

Improving pupil motivation for second language acquisition at KS4 via teacher response to the pupil voice

Zoë Hunter

A Research & Development Project

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate teacher strategies for improving pupil motivation, and the strategies which pupils themselves employ to self-motivate, in particular investigating the motivation of two year 11 classes at a high-achieving, selective, rural full-boarding school. A thorough review of the literature was carried out and used as the basis for the investigative measures of the project. Namely, Dörnyei and Csizér's 1998 research on the 'Ten commandments for motivating language learners,' Gardner's 1985 Attitude/Motivational Test Battery, and Pintrich's 1991 Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire. These instruments were adapted for use on a much smaller scale and combined to give a detailed understanding of the strategies which teachers value for motivating pupils, pupils' views on these same strategies, and pupil motivational levels and learning strategy use. A new 'Ten commandments' was compiled then tailored to the motivational needs of my school and pupils based on teacher responses and pupil ratings. Due to the global pandemic, investigations on the impact of implementing these strategies on pupil motivation was not possible, but the pupil ratings were supported by the findings in the AMTB/MSLQ part of the pupil questionnaire which found that pupils are largely instrumentally oriented, extrinsically motivated, and demonstrate low levels of trait anxiety. Pupils also self-rate effort as high, demonstrate high levels of self-efficacy beliefs, and largely display growth mindset traits. However, there is scope to improve their use of learning strategies, particularly their use of peer learning strategies and metacognitive self-regulation, suggesting that an explicit teaching intervention of these strategies would be beneficial.

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Introduction

Rationale

The national context

This study focuses on raising students' motivation for language learning in the context of instructed language learning at a secondary school in England. Motivation plays an integral role in second language acquisition, a skill which requires sustained effort yet lacks a final 'end point' of achievement – no matter how good you are at a language, there is always something more to learn. With time required to master a language, motivation does not just consist of engagement in a single lesson, but the drive to practise and engage consistently – little wonder then that languages are viewed as 'difficult,' (British Council, 2020, p.16) and numbers at GCSE in MFL are languishing (idem, p.5).

Low uptake is indicative of the current mood towards languages – a third of respondents to the Languages Trends survey 2018 said that Brexit was negatively impacting attitudes to language learning, and in 2019 nearly half of responding state schools found Brexit a challenge to providing quality language teaching (British Council, 2020, p.2). The decoupling of AS and A Level, where the syllabi are no longer aligned enough to teach together, has compounded the low uptake at A Level, and the General Secretary of the Association of School and College Leaders, Geoff Barton, remarks on the increasing challenge of recruiting MFL teachers 'in the context of Brexit because schools rely heavily on being able to recruit staff from EU countries,' (Lough, 2019, para.15).

Furthermore, '[i]n 2016, Ofqual analysis found that French, German and Spanish were among the five hardest of the 30 significant entry GCSEs, along with Latin and business studies,' (Lough, 2019, para.8), and with added difficulties of consistently high grade boundaries, it is unsurprising that entries for GCSE MFL have dropped by over a third from 2005 to 2019 (British Council, 2020, p.5). According to the Association of School and College Leaders,

students are ‘completely demoralised’ by the severe grading (ASCL, 2019). With reference to new GCSEs – language and otherwise – 98% of school leaders said that the new GCSEs were harder than the new specification with ‘80% [of school leaders] saying that students with lower prior attainment are detrimentally affected, and 79% saying the new qualifications are causing higher levels of student stress,’ (ASCL, 2019). Furthermore, ‘Ofqual accept that there is statistical evidence of severe grading: pupils with the same prior attainment have been getting on average a lower grade in French, German and indeed Spanish than in subjects such as History and Geography,’ (British Academy *et al.*, 2020).

As pointed out by one school leader, ‘challenge is good, we all thrive on challenge, but when you have exams taken by all 16 year-olds but designed only for the brightest, you leave a lot of children demotivated and demoralised,’ (ASCL, 2019). The ASCL’s (2019) research goes on to find that 73% of the school leaders who responded thought that the difficulty of the new GCSE languages specification was putting pupils off taking modern foreign languages, and French, Spanish and German featured in the top 5 GCSE qualifications perceived as the most difficult.

Beyond the difficulty of achieving highly (or even moderately) at GCSE in MFL, and the lack of qualified and experienced teachers and recruitment problems faced due to the uncertainties around Brexit (British Council, 2020, pp.16-17), the perception of the value of languages are low. ‘Global English’ – that is, the perception that ‘everyone speaks English’ forms another barrier to the uptake of foreign languages. However, there is some truth in Roberts *et al.*’s claim that ‘monolingualism is the illiteracy of the twenty-first century,’ (2018, p.116): it is estimated that the UK’s language deficit costs the UK economy up to £48 billion a year in bilateral national trade (Foreman-Peck and Wang, 2014, p.35), so encouraging the uptake of further language study is key throughout UK education.

This is a view supported across a wide-range of industries: a report created in collaboration by the British Academy, the Academy of Medical Science, the Royal Academy of Engineering and

the Royal Society, *Languages in the UK: A Call for Action* (2019, p.6) recognises that, 'attitudinal change is needed which shifts away from a model that sees a few people as good at languages and most people as bad, towards a model of a spectrum of linguistic competence.' This phrasing betrays an underlying systematic problem – as a nation, we are so demotivated in our language learning that we conceive of it very much in terms of attainment. Forget communication, cross-cultural relations, international understanding, cultural enrichment – you are either good at them or you are not! Of course, a framework for a spectrum on linguistic competence already exists in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, a scale of A1 to C2, basic user to proficient user. And of course, anyone who can say that they are rubbish at languages is using *language* (which they learnt from scratch!) to express their incompetence with language. Yet if we are going to have competent, confident, foreign language-speaking adults, we need to start with confident, foreign language-speaking children. If we want classes full of A-Level language pupils, we need those pupils at GCSE to be motivated enough to carry on – and we need pupils to choose languages as a GCSE option in the first place.

