the Learning experience scale. As in the case of the Motivational strategies questionnaire, there is only one relationship that is not significant. Although no significant difference was found between control and self-efficacy, all the relationships between the rest of the scales are significant. This means that initiative has significantly the lowest value with 2.92, and the tiny difference between control and self-efficacy is not only small in value but not significant, either.

Table 4.4 Comparison of the scales of the Learning experience scale with the help of paired samples t-test

Scales	t-values
INI – CON	-12.02**
INI – SELF	-10.28**
INI – MOT	-10.98**
CON – SELF	-.23
CON – MOT	2.17*
SELF – MOT	2.09*

*p<.05; **p<.01; INI=initiative; CON=control; SELF=self-efficacy; MOT=motivation

To interpret the data, only the non-significant difference needs to be taken into account, since the other relationships show that these scales tap into different dimensions of the learning experience. The figure for initiative is significantly different from control, self-efficacy and motivation (to be active in class), while the figure for motivation is also significantly different from control and self-efficacy – in other words, they measure different areas of the concept of self-regulation. The lack of significant difference between control and self-efficacy, on the other hand, shows that these two dimensions cannot be separated entirely from each other. One of a number of possible reasons for this is that for the students control and self-efficacy cover similar domains of the learning experience, in that they both refer to a belief that one is able to manage learning and carry out action. The difference between control (i.e., organising learning)

and self-efficacy (i.e., the belief in one's capacity), however prominent, might have been unclear to the students responding to the questionnaire, since they are in the period of acquiring the skills to organise their learning (in a sometimes teacher-centred educational system) and are going through a turbulent period of building up their self and shaping their identity (Zentner & Renaud, 2007). Therefore, the lack of distinct difference between the two concepts might be due to the students not being aware of the clear boundaries of the concepts, as they are themselves are still learning the nature of these very notions.

Another reason for the non-significant difference between control and self-efficacy might be due to cultural differences. Since the origin of the questionnaire is the United States, it is possible that these concepts, and the way they are interpreted by students, vary across cultures. Cultural variance has been observed in the case of motivational strategies (cf. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Xavier, 2005), thus it is possible that sensitivity to various aspects of self-regulation also varies between different cultures. This hypothesis would certainly benefit from further research.

4.4 The effect of the teacher on student motivation, self-regulation and motivational strategies

Independent samples t-tests were carried out in order to examine how the students of Annabella and Boglárka performed on the 14 scales. The students were compared according to their teachers. As the groups of the teachers were in some cases too small, further comparison was not possible, and only the teachers could be compared. The results can shed light on whether the two teachers differ as to their

ability or potential to motivate their students to learn and foster self-regulation. Table 4.5 shows the results of the t-tests.

It can be seen that in the case of eight scales, there is a significant difference between the teachers, and in all cases Boglárka's students scored higher. All the motivational strategies scales, three of the self-directedness scales (except for initiative), and one of the motivation scales (motivated language learning behaviour) showed a significantly higher value in favour of Boglárka's students. This suggests that Boglárka has tools at her disposal that consistently result in better results for her students. At the same time it must be pointed out that, although Boglárka's students performed better, the difference is too small to be really noticeable in an actual classroom environment. Since the difference in the values is small, the effect is also small.

Looking more closely at the different scales, it becomes clear that the difference, apart from in two scales, remains consistent in the questionnaires. What follows from this is that Boglárka's students felt that their teacher was more effectively motivating them to learn with the help of motivational strategies, their self-directedness was higher, and, except for ought-to L2 self and instrumental orientation, they displayed higher levels of motivational disposition. As was mentioned above, however, this difference is small, and looking at the values for Annabella's students it becomes evident that her students could also be thought of as motivated, considered their teacher as motivating them and had an acceptable level of self-regulation as well.

Table 4.5 The comparison of the teachers along the 14 scales with the help of independent samples t-test

Scales	Teacher	Mean	t-values
Creating the basic motivational conditions	T1 (n=29)	4.06	2.04*
	T2 (n=63)	4.30	
Generating initial motivation	T1 (n=29)	3.26	3.89**
	T2 (n=63)	3.81	
Maintaining and protecting motivation	T1 (n=29)	2.95	5.24**
	T2 (n=63)	3.67	
Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation	T1 (n=29)	3.39	2.19*
	T2 (n=63)	3.69	
Initiative	T1 (n=29)	2.74	1.29
	T2 (n=63)	2.96	
Control	T1 (n=29)	3.44	3.16**
	T2 (n=63)	3.90	
Self-efficacy	T1 (n=29)	3.39	3.65**
	T2 (n=63)	3.96	
Motivation	T1 (n=29)	3.28	3.39**
	T2 (n=63)	3.82	
Ideal L2 self ^a	T1 (n=29)	4.15	1.88
	T2 (n=63)	4.46	
Ought-to L2 self ^a	T1 (n=29)	4.03	-1.20
	T2 (n=63)	3.85	
Instrumental orientation	T1 (n=29)	4.13	-.21
	T2 (n=63)	4.10	
International orientation	T1 (n=29)	4.28	.25
	T2 (n=63)	4.31	
Self-confidence	T1 (n=29)	3.51	1.12
	T2 (n=63)	3.71	
Motivated language learning behaviour	T1 (n=29)	3.54	3.64**
	T2 (n=63)	4.07	

*p<.05; **p<.01; ^a Equal variance is not assumed; T1=Annabella, T2=Boglarka

At this point, it can thus be stated that motivational strategies and self-regulation worked better for Boglarka's students, and that her students were also more motivated. A tentative explanation for this effect might lie in the fact that Boglarka is far younger than Annabella, and as such shares similar interests to her students in terms of technological innovations, trends, music, fashion and other things that teenagers are interested in. In a way, Boglarka can be considered as an older sister to the students and, as such, a peer model, and the interviews (such as in Sections 5.2.2 and 5.2.3 for instance) shed more light on this aspect. Another explanation may be the difference in the number of students who participated in the research. However, the idea that a

younger teacher is a better motivator needs caution and will need closer analysis at a later stage of motivational strategy research. Yet another explanation is the potential mediating effect of self-regulation on motivational strategies and indirectly on motivation. In my observation, Boglárka's whole personality transmitted to the students how important the English language is and how much the students can do to reach their aims. This is in line with the concept of self-regulation, in that it is the students who are responsible for their own learning, and that being motivated partly depends on the students themselves – more on this can be found in Section 6.3. In addition, the above-mentioned small difference between the teachers could reflect the fact that the motivational strategies do not play as exclusive a role in motivating students as was suggested by earlier research (e.g., Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), or that this role is not of the nature we originally thought (see Sections 4.6 and 6.6).

4.5 The interrelationship of the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale

The correlational comparison of the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale can help to shed light on how closely the scales are related, in other words, to what extent they measure similar domains. The strengths of the correlations were tested in order to verify whether the differences between the correlations were significant. Table 4.6 shows the results.

Table 4.6 Correlations between the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale (N=101)

		Motivational strategies questionnaire				Learning experience scale			
		CBMC	GIM	MPM	EPRS	INI	CON	SELF	MOT
Motivational strategies questionnaire	CBMC	–							
	GIM	.74**	–						
	MPM	.60**	.82**	–					
	EPRS	.60**	.71**	.70**	–				
Learning experience scale	INI	.36**	.46**	.42**	.30**	–			
	CON	.31**	.51**	.49**	.30**	.52**	–		
	SELF	.25*	.39**	.36**	.28**	.36**	.43**	–	
	MOT	.64**	.75**	.68**	.58**	.59**	.57**	.46**	–

* = p<.05; ** = p<.01; CBMC=creating the basic motivational conditions; GIM=generating initial motivation; MPM=maintaining and protecting motivation; EPRS=encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation; INI=initiative; CON=control; SELF=self-efficacy; MOT=motivation

It can be seen from the table that the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire are more closely related than the scales of the Learning experience scale. The tests comparing the strengths of the correlations showed seven significantly different relations in the case of the Motivational strategies questionnaire, while there were only two such relations in the case of the Learning experience scale. The highest correlations are between the second and the third phases of the motivational teaching practice, but the first and the second phases, the second and the fourth phases, and the third and the fourth phases are also closely related (.82; .74; .71; .70 respectively, and according to the Fisher r-to-z transformation there is a significant difference between .82 and .70, $z=2.03$, $p=0.02$). While there is a close interrelationship between these scales, those of the Learning experience scale are less directly related, with .59 being the highest score between initiative and motivation, and there is no significant difference between this correlation and the lowest correlation between the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire. This means that the scales of the Learning experience scale tapped into less directly related issues than those of the Motivational strategies questionnaire. This is not surprising, considering the fact that the phases of the motivational teaching practice are closely related to the stages of the same concept

that can run in parallel or can dynamically interrelate, as opposed to the scales measuring self-regulation, which measure different domains but not phases of the same concept.

Cross-examination of these scales indicates that motivation (of self-regulation) shows a high correlation with all four phases of the motivational teaching practice, and especially the first three stages. This suggests that the relationship between the motivation part of self-directedness and the teachers' motivational teaching practice is strong. The other three scales of the Learning experience scale, namely, initiative, control and self-efficacy, do not show such a high correlation with the different phases of the motivational teaching practice. As for the strengths of the correlations (Fisher r -to- z transformation) between the scales of the motivational teaching practice and the Learning experience scale, most of these relationships are not significantly different from each other, according to the tests. This difference in the strength of the correlations is indicative of the fact that the motivational teaching practice is teacher-focussed and teacher-initiated, and the Learning experience scales are student-focussed and student-initiated.

Some of the correlations are interesting to consider. The correlation between initiative and the first phase of the motivational teaching practice is not too high (.36), suggesting that even though the teacher was able to create the basic motivational conditions, the students' initiative to make use of the available sources did not foster it, and thus the teacher's and the students' expectations could not be reconciled. The correlations between the motivational teaching practice and initiative are low in general, suggesting that the students were not able to capitalise on their teacher's effort to motivate them. On the other hand, the students' motivation to take part in lessons and enjoy the activities strongly correlates with all the stages of the motivational teaching

practice, implying that although they were not able to initiate activities, they were satisfied with the ones they were presented with. The low scores in initiative and the general satisfaction expressed in the interviews also support this explanation.

The scale self-efficacy shows low correlations with all the four phases of the motivational teaching practice, indicating that the students' average belief in their capacity to produce effects was not associated strongly with the teacher's effort. In other words, the teachers and their motivational teaching practice could not promote sufficient enough self-efficacy in the students for them to achieve more, and to be more successful in language learning. The scale control shows a similar pattern, in that it is not closely related to any of the phases of the motivational teaching practice, implying that there was little connection between the motivational repertoire of the teachers and the students' organising abilities to become more motivated.

Considering the correlations from the point of view of the motivational teaching practice, Table 4.6 shows that the second and the third phases have the strongest correlations with the different domains of self-regulation. This is surprising to a degree, since it was explained above (Section 4.3) that the teachers seem to be at their best during the first half of the cycle. This result suggests an association between the students' self-regulation and the teachers' motivational teaching practice as perceived by the students, however, this link is not too strong and affects mainly the middle stages of the teaching practice. The motivational teaching practice shows really strong correlations only with motivation, indicating that the real impact of motivational strategies might lie in influencing this aspect of the students' self-regulation. This leads to an alternative explanation of why Boglárka's students performed better in all the domains (scales) of the three questionnaires where a significant difference was found. Since Boglárka emphasises a very strong, autonomy-based approach to language

learning, strengthening all of the four aspects of self-regulation too, her students' better performance might be indicative of the fact that in general the phases of the motivational teaching practice are most closely related to the motivation part of self-regulation, and therefore those teachers who are more successful at motivating their students are those teachers who are also able to affect other aspects of their students self-regulation.

To summarise, there is a clear association between the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale respectively, and also between the scales of the two questionnaires. These correlations are significant at the .01 level (except for the correlation between the first phase of the motivational teaching practice and self-efficacy, where $p < .05$). This means that the teachers' motivational strategies are related to the students' self-regulation. Although the effect of the motivational strategies cannot be measured with the help of correlations, it can be supposed that the teacher has an impact on the students since it is the teacher who holds the classes. On the other hand, it might be a useful issue to investigate the effect the students' self-regulation has on the teacher's motivational teaching practice.

4.6 Explaining motivated language learning behaviour

This section seeks to answer the question as to which variables best explain variance in motivated language learning behaviour. Apart from regression analysis, which can establish predictor variables, correlations are used in order to be able to compare results with previous findings.

Regression analysis was used in order to find out what predictors best explain motivated language learning behaviour. Tables 4.7-4.10 show the results. When all 14

scales were entered, it was revealed that the ideal L2 self and instrumental orientation scales from the Motivation questionnaire, as well as the motivation and control scales from the Learning experience scale, all contributed to motivated language learning behaviour. Scales from the motivational teaching practice did not contribute to motivated language learning behaviour, while the strong predicting force of the ideal L2 self is in line with other studies (Kormos & Csizér, 2008).

The fact that no scale of the motivational teaching practice enters into the model suggests that the clusters formed by the motivational strategies do not critically influence motivated language learning behaviour. The predicting force of the the first two phases of the motivational teaching practice is 34% (Table 4.8) while that of the final model is 72%. This result might reflect the fact that the predicting force of motivational strategies is far less meaningful than the ideal L2 self, motivation (of learning experience), control and instrumental orientation, or simply that factors directly related to the student, such as dimensions of motivational disposition and self-directedness/autonomy, are better predictors of motivated language learning behaviour than factors related to the teacher through motivational strategies. It is also possible that the motivational strategies' effect seems limited due to a multiple filtering effect, as the teacher, trying to make sense of the student's behaviour, potential goals, the context, etc., adapts her teaching methods to these multi-faceted factors and applies certain strategies (usually with the whole class), which can result in a lessened effect on individual motivated language learning behaviour, as opposed to parameters that the student himself or herself can directly apply and adapt to his or her immediate needs (cf. Learning experience scale and Motivation questionnaire).

Table 4.7 Results of the regression analysis of the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire, the Learning experience scale and the Motivation questionnaire with motivated language learning behaviour as the criterion measure

Scale	B	SE B	β
Ideal L2 self ^a	.52	.07	.48**
Motivation ^b	.26	.07	.26**
Control ^b	.24	.06	.23**
Instrumental orientation ^a	.15	.07	.14*
R ²		.72	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ^aMotivation questionnaire; ^b Learning experience scale

Since the scales of the motivational teaching practice did not appear in the model, the scales of the three questionnaires were also investigated independently of the other questionnaires (Tables 4.8-4.10). Table 4.8 shows that the first two phases of the motivational teaching practice contribute to motivated language learning behaviour, but this contribution (R^2) at 34% is lower compared to the other models. Table 4.9 shows that motivation and control at 46% best predict motivated language learning behaviour in the Learning experience scale. However, when only the scales of the Motivation questionnaire are entered into the model, ideal L2 self and self-confidence at 59% prove to be the best predictors. Self-confidence is a scale that appeared in none of the models in the Kormos and Csizér (2008) study, but in this study it is the most reliable scale (Cronbach alpha = .94).

Table 4.8 Results of the regression analysis of the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire with motivated language learning behaviour as the criterion measure

Scale	B	SE B	β
Generating initial motivation	.37	.13	.36**
Creating the basic motivational conditions	.35	.16	.26*
R ²		.34	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 4.9 Results of the regression analysis of the scales of the Learning experience scale with motivated language learning behaviour as the criterion measure

Scale	B	SE B	β
Motivation	.57	.09	.55**
Control	.19	.09	.18*
R ²		.46	

*p<.05; **p<.01

Table 4.10 Results of the regression analysis of the scales of the Motivation questionnaire with motivated language learning behaviour as the criterion measure

Scale	B	SE B	β
Ideal L2 self	.70	.08	.65**
Self-confidence	.18	.06	.22**
R ²		.59	

**p<.01

It is not only regression analysis that can add to our understanding about the role of motivational strategies in motivated language learning behaviour. Previous studies (e.g., Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) used correlations in order to gain an insight into the relationship between these two variables. Although the Guilloteaux and Dörnyei study operationalised the concepts in slightly different ways, it is useful to run correlations in order to be able to obtain a more comprehensive picture. Table 4.11 shows the correlations between the four phases of the motivational teaching practice and motivated language learning behaviour, for both the whole sample, and the two teachers individually. It can be seen that all the correlations are significant at the .01 level, and that Annabella's individual correlations are all stronger than Boglárka's. However, comparing the strength of the correlations between Annabella and Boglárka did not prove to be significant in either of the phases.

Table 4.11 Correlations among the phases of the motivational teaching practice and motivated language learning behaviour

	Annabella (n=29)	Boglárka (n=63)	Whole sample (N=101)
CBMC	.66**	.42**	.53**
GIM	.53**	.52**	.56**
MPM	.62**	.33**	.52**
EPRS	.57**	.33**	.44**

**p<.01; CBMC=creating the basic motivational conditions; GIM=generating initial motivation; MPM=maintaining and protecting motivation; EPRS=encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

The typical correlations within this field (motivation and achievement) are in the range of .3-.5 (Dörnyei, 2007a; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), which can be considered meaningful but not particularly strong. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) found a correlation of .61 between the teacher’s motivational teaching practice and the learners’ motivated language learning behaviour, claiming that this is a “strong link, indicating that the teachers’ motivational teaching practice is directly related to how the students approach classroom learning” (pp. 69-70). In this sample, Annabella’s correlations are very close to (and in the case of the first and third phases higher than) the figure Guilloteaux and Dörnyei obtained. Yet, in the light of the regression analysis, this result needs further explanation.

In an attempt to explain the extent to which motivational strategies play a role in motivated language learning behaviour, the results of both the regression analysis and the correlations are needed. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) obtained a strong correlation between the variables, with motivational strategies explaining 37% of the variance in motivated language learning behaviour. In this study, 34% of variance is explained by the predictor variables (Table 4.8) that concern only the first two phases of the motivational teaching practice (as opposed to the Guilloteaux and Dörnyei study in which the composite measure covers all the phases). Considering the result of the other regression models, it appears that, in comparison with the results obtained by using only

the Motivational strategies questionnaire, regression (Table 4.7) provided a better explanation. The best explanation of motivated language learning behaviour was given by the model that used two questionnaires, namely, the Motivation questionnaire and the Learning experience scale (72%, Table 4.7), as opposed to the model using motivational strategies only (Table 4.8 and Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

The lower values in the case of Boglárka indicate that, in addition to motivational strategies, she may use different tools to motivate her students to learn. Indeed, the interview with her and her students revealed that she considered autonomy more important than the motivational repertoire of a teacher, and she laid heavy emphasis on transmitting values that are closely linked to self-regulation and autonomy (Chapter 5). In addition, Table 4.5 showed that her students performed better on almost all scales. It follows from this that motivational strategies may not be the best predictors of motivated language learning behaviour. In the light of the above, it can be stated that motivational strategies are clearly linked to motivated language learning behaviour, but to a different degree in the case of the two teachers in question. While the lower values do not contradict the fact that the motivational teaching practice can have potentially motivating effects, this result shows that there might be other potentially crucial elements, (in this case that Boglárka affects her students' motivation via their self-regulation, and she can influence other aspects of their self-regulation, not only motivation to take part in lessons) that can promote motivation in students.

In sum, three important conclusions can be drawn. Firstly, as with previous studies (e.g., Kormos & Csizér, 2008), ideal L2 self emerged from the model as a strong predictor of motivated language learning behaviour. The lack of further similarities between this research and previous studies can be explained by the fact that other studies used different questionnaires, and thus different scales from those used in the

Motivation questionnaire. However, the fact that ideal L2 self is the strongest predictor of motivated language learning behaviour in this study is in line with current research on motivation.

Secondly, it was somewhat unexpected that no Motivational strategies questionnaire scale played a predicting role in motivated language learning behaviour. When only the motivational teaching practice was examined, the first two phases seemed to be important, but they were still a great deal less important than other scales. It is also worth mentioning that Table 4.3 showed that the first two phases of the motivational teaching practice, namely, creating the basic motivational conditions and generating initial motivation, were significantly related and had the highest values, indicating that a strong initial motivating effect had a dominant role in motivating students.

Thirdly, the research revealed that investigating the effects of one type of predictor variables (motivational strategies) can lead researchers astray, in that it can hide the effects of other potentially important variables (self-regulation). It turned out that the two questionnaires explained more variance in the sample than only one could have, in other words, the Motivation questionnaire and the Learning experience scale, analysed together, were able to explain more variance in motivated language learning behaviour than either of the scales on their own. Therefore, in addition to the students' motivational disposition and self-regulation, it would appear that there are other aspects of the teaching-learning process that need to be taken into account when explaining motivated language learning behaviour. The interrelation of the motivational strategies and self-regulation is also clear from this analysis (see more on this in Chapter 6).

4.7 Summary

This chapter has examined the descriptive statistics of the scales used in this study, and found a number of interrelationships between different variables. Reliability of the 14 scales in the three questionnaires was established, and with the help of the scales, the students and the teachers were compared, in terms of how motivated and self-directed the students are, what the different scales have in common, and how the students of the teachers differ in terms of their teachers' motivational teaching practice, their self-directedness and their motivated language learning behaviour. In addition, the chapter also tested a regression model with motivated language learning behaviour as the criterion measure.

The most important findings are that although the students display some sort of self-directedness, it is not too strong, and instead they react to the teachers' motivational strategies, and are motivated by the teacher to learn the language. However, the phases in the motivational teaching practice show a downward trend, retaining some of the loss towards the end of the cycle, with the students of the less experienced teacher displaying a consistently higher level of motivated language learning behaviour and self-regulation, reacting to the motivational strategies in a more favourable way. This might be because *Boglárka* is able to affect not only motivation of her students' self-regulation, but other aspects of it also. Furthermore, regression analysis showed that the scales of the motivational teaching practice do not play the most important predictive role in motivated language learning behaviour; instead, ideal L2 self, motivation (of the Learning experience scale), control and instrumental orientation contribute to motivated language learning behaviour. Correlations established that there is a strong association between the different phases of the motivational teaching practice and the students'

motivated language learning behaviour. These correlations are stronger in the case of Annabella, but the students' self-regulation was not calculated in this correlational relationship.

CHAPTER 5
MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING PRACTICE AND SELF-REGULATION
THROUGH THE STORIES OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS:
A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the results of the interview data are detailed, with reference to the motivational teaching practice and motivational strategies of Dörnyei (2001a), and self-regulation and autonomy (Pintrich, 2000; Stockdale, 2003). The subchapters are organised around the issues that are the focus of inquiry, some of which were identified before the interviews (e.g., managing the class, goals or awareness), others of which emerged during analysis (e.g., metaknowledge). The teachers' and students' views and opinions (both complementary and contradictory) are presented together, along the topical threads. The issues under consideration are as follows:

- managing the class: decision-making, variety of materials, feedback, rewards, humour, etc.,
- the intangible side of teaching: the teacher's personality, atmosphere in class, etc.,
- goals of the students,
- self-regulation including awareness of autonomy, and
- elements of self-regulation.

The chapter finishes with a summary of the intertwined nature of these issues and the potential links between the themes, which emerged from the interviews.

5.1 Motivating students: managing the class

In this section, the surface (i.e., observable) manifestation of motivating students to learn are discussed, in other words, how the teachers manage the English classes, and whether this can have a motivating effect on the students. It covers areas such as classroom work, types and variety of materials, typical forms of work in class, the extent to which individual needs can be considered, whether students can make decisions concerning what and how they learn in class, how the teacher gives feedback and rewards, and finally the impact of the lighter aspects of teaching, such as humour and games.

5.1.1 Variety of materials, typical forms of work, individual needs, and decision-making

The sometimes contradicting opinions on materials and work in class are detailed in this section. It was common on both the students' and the teachers' part for contradictory opinions to be expressed on some issues, and these opinions were sometimes negative. However, their overall views were largely positive.

All participants, the teachers and the students alike, gave an account of a varied repertoire of tasks and forms of work in class. Students felt that the classes have a mainly positive routine and framework, which both the teacher and the students are accustomed to. As Csaba put it: "to me the classes nowadays are not monotonous because the course book is very good [...] because the material is exciting."¹ Csilla, though, was not of this opinion, stating: "it's mind-numbingly boring, really. [...] we're

¹ The Hungarian interview excerpts can be found in Appendix G.

far beyond the point when we feel we should make an effort [...] because we struggled in the first two years, I don't want to imply that we've got tired or so on, but we're fed up by now." In her case, she clearly expected the teacher to modify her way of teaching, if possible by tasks that were not uniform, or by spending less time on straightforward subjects: "we can't do anything about the fact that she doesn't know how to teach" (Csilla). Repetition and monotony, where mentioned, were both blamed on the book by the students: "we tend to cover the same things every year, which is not a problem but [...] I think this is because of the book" (Ádám).

Both the observation and un-spoken student opinions make it clear that the English lessons tended to be repetitive from time to time. When the students were asked directly about varied materials, they usually hesitated, as if they did not dare to admit that some lessons were boring. However, when they were asked to describe a typical lesson, a rather gloomy picture emerged: checking homework, opening the book, doing exercises, talking to a classmate/looking for words/finding synonyms/reading a text/translating a passage, and getting homework. This was clearly an area where the motivation of students could have been improved: most students wanted to have more discussions in pairs (Adél, Ábel, Bori, Brigi) and were happy with the games they occasionally played (Ádám). Nevertheless, English lessons seemed more interesting, compared to other subjects: "most lessons compared to English are horrible because they are so boring that you want to fall asleep" (Bea).

When choosing the material, the teachers relied heavily on the book (all of them mentioned it as the first resource). They tried to make the classes more varied by games, using different forms of work, concentrating on various skills (Ernesztina), bringing in difficult articles from the Economist, looking at funny idioms with the students acting them out (Daniella), replacing a boring task in the book with an excerpt from a film

(Annabella), or giving class materials that other students previously enjoyed (Cecília, Ernesztina). All in all, it can be stated that the teachers invested a lot of energy in holding varied and exciting classes, but less inspiring periods are sometimes inevitable.

As for different forms of work, teachers used all forms, including letting the students mingle, however, some groups did not like it, and with adults, its use was limited and practically impossible (Daniella). The students especially liked pair work and small group work, saying they liked talking to each other, and the teachers confirmed this, adding that even if the students switched codes, it was relatively easy to make them use English again. The following excerpts illustrated this:

“if I give them a different type of task, say they should write something, then they are like sliding off the chair, saying boring, leave it, let’s talk, whatever, just let us talk” (Annabella)

“I could leave them to work on their own, I could sit down doing nothing [...] I wouldn’t have to go around and listen in to what they are talking about because I know they are doing what I ask them to do” (Boglárka)

“when there’s a more challenging task we can discuss it with the student sitting next to us and we explain things to each other, which is very good because maybe I understand something I wouldn’t if the teacher tried to explain it, but someone who speaks my language, a student can explain it to me much better” (Csenge).

A difficult issue is to how to deal with individual needs and differences in groups of sometimes 18 to 20 students. These can include differences in the knowledge and wants of the students, physical needs (thirst, hunger, tiredness, etc.), or family problems. The most common ways of treating educational issues included pairing up a stronger and a weaker student, holding extra classes in the library, giving extra tasks to those who needed it (whether because they were lagging behind, or because they were ahead of the class), and expecting the students to understand each others’ problems (if half of the group was preparing for a language exam, the others would have the same types of exercises). As for their physical needs, adult students were allowed to eat, drink

and phone during the lesson, while secondary school students were allowed to finish eating or drinking at the beginning of the lesson, and could sit in various positions on their seat, not being required to sit up straight if they felt too tired.

All the teachers unanimously agreed that it is very difficult to harmonise needs, and the most obvious obstacle is the size of the classes. The following excerpts illustrate the kinds of problems the teachers had to face concerning individual needs:

“it’s very difficult to handle [individual needs], there are 18 students, for example in the weaker group there’s a dyslexic, dysgraphic student, [...] I should give him extra lessons but I’m not trained to do it, I don’t know how to do it, I’ve started to read things about this issue” (Annabella)

“with groups of 20-21 students, it’s impossible, I’m concerned with the course material [...] I cannot [...] and you need a lot of patience, so while I’m dealing with one of them, the other needs to be doing something else on their own, so this presupposes a certain level of autonomy” (Ernesztina)

“we are as much psychologists as teachers, for example there was a topic, and one of my students lost her baby a month after the baby was born, and she came to the lesson, and there was a topic on family and kids, so I skipped some of the topics like I had to and I asked her about things from her childhood. [...] So you need to pay attention, because you bump into things you should know because you know they told you about it, and you have to keep that in mind” (Daniella).