School

Within my school, a selective and high-achieving co-educational independent secondary boarding school, language uptake is declining, with A Level numbers decreasing by 20% from 2015 to 2020, and GCSE numbers from by 15% over the same period. While it is true that the independent sector has been affected less than the state sector in uptake at GCSE (British Council, 2020, p.13), the decline at A Level is noticeable (British Council, 2020, p.14). As of September 2019, languages are now a fully-fledged 'optional' subject at the school – a recent change from being a core subject from which a few pupils may be disapplied when it is considered to be in the best interests of that individual – and the impact on uptake is marked. The positive from this is that all pupils studying a language at KS4 have, in theory, chosen to be there, so there is a possibility to harness this enthusiasm and garner motivation to carry on languages from the majority of the class.

With this in mind, I view motivation as key in enthusing pupils and encouraging them to want to study languages for longer. Moreover, as Dörnyei and Skehan (2001, p.589) state, 'foreign language aptitude and motivation, have generated the most consistent predictors of second language learning success.' We know that motivation has a huge impact on success in languages – whether you are measuring that in exam results or continued language learning.

Aims

In order to improve pupil motivation for second language acquisition at Key Stage 4, the aims of this research are to:

- Better understand how teachers perceive the importance of different motivational strategies in the foreign language (L2) classroom, creating a 'ten commandments for motivating language learners' specific to my school.
- Investigate how pupils perceive the utility of the motivational strategies their teachers use, adjusting the ranking of the 'ten commandments' to reflect pupil views.
- Assess whether the strategies that teachers employ actually have an impact on pupils' motivational levels.
- Investigate how pupils perceive their own motivation, and what contributes, in their mind, to increasing their motivational levels.

Literature Review

What is motivation and what is its relevance in education and in second language acquisition (SLA)?

Within Gardner's Socio-Educational model, motivation is defined as "referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner, 1985, p. 9). According to Gardner's definition within this model, motivation has four components: 1) a goal, referring to the learner's reasons for studying the second language; 2) an effortful behaviour, 3) a desire to attain a goal, and 4) favourable attitudes toward learning the second language.

Although not the first piece of research to do so, motivation was linked to achievement in second language acquisition in 1959 in Gardner and Lambert's seminal study, *Motivational variables in second-language acquisition*, and it has continued to be a key component in second language acquisition research. In general terms, motivation stems from the stimulus which prompts us to act (or not act). Largely, these stimuli are considered to be *intrinsic* or *extrinsic* – driven from within the individual or by an external source. The many interpretations for the causes of motivation, from Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943), to Marsh and Shaverson's (1990) theories on self-concept, have been studied at length and the value of increased motivation within education is well-established. Indeed, the very first teachers' standard requires that teachers 'Set high expectations which inspire, motivate and challenge pupils' (Department for Education, 2011, p.10), establishing motivation as a key part of successful learning and teaching.

Research led by Vygotsky (1978) looks at learning as 'an inherently social activity' (Ryan *et al.*, 2012, p.443), and theories of motivation in education have a social-cognitive foundation (Lazowski and Hulleman, 2016, p.603) placing the student's self-perception within the social context of the classroom (Perry *et al.*, 2006); social-cognitive theories of motivation in educational psychology allow teachers to use strategies to encourage motivational processes

within their classrooms. Ryan (2012, p.8) discusses the fluidity of the classroom dynamic, changing ‘depending on who is in them and the interacting influences of teachers, students, and classroom activities.’ Motivation must therefore be considered *in context* – the context of the school, the classroom, and the individual. ‘No teacher can control any student’s motivation’ (Ushioda, 2012, p.17 in Cucinotta, 2019, p.455), but facilitating learners’ success in the classroom is the aim of teacher interventions on motivation, and any practices which aim to increase motivation should be considered carefully, therefore, as their impact and limitations will differ in different school settings.

We must ask ourselves, though, what impact increasing motivation actually has within an educational context. Jackson (1998, p.19) considers how ‘[s]chool effectiveness research recognises the relevance of motivational factors such as self-concept [and] attitudes to school and to learning [...] as influences on school performance and a large-scale study conducted by Lazowski and Hulleman (2016) showed that ‘[motivation interventions in education] have effected positive change in students’ educational outcomes’ (*idem*, p.602). Lazowski and Hulleman’s 2016 study researched interventions aimed at increasing pupils’ motivation and achievement, measuring whether these interventions were effective overall. The study meta-analysed ‘74 papers of 92 field studies grounded in motivation theory, accounting for 38,377 participants’ (p.624) and demonstrated overall effectiveness of the interventions on educational outcomes.

This theory, however, needs to translate into practical strategies in the classroom to facilitate learning, which is not always straightforward. In fact, Lazowski and Hulleman (*idem*, p.627) highlight teachers’ lack of research expertise necessary for the adaptation and application of emerging research principles and underline the breach between this lack of expertise and researchers’ naivety over the classroom’s complex dynamics within which teachers operate. This divergence between researchers and teachers is, however, being addressed – specifically, Dörnyei has spearheaded research into practical strategies to increase motivation in second

language acquisition classrooms (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001; Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007), which we will look at in more detail later on in the literature review.

Furthermore, research carried out by teachers in their specific contexts such as this one allows for teachers to better understand motivation within their schools and classrooms, taking into account the cultures within which they work. As Dörnyei and Csizér (1998, p.224) state, 'no motivational strategy has absolute and general value because such strategies are to be implemented in dynamically changing and very diverse learning contexts [...which...] will always interplay with the effectiveness of the strategy.'

With this in mind, it is worth pursuing research in a school-specific, even classroom-specific, setting which looks at strategy effectiveness tailored to specific pupils and teachers, in line with research results from Cheng and Dörnyei (2007, p.155), which take into account '[c]ulture-specific variables such as the learners' approach to learning, the teachers' teaching methods and ideologies as well as the contextual reality of different learning environments' which impact the efficacy of different strategies for increasing motivation.

Moreover, if this research demonstrates an increase in pupils' motivation and is easily replicable in other schools, it could be a valuable tool for teachers to ensure that pupils' motivation is taken into consideration and maximised *before* it is noticed for being deficient – as pointed out by Cucinotta (2019, p.448), '[w]ithin an educational context, the importance of motivation is often undervalued until teachers start noticing that students lack for it – which usually happens long after it has gone,' which is a trend that needs to be bucked for teachers to positively and effectively impact pupil motivation in the classroom.

Finally, Dörnyei (2003, p.17) explains that 'learners tend to demonstrate a fluctuating level of commitment even within a single lesson, and the variation in their motivation over a longer period (e.g., a whole academic term) can be dramatic.' Indeed, 'motivation undeniably changes, sometimes often and certainly over time. If we really want to understand motivation, [...] we must conceive of [it] more as processes than states,' (Larsen-Freeman, 2015, p.12). So, in

order for motivational strategies to be sensitive and relevant to a classroom dynamic, their impact needs to be reviewed regularly. For this to happen in the classroom, the measure needs to be quick and routine enough to carry out without disrupting the learning process.

Finally, Dörnyei and Ottó's (2005, p.86) Process Model of L2 Motivation recognises that different phases of motivation can be active at the same time – while a learner is achieving their original goal and reflecting upon it, they can simultaneously be setting their next aim, and setting out on a new one, so their motivation level can be varied at the same moment in time, depending on which phase we are considering.

Existing research on motivation with reference to second language acquisition

In each of the most celebrated theories of motivation in education, motivation is double-faceted, a balance between inner and outer forces of motivation. Numerous researchers have, however, established a positive correlation between motivation and successful foreign language acquisition (Fernandez-Fontecha, 2014, p.29). Ryan and Deci (2000, p.76) found that 'conditions supportive of autonomy and competence reliably facilitated [intrinsic motivation]', implying that teachers *can* influence pupils' levels of motivation, without which, 'even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula or good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement,' (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p.72).

The use of motivational strategies is clearly a key component in successful learning, and 'skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness,' (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998, p.207). In order to better understand the motivational strategies put forward to teachers by Dörnyei, in collaboration with Csizér (1998) and later Cheng (2007), it is important also to review the principal theories of motivation and various means of measuring them.

Principal theories of motivation

The socio-psychological approach: integrativeness and Gardner's socio-educational model

Integrative motivation, advocated by Gardner (1979) and Williams (1994) in particular, views the learning of language as a deeply social and cultural affair which requires a social dimension to be included for successful and meaningful instruction. Gardner's approach is based on the belief that 'students' attitudes toward the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language' (Gardner, 1985, p. 6).

An integrative approach within the classroom equates to 'cultural and intellectual values' (Dörnyei, 1990, p.69) that learners attribute to the L2 groups as learners often don't have direct contact with the L2 culture in order to interact or become members of that group. Gardner's studies were developed in a Canadian context, where learners typically have significant contact with the L2 language and culture, although Dörnyei's redefining of integrativeness in contexts without this high level of contact between the different language groups establishes an integrative approach as 'a positive interpersonal /affective disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community' (Dörnyei, 2003, p.5); a 'psychological and emotional identification' (ibid.) with the L2 group.

The socio-psychological approach to L2 learning and motivation links integrative motivation with social psychology constructs of self-concept and possible- (and, in particular) ideal-selves which represents 'the attributes that a person would like to possess [...] and within this framework "integrativeness" can be seen as the L2-related attributes of the ideal self.' (Dörnyei, 2003, p.6). The idea of possible and ideal selves is further reinforced through Schumann's research on the neurobiology of L2 motivation (2010, p.246), whose research finds that the more the event of second language learning is compatible with the self- and social image which Schumann explores, the higher motivation is likely to be for the individual to be incentivised by second language learning.

An *integrative* orientation to L2 learning involves a positive identification process with native speakers of the target language whereas an interest based in practical and functional purposes, an *instrumental* orientation, has a lesser correlation with second language learning achievement (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, p.198) and with levels of motivation. Masgoret and Gardner's study used three achievement measures – self-ratings, objective tests, and grades – in correlation with the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, and the authors (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003, p. 205) also found that motivation itself has the greatest correlation with achievement when compared with integrative and instrumental orientation, attitudes to the learning situation and integrativeness. Masgoret and Gardner's study goes on to find that 'motivation is more highly related to second language achievement than either of the other four variables' and is 'not moderated to any great degree by the availability of the language in the immediate environment or by the age of the learners,' (ibid.).

The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, or AMTB, is the test which Gardner designed to measure motivation and the four components of motivation: 1) a goal, referring to the learner's reasons for studying the second language; 2) an effortful behaviour, 3) a desire to attain a goal, and 4) favourable attitudes toward learning the second language. This test is, as Davidson, Guenette and Simard (2016, p.288), point out 'one of the most widely used L2 motivation tests around the world,' although they go on to explain criticisms against 'integrativeness', which 'some researchers argued to be untenable [...] in particular foreign language contexts, where a defined target language community is abstract or absent for the learner' (*idem*, p.289).

It is important therefore to remember that while Gardner's context of research has close contact between the L1 and L2 communities, Dörnyei's proposals are useful to consider in this study's context where close and regular contact with the L2 is absent. Critically, Gardner has responded to this criticism by redefining integrativeness, stating that 'the concept of integrativeness refers to an openness to identify, at least in part, with another language community,' (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003, p.172). As with the Socio-Educational model,

Gardner has reviewed the AMTB, naming the four overarching variables measured as integrativeness, attitude toward learning situation, motivation and language anxiety (Gardner, 2010).