Although the teachers appeared to be struggling to find an ideal balance, the students seemed to be aware of this problem, and quite understanding about it. The following opinions attest to this. As Csenge put it “the individual doesn’t matter because when there are 16-18 students in a group, you cannot have individual needs because there are other students as well.” Also, democratic voting is possible: “and there is the option of voting, if there is one person against 17, he or she is voted off” (Betti). Students were satisfied with how individuals were treated:

“our needs are in harmony actually, and the teacher is able to manage the group properly, and she holds lessons that are perfectly all right” (Buda)

“I think everyone feels that their needs are attended to [...] if someone has a problem they put up their hands, they say what they want, we listen, no one is left out” (Bea)

“compared to the fact that the abilities have a great variance in the group [...] she’s doing it very well, she gives a task to people who are really good and those students can also work who are not so good – as far as I can see it” (Ádám).

In addition, the students can go to see their teachers with problems that are unrelated to English or the material. As Daniella said “they come up to me and they ask me not to single them out for anything [...] I look after them by being much nicer with them, I give them the easiest questions and I praise them.” Annabella described a situation when she had to act and talk to a student whose mother died: “he’s very introverted and he doesn’t want to be seen downhearted, so he had to be called on, come on, let’s talk, what are your aims, what do you want to do.” The teachers all seemed to be aware of their students’ potential and sometimes painful problems, and were very responsive.

The teachers tried to delegate some tasks to them, for instance some of the decision-making. Potential areas where they could make decisions were closely related to their autonomy. Although there are several ways the teacher can make their students make decisions, the students were not fully aware of this possibility. They could decide about the following issues, listed from simpler to more complex points:

- which museum to visit or which film to watch (Ernesztina),
- which day to write a test “it’s not my interest to make them write one more test if they already have Chemistry and History” (Boglárka),
- who to work with, and whether in pairs or small groups (Buda),
- which picture to talk about or which situation to act out (Bori, Brigi),
- to choose the topic of the homework assignment (Bea, Csenge), which was the most commonly mentioned option for the students,
- which book to use throughout the academic year (Cecília),

- what areas of their knowledge they would like to develop: “at the beginning of the course, I send around a sheet of paper asking them who wants to improve what or to lay an emphasis on [and] I try to find the common points and I check it once a month because I have it in my folder” (Daniella).

However, according to Ádám, Adél, Csilla, Csaba and Csenge, there was no possibility to make a decision about anything in class (or they did not realise it), with Csenge saying that

“it doesn’t make much sense. Because she prepares for the lessons. She has the syllabus, she keeps to it, if the students had too many things to get involved in, if they had too many rights, that would lead to chaos.”

Although the students did not feel they had too many opportunities to make decisions, there were some areas where they could take part actively; as Buda put it “we usually discuss it in advance what we’re going to cover in the upcoming lessons, how long we practise, when we’re going to write the test, but yes, she doesn’t really give us [the opportunity to make decisions].” This comment was mirrored by Annabella, who stated “I think they don’t realise a lot of things, when I say you can go about it this way or that way.” It seems that on many occasions the students did not realise that they did have options.

The slight discrepancies between the opinions of the teachers and the students show that there is a place for motivational and self-regulatory interventions in this area. Although the overall picture is positive rather than negative, either the variety of teaching materials or the students’ decision-making skills should be improved, as the students were not always aware of an available opportunity to make a decision. This latter point is reflected in the self-regulatory paradigm, in which taking responsibility for one’s learning is a key concept (Little, 2007). Put simply, the students should have been more alert to potential intervention points in their learning.

5.1.2 Feedback, rewards, praise

Both the teachers and the students agreed that the most common form of feedback is marks and brownie points. This is based on the interviews, but observation also supported this opinion as, at the end of the lessons, it was quite usual to see students queuing up in front of the teacher (especially Annabella) to ask her to register their brownie points. Most of the students in the interviews, upon questioning, were able to give account of the more or less elaborate system of grades and brownie points. They also mentioned verbal signs of praise that most frequently meant praise, in the form of “Bravo,” “Great,” “Excellent,” etc. that also appeared on their tests and homework assignments. The teachers tried to find time to give more lengthy comments on students’ written homework, although they considered time a serious constraint, as with 20 students in a group it is virtually impossible to give comments detailed enough and feedback on a regular basis.

All the students agreed on the fact that their English teachers were well-meaning and extremely positive about their success:

“we were doing the practice test of a whole school-leaving exam throughout a week, and I and one of my classmates reached over 70%, and she said we can get a mark 5 if we talk to her too” (Betti)

“if we are between two marks, we usually get the better one” (Bea)

“she doesn’t assess our work in a way that ‘now I’m going to turn your life into hell’ because she’s so nice, she doesn’t want to make us suffer” (Csaba)

“the way she behaves, or smiles, and she’s happy and so on, so she never looks at us like she’s angry and she’d bite your head off just because you don’t know something but [...] she’s happy for you if you’re doing it well” (Csaba)

“she makes it big and she’s proud, very proud of us, of me that I’ve managed to do it, she likes it, I can see it on her that she’s happy for me and with me and [...] this ecstatic state that she explodes and bursts and says that it’s been so good and super and you’ll succeed” (Csenge).

In spite of these positive accounts of students, the teachers felt that they do not praise the students enough, and they do not give enough or continuous feedback. Almost unanimously they admitted that if they do not say anything, it means they are satisfied with the student's progress, and the students acknowledge this. Here are some excerpts:

“Well they know if I don't say anything, it's good. If I praise them, it's very good. But I try to pay attention to it [...] they can rather see it or feel it, instead of me telling them good boy, well done [...] in class it'd be artificial to say thank you after everything that you've done the task and now the next one – so it's far from my personality” (Annabella)

“In most cases I don't [praise] because I take it for granted that they know, it's a big mistake [...] I usually pay attention to encouraging, helping or praising those who are going through a period when they don't succeed and I can see that they're trying to get out of this situation, and I try to suggest something that they should do or I just try to make them relaxed that it only takes some time” (Boglárka)

“I have my weaknesses, the problem is I tend not to praise them [...] it's like if they can see that every test they write is OK and I nod and I don't have to sit down with them for a talk, then it means they're doing all right [...] I tend to evaluate them when they're down [...], then I point out something good, and I praise them very much, which is not objective evaluation, rather making them move on” (Daniella).

Cecília gave account of continuous assessment with the help of marks, remarks and discussions with students, and Ernesztina described her enthusiasm about student success. In contrast to the very positive remarks about continuous feedback and encouragement, some students expressed their criticism concerning the marking system and potentially cheating classmates:

“I don't really like when we can get extra brownie points because there are students who abuse the situation, for example when you have to know words and they copy them from each other, or they check the words in the book and then they get the extra point, so basically I don't like it” (Ádám).

Bea mentioned that there is an opportunity for cheating, and some students do exploit the situation. In Boglárka's classes, all points were registered by the students

themselves, everyone recorded brownie points, and there was one student appointed who is responsible for keeping track of black points: “We sometimes get black points but she [the teacher] doesn’t keep track of them but my classmate records them [...] he records black points only, and everyone records their brownie points because everyone wants to know that” (Bea). Boglárka’s comment on this was: “I think I know who abuses the situation, but in my opinion these students have to live with this.”

Although the teachers admitted that there are some students who take advantage of the marking system by way of cheating, they were consistent in putting trust in their students because they were firmly convinced that trust is a very strong motivational factor. At the same time, they tried to have an impact on their students’ common sense by verbal manoeuvres:

“I usually tell them that I respect them as intelligent people, I think they know they need it [English] and they understand that if they don’t get prepared for classes, if they deceive me, then they don’t deceive me but themselves in the long run. It’s the same with brownie points, I think if I show trust, I will get it back” (Boglárka)

“the way she talks to us in class, she knows that we’re the next generation and she tries to do her best so that we can live better and promote the language” (Buda)

“I encourage them in a way that I like it if they do things that are too difficult for them or they have to make a lot of effort [...] so I don’t say that I’d wait half a year [before taking the language exam], it happens more than not that they succeed if they feel that the teacher trusts them” (Daniella).

There is a negative trend, however. Teachers tended to give up on students who posed too many problems, or who resisted the teacher’s will to make the student advance or learn more. It was not possible to interview resisting students, so their account cannot be cited here, however, my tentative presupposition is that these students initially had reservations for various reasons, were not given as much time as they needed to overcome these reservations, and because they felt forced, withdrew

from participating, which resulted in avoidance behaviour or demotivation. Boglárka described a typical case:

“there are kids that I don’t care about after a while. They resist to such an extent, they are defiant, I don’t care, and interestingly enough the situation gets better after a while, and if they don’t do anything regardless of whether I struggle to involve them or not, and if I don’t struggle and our relationship is better, then I have the chance that they will change their mind. [...] one of the guys [...] never learns anything, plays truant quite often and other issues turn up, and we started to really hate each other and one day I told him, do you know what? I don’t care, when you realise at the age of 17 or 16 that it makes sense, let me know. And two weeks passed, I didn’t say a word to him, I pretended he was not there, and after a while he said that he would like to participate again.”

This situation was resolved and ended on a positive note, however, it is alarming that there are situations in which students are abandoned, especially because the students seemed to be fully aware of this. As Bea put it: “If it is apparent that they [the students] won’t [do anything], so they are as lazy as half a year before, she can’t, I mean she’ll lose heart after a while.”

I found only one remark in the interviews that would explain the root of some of the issues that have been raised in this section. The way teachers treat feedback and praise in general can be linked to their methodological background. As one of them put it, it is not part of her teaching practice to praise students: “I don’t want to blame those who trained us, but it’s not inside my mind that I should do this. Elderly colleagues also keep reminding me of the fact that I don’t evaluate the lesson at the end” (Boglárka). On the other hand, Annabella participated in several training sessions, in order to become a mentor teacher, thus she has more extensive knowledge and a deeper interest in these issues.

To sum up, it can be stated that the interviews revealed a feedback system that intertwines individual lessons with the life of the classes. Both students and teachers gave account of various forms of praise, rewards, assessment and feedback in general.

The teachers were not entirely satisfied with the regularity of giving praise, however, it seems that they continuously tried to encourage the students to achieve more, to become more successful and to never give up. In some cases, nevertheless, they felt that they had no access to certain students, and gave up on them as long as these students were unwilling to cooperate and participate in the life of the class. As soon as the student changed their mind, they were welcome to join the English lessons again. The teachers were aware of their weaknesses, and the student interviews did not uncover any opinions regarding insufficient praise or feedback.

5.1.3 Humour and games

Section 5.1.1 described how varied the English lessons were. This variety was often complemented by games, which the students liked very much and which have a clear place in the English lesson (Medgyes, 2002). Humour was usually initiated by the students, and welcomed by the teachers. This was a clear distinguishing feature of the English lessons, in comparison with other classes in which there is order, silence and boredom.

The teachers liked humour in class because

- it contributed to a positive atmosphere: “you feel the atmosphere is good, it’s good to be there, and they enjoy [this state]” (Ernesztina), “after a while they think that I assess good mood and humour and they don’t realise that I don’t” (Daniella),
- it put students at ease: “laughing eases the situation that we’re adults facing each other and one of them has to achieve something, the other assesses

achievement, which remains the same but with humour it is in a wholly new context” (Daniella),

- it created a better relationship between students and teacher: “and their goal was to make me laugh [...] they want to make me laugh” (Cecilia), and
- it improved the students’ associative functions: “they crack jokes in English [...] and they have various associations in several directions” (Annabella).

Except for Boglárka, all teachers brought as many games and game-like activities in class schedules as possible. Due to time constraints, they usually linked it to the current material, and most of these games were related to vocabulary, such as hot chair, hangman, describing and mimicking words, jeopardy, scrabble and other board games. Csenge described an occasion when they brought in food to class that they had cooked, and through this, they learnt ingredients, types of food, vegetables, etc.

As it is not surprising that students and teachers all like games, here is Boglárka’s explanation of why she played a great deal less with students:

“I can say it over and over again that we need to go on with the material, we have to cover such big amounts that I don’t like giving up on practice, although games could be practice. [...] it’s horrible but sometimes it comes to my mind that I play games with groups who I think deserve it, as if it was a reward [...] but it doesn’t come to my mind, it doesn’t crop up, it doesn’t cross my mind to ask them, shall we play a game? No, because they don’t deserve it. But when we start chatting like now, I come to realise that I don’t play with them, I don’t think about it because they don’t do what they have to, so what to play for?”

It must be added that although games were not a typical activity in Boglárka’s classes, her students managed to list some games in the interviews. Even if they did not play games very often, students wanted to have more game-like activities in class.

Humour and games were parts of most of these teachers’ classes and teaching practice. They used games in a way that served the purpose of the lessons i.e., teaching purposes, and they welcomed humour, which helped to build a more relaxed

atmosphere in class that fostered motivation. In the rare cases where games were not part of the everyday teaching practice (Boglárka), this was only because of the constraint of the large amount of material the classes face.

After having described the observable facets of the language classroom, the next section will outline aspects that are less straightforward, in the sense that they are more difficult to capture and talk about, and, at the same time, illustrate a more intimate aspect of a class' life.

5.2 Motivating students: the intangible side of teaching

In this section, three aspects of the motivational teaching practice are outlined: the atmosphere in the English class, the teacher's personality and its effect on the students, and the relationship between teachers and students. These facets of language teaching are more subtle and lend themselves to description by way of analysing the interviews along with close observation of the classes. This latter aspect is incorporated in the following sections, in that it supports interview data.

5.2.1 Atmosphere in class

The most basic adjectives and expressions with which the teachers described the atmosphere in class are as follows: cheerful, not tense, not stressing, relaxed, "we laugh a lot" (Daniella). The students used the following words and phrases: good, calm, placid, relaxed, friendly, not stressing, "we laugh a lot" (Betti), "we crack a lot of jokes" (Ádám), "I enjoy the lessons" (Ádám). It was rare to find negative adjectives used,

except for Csilla², who felt that classes tended to be boring and monotonous. The observations fully supported the opinions in the interviews regarding the good atmosphere. There was usually some background noise in the classes, which is proof that the students were not stressed in class, and felt comfortable exchanging some words with their classmates, or talking (about the topics) in class. Boglárka put it the following way:

“I really don’t like it when there’s silence like today, of course I don’t like it when there’s disturbing noise, there are moments when they can’t talk, they know it, I don’t like it, but it’s good if there’s slight, not noise, but if they dare to communicate beyond the task.”

Longer descriptions of lessons can be found in the interviews, Daniella, for instance, illustrated the atmosphere with metaphors:

“I like being the centre of attention, controlling and directing everything, and I feel when I’m in class and the lesson starts, I can just pick up the group, I whirl them around my head for about one and a half hours, then fling them away and I have an impact on a number of people, for one and a half hours, their mood is being influenced, it’s like a party, you get them in a party mood and it’s great to see that they’re enjoying it.”

The above description of the atmosphere in class also illustrated how the teachers actively shape it. In addition, according to the students, the relaxed atmosphere contributed to learning: “the atmosphere is more relaxed and we learn things more easily than in maths classes for example” (Bea), “It’s a relatively relaxed lesson, it’s not strict like physics lessons, but yes, English lessons are relaxing I think, interactive, everybody can participate and it’s relatively chatty” (Adél).

It was not only just the teachers or the students, however, who were responsible for a good and relaxed atmosphere, and the students recognised this:

“well, we’re so happy in English lessons, exactly because of this, because we know that we won’t be shouted at if we don’t know something, but it partly

² Csilla was not the student of Cecília, but from her school.

depends on both parties because if we sit silently saying nothing, she cannot do anything, so it depends on both of us” (Bea)

“I think a lot depends on the class [...] In the beginning I blamed the teacher [...], and two or three years passed and now I see that it depends on us too, but I think the teacher should take the first step in order for the lesson to become enjoyable and then we should follow suit” (Csilla).

Some students’ accounts strengthened the idea that the climate and the atmosphere in these English classes are memorable, and will be remembered by them for a long time:

“I’d love to remember [...] because I like English, the lessons too and I’d like it to be a good memory” (Ábel)

“I like it very much, this atmosphere” (Betti)

“if I feel good I keep such occasions in my memory, and I feel really good here, this year more so, so if I remember anything, I will remember this” (Csaba)

“if I remember anybody, I will remember her” (Csenge).

The overwhelming majority of the participants felt perfectly content with the atmosphere in class, and were in agreement that the teacher was the primary source of this positive atmosphere, even if students played a vital role in contributing to it. In the next section, therefore, the teacher’s personality, along with how it contributes to the English classes and to motivating students to learn, will be focussed on.

5.2.2 The teacher’s personality

The teacher’s personality is an essential motivating factor (Dörnyei, 2001a). Students expressed it bluntly: “if we don’t like someone or don’t like the teacher, then our attitude to the lesson is the same” (Csilla), “I think it largely depends on the teacher” (Brigi), “she’s kind so we like going to English lessons” (Csaba).

The fact that the teacher's personality had a positive effect on the students is illustrated by the following quotes:

"she keeps telling us in her own language not to get scared so be cool [...] she talks to us the same way she talks to others" (Betti)

"she's a happy type, she loves life, she loves students, children, she loves what she does, very much so and she does it professionally [...] if you want to do something well, you need to do your best and most teachers have no energy left but she does. And that's why she gives so much" (Csenge).

Setting a personal example, and using one's own experiences also provided motivation:

"she gives examples, for example when she is in such and such situation, she talks about her friends in English and what happens to her" (Ádám)

"she talks about her life, what she's learnt more easily or what's been more difficult to her, so she involves us in her life" (Ábel)

"if we ask something, she talks about it as part of her personality, in her own style, I think her personality comes through well" (Adél)

"she selected one episode of her favourite series, Supernatural, it was a very good episode [...] when she brought it into class, that was the climax of the lessons" (Buda).

The teachers agreed that the teacher's personality is of utmost importance when it comes to motivating students:

"I know this because I often monitor classes and I think every lesson is exactly like the colleague I know. So there are classes where the guy is like a real scholar, he sits in meetings the exact same way and the lesson is the same. And the students adopted his style or stopped coming to his classes. The other teacher is very, very calm, like a mother, she goes around and is like a broody hen and the lesson is the same [...] almost always, it is determined by the teacher in 100% of the cases" (Daniella).

Later Daniella corrected herself, in that the lesson is only 95% the teacher's responsibility because a student can always have the potential to sabotage a lesson. However, there is no doubt that it is important to be ourselves when teaching. Boglárka

said that “I think it’s very important not to suppress our personality when we go in to teach a class.” Cecilia’s opinion was as follows:

“at the beginning of my career I wasn’t so open, in class I didn’t want to be who I really am but now I think it’s changed, my relationship with my students in a positive way to be who I am and behave the way that reflects my personality and the way I crack a joke, yes.”

It is also essential not to take on a role, but to teach with the teacher’s whole personality. This attitude was exhibited in the following two excerpts:

“I have an electrifying personality, I am very happy in general, very optimistic, I like everything, I enjoy everything, for example I am able to enjoy the present perfect tense, which is wicked, that’s the basis of everything, if I hear an English word, I’m over the moon, it’s so beautiful so I can just love structures and everything and they are starting to love things too, this enthusiasm, that is” (Daniella)

“Once I was late for the English lesson, this is a little story, and I didn’t know which room to go to, only the floor, and when I got to the floor there was very loud laughter coming from one of the classrooms, then I heard her [the teacher’s] voice, she always talks that loud, she articulates very much and uses wide gestures with her hands, and that was the moment when I knew where to go” (Csenge).

The role of the teacher’s personality in motivating students to learn is undoubtedly a complex one. It is a truism to claim that it helps foster motivation, or contributes to better achievement through a better atmosphere. However, it can be safely said that there tends to be a positive correlation between a teacher with a positive and happy personality, and motivated and interested students (Heitzmann, 2008; Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999). The concept of the good enough motivator (Dörnyei, 2001a) is the perfect example of this issue, highlighting, as it does, personality traits such as emphatic understanding and support, rather than perfection, as being the most important aspects of a teacher’s character.

5.2.3 The teacher and student relationship

A good relationship between teacher and student forms the basis of the motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a; Heitzmann, 2008). All the teachers and students questioned gave accounts of a favourable relationship. Apart from Csilla, who had a neutral relationship with her English teacher, the other students unanimously agreed that they had a good or very good relationship with their English teacher. The teachers also expressed their positive relationship with the students. In addition, if this relationship has additional aspects, for instance the English teacher is the head of class, it can further improve the rapport. Both Annabella and Boglárka mentioned this. Annabella described her role as head of class outside the school context as follows:

“in classes where I’m the head of class, my relationship with the students is very friendly, when we go on a trip it happens that they almost hit me in the face with a ball but I won’t start yelling at this, or they pat me on the back or they pull me and monkey around. In the other classes you try to be more like a witch especially with the very young ones because they jump around and cannot sit still. I think our relationship is not bad, I think it’s good.”

The students also recognised that the relationship between the students and the teachers is especially good, and gave the following explanations for this:

“we like her very much, especially as the head of class but as a teacher too and I think she likes us too [...] she’s always just and fair” (Ádám)

“I can go up to her during the lesson or in the breaks if I want to ask something or I don’t understand something and she explains it” (Betti)

“very good, like a second mother. She does much more than she should in the school. She can do everything with huge enthusiasm in spite of the fact that she has a family, she devotes attention [...] she has an open personality and she loved us and we loved her too, so it became more close” (Csenge).

On the basis of the interviews, it would appear the secret to this good relationship lies in the prevalence of the following traits in the teachers: attention given

to the students, patience when it comes to giving explanations, trust, affection, interest in the students (what they do and what they are interested in), partnership, and time spent together. In addition, if the English teacher is the head of class, it appears that they and the class are normally on better terms.

Another factor that can contribute to a higher-level relationship is extra-curricular activities. For instance, Cecília was a member of the school volleyball team and had training sessions with the students. She talked about a deeper relationship with the students due to this fact: “our relationship is deeper because they know me from another context too, I sweat with them and we struggle together, we do the sit-ups together, and we are against the PE teacher together.”

Sometimes, however, the teacher and the student are initially not on good terms, especially if the student is a problem student, but if both the teacher and students invest in the relationship, they often begin to like and appreciate each other. This happened between Boglárka and Buda, and Cecília and Csaba:

“we needed a couple of weeks before she managed to tame us and at that time I wasn’t on good terms with her because I am not a good boy so to say, and there were problems with me already but after that we were on the same wavelength” (Buda)

“initially we were on really bad terms, [...] she didn’t know how to keep discipline, everyone was monkeying around, we were going ahead with the material but we were bored but then I started to like her and she is the deputy head of class so she comes with us on school trips and she’s like a little girl, she’s like my older sister, she’s very nice, I like her very much” (Csaba).

The following excerpts are some intriguing and notable examples of the harmonious relationship between the students and their English teachers:

“they are not afraid to express their opinion, or when they want to write the test, or when there’s a problem they are not afraid to answer questions, or when I ask whether there’s a problem, they are not afraid to react [...] they can afford to show part of their real personality, so that I can react to the whole person” (Boglárka)

“for example we meet in the corridor some years later and they say, not just as a compliment only, that they haven’t been to such good lessons since [...] they deal with me or with the lesson as part of their life, not as a task” (Daniella)

“they say thank you [...] they give me flowers, [...] I can see they like me, [...] they invited me to have an icecream together, or we went somewhere together, and they took a photo of the whole group and they forwarded it to me” (Ernesztina)

“I adore her” (Csenge).

A good teacher-student relationship is the basis of a successful teaching-learning process, and the nature of the interaction with significant others, including teachers, has long been recognised as a motivating factor (Williams & Burden, 1997). Along with the teacher’s personality, the teacher-student relationship is of utmost importance to students: they appreciate a relaxed and encouraging atmosphere (Dörnyei, 1996, 2007b) and feel that the teacher’s personality traits are more important than their professional training (Nikolov & Nagy, 2003). The quotes from the teachers and students above testified, in this case, to a classroom climate that fulfilled the requirements of a motivating environment (Dörnyei, 2001b, 2007b; Williams & Burden, 1997).

5.3 Motivating students by goals

It became obvious from the student interviews that the students had no clear ideas about what they would like to do in the future, or where they would like to continue their studies, but they were convinced that English is important and they wanted to improve their linguistic skills, so that they could benefit later on. Their goals included passing an intermediate, or advanced level language exam or the school leaving exam, in order to be able to enrol at university and find a better job. They also mentioned working or living abroad, however, for nearly all the students (apart from

Flóra, who was firmly convinced that she is going to live outside Hungary), this idea was vague. Other goals mentioned in the interviews included language utilising possibilities (studying for an English major in the case of Csilla or interpreting in the case of Csaba), or emphasising the utilitarian values of English (“it’s very useful in everyday life because a lot of things are in English” [Csaba]). The fact that the students had no definite goals, but were concentrating mainly on the imminent language exam or school leaving exam, is not surprising. The teachers, on the other hand, expressed more complex ideas (see below).

The students mostly emphasised utilitarian values, such as goals, very strongly. They all mentioned the language exam, if they had not taken it yet, or the possibility of taking an advanced level exam in the next few years. Although five of them mentioned potential future work places or possible jobs (Brigi: psychology, Bori: chemical engineering, Csaba: interpreting, Fanni: an office job, Flóra: working as a diplomat), the others had no clear ideas. However, they were all convinced that English will play an important role in their lives. Becoming an English major student was a consideration for three of them: Csilla was bearing it in mind when choosing a university, but was not sure yet, Flóra contemplated it too but decided to opt for another subject instead, and Fanni actually spent a semester as an English major student but abandoned the idea, and left the university. As for proximal goals, the most common points mentioned by the students were watching and understanding films in English, reading books in English, English as a tool on the internet and in computer-related contexts, communicating with people in general and talking to tourists in particular. No other goals were mentioned, but it must be highlighted again that work-related benefits were very strongly present in the interviews, and the students unanimously agreed on the fact that they will need

English in the future, and thus will have to do everything they can in order to acquire as good a knowledge of the English language as possible.

In contrast to this, the teachers talked about several students not having goals (cf. Mezei, 2011), or about students having only vague ideas that could be identified as goals:

“I think it’s typical that they don’t have goals, either with their life or any school subject, not only English” (Cecilia)

“it’s simply very-very limited what I can expect or set as a goal, because they feel, with each new task they feel that it’s again a new task, and again, and it’s just enough. So in class, when there’s a task or goal you have to pretend it’s not one” (Daniella about adults).

The most common language goals, according to these teachers, were to pass the language exam or school-leaving exam, and general communication.

The above-quoted teacher opinions regarding goals, though definitely based on fact, were not so frequently mentioned in the interviews. On the other hand, those teachers who were more enthusiastic urged their students to reach goals, among which the most common and popular was the language exam. Some teachers seemed to consider this aim as a sort of goal in their own lives, that they constantly worked to communicate to the students, while others made use of every possible occasion to visualise goals. Although the teachers seemed to feel that they were unable to include setting and monitoring goals in the syllabus, they found an alternative way of handling the problem: they encouraged the students to make English part of their life, and enthused the students with the language, as discussed in the following excerpts:

“... one of the parents came in to the school to talk to me, and she said she just came home from the US from a training session and her daughter understands a guy with a Scottish accent much better than her, and she hasn’t heard her speak for quite a while, and I thought they still keep talking to each other in English for five minutes in the car every morning, and I keep telling the kids how important this is, if they feel they are weak, to talk to someone for five minutes. And it turned out they had stopped this a long time ago, and she hadn’t heard her

daughter speak, and she speaks fluently and I was shocked myself too, wow, this is great” (Annabella)

“we make them [the students] understand not to do this to themselves or to their parents or to anyone that they don’t grab the opportunity [to learn]. And it’s prestige. [...] We pay attention to this very seriously so that it works. [...] I keep brainwashing them, so to say, if you are here, it needs to make sense, you are in a 8-year secondary school because you’re special, you’re the best in this region, so we overdo it, very much so, we use their ego so that they understand that they are special and if they can do it, they must do it” (Boglárka)

“I usually keep referring to it [the importance of English], so it’s a kind of task which can happen to be in the school-leaving exam or in the language exam, or this is something that makes a small difference that they like to ask in tests, so it’s kind of referring to it constantly” (Cecília)

“I try to make them interested, I tell them how marvellous it is and then I elaborate on it: a language certificate is not only a document, but they’ll be able to prove to themselves that they are able to do a reading comprehension test to such a high level that it is worth doing the language certificate” (Daniella)

“I keep pushing them, oh, it would be great if you could pass the language exam. Really. At the end of the semester when we talk a bit or at the evaluation I always ask them what they want to do, or with the 19-20-year-old generation, what they would like to do later in life and I tell them it’d be easier to pass the language exam now that they don’t work yet, it’d be easier to get the certificate” (Ernesztina).