Criticisms of Gardner's model also arise from subsequent research into second language acquisition and motivation, however, 'Gardner and his colleagues have argued that there is nothing in the model that prevents its extension to other dimensions of motivation,' (Tennant and Gardner, 2004, p.246). According to Tennant and Gardner (ibid.), 'Tremblay and Gardner (1995) have empirically demonstrated that other motivational constructs are easily integrated into Gardner's socio-educational model.' Looking at Self-Determination Theory in the below section, I will explore how Gardner's model links in with these other dimensions of motivation.

Cognitive perspectives

Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory focuses on the intrinsic and extrinsic causes of motivation; that is, whether motivation is prompted by internal or external sources. In other words, the theory proposes that the reasons for motivation differ depending on the extent to which a learner participates in any given endeavour for reasons due to their own volition.

Deci and Ryan (1985) focus on students' self-belief, looking at the relationship between their goals and values, and their achievement behaviours focusing 'on motivation as a characteristic of the individual' (Ryan *et al.*, 2012, p.443). Their Organism Integration Theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000), a sub-theory of their Self-Determination Theory (SDT), presents motivation as a continuum between intrinsic and extrinsic factors which 'investigates in detail the reactions to social environments, which contribute to different forms of motivation, and explore the permanence of each type of motivational drive,' (Blackmore, 2018, p.8), with *amotivation* at one end, moving through extrinsically motivated behaviours to *integrated regulation*, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation, and finally along to *intrinsic regulation*, motivated by

interest, enjoyment and the inherent satisfaction of acting – the most self-determined type of behaviour.

Where ‘identified regulations are congruent with the other values and needs of the individual, have been evaluated and assimilated and found in accordance with existing values’ (Blackmore, 2018, p.8), as educators, we should be aiming to move our pupils up the continuum towards integrated regulation. While we cannot force each pupil to be intrinsically interested in every subject, we can look to encourage pupils by fostering interest and enjoyment, prompting self-determination where intrinsic interest is not (yet!) present.

Furthermore, Self Determination Theory ‘recognises that extrinsically motivated actions can also become self-determined as individuals identify with and fully assimilate their regulation’ (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 74). So as educators, we *can* ‘promote a love of learning and children’s intellectual curiosity’ (Department for Education, 2011, p.11) – developing pupils’ intrinsic motivation to study by developing greater self-awareness within our pupils, instilling a sense of importance toward the subject matter and aligning the values of the subject with each pupils’ self. A mammoth task, but one that we should aspire to nonetheless to ‘encourage pupils to take a responsible and conscientious attitude to their own learning’ as per the Teachers’ Standards (*ibid.*).

Ryan and Deci (1985 and 1995, in Noels, Clément and Pelletier, 2001, p.425) go on to argue ‘that learners’ perceptions of their autonomy are important because these perceptions support feelings of intrinsic motivation, which are central to sustained effort at the learning task’; so it is not just the stimulus to act out of personal choice, interest and enjoyment of an activity, but also the perception that one’s motivation comes from such a stimulus. This is an interesting consideration for teachers who, in order to motivate their pupils, would have to ensure that pupils feel motivated of their own accord, independently, and not just through the efforts of their teachers. This perspective on motivation is far more challenging to manipulate

perhaps than that of Gardner's socio-educational model which, by its nature, can easily consider the social dynamic of the classroom.

Ryan and Deci (2000, p.68), define self-determination theory as 'the investigation of people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs that are the basis for their self-motivation and personality integration,' and their research has led to further studies on not only people's behaviour and the causes of their behaviour, but also into the 'design of social environments that optimize people's development, performance, and well-being,' (ibid.) detailing the reactions to social environments. Clearly, here there is relevance to a classroom environment where teachers aim to maximise their pupils' potential through increased motivation and outcomes.

Self-Determination Theory has had a real impact on studies into educational motivation (Dörnyei, 2003, p.7), with Noels, Clément and Pelletier (2001) carrying out further research to marry Self-Determination Theory with existing L2 motivational research on integrative orientation. They found that 'greater perceived autonomy and competence were indicative of more identified regulation and intrinsic motivation,' (*idem*, p.431), concluding that 'the integrative orientation is most similar to the intrinsic orientation,' tying Gardner's Socio Educational model to that of Self-Determination Theory.

Not only does Self-Determination Theory fit with Gardner's Socio Educational model, but it also provides a scale for teachers to use, considering where pupils fit from amotivation, through extrinsic motivation, and to intrinsic motivation. By considering the perceived locus of causality for pupil behaviour, and their regulatory processes, we can consider where pupils lie on the continuum and observe whether their behaviour is becoming more self-determined and their motivation more internalised. This allows us to examine pupils' motivational direction before waiting to pick up on a problem with pupils' motivation, and actively strive to improve pupils' motivational behaviours: with motivation considered as a continuum, teachers aim to move students along the continuum to intrinsic motivation, or an internal locus of control.

Attribution theory

The leading theory in L2 motivation studies throughout the 1980s (Dörnyei, 2003, p.8), attribution theory, put forward by Weiner (1992), links past experiences to future success, so if we associate failure in a past experience with a fixed idea of our ability, we are unlikely to attempt the activity again. If, however, we link the failure with insufficient preparation – which is something we can change in the future – we are more likely to give the activity another go.

According to Dörnyei, 'because of the generally high frequency of language learning failure worldwide, attributional processes are assumed to play an important motivational role in language studies,' highlighting the importance of understanding attribution theory when considering L2 motivation. Certainly, in the classroom it is not unusual to hear comments from pupils about how they 'never been good at languages' (or, worse, parents with their children at a parents evening saying that they were never any good at languages so their children won't be either!) and resigning themselves to continued failure in the subject. I would go on to say, however, that this is far from unique to language learning ('I've never been any good at Maths/Science/Geography,' etc.) and the theory links well to Dweck's theories on Growth Mindset, especially her later discussions on views of failure (Haimovitz and Dweck, 2016), where the researchers attribute fixed mindset and low motivational levels to parental views on failure.

Importantly, research by Ushioda (in Dörnyei, 2005, p.80) found that two attributional patterns were involved in positive motivational thinking: '(a) attributing positive L2 outcomes to personal ability or other internal factors (e.g., effort, perfectionist approach), and (b) attributing negative L2 outcomes or lack of success to temporary (i.e., unstable) shortcomings that might be overcome (e.g., lack of effort, lack of opportunity to spend time in the L2 environment). Further research into attribution theory (Williams and Burden, 1999; Williams, Burden and Al-Baharna, 2001) has provided evidence of the significance that attributions have for L2 learners' motivation, although it is difficult for teachers to impact on this as teachers cannot change past experiences in language learning and changing a pupil's view on the reasons

for failure would require a lengthy and highly individualised intervention which would be difficult to implement with the constraints of the classroom. Furthermore, Dweck and Haimoveck's 2016 research underlined the impact that *parents'* views of failure have on pupils' attitudes to failure – and that is certainly beyond the reasonable scope of the teacher to change. It should be added, however, that the way that teachers frame messages around making mistakes in language learning and what is valued in the language learning process can have a significant impact, as well as explicit teaching of learning strategies and collaboration with students on analysing the efficacy of these strategies for individual's learning.

Goal theories and Language Anxiety

With Tremblay and Gardner's 1995 study, goal theories were linked to existing orientation theories in L2 motivation studies. Goals, or orientations, 'have always been a central feature of L2 motivation research' (Dörnyei, 2003, p.9) and Tremblay and Gardner's (1995, p.515) pivotal research unequivocally connected goal theories from psychological studies to 'orientations' from the L2 motivation; goals have since been a fruitful area of SLA research, with goal salience, the specificity of the learner's goals plus the frequency of the goal setting strategies used, being shown to have considerable impact on L2 learning (ibid.). Furthermore, the researchers recognise that interventions of goal salience would be a relatively easy measure to implement within the classroom.

The researchers also considered self-efficacy, finding that higher self-efficacy resulted in higher levels of motivation, and also examined anxiety levels within the evaluation of academic self-efficacy. Academic self-efficacy is defined as 'personal judgments of one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated types of educational performances,' (Zimmerman, 1995, p.203), that is, feelings of competence within a given academic setting, affecting the individual's autonomy and feelings of relatedness, as described in self-determination theory. Tremblay and Gardner (1995) found that a higher level of anxiety negatively impacts self-efficacy and, in turn, motivation levels.

Teachers wanting to reduce anxiety levels in the language learning environment may have a challenge on their hands, as 'French Use Anxiety and French Class Anxiety measures are conceived of as relatively stable characteristics of individuals' (ibid.), but there has been extensive research on interventions within the classroom to reduce language anxiety and its impacts. Language anxiety can have a huge impact on the success of L2 learners, and can 'have a corrosive influence on the very lifeblood of L2 learning itself – the enthusiasm and motivation necessary to engage and embrace another language other than one's own,' (Daubney, Dewaele and Gkonou, 2017, p.1), a clear incentive for L2 educators to want to address foreign language learning anxiety indeed.

Crucially to this research, Gardner's AMTB takes anxiety into account, recognising that 'it has been shown that anxiety negatively effects performance in the second language' (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p.103), and including scales of anxiety to measure its impact on motivation when learning a second language. 'For Gardner and colleagues, anxiety carried the strong possibility of interfering with motivation to learn a language,' (MacIntyre, 2017, p.14), and Tremblay and Gardner's research into goal salience, anxiety and its impact on self-efficacy and motivation found no need for 'any reconceptualization of Gardner's Socio-Educational Model,' (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995, p.517).

In light of this, the AMTB allows teachers to take measures of anxiety and of goals and consider their impact on motivation, and to then consider appropriate interventions to increase motivation by decreasing anxiety and encouraging goal use. We will look at the AMTB as a measure of motivation later in this section.

A process-oriented approach to L2 motivation

A process-oriented approach to L2 motivation takes motivation and considers also the element of time. That is, motivation is not fixed, but dynamic and with a temporal variation, (Dörnyei, 2005, p.38). The models of a process-oriented approach investigate these short- and long-term fluctuations in students' motivation in learning a second language.

With language learning being a lengthy process, motivation varies and even the objective of motivation varies – one’s motivation in starting a language will be quite different from one’s motivation in persisting in studying a language, and different again for one’s motivation in deciding to start the language in the first place (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.121).

Ushioda (1996, 2001) also emphasized that when it comes to institutionalized learning, the common experience appears to be motivational flux rather than stability, which highlights the “notion of a temporal frame of reference shaping motivational thinking” (Ushioda, 1998, p. 82, in Dörnyei, 2005, p.83).

Measures of motivation

As the president of the British Educational Research Association, Gary McCulloch writes, ‘[r]esearch related to education is varied and complex, rarely amenable to precise measurement or given to all-encompassing solutions to its many challenges,’ (British Educational Research Association, 2018, p. iv). Furthermore, with motivation established as a dynamic and multifaceted construct, measurements of motivation in an educational setting are not only complex, but rife with potential tensions where the taking of measurements risks disengaging and frustrating students. Kimura (2003, p.78) highlights the dynamic nature of L2 learning motivation in the classroom, ‘a compound and relative phenomenon situated in various resources and tools in a dynamic classroom context,’ (ibid.). With this in mind, this research looks at both self-reported and observed indicators of motivation.

Ainley and Ainley (2019, p.670) discuss different measures of motivation, from self-reported responses to items, on-task indicators of responses to individual tasks, to observations by others, confirming self-reporting measures as the most common. A combination of these types of measurement allows for a less onerous self-reported measure. As Kosovich, Hulleman and Barron (2019, p.714) write, ‘[s]ituational constraints in educational settings and applied research often limit how much, if any, information can be collected about students’

motivation,' which is why a combined approach will allow for a wider picture representing the classroom situation.

I will discuss a number of well-established measures of motivation, before explaining how I will combine these in this research later on in the methodology.