Harmonising these students’ goals is not easy, however. Individual needs can differ tremendously (see above in Section 5.1.1), and setting goals, following them and continuously monitoring them requires energy. In addition, students need to learn to set goals, monitor them and be reflective (more on this is in Section 5.5: Self-regulation), which is usually a time- and energy-consuming process and very few teachers make an endeavour in this direction (a notable exception is in Nikolov, 1995, 1998). Cecilia talked about this in connection with goals:

“I guess I should do it myself too, I should develop too to see more, not only what they can’t do, but things they can or to refer back at the end of units to show how much we’ve learnt. And then they would have a sense of achievement. [...] it’s like teaching to learn. Or teaching to set goals. Or every week you have to say something you want to achieve and at the end of the week, we should come back to it, have they done it or not? If not, why not? [...] I guess there’s a correlation between setting and reaching a goal.”

The phenomenon Cecilia talked about is shared by most of the interviewed teachers. Among the several constraints in teaching that were previously mentioned, this issue was among the ones that the teachers reflected on the most, and is worth investigating, as setting goals is a fundamental part of self-regulated learning and autonomy, contributing, as it does, to the students feeling responsible for their own learning, providing them with a sense of achievement and success, and making them feel that they are members of a team (cf. group dynamics). The role of goals as milestones also appeared in the interviews:

“When it’s time to give marks, I always take one or two lessons [...] to talk to them about their marks, how they feel, whether they feel they’ve improved or not” (Cecilia)

“In this case I highlight something and I praise them, which is not an objective evaluation, rather making them move on” (Daniella)

“Then they start learning like little angels so that they are better next year, or the same at least, so I write very good things about them, maybe a little bit too good things in the first round, they get scared because they need to progress a lot and they must keep to the level” (Daniella).

Several constraints were mentioned in connection with goals for example the number of students in a class, or the difference in student abilities. In spite of these constraints, the teachers were willing to invest energy in goal-setting because they were of the opinion that it will provide students with more opportunities as to setting further goals, and will be conducive to successful language learning. They do set goals even if they thought they could improve their abilities in regard to this skill (along with the students, see the quote by Cecilia above), and Daniella’s observation was that it was worth it:

“I always set higher goals for them, higher than they think they can achieve, I want them to set higher goals, and I tell them that I think they can reach it and they are very surprised at it, and it’s so positive that they start learning like mad.”

To conclude, it can be stated that goals were definitely present in these classes' life, but this presence needed to be strengthened and consciously focussed on. The teachers recognised the importance of goals and the difficulty in setting and monitoring goals. The students had goals, even if the teachers sometimes doubted this fact, and as such, the teachers should not have strengthened the so-called Pygmalion effect (Szabó, 2004) by projecting that they believe the students had no goals they wanted to achieve. Students need to be taught to set and monitor goals if teachers think that this is a neglected aspect of their teaching practice, or an obstacle to achievement. This is all the more important because, as Heitzmann (2008) found in her longitudinal study, motivating students and goals interact in such a way that short-term goals affect how students perceive their progress, which in turn has an impact on their mastery goals and intrinsic motivation, which can lead to a better learning outcome.

5.4 Motivating students: a summary

Several aspects of motivating students to learn have been highlighted. These concern the motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2001a) that in the validation process were identified as most important, and the ones that the interviews centred on. The following issues were discussed: variety of materials, forms of work, individual needs, decision-making, feedback, rewards, praise, humour, games, the atmosphere in class, the teacher's personality, the relationship between the students and the teacher, and goals. According to Dörnyei (2001a, 2007b) and Heitzmann (2008), these points all contribute to motivated language learning behaviour.

The sections below, on the other hand, present a holistic view of how to motivate students to learn. The following facets of this concept will be outlined: who or

what motivates or should motivate the students to learn, what it means to the teachers to motivate their students to learn, some of the techniques that the teachers use to motivate their students to learn, i.e., motivational strategies, and how to affect the students' common sense with regard to learning a language.

5.4.1 How to motivate students and what it means to motivate students to learn

In this section the students' and teachers' viewpoints are discussed with regard to who or what is the origin of motivation in their opinion; the teachers' definitions of motivation, and some of the tricks and techniques they use to motivate the students to learn are also highlighted. Both classroom observations and the interviews made it clear that the most important motivating force is the teacher, as she is the centre of the language teaching-learning process. This is in line with the literature (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b, 2007b; Nikolov, 1995, 1998, 2003; Nikolov & Nagy, 2003), which concurs that the teacher is the common explanatory force regardless of whether the motivation or the demotivation of students is explained (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Kormos & Lukóczy, 2004).

The question "who should motivate the students to learn" did not produce a great variety of answers from the students: the teacher is put forward as the single most important person who needs to motivate the students. Interestingly, the student himself/herself is close behind with eight mentions, followed by parents/relatives and situation/context with seven mentions each. Success (five mentions), peers (two mentions), and force (one mention) were also acknowledged. The distribution of potential sources is, surprisingly, more varied among the students. While both the students and the teachers mentioned seven different potential sources, four categories

were mentioned only by one teacher. It is not unexpected, however, that the teacher is the most important motivational force according to both students and teachers, as this is in line with the literature (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b, 2007b). Table 5.1 shows the scattering.

Table 5.1 The scattering of potential sources of motivation among the students and the teachers

	The students (n=13)	The teachers (N=5)
	Number of mentions	Number of mentions
Teacher	10	5
Student himself/herself	8	3
Situation/context (communicate and understand, useful)	7	1
Parents (relatives)	7	2
Success	5	1
Peers (including friends)	2	1
Situation/context (force, e.g., school requirements)	1	1

It is striking that the number of mentions for the student himself/herself as a source of motivation was so high, and also that the proportions of the students and teachers who mentioned this are almost equal. Both sides agreed on the order of these elements. The first position of teachers is not surprising, however, it might encourage placing too much responsibility on the teachers' shoulders. The fact that the students were the second most important source of inspiration suggests that this aspect should be utilised more when motivating them, and this is exactly the point where the concept of self-regulation can be of assistance. The classroom observations revealed the dominance of the teacher as the main source of information and motivation, but according to the interviews, the students could also be expected to take more responsibility for their learning. The idea of the student as a potential resource did not appear in the classroom or in phases of the teaching-learning process where the teacher herself is present, but

seemed to be restricted to domains where it is only the student who is interacting with the language. Neither the observation, nor the interviews revealed a possible explanation for it. The traditional Hungarian educational system and its constraints have been mentioned as an explanation, a phenomenon that has been reported by researchers in Hungary and abroad (e.g., Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000; Nikolov, 2003, 2009b).

Having considered the prominent role of the teacher, it is worth studying their voice in regard to motivation and the source of it. The teachers had the following opinions about motivation and motivating the students to learn:

“to make them reach a state in which they are interested in what they are learning, the language and everything beyond it” (Annabella)

“things with which I can encourage them and make them more enthusiastic, or make them feel like doing it, or help them, these things with which I motivate them” (Boglárka)

“to make them achieve success and reach goals [...] make them act so that they want to do it, not me standing behind their back and chasing them, hurrying them into doing it, [instead] influencing their will and desires [...] making learning the language so exciting that helps them to want to do it” (Cecília)

“to make them like learning and feel it important to learn” (Daniella)

“to reach the state when they like using the language, on the one hand to sit down at home and learn the words, to feel like dealing with it and coming to the language lesson [...] [I motivate them if] I’ve managed to make them like it and they didn’t want to come but now they want to come, they couldn’t do it but now they can do it, so by giving them the feeling of success or anything, positive feedback for example which helps them move on and they will start doing things successfully” (Ernesztina).

It is also worth mentioning that Boglárka was not sure about motivation, in terms of what she should be doing, or how she should be motivating the students, and she also referred to motivating students as “horsing around” and “juggling.” Although her standpoint was rather contradictory, the students were seemingly unaware of this uncertainty. In the classroom she was determined and firm, possessing all the qualities and knowledge to guide the students and facilitate learning.

What are the tools in the teachers' hands that they can use when motivating the students? The motivational strategies the teachers mentioned are listed as follows:

- being nice with the students (Boglárka),
- the teacher's personality (Boglárka, Daniella),
- setting a good example (e.g., correcting tests for the next lesson, attitude to work) (Boglárka),
- not deceiving the students (Boglárka),
- giving them the choice to decide how to go about doing an activity (Daniella),
- finding positive points to praise in what they say or do (Daniella),
- creating a happy and relaxed atmosphere (Daniella, Cecília, Ernesztina),
- presentations (with adding extra elements such as a round of applause or referring back to extraordinary presentations later in the course) (Daniella),
- making the students integrate into the life of the group and contribute to the lessons (Daniella),
- interesting and appropriate activities (Boglárka),
- success (Boglárka),
- graded and authentic readings depending on the student (Boglárka),
- giving explanations (e.g., about attributions, c.f. Section 5.4.2) (Boglárka),
- giving exercises and tasks to individual students according to their level and needs (Boglárka),
- offering a great variety of activities in classes (including materials and forms of work) (Annabella, Ernesztina),
- grades (Cecília, Ernesztina), and
- praise (Cecília).

The teachers used these techniques in various combinations during the lessons, and although it was only Daniella who worded her approach to motivation as a block (see below), the other teachers' lessons were permeated with these strategies. Several of these strategies were mentioned by one teacher only, while another teacher mentioned only one strategy. This fact, however, does not mean that some of the teachers' motivational teaching practice is faulty or modest. Rather, this suggests that other strategies might not have come to their mind during the interview, or they did not consider some techniques important enough or relevant. Another possible explanation is that Daniella's view on motivation as a block came into effect, in that it is relatively difficult to single out certain strategies or units from a substantial chunk.

There are two points worthy of mention here. One is that these answers above are replies to the more general questions "How do you motivate your students to learn?" and "Do you have any tricks or strategies to motivate your students to learn?", rather than from those specific questions that asked the teachers about different motivational strategies. The result was that although the thread of the interview was organised around the points Dörnyei (2001a) mentions, when it came to identifying motivational strategies, some teachers seemed to be at a loss. The following comments illustrate this point, with Daniella's comment exemplifying the other participating teacher's opinions:

"I cannot execute what is expected from me [in books of methodology] [...] I do something but not with the aim of motivating" (Boglárka)

"I'm not aware of techniques for motivating students" (Cécilia)

"I'm not conscious enough for this. I don't think I have any [motivational strategies]" (Daniella)

"they are so motivated that it's unnecessary to motivate them for each task or part of lesson. The whole thing is a block for me" (Daniella)

"experience [...] reacting to situations" (Ernesztina).

The second point that is interesting is the fact that although Boglárka was the most negative about the issue of motivation, the general question on motivation managed to elicit the most strategies and techniques from her.

To sum up, as attested to by the interviews with the teachers and the students (and also based on the questionnaires), the teachers did motivate their students to learn, but it was mostly unconscious (i.e., not identified as motivating students or motivational strategies), learnt by practice and teaching, and adapting to the students' needs. In other words, when asked directly the teachers could not list motivational strategies, but when asked indirectly, they proved to have a broad selection of motivational strategies. The origins and the consequences of this odd contrast might be worth further research, and Chapter 6 will address this question when answering the first two research questions.

5.4.2 How to affect the students' common sense

It was a recurrent theme in the teacher interviews that the teachers made a regular attempt at communicating metaknowledge to their students. By this I mean affecting the students' common sense in a way that they acknowledged the fact that the English language is important, and also urging the students to pass the language exam and to master the language. This point is mentioned in a separate section for two reasons: (i) this topic emerged during the interviews and was not determined beforehand, and (ii) it seems an important aspect of self-regulation in that intentionality, deliberate action, monitoring and reflecting on action are all necessary aspects of self-regulation (cf. Chapter 2).

Metalanguage, in the case of the participating teachers, took the form of directly talking to the students about different issues, sometimes in the form of a monologue or a

dialogue, sometimes keeping them aware or reminding them, for instance, of the importance of a language exam. The interviews attested to this idea, and metalanguage served the following aims:

- strengthening the importance of the English language in the world, and the need for it in the students' future:

“we discuss it from time to time that it's impossible without English” (Annabella)

“the way she talks to us in class, she knows that we're the next generation [...] she keeps telling us if we learn English, we cannot have any more problems in life [...] we talk a lot about this with her” (Buda)

“she tells us that we need it” (Brigi),

- stressing that making mistakes is part of the language learning process:

“in my opinion it's important that making a mistake is not a negative thing. I try to make them understand that making a mistake is part of the learning process, [...] and that I'm not angry with them at all [...] and if others laugh at someone, I tell them it wasn't nice” (Ernesztina),

- harmonising individual needs and making students accept the fact that there are different needs:

“I say this in class, you are different, you want different things, this time we do this, next time another thing. Now you do it for the other, next time someone else does something for you” (Cecília),

- trying to minimise the negative effects of a task or to make it sound more exciting:

“I often tell them, when I know that something isn't going to be too exciting, that this is a very important issue or [...] I tell them that I love this or that thing” (Cecília),

- affecting the students as a whole:

“I try to affect their soul” (Boglárika)

“she tells us that we’re among the best students” (Buda).

The quotes above show that the teachers were constantly seeking direct ways of affecting and motivating their students with the help of strategies, or on a larger scale were trying to have an impact on the students’ ego or self-confidence. The students’ accounts are proof of this fact:

“we talk a lot about this with her, that we have to pass exams and she helps us a lot and does her best and that’s good” (Buda)

“she tells us about when she was in London, what things she did there and what opportunities are there” (Brigi)

“if someone is good at English, they know this is the only chance they can grab and that’s enough motivation” (Buda).

Making students aware of possibilities, the ways in which they can achieve their aims, or the importance of English in the world, are examples of attempts to help students become self-regulated learners, since this awareness can activate metacognitive knowledge (planning and goal-setting), monitoring (cognition, motivation and affect), control (selecting and adapting strategies), and reflections (judgements and attributions) (cf. Pintrich, 2000). As such, affecting the students’ common sense, i.e., their metacognition, is a valuable and essential segment of the motivational teaching practice. This leads to the second focal point of the dissertation.

5.5 Self-regulation

Section 2.2.5.3 detailed what kind of strategies self-regulation involves. In this subchapter the aspects of teaching that can help students when it comes to self-regulation are analysed. The interviews did not directly ask the students about these potentially helpful techniques, thus, the following sections highlight the already in-place

approaches and routines that are at the students' disposal. Issues that are addressed in the following sections include: what constitutes self-regulation, how autonomous the students are in their own view, to what extent they are aware of their self-regulatory processes and capability, whether they have a realistic view about themselves, what problems arise in connection with the instructional aspects of self-regulation, and what action can be taken to develop self-regulation.

5.5.1 Autonomy and the building blocks of self-regulation

Although not all of the students felt that they are completely autonomous language learners, they all considered some activities, which are typical of self-regulation, part of their everyday routine (however, as a matter of fact, they never referred to these activities as self-regulation). There was no mention of the different stages of self-regulation (planning/goal-setting, monitoring, control and reflection) at an abstract level, but certain organisational issues (management strategies) were discussed. The most important points to mention in this section are the various concrete steps (i.e., self-regulatory strategies) the students took in order to be or become self-regulated learners, as well as the extent to which they already considered themselves self-regulating and autonomous.

The most common aspects that were mentioned were all concrete activities that the students did without the teacher or concrete encouragement, which means that to them self-regulation meant without the teacher or on their own. These are as follows:

- listening to music, checking and translating lyrics: Adél, Ábel, Betti, Bori, Brigi;

- reading books, usually graded readers: Adél, Ábel, Betti, or authentic stories: Brigi (only beginning to read), Flóra;
- watching films (with or without subtitles, sometimes films they already knew well) or watching TV in general: Ádám, Adél, Ábel, Bea, Buda, Betti, Bori, Brigi, Flóra;
- learning words by reading or watching films: Adél;
- translating: Ábel (news articles from the BBC website), Brigi;
- talking to foreigners: Flóra;
- using the internet as a resource (e.g., Facebook applications or dictionary): Flóra;
- having a native penfriend: Ádám (but subsequently abandoned due to lack of interest on the part of the penfriend).

These activities were mentioned by the students of their own accord, and there was no pre-prepared list to choose activities from. Therefore, the above can be considered reliable information as to what they were genuinely doing, without the teacher's encouragement to improve their English; it is of particular interest that Ábel mentioned peer influence as a prompt to his translating short news articles from the BBC website, since a classmate of his had told him that "he does it" and it seemed Ábel liked this way of learning English, even making note of unknown words in a separate vocabulary notebook. From the above list, films, music and books were mentioned as popular forms of improving English, and interestingly enough, the internet was mentioned on only two occasions. Out of the eight activities mentioned, five were done by one student only, which means that in essence only three ways of independent learning were well-known to these students. It should be highlighted again that self-regulation to these students mostly equalled the lack of the teacher during the activity.

These concrete forms of extra-curricular activities, which cannot be considered self-regulation per se, can be translated into self-regulatory strategies. The following strategies were identified:

Behavioural control:

- seeking help (Pintrich, 2000): Ádám, Ábel, Bea, Betti, Flóra;

Contextual control (Pintrich, 2000); environmental control (Wolters, 1999):

- regulation of academic tasks (Pintrich, 2000): Ábel, Betti (both: organising how to study for a test);
- student-initiated control (Pintrich, 2000): Flóra (choosing who to work with and assigning roles in group work);

Control of motivation and affect:

- maintaining a mastery-oriented focus (Pintrich, 2000): Ábel (translating news articles about social issues, e.g., sports events or Haiti hit by an earthquake);
- increasing task value (Pintrich, 2000): Flóra (translating and interpreting between family members and friends);
- increasing intrinsic motivation (Pintrich, 2000): Bea (understanding topics on TV).

The most common strategy employed was seeking external help, usually by approaching the teacher, a knowledgeable family member, or the internet (Flóra). Their peers were not mentioned, although it is believed that peer modelling and groups in general are an effective way to generate motivation and in turn improve language skills (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994a; Williams & Burden, 1997). The following quotes witness help-seeking, and also prove that the students equated autonomy with a situation in which they are ‘alone’ in the learning process:

“at home I can learn it on my own, if there’s something I don’t understand, I ask the teacher or my god-mother, who’s an English teacher too, so I’m independent enough I think” (Ábel)

“I like doing it on my own, but I need a framework, so if I don’t understand something I need someone or a source to turn to. [...] to me the teacher is still the main source if I need something” (Flóra).

The students considered themselves autonomous learners, and in almost all cases stated this firmly in the interviews. However, when this was not the case, for example with Bea, this is potentially because these students were at the beginning of their English studies. This hesitation as to how autonomous they are is in line with Mezei’s (2008a) tentative conclusion that self-regulation builds up continuously and is a matter of maturity as a learner. This idea was strengthened by Bea:

“Interviewer: So you rather rely on her in learning?

Bea: Yes.

Interviewer: Is this because you started a short time ago or because you rely on the teacher in the case of other subjects too?

Bea: Uh, it’s a difficult question, I don’t know [...].”

As opposed to Bea, other students were more confident about their independence in learning:

“some time ago [...] I always called my mum to help me [...] but now I’m independent enough” (Ádám)

“It’s enough for me if the teacher tells me what the test is going to cover [...] it’s perfectly enough for me [to get prepared]” (Buda)

“I’ve always felt independent, sometimes instructions seemed only an obstruction [...] so why do they have to tell me how to go about something? [...] I sometimes have technical problems and I need only to learn how to find the solution, but how to solve it effectively, well, I like to come up with the solution myself” (Flóra).

These students, in general, seemed to know (i.e., they said they knew) what they needed in order to become independent and autonomous in learning English, and they made an effort to move in this direction. This could mean decreasing their dependence

on the teacher, as in the case of Bea above, or Bori and Brigi (not cited), or being almost completely independent, as in the case of Flóra. Ádám expressed his view on how this changed during the years: “I think it’s in connection with the fact that I’ve come to like English, the lessons and what we do in class” (cf. Mezei, 2008a). This illustrates another point, where teacher intervention is possible and required by way of motivational strategies, or teaching students how to use learning strategies and motivate themselves. However, it is not clear why self-regulation, in the students’ view, corresponded to ‘learning alone’ or an extension of it, and nothing else. This mismatch, combined with the relatively low scores of the Learning experience scale, points to the fact that no matter how autonomous the students believed they were, they were far from self-regulation per se.

5.5.2 Awareness and realistic view

Various definitions of self-regulation emphasise the fact that awareness of the on-going learning processes, strategies, etc. in learning are of utmost importance, along with other aspects such as regulating cognition and being active learners (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; Lemos, 1999; Molnár, 2003; Pintrich, 2000; Réthy, 2003; Rheinberg, Vollmeyer & Rollett, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000). Plans and behaviour adaptations are implausible without awareness of certain aspects of behaviour. This section, therefore, highlights how aware the students generally were of their own learning and various aspects of it, along with some thoughts regarding the extent to which these beliefs and thoughts were realistic.

The students’ answers varied between one extreme of hesitation as to whether they are autonomous learners, to another extreme of directly claiming they are

autonomous. Some quotes below suggested that this concept might not be unidirectional with no way back on the developmental continuum:

“I’m relatively autonomous” (Ábel)

“I don’t exactly know [what I do to be independent]” (Bea)

“If I really want it, yes [I am independent]” (Brigi)

“it’s enough for me if she tells me which part of the material [to learn]” (Buda)

“I try to do it on my own, if I’m not sure about something I listen to her first, then I try to do it on my own” (Betti)

“it’s not a problem for me [to do it on my own] [...] I help myself. So I’m really autonomous” (Fanni).

Brigi’s opinion indicated that cognitive aspects might play a role in student autonomy, and Adél gave another, rather affective, point of view, commenting: “I go through phases, sometimes I tend to be autonomous, then I’m not really interested, then I become more interested, and at the same time more autonomous too.” These opinions point to the fact that various motives can blend in self-regulation, and both cognitive and affective factors can play a role similarly to motivation (Dörnyei, 1999).

The teacher is again an important participant in the process, one who seems to have a serious role in creating autonomy in students. Fanni said that “the teacher should set an example, or tell me to improve this or that” and explicitly stated that she is trying to forget about a semester when she felt the teachers abandoned her (with the exception of two teachers) and let the students fend for themselves. She said that

“they imposed everything on us, I didn’t feel they’d like to help [...] two teachers helped then let us go, but the others weren’t interested in what I do or how I go about doing things.”

It follows from this that initial autonomy is virtually impossible without the teacher’s intervention and scaffolding, and that the learners, most probably, develop self-

directedness just as they learn the language. I argued elsewhere (Mezei, 2008) that this comes with increasing maturity as a learner, and, as Csaba's opinion confirmed, a mature learner can direct and influence the learning process:

“we should do it this way, we should make R. [native speaker teacher] build in [extra material in the syllabus], he's very much inclined to carry out changes in the material [...] I've just realised that we could read things for the lessons and stuff like that. So do extra stuff that is in connection with English.”

This is also in line with other research. For instance, Dörnyei and Tseng (2009) argue that more advanced learners, as opposed to novice learners, can “activate task-appropriate action control mechanisms to further increase the effectiveness of their learning process” (p. 130). Csaba was confident enough to ask the teacher to change and adapt his style of teaching. This suggests that creating autonomy and building up self-regulation in students is a subprocess that is bidirectional (teacher feedback is needed), requires continuous adaptation, and is certainly not a question of student ability only but also teacher recognition and response.

What the quote above illustrates is a rather advanced form of self-regulation and autonomy in general. At this stage the student was able to recognise his abilities and needs, and also to influence the environment in order to fit his world (cf. contextual control, Pintrich, 2000; and environmental control, Wolters, 1999 in Section 5.5.1). Not all students are so confident, however. Fanni thought that “my skills are below average or around average maybe” and Flóra said that “sometimes I'm really disappointed at my English knowledge.” Other students also expressed similar views at various points in the interview.

The teachers, on the other hand, indirectly strengthened the idea that some students have low self-confidence. The source of negative self-evaluation, according to Annabella, might be exceptionally high parental expectations:

“It’s a real problem when they [the parents] want the maximum, the kid is really diligent, works hard, but very young, so – and they [the kids] see that they work a lot [...] but they cannot do more. And they don’t understand.”

It is also common that the students had not reached a level of maturity that would help them make use of every piece of useful advice from the teacher:

“Maybe they don’t [understand that they don’t understand], maybe they think that they’ve understood and they think, OK, that’s all right, but they just don’t understand it in a way so that they can build on this knowledge later” (Boglárka).

A slightly contradictory opinion came from Annabella, according to whom the students had realistic views about themselves and each other. It must be noted, however, that the following quote is about 18-year-old students, which strengthens the claim that more advanced learners have more effective control and self-regulating mechanisms at their disposal (Dörnyei & Tseng, 2009):

“they give marks to each other on the oral mock tests and they are very good at guessing how many points they would earn in an exam situation. I think that they do [evaluate realistically]. There are some who don’t. But only a few students.”

It seems that in general the students, with a few exceptions, had a realistic view about themselves. The exceptions might have been the result of too high expectations on the parents’ part, or the students’ own low self-confidence, and both types of problems should be addressed. As for self-regulation, most students in this sample were on the way towards becoming self-regulating learners, and more proficient and more mature learners are at an advantage in this respect too. The interview data also showed that the steps forward along this continuum do not prevent students from turning back or hesitating at certain stages. It is the teachers’ responsibility to recognise low achievers in autonomy and, possibly using motivational strategies, help them proceed.

5.5.3 Potential problems

Improving autonomy, and thus self-regulation, in students is not without problems. Constraints such as the pressure of time, syllabus, exams, and parental expectations will not be examined here, rather the issues that the students were directly concerned with are highlighted. According to Annabella, the borderline between autonomy³ and student centredness was rather fuzzy and it was not easy to strike the ideal balance. It follows from this that finding appropriate tasks and activities that foster self-regulation is key, and poses difficulty.

Annabella talked about the problem side of this issue in her interview:

“because the students in this educational system are not used to it. So I could start experimenting with it and maybe one day; it’s an awful lot of energy, one might think that if they decide it means a lot less work [but] but in fact it’s much more work. And again, there’s not much time, so I feel like I want to do it several times but it’s impossible physically.”

She also considered potential ways of addressing the problem:

“so I could ask the students about what kinds of tasks they think we should do when covering the next section, or they should get prepared for example with school-leaving exam topics, well, we’re doing that actually, so there’s a topic and they need to collect questions in connection with that topic and also the vocabulary, they decide on the topic and they need to collect these things.”

This attitude, namely, considering the problems while suggesting solutions, was also typical of the other teachers. It follows from this that while the teachers were well aware of the constraints of the system, they found small ways of manoeuvring around them. Two examples of best practice will be shown in the next section.

Most teachers argued in the interviews that the extent to which the students can become autonomous largely depends on the students themselves. Willingness and the

³ The teachers used the word *autonomy*, not *self-regulation* or *self-directedness*.

parental background were emphasised with slight variations. Cecilia also mentioned goals when talking about autonomy:

“there are students who are much more autonomous, for example they come up with tasks they do, or books, and these are the students who are really determined and persevering to achieve something. [...] and one of them for example has decided to translate an English book into Hungarian.”

Here self-regulation is linked with goals and persistence. Boglárka, on the other hand, commented that it was the student’s responsibility:

“most of it depends on the kids, and those who want to be autonomous, those who really want it, success and results are a function of the extent to which they want to contribute to it.”

In other words, intention, success, outcome and, covertly, ability surfaced as constraints to self-regulation. In the previous section, Annabella talked about parental pressure as a problem: even if the student was hard-working, they could not meet the parents’ expectations. Ernesztina mentioned that larger group sizes and/or differences in knowledge between students inevitably led to a heightened level of autonomy, because the students needed to adapt to this situation. Furthermore, Ernesztina said that

“when the students are at very different levels, you need a lot of patience, so when I’m dealing with one of them, the others are doing something else on their own, so it presupposes a great deal of autonomy.”

As for further constraints, a negative side effect of teacher education manifested itself in the interview with Boglárka. When talking about motivating students to learn and promoting self-regulation and autonomy in students, Boglárka expressed her negative views of current teacher education and the lack of several potentially important issues that were not addressed at university. While admitting that she does not pay attention to motivating students on purpose, she finds it extremely important to

consciously and constantly foster student autonomy. She expressed her views as follows:

“I was always taught that it is the teacher who motivates... I need to do it, of course but I cannot, I cannot execute what is expected from me in books of methodology.”

Although it seems from this extract that this teacher was ignoring a potentially fruitful way of motivating students, on reflection this was not true. It was obvious from the interview that she was using several motivational strategies, just like the other teachers, but it seems she considered self-regulation more important. How she motivated students to learn was already shown in the previous sections of this chapter; the next section will show that her motivational teaching practice includes teaching the students strategies and helping them improve their English.

What did the students think about potential problems with self-regulation? They did not mention too many negative aspects, but two opinions are worth looking at. One of them came from Csenge, who expressed the following view:

“She has the syllabus, she keeps to it, if the students had too many things to get involved in, if they had too many rights, that would lead to chaos. I think you cannot move on with the material.”

This opinion shows that this student could not imagine a teaching-learning process whereby the students took an active part in shaping the lessons and material. This is a shame, however, it is not unprecedented. Annabella’s opinion about the same issue was outlined above: “the students in this educational system are not used to it,” and Flóra also concurred with this opinion. She expressed this view the following way: “everyone [the students] is used to the fact that they are told what to do” and “they [the students] are used to the fact that they are being pushed in a direction.” From this, it follows that when the students met a new approach, be it a more student-centred or directly

autonomy-related approach, they did not know how to react or behave in a classroom situation. An unlikely but possible outcome of this was that it could

“result in a situation when you want to make them work on their own, but they are not willing to do [the task] and they want to make someone else do it” (Flóra).

It would appear then that the old routine, i.e., instructions from the teacher, and limited freedom as to how to solve a problem or finish a task in the language class instead of creative efforts, were welcomed. The teachers certainly faced difficulty and sometimes considerable resistance on the students’ part, but they were ready to show the students new approaches. At this point it is safe to claim that the participating students were going through the developmental stages of self-regulation, and not all of them were mature enough to be able to take advantage of their opportunities. The next section, therefore, will focus on two positive examples that prove that it is possible to incorporate elements in the language class that promote student autonomy and eliminate rigidity.

5.5.4 Action: what to do to foster autonomy and improve self-regulation

If it is not possible to introduce autonomy-based approaches in the language classroom from the very beginning of the students’ language studies (cf. Nikolov, 1998), tasks, approaches and best practices are available. This section presents Annabella’s and Boglárka’s approaches, and their occasionally contrasting views on self-regulation and autonomy. Annabella has had many more years of experience and has been a mentor teacher for years, while it appeared that Boglárka deliberately ignored motivational strategies (as she defines them – see above) but focussed on fostering autonomy instead. It must be pointed out that Annabella’s focus on student-

centred learning was rooted in her experiences in secondary school (when, in contrast to her class, the other English class had comparatively interesting and funny English lessons), and also in her training as a teacher and mentor teacher; whereas Boglárka's attitude was grounded in the faults of teacher education and memories of what she missed from lessons when she was learning English in secondary school (for example, scaffolding, teacher explanation on tricky structures, and learning strategies in the case of some challenging grammar points).

In particular, Annabella had had experience in teacher training and best practices. In her interview she talked about student centredness (which she currently has to resign herself to) and autonomy (an approach that she would like to make use of one day), as ideal aims in teaching. She described the activity box task as a core element in her teaching practice as follows:

“Interviewer: And how does this activity box work?

Annabella: It works like, maybe you didn't see it, this is from the series Cambridge English for schools, it's for grammar or vocabulary revision, so I ask the kids to write tasks and they use an A6 sheet, on one side they create the exercise, and on the reverse side the key. We collect the sheets and before a test we do them and evaluate them, what do they know, I put the sheets on the desks, they go around and choose the grammar or vocabulary they want to do. They do the exercises, check with the key and they move on to the next task.

Interviewer: Yes, I think you gave it as homework.

Annabella: Yes, and I collect them, for example in year 6, I gave them sheets I hadn't had time to check, you know I should check all the sheets beforehand. So I didn't have time to check them, they handed them in and one of them said that he didn't like it, he would say it differently, so it's hard work to check 60 sheets whether they are correct or not. And I bring in sheets from old classes and they say, oh, it was written by my brother or my sister or a friend, so these are funny things, but it takes a lot of time.”

Not only did this activity foster autonomy, it also motivated students to learn as they could see that other students also worked on the sheets. This activity was a recurring topic among Annabella's students, who mentioned it as one of the highlights of the English lessons. Other elements of her teaching practice have been described, and

activity box is an excellent example of what can be done with limited resources (time, in this case).

Boglárka, on the other hand, described a more complex approach to student autonomy. She invested a great amount of time into setting an example to students partly intentionally, partly subconsciously, and showed them ways and tricks to improve their English through becoming self-regulating and autonomous. This was a whole-body approach, in the sense that every aspect of her teaching, not only the given activities which helped her reach her aim, was based on this belief. She summarised it this way: “basically the aim is to make them become autonomous.” She listed several techniques such as learning strategy training, administering the students a psychology test in order to identify the best methodology to learn, teaching note-taking, learning from mistakes, avoiding common mistakes and using metacognition to overcome difficulties. Some excerpts from her interview highlighted this approach:

“they need to be taught learning strategies [...] I brought a traditional psychological test in class when I had the impression they had problems with vocabulary learning [...] it happened that with the help of a psychological test someone realised that they tried to use a learning technique that didn’t suit them”

“I remember a lot of things that posed a problem to me [...] I call their attention to problems that I bumped into [...] and I’ve realised that I wouldn’t have had problems with certain structures if someone had said something, just a sentence. So I do such things. I come back to such things from time to time.”

“I show them typical mistakes, I tell them what to pay attention to and they cannot run into such problems. And I don’t agree with some people who say that [...] making mistakes is bad. [...] I think it’s the opposite, I tell them it’s good to make mistakes because you can learn from them.”

She was firmly convinced that it is worth addressing these issues in class because

“the penny drops with some people only years later [...] in my opinion some of these 45-minute lessons can be sacrificed if a kid becomes better or more confident, if they learn how to go about it [...] in this case it was worth it.”

These two teachers had completely different experiences and backgrounds in teaching, but they were both aware of the fact that self-regulation and student autonomy are important aspects of teaching even if they refer to it by different names. They were aware of the difficulties and negative side-effects, and in spite of this fact they invest time and energy in fostering student autonomy. These two brief examples show the essence of their teaching practice concerning self-regulation, and highlight the fact that small but effective actions are indeed proper means to improve student self-regulation.

5.6 The interaction of the motivational teaching practice and self-regulation

Motivation and self-regulation are two intertwined concepts, dynamically influencing each other. The interviews with the students and teachers highlighted several aspects of these interfaces in the motivational teaching practice of teachers and self-regulation in students. These ideas inspired a schematic representation of how these embedded factors interact as shown in Figure 5.1. It shows the two main participants of the teaching-learning process, teacher and student, and how their actions influence each other, in order for the learners to become more successful and achieve more in learning. The basis of the structure rests upon traditional ID factors (cf. Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a, 2009b) on which more dynamic regulatory processes are built: the motivational teaching practice and self-regulation.

These processes influence each other in a manner that cannot easily be studied and described using simple cause-effect relationships, since change in one part of the system can have an overarching effect in the whole system, and not only an adjacent part is affected. Dörnyei (2009b, 2009c, 2010) argues that the Dynamic systems theory can do justice to these slight changes, because this theory treats ID factors as attractors

and repellers, and it focusses on change instead of variables. By doing so, it can highlight changes in the system which are more than simple cause-effect relationships. Qualitative aspects can be added that are the characteristics of individuals instead of groups, and system behaviours can also be studied.

Figure 5.1 A schematic representation of the motivational teaching practice and self-regulation

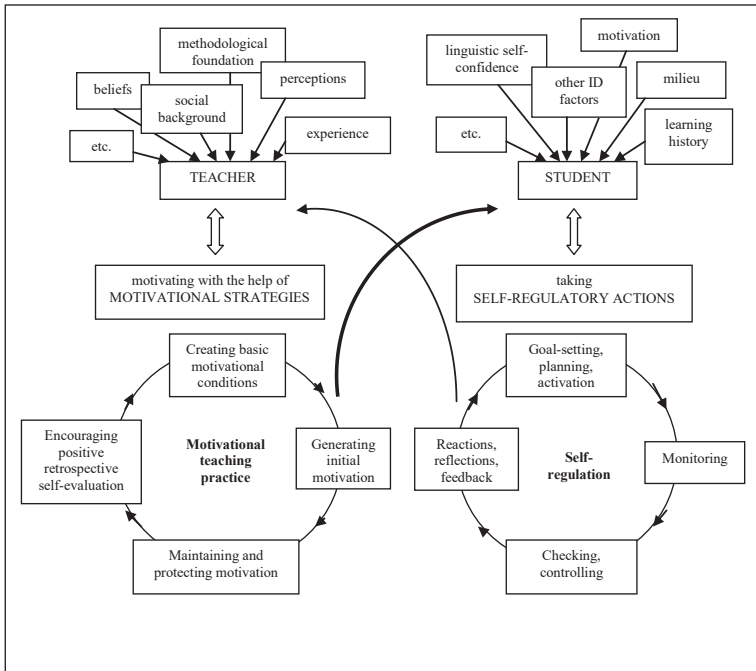


Figure 5.1 is schematic, in the sense that it cannot capture all the subprocesses that are involved in motivating students to learn and promoting self-regulation, or all the aspects that have been highlighted in this chapter. Nevertheless, it shows how the motivational teaching practice is the responsibility of the teacher, and self-regulation is

mainly dependent on the student but promoted and scaffolded by the teacher. It also expresses the idea that these cyclical subprocesses are not islands in themselves, but that they affect each other, and adjustment in one might have an effect on another. From this conceptualisation, it is also clear that self-regulation is not only a function of the student's abilities or drive, especially because IDs "are not at all stable but show salient temporal and situational variation" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 260). In addition, it cannot show whether synchronising the two cycles is necessary or not, for example when a class consists of several students all of whom are, ideally, regulating their own learning, but it is a good model to represent directions and flow of information in the dynamic process of teaching and learning.

5.7 Summary

This chapter has analysed the motivational teaching practice of the teachers and the self-regulation of the students, with the help of the participants' stories, and as such it has given a qualitative overview of the focal points of the dissertation. It has identified the main issues that underlie the motivation and self-regulation of the participants, namely management issues, the atmosphere in class, the personality of the teacher and her relationship with the students, the role of goals and several aspects of self-regulation. The findings are summarised in Figure 5.1, which is also a good starting point for further research to analyse the issues that have been raised from a dynamic systems point of view (cf. Dörnyei, 2009c, 2010). The interplay of the teacher's and students' actions are highlighted in the figure, showing that a change in one point can affect more remote and possibly unexpected points in the system.

In addition, this chapter has illustrated that the teachers used a wide range of motivational strategies that were appreciated by the students, that on average the teachers and the students had a good relationship, and that the atmosphere in class created a favourable environment for the students. On the other hand, although the students showed several signs of autonomy and seemed to be open to self-regulation, they were not mature enough or not ready for self-regulation to take full effect. In sum, it can be stated that, in spite of some negative conditions (e.g., class size, expectations), the teachers could create a suitable environment for the students, but the teaching-learning process could have been further stimulated by fostering self-regulation.

In the following chapter, both qualitative and quantitative data will be brought together in order to construct a picture of the motivational teaching practice and self-regulation, to further analyse the issues raised in Chapters 4 and 5, and also to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 6

THE INTERACTION OF MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING PRACTICE AND SELF-REGULATION: DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the research questions are addressed with the help of the data analysed in Chapters 4 and 5. The chapter is organised around the six research questions, and the subquestions as presented in Section 3.1. The aim of this chapter is to give a comprehensive view of the issues that induced this research project. In contrast with Chapters 4 and 5, which sought to analyse data concerning questionnaire data and the teachers' and the students' view on motivation and self-regulation respectively, this chapter summarises all the data gathered during data collection, by presenting a complete and overall picture of the interaction of the motivational teaching practice of the teachers and the self-regulation of the students.

6.1 The motivational teaching practice of secondary school English teachers

It was a fundamental and primary presupposition of the dissertation that teachers in general, and secondary school English teachers in particular, use motivational strategies that form the basis of their motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a). The existence of motivational strategies is a presupposition without which it is difficult to imagine the teaching-learning process (cf. Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2009; Mezei & Csizér, 2005). Yet, the quantitative results only partially supported this assumption, in that the values of the scales are slightly below 4, which although acceptable cannot be considered particularly high. Moreover, in the interviews

the teachers claimed that they do not use motivational strategies. Qualitative data, observation and a close analysis of the interviews, however, did not confirm this. In addition, further puzzling results that surfaced included the fact that no scale of the Motivational strategies questionnaire contributed to motivated language learning behaviour, and that the less experienced teacher's students indicated significantly higher effects of motivational strategies (Motivational strategies questionnaire) and self-directedness (Learning experience scale). What explanation can be found for these results?

Research question 1a enquired into the various forms of motivational strategies that the teachers in this study use: *What motivational strategies do secondary school English teachers use in class?* The five teachers who agreed to participate displayed a wide range of motivational strategies, including almost all that are described in Dörnyei's (2001a) extensive list, as indicated by other studies in the case of other teachers (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Mezei & Csizér, 2005). The reports on the use of these strategies were analysed in Chapter 5, and grouped as follows:

1. surface manifestations of behaviour or directly observable motivational strategies,
2. the intangible side of teaching, i.e., strategies that do not easily lend to observation and/or strategies that are the result of complex behaviours.

While the teachers and students alike were able to list and describe several motivational strategies, their answers were not so definite when the interviewer directly asked them about these strategies or their motivational teaching practice. The explanation to this fact might lie in the fact that the teachers considered motivation a block or unit, without clearly identifiable parts. This idea makes our thinking in terms of

various strategies somewhat questionable. In addition, the teachers felt that their teaching was filtered through, and intertwined with, motivational strategies, and that motivational thinking was part of their teaching. This is in line with how Nahalka (2001) describes the elaboration of the thinking process in teachers, or schemas in expert thinking (Mérő, 2001). Although it might be true that experienced teachers already think in units rather than isolated tasks when it comes to motivating students, breaking down motivation into digestible chunks is required if we all want to understand how motivational strategies work and take effect; this would be especially useful to those new generations of teachers who would like to learn the basics of teaching, because it seems that this element is currently missing from language teacher training (cf. Boglárka and Cecilia).

Although the qualitative analysis revealed a complex repertoire of motivational strategies, the quantitative analysis provided a less positive picture of the motivational strategies used. Firstly, only the initial phase of the motivational teaching practice rose above the value of 4, and the values subsequently decreased; and secondly, the motivational strategies did not contribute to motivated language learning behaviour in this study. It seems that the teachers were strong at the beginning of the motivational cycle, and were able to create and initiate motivation, but they were not as good at maintaining and protecting motivation. The significantly lowest score was in the third phase, which normally takes place during the middle of the academic year, when the teachers usually become more tired and less energetic. In addition, this is the period when classes settle into routines and teachers need to attend to several problems and student needs, and devote energy not only to students and classes but many other issues. It should be also be noted that the higher and stronger first phase might have been the result of a particularly energetic initial period, and compared to this, everything else,

even an average third phase, would seem a step back. The lapse in the third phase was corrected, however, with a stronger final phase, when the teachers managed to encourage positive retrospective self-evaluation. This shows that the teachers were aware of the need to address the students' motivation, although the effect of motivational strategies is ambiguous. The finding on the strength of each phase is partly in line with an earlier study (Mezei & Csizér, 2005), in which it was concluded that the first and third phases of the motivational teaching practice were more in focus when motivating students, suggesting that the initial impetus is high in general, but that a later phase retains the loss of that force. It needs further research to find out why there is a difference between the two studies, or whether it is possible that the teachers have an impact on this effect on the basis of the actual needs of the students or the circumstances, and the impact can take effect in either of the phases depending on the actual circumstances and needs. The similar results, with a strong initial phase, however, lend support to the claim that the beginning of the cycle called motivational teaching practice is stronger when it comes to motivating students to learn English.

If we look at the third phase and the strategies recommended by Dörnyei (2001a), it is not surprising that this phase proved the weakest in this study, because the strategies that are assigned to this phase by Dörnyei (2001a) are underutilised or need strengthening, as attested to by the interviews. Some of the strategies from this phase that were mentioned as problematic at various points in the dissertation are listed in Table 6.1, with reference to the data in the interviews. These are six of the potential teacher intervention points. These points also help one understand why the third phase is less empathic in the teachers' motivational teaching practice, as these are the techniques that are most challenging for the teachers. What is unquestionable, though, is the fact that a wide range of motivational strategies were observed during this phase,

and also that both the students and the teachers gave account of various motivational strategies. The analysis of the questionnaires also proved this, but the effect of them could be strengthened in later stages. The only scale (phase) with a value higher than four is creating the basic motivational condition. In other words, it seems it was the easiest for the teachers to shape their students' motivation and motivated language learning behaviour in the first phase of the motivational teaching practice. Moreover, ideal L2 self and instrumental orientation that contribute to motivated language learning behaviour in the regression model (Section 4.6) are also scales with a value over 4.

Table 6.1 Underutilised motivational strategies

Dörnyei's strategy (2001a, pp. 141-142)	Support from qualitative data
"Make learning more stimulating and enjoyable by breaking the monotony of classroom events"	the fact that some English lessons can become repetitive
"Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learners by enlisting them as active task participants"	the students would like to participate in more active types of tasks (pair work, group work), also this idea is in harmony with the concept of self-regulation
"Use goal-setting methods in your classroom"	proximal subgoals are essential, goals are neglected in general, students are eager to set goals (Section 5.3), setting goals is a basic tenet for self-regulation to be successful
"Build your learners' confidence by providing regular encouragement"	students' self-confidence and self-worth are not too high, a perception that filtered through the interviews (see also Chapter 5.5.2), more praise as was observed by the teachers might contribute to motivated language learning behaviour
"Increase student motivation by promoting cooperation among the learners"	students would like to do more pair and group work that could foster cooperation
"Increase student motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy"	as Boglárka focussed directly on this side of teaching, and Annabella did not (or not consistently), this might be an explanation for the significant difference between the teachers on various scales of the questionnaires

Research question 1b enquired about the relationship between the motivational teaching practice and motivated language learning behaviour: *Do the motivational teaching practice and the motivational strategies have an effect on motivated language*

learning behaviour? Examining the Motivational strategies questionnaire in isolation, it was revealed that only the first two phases play a role at all, and together they explain 34% of the variance. However, all the studies mentioned earlier (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei, 1994a, 2001a, 2001b; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Mezei & Csizér, 2005; Réthy, 2003; Xavier, 2005) point to the fact that motivational strategies have a direct and positive effect on motivated language learning behaviour, and teaching experience also supports this idea. The interviews that were conducted in order to answer this question also demonstrated this. The single most important reply to the question “who should motivate the students to learn” was the teacher (Table 5.1), and because motivational strategies are “*instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation*” (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 57, emphasis added), it was to be expected that the teachers influenced their students’ motivation and motivated language learning behaviour through motivational strategies. However, when all the variables were entered into the regression model, no scale of the Motivational strategies questionnaire contributed to motivated language learning behaviour. A tentative assumption is that there might be a latent variable, through which this influence takes full effect, which is reflective of self-regulation.

The following explanation has been found to support the above concept. The four scales that contribute to motivated language learning behaviour in the regression analysis are directly related to the student, in the sense that they are internal, whereas motivational strategies are only reactions to (student) behaviour and these reactions must be adapted and attended to. Furthermore, as Boglárka for example stated at several points in her interview, a strong emphasis on autonomy can induce improvement in student attitudes and approaches to learning. Thus, through this effect it is more

straightforward to understand the significant differences between the students of the two teachers on the eight scales (Table 4.5). In other words, it is probable that the use of motivational strategies should address the students' self-regulatory cycle, through which their motivated language learning behaviour can be affected. This is tenable since it is self-regulation (motivation and control), combined with motivation (ideal L2 self and instrumental orientation), that contributes to motivated language learning behaviour in this sample. In a recent study however, Kormos and Csizér (in press) found, based on structural equation modelling, that motivated language learning behaviour contribute to self-regulatory strategies, that in turn affect autonomy. This issue needs further research in order to clarify the direction of motivational strategies and self-regulatory effects.

6.2 The teachers' beliefs about, and attitudes to, their motivational teaching practice

The results of the student questionnaires showed the extent to which the teachers used motivational strategies perceived by the students, and the student interviews enquired about the same issue. Another question is, however, what these teachers' beliefs and attitudes were. The first intriguing point is the fact that, while the almost hour-long interviews prompted the teachers about various motivational strategies and provided an insight into how varied and thoughtful their teaching practices were, the teachers themselves were far less clear when it came to directly describing what they did to motivate their students to learn, and how they did it. This issue first surfaced in an earlier case study (Mezei & Csizér, 2005), in which the teacher gave account of several motivational strategies while, when questioned directly, saying that she had no real motivational strategies. This was a recurrent and surprising issue in subsequent teacher

interviews I conducted during various studies (Mezei, 2006, 2007, 2008b, 2009, 2011). In other words, there seems to be a discrepancy between what the teachers do, and how they label what they do, when they motivate their students to learn. This inconsistency was pointed out in Chapter 5.4.1, and some of the explanations might be as follows:

- Teacher training does not lay enough emphasis on teaching trainee teachers about motivating students to learn. Boglárka and Cecília both openly talked about this when they mentioned that they had had no instruction as to motivating students. It must be underlined that these two teachers were the youngest in the study and they should have been the ones who learnt the most up-to-date methods, including motivating students to learn.
- Students lacking motivation or being demotivated can pose problems to teachers in that they might lack training on how to deal with undermotivated students and the phenomena such as avoidance behaviour (avoiding learning, the lesson, the teacher or peers), defence mechanisms, coping with problems, issues concerning self-confidence, self-worth and self-efficacy, fossilised learner beliefs, and so on that naturally appear alongside the teaching-learning process. These forms of behaviour can lead to teachers abandoning students as was described in the case of Boglárka. Self-reflection on teaching, as was earlier indicated by research (Alderson, Nagy & Öveges, 2000), could be a way to handle this issue.
- The inconsistency might be the result of non- or miscommunication. Sometimes it is not only teachers who feel they are at a loss in connection with a problem, but students, who, more often than not, are unable to articulate what they need, what they would like to do and how they would like to do it. This situation can easily lead to the problems listed above. If

this is the case, the students should be taught to voice their needs, while the teachers should be able to decode what the students are signalling to them. The matter is further complicated by the fact that Hungarian students are used to the role of the passive recipient of knowledge, a role which is firmly embedded in the Hungarian education system (cf. Kormos and Csizér, in press; Nikolov, 2009a, 2009b; Nikolov & Nagy, 2003). This effect was talked about in particular by Flóra, during her interview.

One of the consequences of the inconsistencies between what the teachers do, and what they say they do, is a less coherent teaching methodology, based more on instincts and impressions, rather than a crystallised teaching methodology (perhaps with the exception of Annabella, who has a solid basis of methodology due to her mentor teacher training). Another consequence can be demotivation (Kormos & Lukóczy, 2004), unsuccessful language learners (Nikolov, 1999, 2002), anxiety (Piniel, 2004) or behaviour problems due to various unresolved language learning difficulties (Ehrman, 1996a).

This inconsistency is all the more intriguing because the teachers all agreed that motivating students to learn English is essential. Reassuring is the fact that the teachers successfully tried to incorporate several elements of the motivational teaching practice into their teaching practice, in the hope of motivating their students further, even though they did not consider these techniques motivational strategies. As long as it is just an issue of labelling, there is no problem. The proof for this being just a matter of labelling includes the fact that the quantitative analysis showed an acceptable level of motivational strategies in all four stages for both teachers, that in addition, in the fourth phase, a certain increase is observable, the fact that the teachers talked about a wide range of strategies in the interviews, and also that the students mentioned several ways

of their teachers motivating them. It is of utmost importance and must be underlined that the students did not show any sign of disapproval or dissatisfaction with how their teachers were motivating them (with the only exception, Csilla, not being a student of any of the teachers in this study). The facts above indicate that these teachers were able to successfully motivate their students to learn.

A very important point was raised during the interviews, regarding communicating direct information about language learning to students, in other words encouraging the students to master a kind of metaknowledge that helps them learn and cope with the tasks addressed while learning the language. Only two questions related indirectly to this idea in the Motivational strategies questionnaire, one of them was about mistakes as a natural part of the learning process, and the other one was about the importance of language knowledge in life. The teachers, however, used techniques that were more direct than simply motivating students to learn. Five of those points, all of which were unrelated to English and English language learning as such, were highlighted in Chapter 5.4.2. All of them are important, as they are directly related to contextual and situational language use, and because these students were not isolated language learners but part of a team.

The teachers' attitudes to language learning and their philosophy about the motivational teaching practice was highlighted in Chapter 5.5.4. These teachers were very different from each other in terms of age, background, and teaching methodology, yet, what was common in them is that they set a positive example to their students, who believed that they had an extremely good English teacher. Both Annabella and Boglárka would have liked to strengthen the students' autonomy and self-confidence, but using different tools. Annabella used her experience as a mentor teacher and the concept of student-centred teaching as a way of helping students reach their aims (an example of

which is the activity box task), whereas Boglárka used her own mistakes from the past and the students' common sense to guide them towards successful mastery of the language, for instance with the help of psychological or learning strategies tests.

Research question 2a sought to answer the question *what it means to these teachers to motivate their students to learn*. Annabella and Boglárka's answers during their interviews showed a considerable overlap and highlighted two main points: (i) enthusiasm and ambition to learn the language, and (ii) success and achievement. In other words, the teachers underlined the procedure and the end result of the teaching-learning process: the "effort and desire" and "the goal of learning" in the Gardnerian sense (Gardner, 1985, p. 10, 2001, 2006). To these teachers motivating students was an aspect or part of teaching (i.e., a unit) interwoven through all classes, and teaching in general. The observation of the classes supported the writer's belief that motivation is not a tool, approach or method used in teaching, but is rather an inherent element of it (the only warning sign is that this effect does not seem fully intended and consistent). However, the students did not realise this, and the teachers built in numerous elements of the motivational teaching practice into their everyday practice without effort. Chapter 5 gave a detailed analysis of this.

As a conclusion regarding the participating teachers' view on motivation, it can be stated that they intended to affect their students' motivation, but this effect was not in accordance with methodology books. Firstly, there is a big difference between an ideal in theory and a real classroom, and secondly, there seems to be a (partial) lack of training on motivating students with effective techniques. These teachers found it important and essential to intervene in their students' motivational disposition, however, they could not dissect their teaching practice to give a precise account of how exactly they did it. Careful questioning, nevertheless, helped to gain insight into this seemingly

hidden world. The participants' deep and intense involvement in motivating the students surfaced by the care they showed towards their students, the effort they invested in the students even if non-English-related issues are concerned, their attention to detail when selecting materials or preparing the students for language exams, the cheerful and relaxed atmosphere they considered important, and so on.

Research question 2b sought to find out about *the beliefs and attitudes involved in the views of motivating students*. The origins of beliefs and attitudes might be affected on the one hand by what teachers saw and experienced when they were students, and on the other hand to what extent they (are willing to) adapt to new situations and react to their students' behaviour and needs. In addition, the constraints of the educational system contribute considerably to this effect. Apart from the pressure of time, the syllabus, exams and parental expectations, i.e., issues that are not addressed in this dissertation, the teachers mentioned two points that are worth looking at. One of them is the teacher, and whether he or she has mastered the appropriate techniques and methodology (cf. Boglárka's and Cecília's opinion), and the other is the students who lack appropriate strategies and the vision to manage their own learning. In the best case those students lack only strategies and experience, in the worst case their problems are closely related to avoidance behaviour, different forms of anxiety, and a general negative attitude to schools, teachers and education (cf. Flóra's opinion and anecdotal evidence told by teachers). These two influences combined can have an impact on teachers that result in their somewhat defensive attitudes for example, as evidenced by the teachers in this sample: Annabella said that the students are not used to being autonomous, Boglárka observed that it mostly depends on the students, Cecília commented that it depends on the students' goals and whether they are willing to be independent and to work towards the goal, and Ernesztina's opinion was that the

students' level of knowledge is extremely varied. All of these opinions point towards the students as the main agents of demotivation, in contrast with Dörnyei (2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), who identified the teacher as the main demotivating factor in learning (see also Nikolov, 2001). Moreover, the participants in this study unanimously agreed that the teacher was the main motivational force (Table 5.1).