Attitude/motivation test battery

The attitude/motivation test battery (AMTB) is a 'useful self-report instrument' (Dörnyei, 2005, p.71) which allows learners to report back their motivation and for 'teachers to gather data on their own students' level of motivation and to test their own hypotheses about the motivational value of particular types of teaching methods and learning activities,' (Tennant and Gardner, 2004, p.259) and to predict achievement using measures beyond only those of aptitude (Gardner and Glikman, 1982, p.192).

The full AMTB is made up of over 130 items, divided into constituent scales (appendix 1) and assesses all of the key components in Gardner's theory of the integrative motive, language anxiety, parental encouragement and instrumental orientation (Dörnyei, 2005, pp.70-71). Assessing both motivation and motivated behaviour, the AMTB has strong predictive validity regarding traditional learning outcomes such as course grades. However, it is a time-consuming test to administer which makes it difficult to administer repeatedly without fatiguing the learners and fitting in with the constraints of lesson and course time. As such, the mini-AMTB, an 11-item test battery which assesses the same attributes as the full-scale test battery, has been developed and tested, with Tennant and Gardner designing and reviewing a computerized mini-AMTB in 2004 based on earlier versions of the mini-AMTB (appendix 2). It 'has demonstrated highly acceptable levels of convergent and discriminant validity,' (Tennant and Gardner, 2004, p.247), and has the advantage of being far more user-friendly in class, ideal for younger learners in a school setting.

Masgoret, Bernaus and Gardner (2001) also developed a mini-AMTB for children, testing its validity on Spanish children aged 10-15 learning English at an intensive language course. The

mini-AMTB for children was expanded to include 16 items, with the additional items of: desire to return to the programme, persistence, participation in the programme, desire to live in an L2-speaking country, and parental encouragement.

The computerised mini-AMTB used two separate measures: two graphic representations of thermometers for measuring motivation and anxiety (named a motometer and an anxometer), and aggregate scores from ten items using a 7-point scale (appendix 3). Appendix 4 shows the survey items in the mini-AMTB questionnaire using a 7-point scale (from Tennent and Gardner, 2004, p. 253).

The motometer and the anxometer measured state variables using 10 levels. As with the full AMTB, motivation strongly correlates with integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation in the results of the mini-AMTB for children (Masgoret, Bernaus and Gardner, 2001, 290) and with the computerized mini-AMTB (Tennent and Gardner, 2004, p.255). Trait motivation, measured through the questionnaire items ‘attitude to learning French’, ‘desire to learn French’, and ‘motivational intensity,’ also has a strong correlation with State Motivation, measured on the motometer. The measure for state motivation can also be easily repeated throughout the year – indeed, Gardner and Tennant carried this assessment out in a further study in 1998 (Gardner and Tennant, 1998, in Tennant and Gardner, 2004, p.256). Trait Anxiety and State Anxiety showed a similar pattern of correlation (ibid.).

Gardner’s AMTB is a foundational measure in motivation and language learning and the mini-AMTB, shown to be comparable to the long form of the AMTB, is a far less intrusive method of gathering data on variables contributing to student motivation, reducing student fatigue and practical obstacles in repeating the measurements throughout the year.

Observable learning behaviours

Willingness to communicate (WTC)

Willingness to communicate in a second language is defined as ‘a readiness to enter into discourse at a specific time with a specific person or persons, using an L2’ when free to do so

(MacIntyre *et al.*, 1998, p. 547). Whilst a fairly stable trait in the L1, WTC is less so in the L2 because competence comes into play as well (MacIntyre *et al.*, 2002, p.593). Furthermore, '[s]ince the choice of whether to communicate is a cognitive one, it is likely to be more influenced by one's perceptions of competence (of which one is usually aware) than one's actual competence (of which one may be totally unaware)' (McCroskey & Richmond, 1991, p.27). That said, there are plenty of highly competent pupils who are keen to avoid communication, and likewise plenty of pupils with low L2 competence who are keen to engage in L2 communication (Dörnyei, 2003, p.12) and MacIntyre *et al.* (2002, p.601) found that 'those who are most willing to initiate communication are also most motivated to learn' and that 'a significant negative correlation between communication apprehension and motivation was observed' (*idem*, p.602).

WTC comprises a number of learner variables (appendix 5), of which motivation is a key factor (MacIntyre *et al.*, 1998, p.547), which impact on second language acquisition. WTC is also well-established as a key indicator of motivation and motivation has been shown to answer for a significant level of variance in WTC (Dörnyei, 2000; Dörnyei and Kormos, 2002). A more recent study by Fallah (2014) also showed motivation to be a significant predictor of WTC the L2, in agreement with MacIntyre and Clément (1996, cited in Peng), MacIntyre *et al.* (2003) and Peng (2007; 2013).

There are a number of ways of measuring WTC. Yashima *et al.* (2016, p.124) use 'a combination of the mean length of each turn, the number of turns, and number of contributors'; self-assessment questionnaires are used by de Saint Léger and Storch (2009, p.272); and Cao and Philp (2006, pp. 482 and 491) use a tally chart of behaviours to conduct observations of students (appendix 6). The latter is most apt for this investigation as it allows to measure the frequency of communication to use in combination with other observed indicators of motivation.

Task engagement

Julkenen first introduced the concept of task engagement in L2 motivation in 1989, re-examining the questions in 2001, but Dörnyei's (2003, p.15) concept of *a task processing system* is more relevant to the assessment of motivation as an observed trait, and describes 'how task motivation is negotiated and finalized in the learner,' (ibid.). The system considers how the learner follows the action plan to carry out the task (task execution), continues to process stimuli from the environment and the progress they are making towards task completion, and whether they are on track or need to take another course of action (*appraisal*), and the self-regulatory actions which the learner uses to remain 'on task' which protect the learning-specific action (*action control*) (Dörnyei, 2003, p.16). Task motivation research is useful in 'pulling together diverse approaches within the L2 motivation field' (ibid.), and observations of task engagement a key indicator of pupil motivation.