In conclusion, the teachers' beliefs and attitudes were directly determined by their past experiences and methodological background, and also by the behaviour and attitudes of the students. This is why it is of utmost importance to shape students' overall approach to learning, and to teach them appropriate strategies that they can build in their concept of learning the language. Vice versa, students must also understand that their behaviour has an impact on the teacher, and this dynamic interaction between student and teacher can form the basis of motivated and self-regulating language learners (cf. Figure 5.1). Teachers, on the other hand, need to learn to adapt to these student needs, and shape their own attitudes, leaving behind maladaptive past experiences, attributions or part of their methodological training.

6.3 How do secondary school students regulate their learning of English?

As was mentioned above, a great number of Hungarian secondary school students do not have appropriate strategies to manage their learning in general, and to master a language to an acceptable level in particular, although they are motivated to learn a language (Nikolov, 2003). More precisely, students with more positive personal characteristics (e.g., conscientiousness, persistence, interest, higher levels of motivation) tend to have better self-regulating strategies (Molnár, 2002b, 2003). The students in this study were able to give account of some forms of regulation with a

certain degree of autonomy. On average, though, they could not be considered completely self-regulating and autonomous, as the analyses of the questionnaires and interview data showed. Comparing the scales, the values of the Learning experience scale were the lowest, and the scale initiative is strikingly low with the second highest standard deviation. This outcome, i.e., low values of the Learning experience scale, was somewhat expected as a result of the Hungarian education system, where, as mentioned previously, students are usually the recipient of knowledge instead of taking an active role in mastering skills, and where they generally have no urge to take the initiative of their own learning process (cf. Kormos & Csizér, in press; Nikolov, 2009a, 2009b; Nikolov & Nagy, 2003).

A consistent difference between the teachers can be detected in that Boglárka's students scored higher on all four scales of the Learning experience scale, and except for initiative, there was a significant difference between the students of Annabella and Boglára. Three explanations are put forward for this: the paradoxical effect of a young and sister-like teacher, the difference in the number of students (cf. Section 4.4), and the potential mediating effect of self-regulation. As for the latter argument, Boglárka's constant effort to influence her students' self-regulatory repertoire suggests that this made a difference among the students in terms of self-regulation, and potentially motivation as well. As was suggested in Section 6.1, affecting the students' self-regulation, by intervening in their strategies and approaches to learning, may cause changes in their levels of motivation.

The interviews revealed a simple link between the teacher's personality (and whether the students liked her) and their role as a motivator: if the students liked the teacher and what they represented, they would also like the lesson and most probably the subject (cf. Heitzmann, 2008). Cecília and Daniella shed light on this by depicting

how different personalities and the change in personality (i.e., opening up to students) could foster motivation. They both described situations which highlight why and how a congruent and developing personality can develop as a teacher and, in turn, have a positive effect on the students. This could, for example, be the first step in the students' regulatory cycle, as was described by Csilla, who opined that the first step is the teacher's, with the students (in theory) following suit. It seemed that the teacher's role as the initiator of action was very strong, with some effort on the students' part to take action.

This is an essential point in the students' self-regulation, in that it seems that it is only the teacher who can induce the spark and fuel the process in the beginning (cf. Boekaerts & Niemivirta, 2000). Later on, however, the students are able and (most of them) willing to approach learning with their own techniques and strategies. At this age, students are still forming their self-system (Zentner & Renaud, 2007), so they could incorporate further elements in their ideal L2 self. It would be preferable for students to build up their own style, so that they are able to make use of their own strategies as the main element in the learning process, and let go of the teacher-dependent strategy.

Research question 3a enquired about *the elements of self-regulation that are present in students' learning English*. Chapter 5.5.1 listed the activities that the students use, besides doing the compulsory exercises in class. Furthermore, these concrete activities were translated into different types of control, such as behavioural control, contextual control, and control of motivation and affect. The students used various types of strategies and activities to add extra interest to the tasks, to motivate themselves, and to foster learning. Closer analysis of these strategies and activities, however, revealed these techniques to be limited, in that they did not go beyond simple and straightforward tasks, such as translating articles and lyrics, or watching films with or without subtitles.

This is not a problem in itself, but the lack of creativity in finding new and more inspiring tasks could have restricted the effect of these self-regulating strategies to repetitive elements that do not, or only partly, contribute to motivated language learning behaviour. This is clearly a point where educational intervention might find a place (cf. the hero quest, Section 2.2.6.2).

The students themselves were not too enthusiastic when talking about what they do, and how, to learn and to motivate themselves. The exceptions were *Ádám*, *Buda*, *Csaba* and *Flóra*, who were not only passionate and eager, but had a vision and, closely linked to this vision, plans on how to continue with their English studies (whether English was a focus of their studies, or just a tool). As was pointed out earlier, vision seems to be essentially linked to motivation (Al-Shehri, 2009), which is why it is of utmost importance that this element could be detected in some students – it is not surprising that these students' English was outstanding, compared to their peers (based on observation).

The fact that the others were not as inspired as these four students does not mean that they lacked anything that is needed to become self-regulated and/or motivated language learners. Several explanations for their lack of enthusiasm might be that they were not mature enough as learners (cf. Mezei, 2008a), were not able to verbalise their learning processes as clearly as the others, were shy or introverted, or did not have a strong or clear enough vision of their future plans. As for initiative, control and self-efficacy, the students were rather unadventurous. The relatively low scores in the Learning experience scale showed the effect in the overall performance, with this being the questionnaire with the lowest scores on average.

In sum, it was apparent from the interviews that the participants had a relatively clear idea about self-regulation, related strategies, and how to apply them. They

managed to list an adequate number of strategies (tasks and activities) that they used in order to become independent language learners. These strategies were well-defined and lucid enough that they could be categorised using technical terms (behavioural control, contextual control, and control of motivation and affect). The only point to make is that these strategies could have been more varied, creative and stimulating so that the students' interest could be maintained in the long run. Also, the students definitely needed to improve in terms of self-regulatory strategies, so that they could organise their learning in a more conscious way, and be more deliberate in their learning efforts (e.g., doing exercises not only in an ad hoc manner).

Another interesting point is what the students meant by self-regulation. The students in this research project talked about this in the interviews, and they were of the opinion that they were independent and able to learn alone (with the exception of Bea, who was hesitant about this). However, the results of the quantitative analysis implied limited resources of self-regulation, an issue which is discussed further in the next section.

Research question 3b sought to find out *whether there is a statistically significant difference between the groups that can be detected as the effect of the teacher*. The fact that a statistically significant difference between the students of the two teachers could be found is one of the most intriguing findings of the research project. It has been mentioned that both Annabella and Boglárka placed emphasis on self-regulation in students, but this was more focussed and intentional in the case of Boglárka because she addressed this issue consistently throughout the school year, sometimes at the expense of motivation (cf. her views on the importance of autonomy as opposed to motivation). Boglárka's students (especially Buda) expressed a strikingly similar view regarding this, recognising that the teacher, through her effort, was

investing in the students' achievement (whether it was autonomy, motivation or a language exam at stake). Thus, the influence of the teacher, in this case Boglárka, was so strong that this obvious resemblance between the teachers' and the students' opinion was immediately apparent from the interviews. Following this logic, it is not surprising that Boglárka's students scored statistically higher on three scales of the Learning experience scale. More unexpectedly though, it had seemingly the same effect on the Motivational strategies questionnaire (i.e., a statistically significant difference to the benefit of Boglárka's students), and this needs further research. It is probable that the scales of self-regulation mediate the effect of the teacher on the motivational strategies, indicating it would be worth investing in the promotion of self-regulation in students, because it will have an advantageous effect on the perception of motivational strategies and motivation in general.

In conclusion, it was found that self-regulation is not a question of yes or no, or an ability that is present or not present in the students; rather, it is a capacity that can be developed (McKeachie, 2000; Winne, 1997; Zimmerman, 2000). In other words, we cannot talk about self-regulating students if some elements are present in the learners, and non-self-regulating students if these elements are missing from the students' repertoire. The teacher and the students both play an active role in shaping self-regulatory students, and they have an impact on each other in the form of a dynamic interaction and mediating variables. They adapt to one another, and one another's behaviour, strategies and method of teaching/learning. It is very likely that while the student is developing as a self-regulating learner, in effect, the teacher is developing in his or her ability to make use of this improvement and potential strategies to affect the self-regulation and motivation of the students. In addition, the self-regulation of students cannot be studied in isolation without considering motivational strategies and

the motivational teaching practice of the teacher, because the students seem to expect the teacher to have an impact on them, as such inducing the self-regulatory cycle. Figure 5.1 also shows this bidirectional process.

6.4 Secondary school students' perception of their self-regulatory system

In the previous section it was mentioned that the students claimed that they were self-regulating learners (i.e., independent), and although they often showed some hesitation during the interviews, they concluded that they were autonomous and self-directed to a certain degree. What was interesting, though, was the fact that they seemingly considered this issue from a rather inflexible aspect, in other words as if they had only two options: being autonomous or not. This point of view should be changed since, if considered rigid and unchangeable, self-directedness cannot be developed easily, either by students or teachers. The reason for the rigid conceptualisation in this case could have been that the students were rarely expected to form opinions or make decisions, an issue that became evident from their interviews, especially the one with Flóra.

The consequences to this belief in rigidity are manifold. Firstly, the questionnaire data shows that the students were rather limited in their autonomy, especially when it came to initiating activities. Secondly, they did not recognise the points where they could (and maybe should) have taken the initiative and reorganise (or at least modify) the course of the lessons. Decision-making, for example, was shown to be restricted, mostly because the students were convinced that they did not have points to intervene, although in reality they did (Section 5.1.1). Flóra illustrated this point, by outlining the situation in her university language group: on the one hand, the students

did not want to make decisions, and expected the teachers to tell them what to do, and, on the other hand, they complained about insufficient room for developing ideas, and senseless control and restrictions. The end result was that Flóra's group mates tended to become confused when they were offered choices, or the possibility to select what task to do and how to carry it out. Thirdly, external constraints, for example parental pressure and expectations, or the too rigid nature of the education system, confined the free development of self-regulation in students.

These circumstances should not be discouraging though. The students gave several unmistakable signs of being ready to improve in self-regulation, and the teachers appeared to be partners in this effort. The students possessed the following skills, approaches, and dispositions that form the essential basis for effective self-regulation:

- they valued learning and the knowledge of English,
- they had goals and set further goals (including both proximal and distant goals), and some of them had a clear idea about their future career,
- more than 60% of the students agreed that they were responsible for their own learning, by claiming that they are a legitimate source of motivation (Table 5.1),
- the students recognised their teacher's effort to motivate them and to foster autonomy; in addition, investing effort in seemingly disobedient and mischievous students paid off, as in the cases of Buda and Csaba,
- they already possessed some form of autonomy, as they claimed to be to a certain extent, autonomous learners and mature learners, which justified their being on the developmental continuum of self-regulation,
- and finally, their motivational disposition was adequate enough, in that they could make use of the concept of self-regulation.

The teachers contributed to fostering self-regulation with the following aspects of their teaching:

- they valued English and the knowledge of the language, and they transmitted this to their students continuously and consistently,
- three fifths of the teachers agreed that the students need to motivate themselves to learn (Table 5.1),
- the teachers invested energy and effort in their students, attended to problems the students had outside the English lessons, and considered the students as individuals, not just as children who need to follow instructions,
- the teachers made an effort to improve their students autonomy with the help of special tasks (e.g., Annabella: activity box; Boglárka: learning style tests) and awareness-raising, including affecting their self-confidence,
- and finally, they were aware of their faults and were ready to address the issues they considered essential to the improvement of their students.

All of the above-mentioned facts and circumstances are conducive to moving students forward on the developmental continuum of self-regulation: the students are endowed with and acquire certain expertise in the area of self-regulation, whereas the teachers wish for students to advance in the same direction. What follows next is the summary of these efforts in the light of the research questions.

Research question 4a enquired about *the extent to which the students are aware of self-regulation*. It is clear that the students had no knowledge about the notion of self-regulation and did not embrace the concept at all, or did not recognise the possibility of self-directedness as such, and what it could offer to them. On the other hand, what they did realise was that they have some room to improve their English beyond the traditional classroom and without the teacher. They understood that there is a great deal

more to broadening their horizons than simply participating in English classes. They had begun to look at the learning process from a different angle, and had started to use tools to satisfy their hunger to know more. These tools were varied in nature and included several techniques, such as translation and communicating with native speakers, or help-seeking and increasing task value. Consequently, the students in this sample were not aware of self-regulation, but were aware of some of the techniques and strategies used to foster self-regulation. In addition, their teachers' careful intervention in this area helped the learners become more conscious and more focussed.

Research question 4b intended to find an answer to *what extent the students are self-directed language learners*. This question is more difficult to answer since no milestones were established against which development could be measured. In an earlier study by myself (Mezei, 2008a), analysis of this question was carried out with the help of a 5-point framework adapted from Molnár (2002a). This framework, or checklist, used the following five aspects of self-regulation:

1. Is learning student-initiated? Does the student know what he/she should do to become more efficient?
2. Is the student autonomous? Does he/she find (efficient) learning strategies?
3. Does the student reflect on his/her learning? Is he/she aware of his/her knowledge/level?
4. Is the student interested in learning? Does he/she have intrinsic goals?
5. Is the student realistic? Self-confident? Diligent? Persistent?

The present study, however, used the adapted questionnaire of Stockdale (2003), which can measure self-directedness in four areas. It has been stated that the students did not perform outstandingly on these scales, although the standard deviations show a certain amount of variance among the students. On the basis of the interviews and the

observation, the thirteen students who agreed to be interviewed can be examined more closely along the five questions above. Using this checklist, it cannot be stated that the students were not self-regulative, but the answer to whether the students were reflective (question 3) is most probably no, although this question was not directly addressed to the students. The answer to the questions about whether learning was student-initiated (question 1), whether the students were realistic about themselves and their knowledge (question 5), and whether they were self-confident (question 5), is to a certain extent. The rest of the questions can be answered with a definite yes or yes with some reservations. In sum, the students in the study had adopted strategies that serve self-regulation; they could be considered average (or slightly below average as in the case of initiative) as far as the four areas of self-regulation are concerned (questionnaire data), and above average according to the interview data. Learning experiences form the basis of student motivation (cf. Dörnyei's L2 motivational self system, 2005, 2009a), therefore, it has to be examined how these learning experiences relate to their motivation, and ultimately to their L2 motivational self system (see below).

As for the extent to which students are self-directed language learners, upon analysing the questionnaire data (Section 4.2) a considerable variance was found among the students in question. This variation might have had a negative impact on the group-level if those students who were more pro-active, in that they were able to initiate action, organise their learning environment, believe in their capacity to produce effects, and were motivated to take part in lessons, could not encourage their classmates into adopting more active language learning behaviour. In the worst case scenario, a negative trend could have been induced, as was attested to by Flóra and her passive classmates. Therefore, those students who are further along the developmental

continuum and display higher values in terms of self-regulation can be set as examples to the rest of the class to follow suit in managing learning.

Research question 4c sought to answer the question *how learning experiences* (Stockdale, 2003) and the *L2 motivational self system* (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a) are related in students. It was shown above that motivational strategies do not have a direct effect on the motivated language learning behaviour of the students. However, two scales of the Learning experience scale and two scales of the Motivation questionnaire have a role in defining the nature of the students' motivation. In addition, it was also shown that the motivational teaching practice of the teachers crucially shapes the students' self-regulation. Thus, what contributes directly to motivated language learning behaviour is *language learning experience*, that is, Stockdale's (2003; cf. Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a) two scales: motivation and control on the one hand, and *motivation*, or more precisely, the ideal L2 self and instrumental orientation on the other hand. This means that the two antecedents of motivated language learning behaviour in this sample, L2 learning experience and ideal L2 self, corresponded to two out of three constituent parts of Dörnyei's (2005, 2009a) recent theory of motivation. If motivation, i.e., ideal L2 self and instrumental orientation, is broken down, the three components of the L2 motivational self system emerge: the *ideal L2 self*, the *ought-to L2 self* in the form of instrumental orientation (Kormos & Csizér, 2008), and *L2 learning experience*, that is, motivation and control from the Learning experience scale. Thus, the pattern this sample shows bears close resemblance to the L2 motivational self system, and indirectly supports it. It means, on the one hand, that this group of students manifest similar motivational dispositions, and, on the other hand, that the motivation of these students can be formulated by the gap between ideal and ought-to selves, a gap which can be closed by language learning experiences.

This section has summarised how the students in this study perceived their self-regulatory system, including their awareness and the extent to which they could be considered self-regulating learners. In addition, as a step forward from perceptions, the interplay of the students' language learning experiences and their L2 motivational self system has been examined. In conclusion, it can be stated that the students were aware of some methods used to foster self-regulation, and were partly self-directed learners, which is a prerequisite for full self-regulation to happen. To complement the findings, it was also proposed that the results support Dörnyei's (2005, 2009a) recent theory of motivation, in that the patterns of the students' self-regulation and motivational disposition suggest a close analogy with the L2 motivational self system. This issue will be further examined in Section 6.6.

6.5 Secondary school students' perception of their teachers' motivational teaching practice

Sections 6.1 and 6.2 examined the issue of the motivational teaching practice from the point of view of the teachers, but, as the teaching-learning process is a dynamic and bidirectional process, the students' standpoint cannot be neglected. This section, therefore, discusses the students' opinions regarding the motivational repertoire of their teachers. In addition, some differences between the teachers in terms of their ability to motivate their students will be explored.

The students' perceptions were reviewed in Chapter 5, which was organised around the main topical issues to do with motivational teaching practices that emerged during the interviews, and around the issues that are considered to be the cornerstones of motivating students to learn (Dörnyei, 2001a). The most important issues are the

following: how the English lessons are organised (variety of materials, forms of work, needs, decision-making), feedback given to students (including rewards and praise), humour and games in class, the atmosphere in class, the teacher's personality and her relationship with the students, and the teachers' effort to motivate their students to learn (including transmitting metaknowledge). Exploring these issues revealed a complex pattern of elements used to motivate the students to learn. Although the teachers manifested some inconsistencies as to motivation and what it means to them to motivate their students, the learners seemed to be able to understand their teachers' teaching practice and make sense of their efforts to motivate them. However, a more conscious teaching practice would result in more motivated learners, if the students perceived their teacher and the teaching practice as being more consistent and coherent, both characteristics being indispensable to the success of educators according to research in secondary education (Szabó, Vörös & N. Kollár, 2004).

Research question 5a sought to answer the question *how the students perceive their teacher's efforts to motivate them*. The students seemed to be very sensitive to the positive influences of the teaching-learning environment, in that they appreciated the light atmosphere in class and the good relationship between the teacher and the students, this in turn having a positive effect on their motivation to learn (cf. Heitzmann, 2008). In addition, the teacher's personality affected the students in a positive way. The students voiced these views in the interviews, and the observation of the classes also strengthens the students' positive perception of their teachers' efforts to motivate them. An interesting point was Boglárka's occasional abandonment of students, which the students appeared to readily accept. Bea expressed her opinion of this in a way that made it seem that this behaviour on the part of the teacher was unquestionable and tolerable. This again points to the fact that the students accepted the teacher and her

behaviour without considering her acts, which showed lack of independent thinking or pro-active behaviour. Not questioning negative teacher feedback is dangerous and can have negative repercussions, in that it can lead to negative spirals in students (for instance learned helplessness or avoidance behaviour) and encourage reactions that are not compatible with, and fail to foster, self-regulation in learners. When affecting metacognition in students, teachers should keep in mind the fact that apart from direct forms of educating the students, these seemingly innocent influences can have far-reaching effects. The participating students, however, did not show any sign of demotivation as a potential outcome of this behaviour or the above-mentioned inconsistencies, and whether the lower values of self-directed behaviour can be attributed to this effect needs further research.

However, apart from some negative instances the students recognised and understood their teachers' efforts to affect their metacognition. Section 5.4.2 demonstrated the impact of this, from both the students' and teachers' point of view, and it is important to note that the teachers' effort to make use of this strategy would be futile without the students recognising it. This interaction is nevertheless promising as a way of fostering self-regulatory strategies. The following positive reactions concerning the teachers' motivational strategies were possible to detect in the students:

- appreciating their teacher's work and effort,
- being satisfied with the praise they get, and the humour and games in class,
- appreciating the encouraging atmosphere in class and their good relationship with the teacher,
- appreciating the variety of materials and having a positive overall opinion of the English classes,

- recognising the metacognitive achievement the teachers are trying to pass on.

In sum, the students were unanimously of the opinion that their teachers did make an effort to motivate them, and recognised several elements of this effort, including metacognitive attempts and motivational strategies as identified by Dörnyei (2001a). As their reports and questionnaire results showed, they were motivated by these efforts. It should be added, though, that the students were erratic as to noticing, identifying and understanding some of these efforts, for instance whether they could make decisions in class. We already called attention to this fact in an earlier study (Mezei & Csizér, 2005), although the role or potential positive side effects of the students not being able to recognise all their teachers' techniques have yet to be identified and/or confirmed. Students should learn to pinpoint these strategies, as this is part of attention and consciousness in learning, which is a fundamental part of self-regulated learning.

Research question 5b wanted to find out *whether there is a statistically significant difference between the teachers in their motivational teaching practice*. The independent samples t-tests revealed a straightforward tendency between the two groups of students, in that where there is a statistically significant difference between the teachers, it is Boglárka's students who performed better. In addition, Boglárka's students had become fanatical about English and language learning. At the time of writing this dissertation, nine of the students have passed an intermediate-level exam and seven of them have passed an advanced-level language exam; eight of them are currently preparing for the intermediate-level exam. A small group of eight students decided to take a summer course with Boglárka, so that they will be able to pass a language exam in the near future. They watch films, translate songs incessantly, deal

with English in all sorts of forms, and in a follow-up conversation Boglárka admitted to giving the students a vast amount of words to learn, which they studied without a word of complaint. This difference between the groups of students appeared not only in the four scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire, but also in two of the Learning experience scale, and ultimately in motivated language learning behaviour as well. What does it imply?

The increased time spent on English encouraged development in a very similar manner to what Daniella mentioned in connection with adult learners: “I like it if they do things that are too difficult for them or they have to make a lot of effort.” In addition, a previous interview study that linked goals with motivation and self-regulated learning (Mezei, 2009) arrived at the very same conclusion, namely, that the more difficult the goals set, the more motivated the students are. This effect, combined with Boglárka’s older sister demeanour (Section 4.4), would seem to make it appear that it is easier to motivate students if the teacher is more like a role model, with expertise in matters that are directly relevant and interesting in the students’ life, and motivation and enthusiasm to speak the language. This effect seems to be unaffected by the fact that Boglárka admitted to showing signs of burnout from time to time, and it was clear that she was far from satisfied with both the circumstances and framework the current educational system offers. In sum, it seems that it does not matter that Annabella had much wider and deeper expertise as a teacher, Boglárka’s above-mentioned positive characteristics balanced out Annabella’s expertise.

However, it is important to underline that the fact that one of the groups was more motivated than the other does not imply that the other group was not motivated or that the teacher, Annabella in this case, could not motivate her students to learn. The statistical test was able to call attention to a fact that manifested itself in the difference

in motivated language learning behaviour between two groups of students, but the difference was small, and the values of these scales were average in the case of both teachers' students, compared to larger Hungarian samples (cf. Csizér, 2003; Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006; Kormos & Csizér, 2008).

Considering the points above, the implications are as follows: although there is a statistically significant difference in the scales of the motivational teaching practice and motivated language learning behaviour between the two groups of students, this difference is not substantial. The fact, however, that this difference is consistent is worth noting. Two main reasons have been identified as the reasons for this fact, namely, a sister-like peer effect, and tremendous enthusiasm as to pushing the students towards achievements in the form of language exams and oral outcomes. Regarding the perceptions of students, no real difference was identified. Although in the interviews it was somewhat discernible that there might be a slightly larger personality distance between Annabella and her students than between Boglárka and her students, this might have been a result of dissimilar personality traits and teaching styles, or both these effects combined, due to a difference in age. In conclusion, both groups of students perceived their own teacher as motivating, and appreciated their motivational teaching practice, but Boglárka seemed to have a slightly more powerful effect as a motivator.

6.6 Motivational teaching practice and self-regulated learning

This section addresses the question of how the two central issues of the dissertation, the motivational teaching practice and self-regulation, are interrelated and how they affect each other in students and teachers. The purpose of considering student self-regulation in teaching lies in the fact that, with the help of this tool, students can be

more independent in learning, and by not relying on the teacher in every aspect of their progress and achievement, they could reach their aims more freely, in that their own learning processes would be tailor-made by themselves. This is not without problems, however, if we consider that many students sit in the same classroom. Therefore, various strategies are needed in order for students to be able to manage their own learning, while not limiting the other students in the classroom.

The motivational teaching practice can contribute to the students' self-regulation, in that it affects their motivation (to participate), but this seems to be only one domain under the teacher's influence. The other three areas, initiative, control and self-efficacy, seemed to be partly out of the teacher's influence in this population of students. However, more effective self-regulation can be achieved if the teachers manage to affect the other three equally important fields in student self-regulation. Initiative is the engine of creative and student-centred action that serves the student's needs (ideally in tandem with the other students' needs in class). Control is related to contextual or environmental control (Pintrich, 2000; Wolters, 1999 respectively), in that it serves as the basis of success and motivation by managing the direct environment of the student. This is especially important, because it concerns not only the physical environment, but also responsibility for someone's own learning (without taking responsibility, successful learning is hardly imaginable). Finally, self-efficacy is the belief in one's capacity. In the interviews it was possible to identify several signs of low self-efficacy and low self-concept in general. Students of this age are going through stormy periods as far as their identity and self are concerned (N. Kollár, 2004; Zentner & Renaud, 2007), however, as their autonomy, dependence and self are taking final shape, positive impacts on the teachers' part which fuel their self-concept are

advantageous. Boglárka was very good at transmitting highly positive thoughts to the students, and thus strengthening their self-efficacy.

Apart from motivational strategies, other variables have an effect on self-regulation. Role models and peer influence have long been identified as effective motivating factors (Dörnyei, 2001a). In this sample, Boglárka's personality and attitude were found to be the source of the difference between the students on eight scales, including three scales of self-regulation. It is suggested that all the significant differences were rooted in Boglárka's attitude that attempted to affect the students' self-regulation. This is understood as an effect on the different domains of self-regulation, as well as motivated language learning behaviour and the four phases of the motivational teaching practice. The effect on motivated language learning behaviour is hypothesised to be the result of motivational strategies through self-regulation. In other words, the effect of motivational strategies (resulting from the teacher's personality and attitude) on motivated language learning behaviour takes shape through the self-regulation of students, and is supported by the students' motivational disposition.

There was a downward tendency in the motivational teaching practice, with the first phase being the strongest, and the rest of the stages being inevitably less strong. It is proposed that this effect could be counterbalanced by student autonomy and self-regulation, with students having various techniques at their disposal to address this trend, and the teacher's approach to self-regulation scaffolding this attempt. In my view, Boglárka's efforts to influence the students' self-concept and autonomy were a good way to tackle this issue. In addition, treating students as partners, and making them reach decisions or giving them certain rights, serves this purpose. Both Annabella and Boglárka mentioned stories in their interviews that can capitalise on this potential.

As was mentioned in Section 6.4, a pattern similar to Dörnyei's (2005, 2009a) L2 motivational self system emerged from this data. Although, according to the regression model, the motivational teaching practice does not play a direct role in motivated language learning behaviour, as neither of the phases are predictor variables, both learning experience and motivation in its broadest sense contribute to it with two variables each. As such, this is another point where different aspects of teaching and learning interact in the classroom. The conclusion of this section addresses this issue with Figure 6.1.

Research question 6a enquired about *whether there is a statistically significant link between the motivational teaching practice and the extent to which the students are self-regulated*. Correlational investigations can answer this question. Table 4.6 presented all the correlations between the scales of the Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale, showing that there was a statistically significant relationship between all the scales. However, not all these relationships were equally strong, and not all relationships proved to be significantly different from one another. This means that the motivational teaching practice was related to the self-regulation of students, but this effect was not very strong in either of the cases. Motivation (to participate in class, of the Learning experience scale) was most strongly related to the first and fourth phases of the motivational teaching practice (all the differences between the correlations are significant), and with regard to the second and third phases, the rest of the relationships were significantly different, except for six relationships. In other words, the effect of the motivational teaching practice took full effect in the case of only one domain of the learning experience (self-regulation) of the students. Consequently, the other domains should be more emphatically addressed by the teachers.

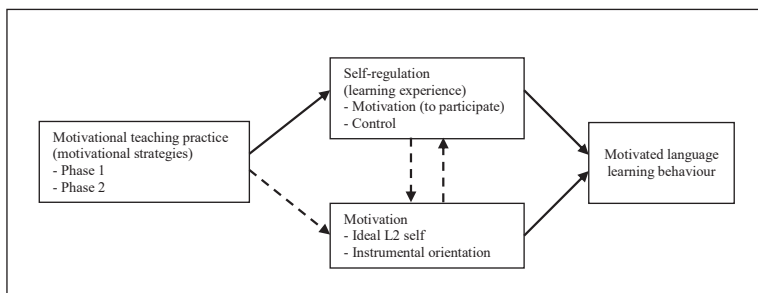
Research question 6b sought to answer *whether there is a difference between how different teachers' motivational teaching practice has an effect on self-regulated learning*. It has been shown that there indeed exists a difference between the groups of students in terms of their areas of self-regulation, motivation and ultimately motivated language learning behaviour. The origins of the differences have been attributed to the following factors: difference in attitude as a result of age and personality traits, which allowed for Boglárka to be a sister-like role model, and also a consistent emphasis laid on transmitting values closely related to self-regulation. More specifically, Boglárka considered it of utmost importance to constantly remind the students of their own strengths, capacity, ability and possibilities concerning English and their future career. Indeed, a difference was found between Annabella and Boglárka in their students' control, self-efficacy, and motivation (of self-regulation). It was suggested above that a different ability to affect the different areas of the students' self-regulation might lie in the difference between the teachers in their ability, capacity and possibility to affect these areas. This difference suggests that focussing more on areas that are not the target of teacher intervention could result in more effectively self-regulating learners.

Research question 6c intended to find out *how are the motivational teaching practice and self-regulated learning related*. It has been shown throughout the analysis in Chapters 4, 5 and 6 that these two concepts are deeply interrelated, and that change in one element can easily have repercussion further away in the system than only in the adjacent elements. The scales that measure these concepts are closely linked too as the correlations show (Table 4.6), although the correlations are high only in the case of motivation (of the Learning experience scale). This means that there is a need to also consider the students' initiative, control and self-efficacy in the motivational process, as these are equally important areas of student self-regulation.

Based on the above considerations, it is proposed that motivational strategies should address the students' motivational disposition and their self-regulation, both as a capacity and as a process. Since the motivational teaching practice through motivational strategies does not contribute substantially to motivated language learning behaviour, those predicting areas that do contribute, i.e., two scales from the Motivation questionnaire and two scales from the Learning experience scale, should be targeted. It seems more reasonable to affect the antecedents of behaviour than trying to have an impact on the end result, namely, motivated language learning behaviour. There are other intervening variables, and it is not the scales of the motivational teaching practice that are directly conducive to motivated language learning behaviour.

In sum, Figure 6.1 illustrates this relationship, which obviously needs testing in further research. The question arises as to which motivational strategies might be effective in each aspect of motivation and self-regulation, and which aspects of these latter concepts have an impact on various variables, and how. In addition, self-regulation affects motivated language learning behaviour both directly and through motivation, and motivation induces self-regulatory action as well as contributing to motivated language learning behaviour.

Figure 6.1 The interrelation of motivational strategies, motivation, self-regulation and motivated language learning behaviour



6.7 Summary

This chapter has investigated the central issues of the dissertation and has answered the research questions using all the data sources, quantitative and qualitative data alike, from both the teachers' and the students' perspectives. It identified what elements the teachers' motivational teaching practice comprises, and what the teachers and the students attitudes to it were. It was found that the phases of the motivational teaching practice do not contribute to motivated language learning behaviour, and that the teachers' attitudes to motivating their students to learn were somewhat ambiguous. Secondary school students' regulatory functions as to learning English were found to be developing, but had not yet reached a mature stage. In this respect, less able students were able to rely on students who had reached a more advanced form of self-regulation. However, the students considered themselves with some reservations independent language learners. The students were on the whole satisfied with how their teachers teach and motivate them, and they appreciated their teachers' effort. This also contributed to them being more motivated learners. And finally, it was established that the motivational teaching practice and the self-regulatory cycle of the students interacted in subtle ways that could be more adequately studied from a DST point of view. Motivational strategies had not proven to be fully effective, yet the students were sufficiently motivated. Therefore, research to investigate the students' motivation to learn needs to study the interplay between motivational strategies, the motivational disposition of students and their self-regulation, the interrelation of these latter concepts, and ultimately their relationship to motivated language learning behaviour.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this dissertation was to outline the interactions of the teachers' motivational teaching practice and the students' self-regulation in Hungarian secondary school English lessons. The research project has allowed for a better understanding of how the various subprocesses in a language class, including the motivational strategies of the teachers and the self-regulation of the students, interact and affect each other. The investigation has focussed equally on both quantitative and qualitative aspects of the same phenomena, in the hope of gaining a wider view and better understanding of the concepts under study. This chapter summarises the main findings of the study, discusses the limitations to it, considers some pedagogical implications, and finally suggests further research.

7.1 Summary of findings

1. One of several important findings of the dissertation is the evidence of the sometimes puzzling uncertainty that was shown by both teachers and students, in terms of formulating their opinions on strategies they were using to motivate their students to learn, and to manage their learning, respectively. In particular, the teachers were unsure about the nature of motivational strategies and about the techniques they should use to motivate their students to learn, although they were (rightly) convinced at the same time that they did motivate their students. All instruments used in this study confirmed the strong presence of the motivational teaching practice; it is rather the implementation that the teachers were uncertain of.

Some indications of unintentional and inconsistent approaches were also found. The students, on the other hand, were unsure about the way they managed learning English, although they were convinced that they are independent learners. The lack of clear thinking, and in some cases a vision, could have hampered more conscious learning. In addition, the inability to voice their needs might have further hindered students from becoming more autonomous learners.

2. The regression analysis showed that motivational strategies had a more modest effect than would have originally been expected. Motivated language learning behaviour was much better predicted by two scales of the Motivation questionnaire (ideal L2 self and instrumental orientation), and two scales of the Learning experience scale (motivation and control). This suggests that the extent to which the students displayed motivated language learning behaviour was more closely linked to factors that were internal, that is, how motivated and how self-directed they were as individuals. This finding is consistent with the results of other studies that have identified the ideal L2 self as one of the key predictors of motivated language learning behaviour (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid & Papi, 2009).
3. The finding that motivational strategies are less effective than originally thought raises questions concerning earlier research into motivational strategies, according to which these techniques have a strong and direct effect on motivated language learning behaviour. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) identified a strong correlational link between the two, and a link was also detected in this sample. Interestingly, stronger links between the phases of the motivational teaching practice were found in the case of Annabella, in comparison with Boglárka. This suggests that a strong

link may exist between the scales/use of motivational strategies and motivated language learning behaviour, but there might be other variables that more powerfully predict it, for instance the ideal L2 self, as happens to be the case in this sample. It must be added that the effect of motivational strategies might also be limited, due to the constant filtering of information between students and the teacher; in other words, that teachers make an attempt to decode the students' behaviour in order to be able to intervene by, for instance, applying appropriate motivational strategies, selecting a collection of strategies and utilising them, while the students try to decode them and react appropriately. As such, the constant decoding may lessen the power of motivational strategies. An alternative explanation is that the motivational teaching practice affects only one dimension of self-regulation, namely the motivation to take part in the lessons, enjoy the lessons and complete course requirements, but not other equally important aspects of self-regulation (initiative, control and self-efficacy). This would explain why Boglárka was more successful at motivating her students (i.e., affecting their self-regulation) since she puts more emphasis on fostering self-regulation- and autonomy-related issues in students.

4. It was also found that the motivational teaching practice showed variation over time, in a similar manner to motivation changing in general, if measured with process-oriented instruments (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). A strong first phase on the teachers' part indicated intentions to intervene in the students' motivation, a weaker second and third phases implied that external effects may have moderated the initial motivating force, while a stronger last phase showed a renewal in the teachers' effort to positively influence their students' motivation. The above-mentioned external effects may have included change in the students' motivational disposition,

or another slight change in their self-regulatory cycle, amongst others. This suggests that the motivational teaching practice should be studied in light of the students' motivational disposition and self-regulation, since these factors interact in a dynamic manner. Therefore, a dynamic approach should be adopted as proposed by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011).

5. A further puzzling finding is the consistently significant difference between the two teachers on all the scales of the motivational teaching practice, three scales of the Self-directedness indices, and ultimately motivated language learning behaviour. A potential explanation is the age difference between the two teachers. The relatively young age of Boglárka seemed to be a disadvantage at the onset of the research project, however, the results suggest that this might have been an asset in this case. Her sister-like approach and consistent drive to push the students towards a goal were identified as a contributory factor to more motivated students, who were better at self-regulation and more positively able to evaluate their teacher's motivational teaching practice.
6. Practising teachers in Hungary might agree with most of what the participants said about the educational system in general, and the constraints of it in particular. Although teachers have to face several impediments on a daily basis, all of the five teachers who participated performed outstandingly in the face of difficulty. It apparently created tension in them, yet they were able to overcome difficulties by adapting to student needs as much as possible, or by encouraging them to reach a goal. It must be added that this one-sided picture given by the participants did not foster either self-regulation or autonomy. Conversely, it tended to hamper the functioning of some of the key elements of motivation, self-regulation and

autonomy, such as initiative, self-efficacy, self-confidence, or positive self-evaluation.

7. As an outcome of the above claims, a tentative conclusion is that motivational strategies should address the self-regulation of students so that they can become more conscious and more autonomous, and through the self-regulatory cycle become more motivated language learners. In addition, the students' motivational disposition contributes to motivated language learning behaviour in that their ideal L2 self is a key predictor of motivation. The apparently weaker points that would be worth considering as part of teacher intervention are initiative, self-efficacy and self-confidence, because these scales showed the lowest scores in the analysis, and these are seen as key aspects in motivating students to learn, according to recent thinking on motivation, as self-related issues and self-regulation form the basis of the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2009a; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).
8. From a research methodological point of view, this research project managed, on the one hand, to meaningfully combine quantitative and qualitative aspects of the phenomena under study, and, on the other hand, present the teachers' and the students' perspectives together, which is essential in order to better understand classroom interactions. The integration of different research paradigms is indispensable since it can shed light on the same phenomenon from a different point of view, and by showing the characteristics of two classrooms and, at the same time, the participants' stories unfolding, a more complete picture was created. This approach allowed for a more complex understanding of motivational strategies and their place in the motivational teaching practice and the self-regulation of students, including what effect it has on motivated language learning behaviour and what the students' approach to their own self-regulation is, and also highlighted the effect of

the difference between teachers in style, as to motivation, and self-regulation and the potential causes of this variation. This is the reason why such undertakings are encouraged in approaching motivation research in an educational setting (Dörnyei, 2007a; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

9. Another important methodological consideration is that a complex interplay of various motivational and self-regulatory forces was revealed, pointing towards the need to incorporate these facets of language learning and teaching in a model that can adequately handle all important aspects of these processes, including broader tendencies, local problems and change. The findings of the dissertation support Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011) proposal that adopting a complex dynamic systems approach would do justice to the subtle interplay of the various elements that prove to be key in motivation and self-regulation.
10. Finally, although it was not the aim of the dissertation to draw up a model, the parameters of analysis led to more complex interactions being revealed than originally expected. This complexity gave rise to two conceptualisations of the issues treated by the dissertation. One is the schematic representation of the motivational teaching practice and self-regulation (Figure 5.1), which shows both the teachers' and the students' aspect, and which also implies how slight changes might affect the whole system. The schemata also raises the question as to whether it is possible to harmonise all the students' self-regulatory cycles in the classroom. The second conceptualisation is the proposal that motivational strategies should address the self-regulation and the motivation of the students and through this effect motivated language learning behaviour (Figure 6.1). This idea is based on the presupposition that it is easier to affect the antecedents of motivated language

learning behaviour, thus shaping the students' approaches and attitudes, rather than making an attempt to change the end result.

7.2 Limitations of the study

Although there has been a constant effort to eliminate potential pitfalls and to ensure quality control for both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study throughout planning the research project and writing the dissertation, several weaknesses have been revealed. One of the major weaknesses of the study lies in the very nature of the research project, namely, that it is of mixed methodology. Although there is a growing body of literature on how to mix methodologies, these suggestions hardly go beyond lifting certain elements of the quantitative and the qualitative research paradigms, and there are few good examples. In addition, one must possess equally strong methodological foundations in each paradigm, which is rarely the case. In this dissertation I attempted to synthesise data of very different natures, in the hope of gaining a better insight into tendencies and personal stories, but this attempt has perhaps resulted in weaker analysis and discussion sections. However, I am of the opinion that the applied instruments and research methodology sections counterbalance each other's weaknesses, allowing for a deep insight into everyday classroom processes, and generating research results that allow for valid conclusions, and which can be the basis of further original research.

Another obvious limitation is the sample size. The number of participants is insufficient for a proper (generalisable) quantitative analysis, but is too high in number to be included in the interview phase. Generalisability is virtually impossible, but the conclusions are reasonable to such an extent that further research can be based on them.

In connection with the participants, an unpredictable event for which I take full responsibility made it impossible to compare the boys' and girls' results. In spite of being explained the purpose of the research, one of the teachers, in an effort to help me and make her students' life easier, rushed through the headings of the questionnaires, and the gender of the students became unidentifiable.

A further issue that complicated both research design and analysis is the question of self-regulation and autonomy. One might find it of concern that the boundaries of these two concepts were not clearly defined at the very beginning of the research, and argue that the seemingly ad hoc interchange of the concepts as a result caused problems of validity and reliability, or credibility, transferability and dependability in terms of qualitative research (Guba, 1981). However, as the definitions and operationalisations of these concepts in the literature do not allow for a perfect distinction between the two, and various conceptualisations seem to include both or to overlap, I decided to use the term self-regulation, also bearing in mind that autonomy in learning is indispensable. Furthermore, it was not my aim in this dissertation to define these concepts, therefore, intentionally treating them as broadly as possible seemed appropriate. Faulty and fuzzy definitions and concepts are of course to be avoided in research, but in order not to exclude any aspect of either self-regulation or autonomy, this seemed the lesser of two evils. Finally, as the students could not handle either of the terms *per se* (and in Hungarian it is even more challenging to make a distinction between the two), in the end it turned out to be the best solution. When interpreting the results and designing further research, this should be taken into consideration.

7.3 Pedagogical implications

The pedagogical implications of the dissertation are many and pervasive. Firstly, it seems that the effect of motivational strategies is not as straightforward as earlier research suggested, which might mean there is a non-linear link between motivational strategies and motivated language learning behaviour. More specifically, it is probable that there are other variables that intervene when motivational strategies come into effect, and in this respect a more dynamic conceptualisation of them is needed in order to better understand how they come into operation and work. Also, the change in the motivational teaching practice is worth considering as it is potentially very important from an instructional point of view. These two aspects of motivating students to learn need to be attended to by teacher trainers and teachers alike, since in most practitioners' view there is a simple link between remedy, i.e. motivational strategies, and a healthy outcome, i.e., motivated students. However, this research suggests a more complex interplay of motivational strategies, self-regulation and variables that come into effect during teaching and learning. Therefore, both pre- and in-service teacher training should directly address these issues and try to avoid the pitfall of suggesting that motivated students will emerge simply through applying certain motivational strategies.

Secondly, further teachers' and students' contributions are needed on the effectiveness of motivational teaching practice and self-regulation, since it is through their stories and interpretations that we can understand what is needed, so that students can become more motivated language learners, and their self-regulatory repertoires function better. Questionnaire data can identify those points that are most problematic in terms of motivation and self-regulation (such as self-confidence or initiative respectively), and interview data can shed light on more subtle differences between

students and reactions to certain teacher interventions, such as the teacher's intention to make students act in their own interest (cf. Flóra's interview). In other words, the participants need to be able to articulate their thoughts, so that a clear view and correct conclusions can be developed on the topic. This is all the more important because teacher education can subsequently benefit from the data directly generated in classroom-based research. In addition, teachers are encouraged to carry out research in their own environment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) because they are best placed to know both the students and the context. Research of this scale is manageable (disregarding of course the time-consuming in-depth literature review and the writing-up of research), and pre-service teachers or other undergraduate students interested in education can be involved in such a project.

Another important implication of the study is the very strong role of teachers in motivating students and initiating action. However, this role is questionable in light of the heavy workload of teachers and the idea of self-regulating and autonomous learners. Future generations of teachers should be equipped with techniques they can employ to shift at least some part of the responsibilities of the learning process to the students, such as delegating a certain amount of tasks to them. Nikolov's (1998, 1999) research proves that this is possible from a very early age on, and students can be taught to be responsible for their learning and to make certain decisions. Since children and teenagers go through considerable changes in their self-image and self-concept (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009a; Zentner & Renaud, 2007), motivational changes targeting their self, more specifically their L2 self image, should be possible from secondary education onwards. Forming a firm basis of independent thinking and decision-making could prepare the ground for vision in the quest for a powerful L2 self.

With its focus on procedural knowledge, rather than declarative knowledge, this attitude would also address the problem of the rigid nature of the Hungarian educational system.

Finally, a schematic representation was drawn up in Chapter 5 (Figure 5.1), showing how the teachers' motivational teaching practice, further filtered by several factors brought by the teachers themselves, can affect the students' self-regulation in the form of motivational strategies. The thick arrow shows the stronger effect of the teacher on the students, and it is this direction of events that is usually studied. However, there is feedback from students (even if it is not in the form of feedback teachers give in general), with the teachers as such reacting to the reactions of students. This direction of information should also thus be investigated, taking into account what form student feedback takes, how teachers perceive it and how they react. Promoting pro-active learners could help teachers receive more informative feedback, and also educate students who are able to take wise decisions and take part in shaping their own learning processes.

7.4 Suggestions for further research

The research project has given rise to several questions that future research needs to address. The most puzzling finding was the difference between the two teachers in terms of their ability or capacity to motivate their students and to affect their self-regulation. Further research needs to investigate if the proposed conclusions (age, or a variable correlating with it, and the effect on only certain aspects of self-regulation) are indeed appropriate explanations, or other factors (the roles of which could remain hidden throughout the research project) come into play. The role of students can be

important in finding an answer, so groups with the same teacher should be compared and investigated, in order to find out if there exists a difference.

The change in the motivational teaching practice should be addressed by further research. The results in this dissertation are partly in line with the finding of a previous case study (Mezei & Csizér, 2005), but further evidence is needed to find out what factors contribute to this change and whether it is systematic over time. If other factors in addition to the period of the academic year can be detected, they need to be identified and further analysed. Since the change of the component parts can result in very different outcomes, the change in the motivational teaching practice and its relation to the self-regulatory cycles of students could be investigated through a dynamic systems approach, which would seem to be an appropriate tool to research this issue. Additional questions that arose in this dissertation are whether it is possible and desirable to harmonise the different cycles of the students, and whether the teacher, approaching the learners with the same motivational teaching practice or adaptations, can be detected in relation to each student or different clusters of students. Could a conflict between the teacher and the students in this respect be attributed to a mismatch in their teaching and learning respectively? How would a change in either of the cycles affect the other parts and the other participants?

A direct link between the use of motivational strategies and motivated language learning behaviour was suggested in earlier correlational research (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; also Chapter 4), and this connection should be further analysed. In addition, the teachability of strategies should be investigated, although this line of research has raised more questions than it has solved. Not only the quantity but the quality of them should be studied, especially in terms of students' needs and the students' development on the continuum of self-regulation.

As for self-regulation, the development of an instrument to assess the student's place in the developmental continuum of self-regulation could help identify the actual problems a student faces in learning, especially because a relatively low level student with advanced learning techniques and a long learning history (e.g., being an elementary student of an L3) might have different needs from a higher level student with limited learning resources. In a similar vein, an instrument to assess the student's level of autonomy could be instructive in, for instance, revealing how much independence they have achieved. Students with advanced levels of self-regulation and high levels of autonomy could be directed to self-access centres.

And finally, the role of autonomy in motivation and self-regulation needs to be clarified. It is hypothesised that autonomy is needed for learning in general, and efficient self-regulation in particular (e.g., Noels, Clément & Pelletier), and Kormos and Csizér (in press) found that motivated language learning behaviour leads to the enhancement of self-regulatory strategies (opportunity, time management and satiation control), which in turn support autonomy. In other words, are self-regulation and autonomy concepts that rely on and support each other, or do their effects depend on their operationalisation?

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APPENDIX A

The teacher interview guide

1. Általános kérdések – Először néhány általános, a tanári pályával kapcsolatos kérdést szeretnék feltenni neked.
 - Mit tanítasz? (csak nyelvet?)
 - Miért éppen nyelvet tanítasz?
 - Mióta tanítasz?
 - Jelenleg milyen típusú intézményben tanítasz? (Milyen korosztályt tanítasz?)
 - Miért döntöttél úgy, hogy tanár leszel?
 - Szeretsz tanítani? Miért?

2. Kérdések a tanári praktikákról – Most néhány konkrétabb, az órákkal kapcsolatos kérdést tennék fel.
 - Szerinted kinek kell motiválnia a diákokat?
Ez csak a tanáron múlik? / Ez csak a tanár feladata?
Hogyan motiválja a diákot a tanár/a diák/a szülők?
 - Bevonod a diákokat azokba a döntésekbe, hogy mit csináljatok az órán?
Hogyan? Tudnál konkrét példát említeni? Hogyan veszed rá a tanulókat, hogy hozzátegyenek valamit az órához?
 - Hogyan választod ki az órai anyagot?
 - Hogyan variárod az órai anyagokat? Hogyan teszed változatossá az óráidat?
 - Milyen a kapcsolódod a tanítványaiddal?
Tudnál egy különösen pozitív példát említeni a közelmúltból arra, hogy miben mutatkozik meg a jó kapcsolat? És egy negatívát?
 - Tanórán kívüli tevékenységeket szervezel a diákok számára?
 - Hogyan dicséred a diákokat? Tudnál említeni egy olyan esetet, amikor a diáknak különösen fontos volt, hogy bátorítottad?
 - Hogyan jutalmazod a diákokat?
 - Hogyan és mikor értékeled a diákokat?
Folyamatos az értékelés? Milyen formában értékeled a diákokat? – szóban, írásban, jegyekkel, szövegesen, piros ponttal, stb.
 - Célkitűzések a nyelvórán. Fontosak-e, ha igen, kinek és miért?
Te hogyan segíted a diákjaidat, hogy megfogalmazzák/elérjék a céljaikat?
Tudnál egy különleges vagy szokatlan céllal rendelkező diákot említeni?
Szerinted hogyan lehetne ránevelni a diákokat, hogy tűzzenek ki célokat?
 - Milyen formában dolgoznak együtt az órán a diákok?
Egyéni munka, páros munka, csoportmunka, „körbejárkálós”?
 - Hogyan gondoskodsz a tanítványaid egyéni igényeiről? És a komfortérzetükről? (lelki + fizikai)
Hogyan tudod összeegyeztetni a különféle igényeket? Mit teszel, hogy kényelmesen érezzék magukat a diákok (vagyis hogy ne legyenek feszültek)?
 - Hogyan jellemeznéd az órai hangulatot (általában az óráidon)?
Hogyan tudod az órai hangulatot pozitívan befolyásolni? Hogyan tudsz jó hangulatot teremteni?
 - Hogyan befolyásolja a személyiséged az angol órákat?
Mennyire viszed bele az egyéniségedet az órába?
 - Mitől lesz csak rád jellemző az órad?

Hogyan teszed élménnyé az órádat a diákok számára? Mitől lesz a diák számára maradandó, hogy a te órádon járt?

- Jelen van a humor az angol órákon? Hogyan épül ez be az órák menetébe? Szoktatok viccelődni az órákon? Ki kezdeményezi a humoros elemeket – tanár vagy diák?
- Szoktatok játszani az órákon? Miért (jó játszani az angol órákon)? Szerinted mennyire igénylik a játékok a diákok az óráidon?
- Mennyiben látod fontosnak/nem fontosnak a tanulói autonómia kialakítását?
- Milyen hatása van a saját nyelvtanulói tapasztalatnak a tanulói autonómia kialakítására?

3. Tanári hiedelmek a motivációról – Most néhány általános, a diákok motivációjával kapcsolatos kérdést szeretnék feltenni. Bármilyen apró dolog, konkrét példa az eszedbe jut, arra kíváncsi vagyok.

- Mit értesz a diákok motiválása alatt?
„Én motiválom a diákokat.” – Ez mit jelent neked?
- Hogyan változtál az évek során a diákok motiválását illetően?
Mi a szerepe ebben az élettapasztalatodnak?
- Milyen trükköket, technikákat alkalmazol, hogy motiváld a tanítványaidat? Hol tanultad ezeket a trükköket?
- Milyen feladatokkal, trükkökkel segíted elő a diákok önállóvá válását?
- Az órákra való felkészüléskor ezt [motiváció és autonómia] hogyan építed be az óravázlatba?
Tudatosan megtervezed/átgondolod, hogyan motiváld/tedd önállóvá a tanulókat?
- Az elkövetkezendő hónapokban/években szándékozol-e a diákok motivációjára nagyobb hangsúlyt fektetni? → Hogyan?
- Az elkövetkezendő hónapokban/években szándékozol-e a diákok önállóságának fejlesztésére nagyobb hangsúlyt fektetni? → Hogyan?

4. Egyéb

- Van még esetleg valami, amit hozzá szeretnél tenni?

Nagyon szépen köszönöm az interjút.

APPENDIX B

The student interview guide

1. Általános kérdések – Először néhány általános kérdést szeretnék feltenni neked.

- Hányadikos vagy? Kéttannyelvűbe jársz? Hány angol órát van egy héten?
- Milyen nyelveket tanulsz? Mióta?
- Töltöttél valaha hosszabb időt külföldön? Mennyit és hol?
- Szereted az angolt? Miért? És az angol órákat? Miért?

2. Kérdések a tanári praktikákról – Most néhány konkrétabb, az órákkal kapcsolatos kérdést tennék fel.

- Szerinted kinek kell ösztönöznie a diákokat az angol tanulásra? Ez csak a tanáron múlik? Ez csak a tanár feladata?
- Hogyan ösztönzi a diákot a tanár/a többi diák/a szülők?
- Az angol tanár szokott választási lehetőséget adni, hogy mit vagy milyen feladatot csináljatok? Hogyan? Tudnál konkrét példát említeni?
- Milyen fajta dolgokat csináltok angol órán? Honnan tudod, hogy mi a törzsanyag és mi a kötelező?
- Mennyire változatos vagy monoton egy angol óra? Mi vagy ki idézi elő a változatosságot? (tanár, téma, tananyag)
- Milyen a kapcsolatod az angol tanárral? És szerinted a többiek is így viszonyulnak hozzá?
- Tanórán kívüli tevékenységeket szervez számotokra az angol tanár? Milyen tevékenységeket? Ki dobja fel az ötletet? (tanár vagy diákok?)
- Hogyan dicsér téged az angol tanár? (vagy a többieket) Miből tudod azt, hogy a tanár elismeri azt, amit csinálsz? Hogyan fejezi ki?
- Hogyan bátorít téged az angol tanár? Hogyan fejezi ki? Szóban, írásban, gesztusokkal, mosollyal, stb.?
- Hogyan jutalmaz téged az angol tanár? Milyen jutalmak vannak?
- Hogyan és mikor értékel az angol tanár? Folyamatos az értékelés? Milyen formában értékel? – szóban, írásban, jegyekkel, szóvegesen, piros ponttal, stb.
- Vannak-e céljaid az angollal kapcsolatban? Mik ezek? (vagy ha nincsenek céljai: szerinted mire lenne jó, ha lenne céld? Hogyan segíthet ebben az angol tanár?)
Hogyan segít az angol tanár, hogy elérd ezeket a célokat?
- Milyen formában dolgoztok együtt az angol órán az osztálytársaidal? Egyéni munka, páros munka, csoportmunka, „körbejárkálós”?
- Vannak-e különösebb fizikai igényeid, amiket szeretnél, ha az angol tanár figyelembe venne? (akármilyen: ha feszült vagy, rosszkedvű, jó kedvű, mozgásigényed van, WC-re kell menned, éhes vagy, stb.) Hogyan tudja a tanár figyelembe venni ezeket az igényeket?
- Hogyan jellemeznéd az órai hangulatot az angol órákon? Te a jelenléteddel hogyan tudsz hozzátenni valamit az angol órához?
- Hogyan hat a tanár személyisége az angol órákra?
- Különböleges-e valamilyen az angolórák? Szerinted emlékezni fogsz az órákra 10 év múlva? Miért?