Indicators of task engagement include: *behavioural engagement*, 'typically assessed by time on task [...] and word or turn counts,' (Lambert et al., 2017, p.668), *cognitive engagement*, where pupils engage with each other, 'evaluating ideas, directing, explaining, informing, providing justification, and asking questions,' (ibid.); and *social engagement*, as seen by learners' willingness to listen to one another,' (ibid.). Lambert et al. (2017, p.674) used a series of observations to discern learner engagement in tasks and considered the following indicators amongst others: time on task (without the need for encouragement or direction), elaborative clauses, negotiation moves, and verbal and non-verbal backchannels. These indicators are valuable in assessing task engagement in order to better understand motivation levels, and are measurable and repeatable in subsequent lessons to assess changes in motivation in tandem with the other measures outlined in this literature review (WTC and use of learning strategies as measures to be observed, and the mini-AMTB) as, '[L2] motivation can hardly be examined in a more situated manner than within a task-based framework,' (Dörnyei, 2002, p. 138).

Use of learning strategies

Learning strategies comprise of motivated learning behaviour by their very definition. Also referred to as *self-regulatory learning*, that is, ‘learners’ strategic contribution to their own learning,’ (ibid.) learning strategies are difficult to define and measure (Skehan and Dörnyei, 2003, p.608), so for the purposes of this research, I will take *learning strategies* to refer to ‘behaviours or actions’ (Oxford, 1989, p.235) excluding mental processes. Oxford (1989, p.236) lists 6 areas that good language learners use to manage their own learning (appendix 7), and I will use the observable areas for the lesson observations.

Whilst initially critical of learning strategies, Dörnyei has gone on to draw significant parallels between language learning strategies and self-regulation (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). The ambiguity over what language learning strategies are does, however, present some issues in using language learning strategies to assess learner motivation. Oxford (1999, p.518) has gone on to refine her definition of language learning strategies as ‘specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language.’

However, as Dörnyei (2005, p.164) points out, this definition leaves a key issue open: the difference between *language learning* and *language learning strategy use* is unclear, and so language learning strategies’ defining features are not distinct and precise. Subsequent definitions by O’Malley and Chamot (1990), Grenfell and Harris (1999) and redefinitions by Oxford (1993; 1999) have failed to create a more concrete framework for language learning strategies, although the list of strategies is a useful reference point for training. Consequently, *strategy training* has become a fruitful area for educators as, while these strategies lack definition for research, they do have educational value as a list of good practices for learners to consciously develop and recourse to.

According to Dörnyei (2003, p.17), ‘Learning strategies are techniques that students apply of their own free will to enhance the effectiveness of their learning. In this sense, strategy use —

by definition — constitutes instances of motivated learning behavior'. Although it is true that 'learners tend to demonstrate a fluctuating level of commitment even within a single lesson,' (ibid.), observing learners' learning behaviours allows teachers to assess learners' motivation levels and look at how 'motivational features affect learners' various learning behaviors during a course, such as their increased WTC in the L2, their engagement in learning tasks, or their use of learning strategies,' (*idem*, p.22). McCardle and Hadwin's 2015 research used observation alongside self-reporting methods to assess learners' motivation, albeit on a very small scale, combining methods to obtain an in-depth picture of their specific context.

Learners' strategies can be *self-motivating strategies* or *language learning strategies*; that is, strategies that the learner employs to maintain or improve their own motivation, or strategies that the learner actively chooses to employ in order to improve their own language learning. The strategies can also encompass metacognition, 'both the knowledge we have about the process of learning and our ability to put that knowledge into practice as we regulate how we learn,' (Pelton, 2014, p.277).

Language learning strategies, as studied by Pintrich in 2004, are delineated within a framework of self-regulated learning (SRL) reflecting goal setting, monitoring, control, and regulation processes (Pintrich, 2004, p.389, appendix 8).

While Pintrich (2004, p.389) does recognise that observation may not always be able to reliably distinguish these phases, he does point to think-alouds and self-report questionnaires as tried-and-tested instruments to collect data from participants, albeit with difficulty in separating the phases out. Pintrich's research saw a decade of development of a Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) which looks at the regulation of cognition, motivation and affect, and context, offering a framework of types of self-regulatory strategies and a 'blueprint for the future development of assessment instruments,' (ibid, p.400), although Pintrich himself goes on to highlight some of the pitfalls of these measures, such as their inability to pick up on the cognitive events or tactics used by students.

Pintrich's MSLQ has been used extensively to research both motivation and learning styles. and has two sections – the motivation section to measure students' goals and value beliefs, and a second section containing items regarding students' use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and items concerning students' management of different resources (Pintrich et al., 1991, p.2). These are used to represent 15 scales that can be used together or individually according to the needs of the researcher (*idem.*, p.3).

One of its merits is that it was designed with the premise of giving feedback to pupils – the manual comprises of feedback forms for the participants for 9 out of the 15 scales (*idem.*, pp.51-60) which, while worded appropriately for older participants, include clear explanations and actions for participants. This makes it ideal for working with participants in an intervention to improve and measure motivation over time. As Pintrich and Johnson write, learners are hindered by 'two problems – lack of knowledge about appropriate learning strategies and lack of motivation to use them,' (Pintrich and Johnson, 1990, p.83). In fact, Pelton researched whether teaching about learning results in students reporting greater use of self-regulatory behaviours using the MSLQ and found a positive effect on student motivation (Pelton, 2014, p.278), and although this is another non-language specific study, this is still highly relevant to any discipline.