- Mennyire lehet a humort bevinni az angol órára? Beszelnél erről egy kicsit? Szoktatok viccelődni az órákon? Ki kezdeményezi a humoros elemeket – tanár vagy diák?
- Szoktatok játszani az órákon? Mennyire igényled a játékokat az angol órán?

3. Motiváció a diák szemszögéből

- A tanár mennyire ösztönöz téged, hogy tanulj angolul? Hogyan sikerül ezt elérnie?
- Ki vagy mi más ösztönöz téged arra, hogy angolul tanulj? Hogyan?
- Te mit csinálnál máshogy az angol tanár helyében?

4. Egyéb

- Van még esetleg valami, amit hozzá szeretnél tenni?

Nagyon szépen köszönöm az interjút.

APPENDICES C & D

The Motivational strategies questionnaire and the Learning experience scale

Motivációs stratégiák & tanulási szokások kérdőív

Szeretném a segítségemet kérni kutatási programomhoz. Kérlek, az első részben válaszolj az *angol tanár motivációs stratégiáival, technikáival kapcsolatos* kérdésekre, a második részben pedig a *saját tanulási szokásaiddal kapcsolatos* kérdésekre. Fontos, hogy minden esetben az angol óráról van szó! Ez egy kérdőív, nem teszt, tehát nincsenek jó vagy rossz válaszok, a véleményedre vagyok kíváncsi. Kérlek, legyél őszinte, mert ezzel segíted elő kutatásom sikerét. Biztosítalak róla, hogy **SENKINEK NEM MUTATOM MEG, MIT ÍRTÁL** a lapra, a neveket a kutatásban kódokra cserélem, így én magam sem fogom tudni, kinek a válaszaival dolgozom.

Együttműködésedet köszönöm. Mezei Gabriella

Név: (csak adminisztrációs okokból van szükségem rá!)

Évfolyam:

A következőkben X-eld be a megfelelő rubrikát. Például, ha szerinted a síelés veszélyes sport, de nem a legveszélyesebb, tegyél X-et az *Egyetérték* mezőbe, így:

	Teljesen egyetérték	Egyetérték	Részben egyetérték	Nem értek egyet	Egyáltalán nem értek egyet
A síelés veszélyes.		X			

I. rész: Motivációs stratégiák (az angol óráról van szó!)

	Teljesen egyetérték	Egyet érték	Részben egyetérték	Nem értek egyet	Egyáltalán nem értek egyet
1 A tanáron látszik, hogy szereti az angolt.					
2 Az angolórákon általában pozitív élmények érnek.					
3 A tanár dicsérettel is ösztönöz a jobb teljesítményre.					
4 Az angol csoportban van a csoport által elfogadott, közös angoltanulási cél.					
5 A tanár komolyan veszi, hogy fejlődjek angolból.					
6 A tanár segítségével rájöttem, hogyha valamit nem csinálok jól angolból, akkor az az erőfeszitésem hiányán múlik.					
7 Az angolórák változatosak.					

	Tejjesen egyetérték	Egyet érték	Részben egyetérték	Nem érték egyet	Egyáltalán nem érték egyet
8 A tanár és köztem jó kapcsolat alakult ki.					
9 A feladatok az angolórán aktív részvételt kívánnak a részemről.					
10 Az angoltanár időről-időre felhívja a figyelmemet arra, hogy a nyelvtudásnak milyen fontos szerepe van az életben.					
11 A feladatok az angolórán izgalmasak.					
12 Az angoltanár segít, hogy pozitívan álljak a nyelvtanuláshoz.					
13 A tanár figyelembe veszi az egyéni szükségleteimet.					
14 Az angoltanár segít, hogy konkrét célokat tűzzek ki magamnak a nyelvtanulásban.					
15 A tanár úgy ad visszajelzést a munkámról, hogy elégedett leszek magammal.					
16 Az angolórák légköre kellemes.					
17 A tanár mutat olyan trükköket, amikkel könnyebben tanulom meg az anyagot.					
18 Az angoltanár segít, hogy sikerélményhez jussak a nyelvtanulás során.					
19 A tanár a csapatmunkát is értékeli, nem csak az egyéni teljesítményt.					
20 Az angoltanár hisz abban, hogy meg tudok tanulni angolul.					
21 A tanár időnként megadja a lehetőséget, hogy eldönthessük, mi legyen a házi feladat.					
22 Az angoltanár elősegíti az osztályszellem kialakulását.					
23 Az angoltanár szerint a hibák a nyelvtanulási folyamat részei.					
24 Az angoltanár kerüli a diákok megszégyenítését.					
25 Az angoltanár rendszeresen ad visszajelzést fejlődésemről.					
26 A tanár időnként megadja a lehetőséget, hogy eldönthessük, mit csináljunk órán.					
27 Ha jól csinálok valamit angolból, az angoltanár olyan jutalmat ad, ami további jó teljesítményre ösztönöz.					
28 A tanár mutat olyan trükköket, amivel saját magamat motiválhatom az angoltanulásra.					
29 Az angoltanár segít, hogy az angol/amerikai kultúrával is megismerkedjek.					
30 A tanár segít, hogy az egyéni céljaimat az angoltanulásban meg tudjam valósítani.					

Minden sorba írtál X-et?

Folytatódik!

→ → →

II. rész: Tanulási szokások (az angol óráról van szó!)

	Teljesen egyetérték	Egyetérték	Részben egyetérték	Nem értek egyet	Egyáltalán nem értek egyet
1 Biztos vagyok benne, hogy képes vagyok saját magam megszervezni, hogy hogyan tanuljak.					
2 Gyakran végzek pluszfeladatokat a tanév során csupán azért, mert ezek érdekelnek.					
3 Az órákra az angol tanulással kapcsolatos céljaim szerint készülök.					
4 Ha nem teljesítek elég jól az angolórán, önállóan változtatok a felkészülésemem, hogy jobban teljesítsek.					
5 Én vagyok felelős azért, hogy megtanuljam az anyagot, nem más.					
6 Általában nincs problémám azzal, hogy saját magamat ösztönözzem a tanulásra.					
7 Biztos vagyok benne, hogy a tanult anyaghoz szükséges órán kívüli eszközöket megtalálom.					
8 A legtöbb iskolai feladatot azért csinálom meg, mert MEG AKAROM csinálni, nem azért, mert KELL.					
9 Inkább magamtól kezdeményeznék órai tevékenységeket, mint hogy arra várjak, hogy a tanár mutat új dolgokat.					
10 Gyakran használok a tanulás során olyan anyagokat, amiket saját magam találtam.					
11 Az órákon rendszerint tisztában vagyok azzal, hogy mit miért csinálók.					
12 Biztos vagyok benne, hogy képes vagyok önállóan megvalósítani a tanulási tervemet.					
13 Képes vagyok meghatározni a tanulás során a fontos dolgokat annak érdekében, hogy elérjem kitűzött tanulási céljaimat.					
14 Az órai anyag többnyire érdekes számomra.					
15 Ha egy anyaggal végeztünk is, előfordul, hogy saját magam még utánanézek dolgoknak azzal kapcsolatban.					
16 A legtöbb feladat, amivel az órákon találkozom hasznos számomra.					
17 Gyakran keresek további anyagot egy érdekes témáról, ha már nem foglalkozunk vele.					
18 Biztos vagyok benne, hogy képes vagyok az önálló tanulásra.					

Minden sorba írtál X-et? Segítségedet még egyszer köszönöm!

APPENDIX E

The Motivation questionnaire

Motivációs kérdőív

Szeretném a segítségemet kérni kutatási programomhoz. Kérlek válaszolj a következő, motivációval kapcsolatos kérdésekre. Ez egy kérdőív, nem teszt, tehát nincsenek jó vagy rossz válaszok, a véleményedre vagyok kíváncsi. Kérlek, legyél őszinte, mert ezzel segítettél elő kutatásom sikerét. Biztosítalak róla, hogy **SENKINEK NEM MUTATOM MEG, MIT ÍRTÁL** a lapra, a nevetek a kutatásban kódokra cserélem, így én magam sem fogom tudni, kinek a válaszaival dolgozom. Együttműködésedet köszönöm. Mezei Gabriella

Név: (csak adminisztrációs okokból van szükségem rá!)

Évfolyam:

A következőkben X-eld be a megfelelő rubrikát. Például, ha szerinted a sielés veszélyes sport, de nem a legveszélyesebb, tegyél X-et az *Egyetérték* mezőbe, így:

	Teljesen egyetérték	Egyetérték	Részben egyetérték	Nem értek egyet	Egyáltalán nem értek egyet
A sielés veszélyes.		X			

	Teljesen egyetérték	Egyetérték	Részben egyetérték	Nem értek egyet	Egyáltalán nem értek egyet
1 Az angol nyelv tudása nagyban segítené jövőbeli pályafutásomat.					
2 Azért, hogy művelt ember legyek, tudnom kell angolul.					
3 A mai világban aki tud angolul, az jobb állást kap.					
4 Ha jól beszélnek angolul, több embert meg tudnék ismerni más (nemcsak angol nyelvű) országokból.					
5 Az ember manapság nem boldogulhat angol nélkül a munka világában.					
6 Az angoltudás műveltebbé tesz.					
7 Biztos vagyok benne, hogy jól meg tudok tanulni egy idegen nyelvet.					
8 A jövőbeli terveim miatt kell, hogy angolul beszéljek.					
9 A körülöttem lévő emberek általában úgy gondolják, hogy jó dolog az idegen nyelvek ismerete.					
10 Hajlandó vagyok komoly erőfeszítéseket tenni, hogy megtanuljak angolul.					
11 Az angol nyelv ismerete fontos lesz a jövőbeli munkámban.					

	Teljesen egyetérték	Egyetérték	Részben egyetérték	Nem értek egyet	Egyáltalán nem értek egyet
12 Biztos vagyok benne, hogy jól fogom tudni használni az angol nyelvet a jövőben.					
13 Az angoltanulás segít, hogy megértem az embereket a világ minden részéről.					
14 Az angol nyelv manapság már hozzátartozik az általános műveltséghez.					
15 Nagyon fontos számomra, hogy megtanuljak angolul.					
16 A barátaim szerint szerint az idegen nyelvek tudása nagyon fontos a mai világban.					
17 Mindent megteszek azért, hogy megtanuljak angolul.					
18 Amikor a jövőbeli pályafutásomra gondolkodom, olyan embernek képzelem el magam, aki tud angolul.					
19 Azért szeretnék angolul tudni, hogy más országokból származó emberekkel is meg tudjam érteni magam.					
20 Az idegennyelv-tanulás nekem elég könnyen megy.					
21 Elszántam magam, hogy megtanulok angolul.					
22 Ha nem sikerül megtanulnom angolul, akkor csalódást fogok okozni másoknak.					
23 Az angol az egyik legfontosabb idegen nyelv a mai világban.					
24 Jó vagyok a nyelvtanulásban.					
25 Az angoltanulás az egyik legfontosabb dolog az életemben.					
26 Szeretem a jövőbeli éneket olyannak elképzelni, aki tud angolul beszélni.					
27 Úgy érzem, mások elvárják tőlem, hogy megtanuljak angolul.					
28 Angolul tanulni szükséges, mert ez egy nemzetközi nyelv.					
29 Ahhoz, hogy boldogulni tudjak a mindennapokban, tudnom kell angolul.					
30 Senki sem törődik azzal, hogy tanulok-e angolul vagy sem.					
31 Nekem jó nyelvérzésem van.					
32 Amikor a jövőmre gondolkodom, az angol nyelv használata fontos része az elképzeléseimnek.					
33 Sikeres nyelvtanulóknak érzem magam.					
34 A mai világban már elvárás, hogy az emberek jól tudjanak angolul.					
35 Ha jól beszélek angolul, bármilyen országban feltalálom magam.					
36 Azok számára, akik közt élek, az angol nyelv tanulása fontos.					
37 Ha nem sikerül megtanulnom angolul, csalódott leszek magamban.					

Minden sorba írtál X-et? Segítségedet még egyszer köszönöm.

APPENDIX F

The observation sheet

Date:	Lesson:	Other:
Teacher:	Number of students:	

Minute	Strategy	Teacher	Student	Form of work	Other/remarks:
1-2					
3-4					
5-6					
7-8					
9-10					
11-12					
13-14					
15-16					
17-18					
19-20					
21-22					
23-24					
25-26					
27-28					
29-30					
31-32					
33-34					
35-36					
37-38					
39-40					
41-42					
43-44					
45					

APPENDIX G

The interview excerpts in Hungarian

5.1.1

„nekem a mostani semmiképpen nem monoton, mondom, mert a tankönyvünk nagyon jó [...] mivel izgalmas a tananyag.” (Csaba)

„halálra unjuk magunkat. Tényleg. [...] mi már túl vagyunk azon, hogy nekünk is kéne az erőbedobás [...], az első két évben még harcoltunk, azt nem mondom, hogy elfáradtunk, meg minden, de elegünk lett.” (Csilla)

„az ellen meg nem tudunk úgy tenni, hogy nem tud órát tartani” (Csilla)

„éves szinten viszont sokszor vesszük ugyanazt, ami nem baj, csak [...] szerintem a könyv miatt van” (Ádám)

„a legtöbb óra az angolhoz képest szörnyű, mert olyan unalmasak, hogy szinte már el lehet aludni” (Bea)

„ha más feladatot adok nekik, mondjuk írkalni kéne, akkor lefolynak a székről, unalmas, hagyjuk ezt, tehát csak beszéljünk, minden mindegy, csak beszélgetni lehessen” (Annabella)

„azt is csinálhatnám, hogy leülök és nem csinálok semmit [...] nem kellene járkálni meg belehallgatni, mert tudom, hogy tényleg azt csinálják, amit kérek” (Boglárka)

„ha nehezebb feladat van, akkor megbeszélhetjük a mellettünk ülőkkel és akkor egymásnak is magyarázunk, ami nagyon jó, mert lehet, amit a tanártól nem értenék meg, egy időzjelben saját nyelvemen beszélővel, egy diáktárrsal, egy gyerekkel jobban megértem, hogyha ő magyarázza el nekem” (Csenge)

„nagyon nehezen [tudom kezelni], 18-an vannak, például a gyengébb csoportban egy diszlexiás, diszgráfias, [...] külön órákat kéne neki adni, de nem vagyok rá kiképezve, nem tudom, hogy hogy kell, valamit olvasgattam utána” (Annabella)

„főleg ilyen 20-21 fős csoportoknál, tehát ilyen képtelenség, az annyira lefoglalja az összes energiámat [...], hogy nem bírok [...] meg abszolút ilyen türelem kell, tehát amíg az egyikkel foglalkozom, addig a másik valami mást csinál önállóan, tehát ez így feltételez valamelyes önállóságot” (Ernesztina)

„legalább annyira vagyunk pszichológusok, mint nem, tehát volt egy olyan téma például, hogy az egyik tanítványnak meghalt a kisbabája születése után egy hónappal és bejött órára, és volt egy család-gyerek téma, namost ott néhány feladatott úgy ugrottam át, ahogy csak kellett és a többinél meg őt olyanokról, más dolgokról kérdeztem, hogy például a gyerekkorában, amikor ő gyerek volt. Tehát [...] nagyon-nagyon oda kell figyelni, mert óhatatlanul is beleszaladsz olyanba, amit neked tudnod kéne, mert tudod, hogy mesélte és mindent észbe kell tartani” (Daniella)

„nem az egyén számít, mert ha 16-an, 18-an vannak egy csoportban, akkor azt nem lehet, hogy nekem egyéni igényeim legyenek, mert nem csak én vagyok ott egyedül.” (Csenge)

„vagy válaszlehetőséggel, vagy ha például egy ember van 17 ellen, akkor őt leszavazzuk és ennyi” (Betti)

„tulajdonképpen a mi igényeink megegyeznek az angol órával kapcsolatban és tanárnő teljes mértékben kordában tudja tartani a csoportot és minden igényt kielégítő órákat tart” (Buda)

„szerintem mindenki úgy érzi, hogy figyelnek rá [...] ha valakinek van valami baja, fölteszi a kezét, elmondja, meg van hallgatva, senki nem marad ki” (Bea)

„ahhoz képest, hogy mennyire elszórtak a képességek a csoportban [...] ehhez képest elég jól csinálja, tehát annak is tud azért feladatot adni, aki már elég jó és közben az is tud rendesen dolgozni, aki nem annyira – én így veszem észre” (Ádám)

„odajön, hogy most ne maceráljam [...] úgy gondoskodom róluk, hogy még sokkal kedvesebb vagyok, csak a legkönnyebb kérdéseket kérdezem tőlük és sokkal jobban megdicsérem őket” (Daniella)

„nagyon zárkózott és borzasztóan tartja magát, úgyhogy őt úgy kellett kikapni, tehát akkor most gyerekek beszéljünk, mik is akkor most a céljaid, mit akarsz csinálni” (Annabella)

„nem az érdekem az, hogy ha aznap van már egy kémia meg egy tőri, akkor még irassak velük én is” (Boglárka)

„modul elején körbeküldök egy papírt, hogy ki miből szeretne fejlődni, vagy mire szeretne hangsúlyt fektetni [és] igyekszem, kigyűjtöm a legközösebb pontokat és mondjuk havonta előveszem magamnak, mert benne van a dossziémban” (Daniella)

„annak sok értelme nincsen, mert ugye ő felkészül az órára. Van egy rendes óramenet, ő ahhoz tartja magát, hogyha itt túl nagy jogok kerülnek a diákság kezébe, itt arra értem, ha túl nagy beleszólás van, akkor abból csak káosz lesz” (Csenge)

„meg szoktuk beszélni előre órán, hogy mit fogunk venni, meddig gyakorolunk, mikor vesszük a dolgozatot, de igen, végül is, nem nagyon szokott [választási lehetőséget adni]” (Buda)

„szerintem nagyon sok mindent nem vesznek észre, amikor azt mondom, hogy így is lehet dolgozni, meg úgy is lehet dolgozni” (Annabella)

5.1.2

„megcsináltunk egy egész érettségit egy héten keresztül és hát az egyik csoporttársamnak meg nekem lett 70% fölötti és mondta [a tanár], hogy kapunk egy 5-öst, ha még beszélünk is vele” (Betti)

„ha pontháton vagyunk, akkor általában a jobbat szoktuk kapni” (Bea)

„kimondottan nem úgy értékel, hogy jaj istenem, most megszívatom ezt meg azt, mert ő azért olyan kedves, hogy nem akar senkit megszívatni” (Csaba)

„ahogy így viselkedik, mosolyog, meg vidám, meg minden, szóval nem ilyen mérges képpel néz és akkor nem az van, hogy valamit elrontasz és akkor leharapja a fejedet, és amikor jól csinálsz valamit, akkor [...] ő örül neki, ha valaki jól csinálja” (Csaba)

„egész hírverés van neki, ő akkor büszke és nagyon büszke ránk, rám is, hogy én azt meg tudtam csinálni, jól esik neki, látom, hogy örül, velem együtt örül és [...] ez az extázis és robban és pörög és mondja, hogy jaj de jó volt és szuper és menni fog” (Csenge)

„Hát tudják, hogy ha nem mondok semmit, az már jó. Ha megdicsérem őket, az nagyon jó. De próbálok rá figyelni [...] azt úgy inkább látják vagy érzik, mint hogy mondjam, hogy jól van kisfiam, ügyes vagy [...] az órán az nagyon erőltetett lenne nekem, hogy minden izé után megköszönném, hogy megcsináltad a feladatot és akkor jön a következő – tehát ez a jellememmel idegen” (Annabella)

„Nagyon sokszor sehogy [nem dicsérek], mert evidenciának veszem, hogy tudják, ez nagy hiba [...] Arra szoktam figyelni, hogy akinek olyan időszaka van, hogy nem sikerül neki és látom, hogy megpróbál kilábalni belőle, [...] látszik, hogy próbálkozik, azt megpróbálom bátorítani vagy segíteni, hogy megdicsérni persze, hogy jól sikerült, meg megpróbálni javasolni valamit, hogy mi az, amit még kéne tennie, vagy csak megnyugtani, hogy idő kérdése” (Boglárka)

„vannak gyenge pontjaim, ugyanis az a baj, hogy néha hajlamos vagyok őket nem [dicsérni] [...] úgy vagyok vele, hogyha ő látja, hogy mindig minden dolgozata jó és bólogatok és nem ülök le vele külön beszélni, akkor azt vegy úgy, hogy ő jól halad [...] inkább akkor értékelek, amikor látom, hogy el vannak keseredve [...], de akkor nagyon kiemelek valamit és nagyon megdicsérem, ami nem objektív értékelés, egyszerűen egy továbblendítés talán” (Daniella)

„én ezt annyira nem szeretem ezt a plussz szerzési lehetőséget, mert sajnos sokan visszaélnék, meg vannak ilyenek, hogy szavakat kell tudni és akkor gyakori, hogy egymásról lemásolják, vagy megnézik a könyvben és még is jelentkeznek plusszáért, én ezt alapvetően nem szeretem” (Ádám)

„Feketét is szoktunk kapni, de az nem ő tartja számon, hanem az osztálytársam [...] ő csak a feketét, a pirosat mindenki, mert hát ugye azt magának mindenki beírja” (Bea)

„sejtem, hogy kik azok, akik visszaélnék vele, de azzal úgy vagyok, hogy ő éljen együtt ezzel” (Boglárka)

„el szoktam nekik mondani, hogy én mint értelmes embereket tiszteltem őket, azt gondolom, hogy ők tudják, hogy nekik erre szükségük van, és fölfogják, hogyha nem készülnek, és becsapnak engem, azzal nem engem csapnak be, hanem hosszú távon magukat. És ugyanígy a piros pontokkal is, én azt gondolom, hogy azt a bizalmat, amit mutatok feléjük, azt vissza is fogom kapni” (Boglárka).

„ahogyan órán beszél hozzánk, mindig úgy, hogy tudja, hogy mi leszünk a jövő generációja és próbál mindent beleadni, hogy mi jól éljünk és hogy előrébb vigyük a nyelvet” (Buda)

„úgy bátorítom, én általában inkább szeretem, ha bevállalnak olyasmiket, ami még túl nehéz nekik, vagy sokat kell kaparni érte [...] tehát nem azt mondom, hogy én még várnék fél évet [a nyelvvizsgával], tehát általában többször bejön nekik, hogy sikerül, minthogy nem, ha úgy érzik, hogy a tanár bízik bennük” (Daniella)

„vannak olyan gyerekek, akik egy idő után nem érdekel. Olyan szinten tart ellen, leperog róla minden, hogy nem foglalkozom vele, és érdekes módon meg szokott javulni a kapcsolat, és ha egyébként se csinál semmit, akkor se ha kínlódok vele, és ha nem kínlódunk és jobb a kapcsolatunk, akkor van esélyem rá, hogy egyszer meggondolja magát. [...] az egyik fiú [...] sose készül semmit, lóg is egy csomószor, meg mindenfélék vannak és egy darabig szívóztam vele és már nagyon utáltuk egymást és egyszer azt mondtam neki, hogy tudod mit? engem nem érdekel, majd ha rájöttél 17 évesen vagy 16 évesen, hogy ennek van értelme, akkor szóljál. És eltelt két hét, hogy nem szóltam hozzá, úgy csináltam, mintha nem is létezne és akkor egy idő után szólt, hogy ő most szeretne újra részt venni.” (Boglárka)

„Akin látja, hogy úgyse fog, tehát ugyanolyan lusta maradt, mint fél évvel ezelőtt, azon már, hogy mondjam, az ő lelkesedése is el fog fogyni” (Bea)

„én nem akarom hibáztatni azokat, akik minket kiképeztek, de valahogy nekem nincs benne a tudatomban, hogy csinálni kéne. Akik idősebb kollegáim, mindig felróják nekem például azt is, hogy az órát nem értékelem” (Boglárka)

5.1.3

„akkor tényleg érzi az ember, hogy olyan jó hangulat van, jó ott lenni, akkor ők is nagyon élvezik” (Ernesztina)

„egy idő után úgy érzik a hallgatók, hogy a jó kedvet meg a humort mérem és nem veszik észre, hogy abszolút nem” (Daniella)

„a nevetés feloldja azt az alapfelállást, hogy felnőtt emberek vagyunk, egymással szemben ülünk és az egyiknek teljesítenie kell, a másik meg számon kér, ami alapfelállás marad, de a humorral teljesen más kontextusba kerül” (Daniella)

„és állandóan az volt a cél [diákoké], hogy én röhögjek [...] ők akarnak mindig engem nevetetni” (Cecília)

„van, hogy angolul is jön poén [...] meg asszociálnak mindenfele” (Annabella)

„Mindenre csak azt tudom mondani, hogy haladni kell, tehát olyan mennyiségek vannak, hogy a gyakorlástól nem szeretem elvenni az időt azzal, hogy, pedig a játék is gyakorlás nyilvánvalóan. [...] igazából szörnyű, de néha az jut eszembe, hogy játsszani csak olyan csoporttal játszom, akiről azt gondolom, hogy megérdemli, tehát mintha jutalmazás lenne [...] de eszembe se jut, föl sem merül, odáig sem jutok el, hogy megkérdezzem, játsszok velük? Nem, mert nem érdemlik meg. Hanem csak ha így beszélgetünk, akkor gondolok bele, akkor jövök rá, hogy én azért nem játszom, én azért

nem gondolok bele, mert még azt se csinálják meg, amit kéne, akkor mit játszottunk itt” (Boglárika)

5.2.1

„engem nagyon zavar, ami ma is volt, hogy túl nagy csönd van, tehát nyilván nem szeretem, amikor zavaró [a zaj], vannak olyan pillanatok, amikor nem szabad beszélni, tudják is, hogy azt nem szeretem, de az alapvetően jó, ha egy olyan minimális-, nem is azt mondom, hogy alapzaj, hanem ha mernek kommunikálni a feladaton kívül is” (Boglárika)

„én nagyon szeretek a központban lenni, irányítani, meg vezényelni, s úgy érzem, amikor bemegeyek az órára, hogy elkezdődik egy 90 perc, amikor felkapom a csoportot, pörgetem a fejem fölött, ez megy másfél óráig, utána lecsapom és hatással vagyok x emberre, másfél óráig csak, tehát úgy alakul a hangulatuk, ez olyan mint egy parti, tehát hogy te viszed őket és nagyon öröm látni, hogy élvezik” (Daniella)

„sokkal oldottabb a hangulat meg könnyebben megtanuljuk a dolgokat, mint más, matekórán például” (Bea)

„Viszonylag ilyen lazább óra, tehát nem ilyen nagyon szigorú, mint például a fizika óra, de igen, az angol óra viszonylag lazább óra szerintem, de nagyon ilyen interaktív, mindenki részt tud benne venni és viszonylag beszélgetősebb” (Adél)

„hát mi elég vidámak vagyunk angol órán, pont ezért, mert tudjuk, hogy nem leszünk lekiabálva azért, mert valamit nem tudunk, de azért fele-fele az, mert ha mi mondjuk csöndben ülünk és egy szót se szólunk vagy valami, akkor nem tud mit csinálni, tehát ez szerintem mindkettőnkön múlik” (Bea)

„Szerintem nagyon sokban múlik [az osztályon]. [...] De az elején eléggé a tanárt hibáztattam [...], aztán eltelt 2-3 év és most már én is látom, hogy biztos rajtunk is nagyon sok múlik, de szerintem a tanárnak kéne az első lépést megtennie ahhoz, hogy így az óra élvezhető legyen meg ilyenek és akkor onnantól kezdve nekünk is” (Csilla)

„Szeretnék emlékezni [...] mert szeretem az angolt is, az órákat is, egy ilyen jó emlékként maradjon meg” (Ábel)

„Szóval ez nekem nagyon tetszik, hogy ilyen a hangulat” (Betti)

„ha én jól érzem magam, akkor általában megjegyzem az ilyeneket, tehát én tök jól érzem magamat, most idén kimondottan, úgyhogy ha emlékszem valamire is, akkor erre valószínűleg azért fogok” (Csaba)

„ha valakire fogok emlékezni, akkor szerintem rá [az angol tanárra]” (Csenge)

5.2.2

„akit nem szeretünk, vagy nem annyira kedvelünk, akkor valahogy az órájához is úgy állunk hozzá” (Csilla)

„szerintem nagy mértékben függ attól, hogy milyen egy tanár” (Brigi)

„kedves és szerintem azért szívesen megyünk az angol órára” (Csaba)

„mindig mondja, hogy a saját nyelvén mondja, hogy ne parázz, tehát ilyen kis laza hangulatban [...] rendesen elmondja, ahogy ő szokott beszélni mindenkivel” (Betti)

„ő is vidám, hogy szereti az életet, szereti a diákokat, szereti a gyerekeket, szereti azt, amit csinál, nagyon szereti és azt magas fokon csinálja [...] hogy valamit igazán jól tudjon csinálni, azt csak a maximumon lehet csinálni és erre sok tanárnak szerintem már nincs energiája és neki meg van. És ettől tesz ő hozzá nagyon sokat.” (Csenge)

„szokott ilyen példákat felhozni, hogy ő amikor ilyenről van szó, szokott angolul beszélni ismerőseiről, meg hogy mik történtek vele” (Ádám)

„szokott mondani a saját életéből is dolgokat, hogy ő miket tanult meg könnyebben, miket nehezebben és hogy tehát az életébe is beavat” (Ábel)

„ha kérdezzük tőle valamit, akkor is a saját személyiségeként adja elő, a saját stílusában, szerintem mindenképp átjön az ő személyisége az órán” (Adél)

„Igazából a tanárnő egyik kedvenc sorozatából válogatott, egy Odaát nevű sorozatból, egy ilyen nagyon-nagyon jó rész volt [...] amikor behozta azt a sorozatot, az számomra teljesen csúcs volt” (Buda)

„ezt csak onnan tudom, hogy nagyon sokat járok órát látogatni és szerintem minden egyes óra olyan, mint amilyennek megismertem az adott kollegát. Tehát vannak olyan órák, hogy iszonyú böcsész az srác, általában így ül értekezleten, az óra ugyanez volt. És a hallgatók olyanná váltak vagy elkoptak. A másik tanár nagyon-nagyon nyugodt családanyás, és akkor ott körbemegey, kis tyúkkotló, és olyan is az óra [...] szinte mindig, 100%-ban a tanár határozza meg” (Daniella)

„azt gondolom, hogy nagyon fontos, hogy ezt ne nyomjuk el, hogy a személyiségünket ne nyomjuk el, amikor bemegeyünk órára” (Boglárika)

„eleinte én nem voltam annyira nyitott, meg nem vállaltam annyira magamat, mint most és én úgy érzem, hogy tök pozitívan befolyásolta a kapcsolataimat a diákokkal, hogy vállalom önmagam, meg olyan vagyok, meg úgy mutogatok, meg olyan vicceket mondok el, igen” (Cecília)

„vibráló személyiség vagyok, én iszonyú *happy* vagyok általában, tehát tök optimista, minden tetszik, mindent élvezek, tehát például én képes vagyok egy *present perfect*-et élvezni, ami nagyon durva, az alap az, hogy én mindent, ha én meghalok egy angol szót, én hanyatt dobom magam, annyira gyönyörű, szóval fetrengeni tudok egy szerkezet után és ezt átveszik, végülis ez, az örök lelkesedés, ez az *enthusiastic* [személyiség]” (Daniella)

„Egyszer késtem angol óráról, ez egy ilyen kis történetyszerűség, és nem tudtam, hogy melyik teremben vagyunk, csak azt, hogy melyik emeleten, és hát ahogyan felértem az egyik emeletre, az egyik teremből ilyen nagyon nagy nevetés volt és aztán hallottam a tanárnő hangját, és a tanárnő mindig ilyen hangosan beszél, nagyon artikulál, meg gesztikulál a kezével és akkor már tudtam egyből, hogy hova kell bemenni.” (Csenge)

5.2.3

„ahol osztályfőnök [vagyok] ott teljesen baráti viszony van, tehát osztálykiránduláson előfordul, hogy majdnem leviszik a fejemet a labdával, de én nem fogok ezért üvöltözni, vagy kedvesen hátra vágnak, meg húznak, meg ökörködnek. Másik osztályban az ember próbál banyásabb lenni és akkor, főleg a kicsiknél, mert azok ugrálnak, mint egy zsák bolha, hogy összekapja őket. Én úgy gondolom, hogy nagyon nem rossz a viszony köztünk, én úgy gondolom, hogy jó a viszony” (Annabella)

„mi is szeretjük nagyon, főleg osztályfőnökként, de tanárnak is, és szerintem ő is szeret minket [...] mindig igazságos” (Ádám)

„óra közben is meg szünetekben is oda tudok menni, hogyha valamit kérdezek, vagy valamilyen feladatott nem értek és akkor ő normálisan elmagyarázza” (Betti)

„nagyon jó. Ilyen második anyuka szinten. Jóval túlteljesít itt bármilyen feladatkört az iskolában. Nagyon tud pörögni és annak ellenére, hogy neki otthon van családja, mondom ez a teljes odafigyelés [...] ő amúgy is egy nyitott személyiség és minket is szeretett, meg mi is szeretjük őt, úgyhogy ez azért szorosabbá válik” (Csenge)

„mélyebb a kapcsolatunk velük, hogy ők ismernek onnan is, hogy én is izzadok velük, meg szenvedek meg nyomom a fekvőtámaszt, ha arról van szó, meg akkor mi ott együtt vagyunk a tesitánár ellen.” (Cecília)

„kellett egy-két hét, hogy a tanárnő betörjön minket, és akkoriban még nem voltam annyira jóban a tanárnővel, mert én, hogy mondjam, nem vagyok egy túl jó kisfiú és már akkoriban volt egy-két probléma velem, de a tanárnővel utána tökéletesen megértettük egymást” (Buda)

„eredetileg nagyon rosszul voltunk egymással, [...] akkor még nem tudott rendet tartani, mindenki hülyült órán, haladtunk az anyaggal, csak mi ugye unatkoztunk, de aztán így megszerettem, és mivel általában ő az ofőhelyettesünk, jön velünk osztálykirándulásra, meg amúgy is ilyen kislányos, olyan mintha a nővérem lenne vagy a húgom egy kicsit, nagyon jópofa, nagyon szeretem.” (Csaba)

„nem félnek megmondani, hogy mikor szeretnének írni, vagy ha van valami probléma, vagy mernek válaszolni kérdésre, vagy fölteszem a kérdést, hogy van-e valami probléma, akkor mernek rá reagálni, [...] hogy megengedhetik maguknak, hogy magukból megmutassanak [valamit], tehát mint teljes embert tudjak rá reagálni” (Boglárka)

„amikor mondjuk évek után találkozunk a folyosón és azt mondják, nem a bók miatt, hogy ilyen jó hangulatú órán azóta se voltunk [...] amikor úgy foglalkoznak velem vagy az órámmal, mint az életük része, nem egy feladat” (Daniella)

„mondják, hogy köszönik szépen [...] kapok virágot, [...] látom, hogy kedvelnek, [...] meghívtak fagyizni, vagy pedig elmentünk valahova, meg csinálnak csoportképet, akkor továbbküldik” (Ernesztina)

„én szerelmes vagyok a tanárnőbe” (Csenge)

5.3

„mindennapi életben is nagyon hasznos, mert tényleg nagyon sok dolog van angolul”
(Csaba)

„szerintem általában jellemző, hogy nagyon nincsenek céljaik, úgy ahogy vannak és az életükkel se, bármilyen tantárggyal, nem csak az angollal” (Cecília)

„egyszerűen nagyon-nagyon limitált az a dolog, amit elvárhatok meg kitűzhetek, mert úgy érzi, minden egyes új feladattal úgy érzi, hogy már megint feladat, már megint feladat, ebből tele van a padlás. Tehát órán, még ha feladat is van vagy célkitűzés, úgy kell feltüntetni, mintha nem az lenne.” (Daniella)

„... jött az egyik szülő, hogy hú de jó, mert most jött haza Amerikából és valami továbbképzésen volt és a lánya sokkal jobban értette, mit mond a kicsit skót akcentussal beszélő fiú, mint ő és hogy már nem hallotta rég, én azt hittem, hogy még mindig beszélget a lányával, mert tényleg nagyon megindult és én úgy tudtam, hogy a kocsiiban minden reggel angolul beszélgetnek egy 5 perctel, és mindig mondom a gyerekeknek, hogy ez milyen fontos, hogy ha gyenge vagy, hogy 5 perctel beszéljél bárkivel angolul. És akkor kiderült, hogy ő már rég nem beszélget velem, már rég nem hallotta a lányát, és hogy milyen jó folyamatosan beszélni, és akkor én is megdöbbenem, hogy hoppá, tényleg milyen jó ez.” (Annabella)

„azt nagyon beléjük verjük, hogy ne tegyék meg se magukkal, se a szüleikkel, se senkivel, hogy ezt most nem használják ki [...] Meg presztízis. [...] Tehát nagyon durván figyelünk erre, hogy ez menjen. [...] én mondjuk folyamatosan szuggerálok azt, hogy ha már itt vagy, legyen értelme, azért vagy 8osztályos gimnáziumban, mert te egy különleges helyzetben vagy, te vagy a legjobb a környéken, tehát rájátszunk, nagyon rájátszunk az ő egójukra, hogy azt ők megértsék, hogy ők a különleges emberek és ha ők ezt meg tudják csinálni, csinálják is meg” (Boglárka)

„én így szoktam lebegtetni előttük, hogy ez egy olyan fajta feladat, vagy ez egy olyan típusú feladat, ami előfordul az érettségiben, vagy a nyelvvizsgán, vagy ez egy olyanfajta ilyen kis nyuansz, amire szeretnek rákérdezni tesztekben, tehát ez egy ilyen lebegtetés dolog” (Cecília)

„megpróbálom őket érdekeltté tenni, elmondom, hogy milyen csodálatos, merthogy egy, és akkor kifejtetem nekik, hogy egy vizsga nem csak egy vizsga papír, hanem ezzel azt fogja magának is bizonyítani, hogy igenis ő képes mondjuk egy olvasás vizsgán egy olvasott szövegben úgy eligazodni, hogy az megér egy papírt, tehát ilyen szempontból fontos, igazából ez” (Daniella)

„szoktam noszogatni őket, hogy jó lenne, hogyha ha vizsgáznának. Tényleg. Tehát ez ilyen félévi elbeszélgetéskor, félévi értékelésekkor mindig megkérdem, hogy mi, mit akarnak csinálni vagy ugye itt a 19-20 éves korosztálynál, hogy merrefelé mennek és akkor tényleg így próbálom mondani nekik, hogy sokkal jobb lenne, ha még most, amíg még nem dolgoznak addig próbálnának valami papírt is szerezni a tudásról, mert sokkal egyszerűbb lenne” (Ernesztina)

„valószínűleg magammal együtt, hogy nekem is kéne ebben [fejldni], hogy látni, nem azt mindig, hogy ez se ment, az se ment, hanem hogy ezt már meg tudják csinálni, vagy

visszamatni egy fejezet végén, hogy mennyi mindent megtanultunk. És akkor ők is, nekik is lenne valami olyan érzésük, hogy na hát, valamit megcsináltunk. [...] ez olyan mint tanulni tanítani. Vagy célt felállítani tanítani. Vagy fogalmaz meg minden héten valamit, hogy mit akarsz elérni, és akkor hétvégén visszatérni rá, megcsinálta, nem csinálta, miért nem csinálta, miért csinálta meg. [...] valószínűleg egyértelmű, hogy lenne célelés vagy célkitűzés és [...] megoldása között korreláció” (Cecília)

„Akkor nagyon kiemelek valamit, és nagyon megdicsérem, ami nem objektív értékelés, egyszerűen egy továbblendítés talán” (Daniella)

„Amikor félév meg év végi jegy van, akkor mindig rászánok egy órát arra, vagy kettőt, [...] hogy személyesen megbeszéljük a jegyeket, hogy milyen jegyei voltak, hogy ő hogy érzi hogy hányas lenne, fejlődött, nem fejlődött” (Cecília)

„Utána arra [hajtanak], hogy jövőre még jobb legyen, vagy legalább ilyen, tehát általában mindig nagyon jókat írok róluk, kicsit túl jókat is az első körben, és utána megjíjednek, hogy hát ehhez fel kell nőni, és akkor muszáj, hogy ne adjak lejjebb” (Daniella)

„mindenképpen magasabb, tehát mint, annál, mint amit ők gondolnak magukról, magasabb célt tűzök eléjük és magasabb célt mondok nekik, hogy én azt gondolom, hogy neki meglehet, és meglepődik, és annyira pozitívan meglepődik, hogy elkezd mint a güzü teperni” (Daniella)

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5.4.1

„olyan állapotba hozom őket, hogy érdekelje őket, hogy mit tanulnak, maga a nyelv, meg a mögötte levő minden” (Annabella)

„amivel én bátorítani, lelkesíteni tudom, vagy kedvet tudok csinálni, vagy segíteni tudok neki, azzal mind motiválok” (Boglárka)

„őket sikerhez meg célokhoz eljuttassam [...] megmozgatni, hogy ő akarja csinálni és ne az, hogy most én itt állok, mint a tevehajcsár, hogy csinál már, csinál már, valami olyasmit, hogy az ő akarataukra vagy vágyukra hatni [...] olyan izgalmakat vinni a nyelvtanulásba, ami ezt segíti elő, hogy ő akarja, hogy csinálja” (Cecília)

„hogy kedvük legyen tanulni, és fontosnak tartsák azt, hogy ők tanulnak” (Daniella)

„hogy elérjük azt, hogy legyen kedve használni, tehát egyrészt, hogy otthon leüljön és megtanuljon szavakat vagy legyen kedve egyáltalán foglalkozni az anyaggal, legyen kedve bejönni órára [...] [motiváltam, ha] nekem sikerült valamilyen módon elérni azt, hogy akár előtte nem szerette és megszerette vagy nem akart járni, de most jár, eddig nem ment és most már megy, tehát akár az által, hogy sikerélményt adtam neki, vagy kapott valamit, valami pozitív visszajelzést vagy akármilyen, amit miatt így átlendül és jól fog csinálni valamit” (Ernesztina)

„ehhez nem vagyok elég tudatos. Nincs szerintem. Nincs [motivációs stratégiám].” (Daniella)

„az évek tapasztalata [...] ilyen szituációkra reagálás” (Ernesztina)

„nem tudom azt végrehajtani, amit elvárnak tőlem [a könyvek és módszertanok] [...] csinálok valamit, csak nem azzal a céllal, hogy én most motiválni fogok” (Boglárka)

„nem vagyok tudatában az ilyen motivációs módszereknek” (Cecília)

„annyira motiválva vannak, hogy konkrét egyes feladatokra, vagy egyes órárészekre való motiválás fölösleges. Nekem az egész egy blokk.” (Daniella)

5.4.2

„mindig megbeszéljük, hogy az angol nélkül nem [megy]” (Annabella)

„ahogyan órán beszél hozzánk, mindig úgy, hogy tudja, hogy mi leszünk a jövő generációja [...] mindig azt mondja, hogy ha megtanulunk angolul, akkor az életben több problémánk nem lehet [...] erről a tanárnővel sokat beszélgettünk” (Buda)

„ő el szokta mondani, hogy szükségünk van rá” (Brigi)

„szerintem az fontos, hogy a hibázás nem negatív dolog. Tehát ezt próbálok bennük tudatosítani, hogy a hiba az a tanulási folyamat része, [...] és hogy én abszolút nem haragszom rá [...] és ha mások kiröhögik akkor megmondom, hogy ez nem, nagyon nem szép dolog” (Ernesztina)

„én ezt ki szoktam mondani nekik, hogy hát mások vagytok, mások az igények, most egyszer ilyet csinálunk, egyszer olyat. Most te csináld meg ennek a kedvéért, máskor meg más a más kedvéért” (Cecília)

„sokszor szoktam mondani, amikor tudom, hogy ez nem lesz valami túl izgalmas, hogy ez egy nagyon fontos dolog, vagy [...] mindig elmondom nekik, hogy én ezt nagyon szeretem” (Cecília)

„próbálok a lelkükre hatni” (Boglárka)

„mondja, hogy benne vagyunk a legjobbak közt” (Buda)

„erről a tanárnővel is sokat beszélgettünk, hogy ilyen vizsgákat le kéne tenni és teljes mértékben hozzájárul és mindent beleadva segít nekem és ez jó” (Buda)

„szokott mesélni arról, hogy amikor Londonban volt, ott miket csinált, meg milyen lehetőségek vannak” (Brigi)

„ha valaki jó angoltól, tudja, hogy ez az egyetlen esélye, amit föl tud használni, és ez elég ösztönzés” (Buda)

5.5.1

„ezt szokta csinálni” (Ábel)

„otthon így egyedül is egész jól meg tudom tanulni, ha van valami, amit nem értek, akkor vagy a tanárt az órán, vagy a keresztyukámat [kérdézem meg], aki angol tanár szintű, és akkor igazából elég önálló vagyok ebben” (Ábel)

„Én nagyon szeretem egyedül is csinálni, de a keretekre nekem is szükségem van, tehát ha valamit nem értek, akkor tudjak adott illetőhöz vagy forráshoz fordulni. [...] nekem még mindig a tanár az első számú keret, hogyha valami gondom van.” (Flóra)

„Interviewer: Tehát inkább rá [tanárra] hagyatkozol a tanulásban?

Bea: Igen.

Interviewer: És ez azért van, mert nem olyan rég kezdted, vagy mert más tantárgyban is ráhagyatkozol a tanárra?

Bea: Hú, hát ez nehéz kérdés, nem tudom [...]” (Bea)

„régebben [...] teljesen az volt, hogy angol, akkor hívtam az anyukámat, hogy jöjjön segíteni [...] de alapvetően már eléggé önállóan szoktam” (Ádám)

„Nekem elég annyi, hogy a tanárnő elmondja, hogy miből lesz a dolgozat [...] nekem az úgy tökéletesen elég [a felkészüléshez]” (Buda)

„Én mindig önállóan éreztem magam, adott esetben annyira jól tudtam érezni magam, hogy zavartak az instrukciók [...] tehát hogy nekem miért kell megmondani, hogy hogy csináljak valamit [...] inkább ilyen jellegű technikai problémáim szoktak adódni, és csak arra van szükségem, arra a megoldásra, de hogy hogyan oldják meg adott kérdéseket, azt sokkal jobban szeretem egyedül kitalálni” (Flóra)

„Szerintem ez is azzal van összefüggésben, hogy megszerettem az angolt, és az órákat, amiket órán veszünk” (Ádám)

5.5.2

„elég önálló vagyok” (Ábel)

„ezt most így nem tudom [mit teszek az önállóságért]” (Bea)

„Ha nagyon szeretném, akkor igen [önálló vagyok]” (Brigi)

„tanáromnak elég annyi, ha megmondja, melyik az a rész, [amit meg kell tanulni]” (Buda)

„megpróbálom magamtól megcsinálni, amiben nem vagyok annyira biztos, azt meghallgatom a tanárnőtől először és utána megpróbálom egyedül megcsinálni” (Betti)

„nem okoz nekem gondot magamtól [csinálni] [...] ezzel magamnak segítetek tulajdonképpen. Úgyhogy elég önálló vagyok.” (Fanni)

„nekem ilyen korszakaim vannak, van amikor önállóbb vagyok, utána van, amikor nem annyira érdekel, aztán megint elkezd érdekelni és akkor önállóbb leszek.” (Adél)

„a tanár mutasson egy irányt, vagy mondja azt, hogy ebben jó vagy, ezt fejleszd” (Fanni)

„mindent rám bíztak, igazából nem is nagyon éreztem segítséget [...] kettő tanárnál tapasztaltam, hogy segítettek és utána eleresztettek, a többitől pedig azt, hogy egyáltalán nem érdekelték őket, hogy mit csinálók, hogyan oldom meg.” (Fanni)

„úgy kéne csinálni, hogy a R-t [anyanyelvi tanár] kéne rávenni arra, hogy [plussz dolgokat építsen be az órába], mondjuk ő nagyon hajlandó bármilyen változtatásra a tananyagában [...] most rájöttem, hogy arra az órára lehetne ilyeneket olvasni meg ilyeneket. Tehát ilyen plussz dolgokat, amik az angollal kapcsolatosak.” (Csaba)

„a készségeim az átlagos vagy átlagos alatt talán” (Fanni)

„van, amikor egészen el tudok keseredni a saját angol tudásom felett” (Flóra)

„Főleg akkor van gond, hogyha maximalisták [a szülők], a gyerek nagyon szorgalmas, borzasztóan dolgozik, még kicsi, tehát még azért – és azt látja, hogy ő nagyon sokat dolgozik, [...] de egyszerűen nem jön ki belőle több. És akkor ő még nem érti.” (Annabella)

„Lehet, hogy nem [fogja fel, hogy nem érti], lehet, hogy ő azt hiszi, hogy ezt értette és elrakja és rendben van, csak nem, csak annyira nem érti meg, hogy utána be tudja építeni.” (Boglárka)

„ők pontozzák a szóbeli teljesítményét a másoknak és nagyon, általában jól eltalálják, hogy hány pontot adna rá a vizsgáztató. Én úgy gondolom, hogy igen [reálisan szokták magukat értékelni]. Van egy-kettő, aki nem. De kevés.” (Annabella)

5.5.3

„mert alapvetően a diákok ebben az oktatási rendszerben nincsenek ehhez hozzászokva. Tehát el lehetne kezdeni ezzel kísérletezni és lehet, hogy majd egyszer; iszonyú energiát visz el, az ember azt hinné, hogy majd ha ők eldöntik, akkor sokkal kevesebb munka [de] sokkal több munka. És mondom, kevés az idő rá, tehát nagyon sokszor érzek kísértést rá, hogy nagyon belemenjünk, de fizikailag nem.” (Annabella)

„például meg lehetne próbálni, hogy megkérném a diákokat, hogy mit gondolnának, hogy ha ezt az anyagot vesszük, akkor milyen típusú feladatok legyenek, vagy készüljenek ők fel, vagy érettségi témakörökkel kapcsolatban készüljenek fel, mondjuk azt most is csináljuk, mondjuk van egy téma és a nyelvvizsgára a kérdéseket nekik kell összegyűjteni és a hozzávaló szóanyagot, egy-egy diák, ők döntik el, hogy melyiket választják és akkor össze kell szedni, hogy melyikkel találkoznak nyelvvizsgán.” (Annabella)

„vannak olyanok, akik sokkal önállóbban tanulnak, vagy mondjuk kitalál magának feladatokat, vagy akár könyveket és általában ezek azok az emberek, akik nagyon elhatározottak, eltökéltek valami felé, hogy mit akar elérni. [...] és mondjuk most azt tűzte ki célul, hogy egy angol könyvet lefordít magyarra.” (Cecília)

„a nagyja a gyerekeken múlik, és az, aki önálló akar lenni, aki tényleg szeretné, tehát a siker, az eredmény azon múlik, hogy ő önállóan mennyit tud hozzátenni.” (Boglárka)

„amikor meg nagyon különböző [szinten vannak], akkor meg abszolút türelem kell, tehát amíg az egyikkel foglalkozom, addig a másik valami mast csinál önállóan, tehát ez így feltételez valamelyes önállóságot.” (Ernesztina)

„Mindig azt tanították, hogy a tanár motivál... nekem kell nyilvánvalóan, csak ezzel nem tudok, nem tudom azt végrehajtani, amit elvárnak tőlem. Tehát, amit a könyvek szerint elvárnak tőlem.” (Boglárka)

„Van egy rendes óramenet, ő [a tanár] ahhoz tartja magát, hogyha itt túl nagy jogok kerülnek a diákság kezébe, itt arra értem, ha túl nagy beleszólás van, akkor abból csak káosz lesz. Én úgy gondolom, hogy akkor nem lehet úgy haladni abszolút.” (Csenge)

„a diákok ebben az oktatási rendszerben nincsenek ehhez hozzászokva” (Annabella)

„mindenki [a diákság] megszokta azt, hogy megmondják neki, hogy mit csináljon” (Flóra)

„az emberek [a diákok] megszokják, hogy taszigálják őket.” (Flóra)

„ez azt tudja eredményezni, amikor önálló munkára bízotod az embert, hogy nem hajlandó továbbra sem [megcsinálni a feladatot] és mással próbálja meg [megoldatni].” (Flóra)

5.5.4

„Interviewer: És ez az activity box hogy működik?”

Annabella: Ez úgy működik, nem tudom melyik órán, lehet, hogy ezt nem látta, ez a Cambridge English for Schools, abból a könyvből van, gyakorlatilag vagy nyelvtani, vagy szóanyagra azt mondom a gyerekeknek, hogy akkor most írjanak feladatokat és akkor úgy kell megcsinálni a lapot, hogy A6-os lapon az egyik oldalon van a feladat, másik oldalon a megoldás és akkor azt összegyűjtjük és a dolgozat előtt, amikor összefoglalunk, ők maguk kiértékelik, hogy szerintük melyik az, amit tudnak, melyik az, amit nem, kirakom az asztalokra és akkor ők odamennek és válogat, hogy ő az egyik nyelvtani formát vagy szóanyagot vagy mindegyikből. Elmegy, megoldja, megnézi a másik oldalon, hogy megvan-e a megoldás, utána visszateszi és megy a következő asztalhoz.

Interviewer: Azt hiszem házi feladatnak adta.

Annabella: Igen, és akkor azt begyűjtöm, mert például ebben a hatodikban kiadtam egy régiit, mert nem tudtam átnézni, mert ugye megint ez a – hogy beadják és akkor az egészet át kéne nézni. Volt, hogy nem néztem át és beadta a gyerek, hogy valami itt nem tetszik neki, ezt ő nem úgy írta, tehát ez is iszonyú munka, hogy az ember 60 feladatlapot átnéz, hogy jó vagy nem jó. És akkor behozom a régiéket, és azt mondja, hogy hú, ezt a bátyám írta, ezt a nővérem, ezt az ismerősöm, de ezek jópofa dolgok, de mondom, ez is idő.” (Annabella)

„alapvetően az a cél, hogy önállóságra neveljük őket” (Boglárka)

„tanulási stratégiákat nyilván kell nekik tanítani [...] én vittem már tesztet, ilyen hagyományos pszichológiai tesztet angol órára is, amikor úgy éreztem, hogy valami gond van a szótanulással [...] volt már olyan is, hogy ilyen pszichológiai tesztet kiderült, hogy nem olyan módszerrel tanult, ami hozzá való lenne” (Boglárka)

„nagyon sok mindenre emlékszem, ami nekem nehézséget okozott annak idején [...] föl szoktam hívni olyan problémákra a figyelmüket, amikről tudom, hogy én belefutottam annak idején [...] és arra is rájöttem, hogy ha valaki nekem egy valamit, egy mondatot mondott volna annak idején, akkor nem lett volna probléma. És ilyesmikre szoktam kitérni. Arra szoktam nagyon sokszor visszakanyarodni” (Boglárka)

„Mutatok nekik tipikus hibákat, elmondom, hogy mire figyeljenek és akkor már nem tud belefutni. Meg én nem értek egyet azzal, [...] hogy hibázni rossz. [...] Én meg pont azt gondolom, pont azzal szoktam őket megnyugtatni, hogy hibázni jó, mert abból tudunk tanulni” (Boglárka)

„van akinél évek múltán esik le [...] azt gondolom, hogy ezek a 45 percek, egy-egy feláldozható ilyesmi érdekében, ha már egy gyerek utána ügyesebben tud, magabiztosabb lesz tőle, hogy tudja, hogy álljon neki [...] már megérte” (Boglárka)

6.5

„szeretem, ha bevállalnak olyasmiket, ami még túl nehéz nekik, vagy sokat kell kaparni érte.” (Daniella)