Hwang and Lee highlight that the 'lack of a needed SRLL [(self-regulated language learning)] student assessment tool has been a barrier to merging SLA with SRL,' (Hwang and Lee, 2019, p.544). However, the MSLQ is well-established and has been shown to be easily applied to language learning (MacIntyre et al., 2001, p.461; Duncan and McKeachie, 2005, p.117), whereas language specific measures, such as the Regulatory Control Scale for Language Learning (SRLang scale) (Tseng et al., 2017), have been criticised for limitations of their psychometric quality and the SRLL sub-components which they cover (Hwang and Lee, 2019, p.544). Furthermore, they cover only learners' cognition and not motivation. Research attempting to measure SRL skills in the context of SLA has typically focused on the realm of cognitive and metacognitive regulatory strategies, leaving motivation and emotions aside (*idem.*, p.557),

whereas the MSLQ, while not language specific, does cover the multidimensional human behaviours involved in SRL, and ‘these general academic SRL scales, though different for concrete SRL skills, deal with human learning behaviors from multiple aspects,’ (*idem.*, p.558).

It is clear that the most established method for measuring SRL strategies is through self-reported questionnaires (McCardle and Hadwin, 2015, p.46), largely because ‘assessing SRL requires measures that are sensitive to time, task, and metacognitive processes,’ (*ibid.*) and research takes place in authentic learning situations with its natural constraints of time. Other measures have been used, such as computer-generated traces of SRL that track participants’ actions in online material (*ibid.*), and weekly diary-style reflections (*idem.*, p.48).

In another approach, Lichtinger and Kaplan’s 2015 research involved a variety of methods, such as using traces of strategies in the students’ academic product, direct observation using a structured observation sheet, stimulated recall interview (SRI) on the engagement process using the observation as a memory prompt, and a general interview about the experience and purpose of engagement in the task, self-processes related to learning and school, and self-regulation aptitude (Lichtinger and Kaplan, 2015, p.119). However, two of the four methods used – SRI and the general interview – entail the same criticisms as self-report questionnaires, “‘social desirability’” biases in responses, over-subjectivity, inability to verbalise clearly, and low self-awareness among certain learners,’ (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995, p.2). This approach is incredibly time-consuming for both researchers and participants, raising ethical questions over use of teaching time.

McCardle and Hadwin (2015) do address the questions around self-reporting methods of data collection, pointing out that ‘understanding SRL means understanding learners’ perceptions of the ways they interpret and respond to tasks, set goals, monitor and adapt learning in the context of those inaccurate evaluations,’ (McCardle and Hadwin, 2015, p.46) – in other words, it is as important to understand the processes that are actually happening that contribute to learning strategies as it is to understand pupils’ understanding of their own strategy use.

Interventions to improve learners' motivational strategies

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), and later Dörnyei and Cheng (2007), devised and tested strategies for motivating language learners, examining their value according to teachers' motivational beliefs and practices and assessing the frequency with which teachers employed these motivational strategies. Their research is based on decades of L2 motivation research which has 'analysed and described motivational strategies' (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998, p.207), but 'the amount of research devoted to motivating learners has been rather meagre relative to the total amount of research on L2 motivation,' (ibid.).

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) and Dörnyei and Cheng (2007) recognise the overwhelming challenge faced by the average teacher in implementing the long list of strategies collected in Dörnyei's 2001 book, *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*, which compile over 100 motivational techniques.

In response to this challenge, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) evaluated 51 of these strategies, whittling this list down to a set of ten motivational macro-strategies (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998, p.203, appendix 9). Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) re-examined these ten macro-strategies under different conditions, changing the participant body from a Hungarian context to a Taiwanese context to examine the impact of a different cultural, ethnolinguistic and institutional setting on the effectiveness and worth attributed by teachers to the strategies, with the aim of better understanding how the differences in context reflect on teachers' motivational beliefs and practices (Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007, p.155). While these two contexts are far from my own, these strategies have been researched in numerous settings, from Taiwan and Hungary by Dörnyei and his colleagues, to Italy, the United States and Oman (see Cucinotta, 2019; Ruesch et al., 2012; Al-Mahrooqi et al., 2012).

While Dörnyei and Csizér's list is useful in developing techniques to increase motivation, the study 'could offer only a tentative ranking of the various motivational strategies, since teacher beliefs may not coincide with actual strategy effectiveness,' (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998, p.224),

and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007, p.155) also concede that '[c]ulture-specific variables such as the learners' approach to learning, the teachers' teaching methods and ideologies as well as the contextual reality of different learning environments may render some techniques highly effective, while others less useful.'

Cucinotta (2019) carried out a similar study to Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007), but including English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers, Foreign Languages other than English (FLOTE) teachers, and Italian as L2 teachers using a questionnaire based on Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) research, and 'investigating how teachers experience the enactment of the same motivational strategies' (Cucinotta, 2019, p.451). This is more relatable to my own context as other research is dominated by EFL. Cucinotta's findings placed the strategies in a different order to both Cheng and Dörnyei's 2007 study in Taiwan, and Dörnyei and Csizér's 1998 research, reinforcing the idea that these motivational strategies are culture specific. Results 'confirm the importance of promoting a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere and reinforce the idea that interpersonal relationships and positive classroom climate are generally regarded as cross-cultural factors that deeply influence learners' motivation' (Cucinotta, 2019, p.462), but also 'suggest that not all strategies are perceived as important, but rather their importance varies according to different contexts,' (ibid.).

The importance of the pupil voice

Understanding the classroom dynamic is essential before choosing which strategies to implement in order to motivate students, especially given that the effectiveness of strategies can drastically vary in their effectiveness across different contexts. A teacher is in a privileged position as a researcher, as they can develop a more in-depth understanding of the class simply by asking their students about their experiences and opinions. A study by Thompson (2009) looked at the impact of consultation with pupils about the curriculum, finding that 'proactive consultation, a process of encouraging pupil feedback as a basis for self-criticism and change to classroom practices through collaborative classroom relationships, had 'the potential to transform classroom activity systems,' (*idem*, p.671). Thompson found that pupils particularly

appreciated teachers who had the capacity for self-criticism (*idem*, p.678) and 'pupils themselves felt that they had made good progress in their GCSE learning as a result of this [...] approach,' (*ibid.*). The key to proactive consultation is that making it clear that pupil feedback would be acted on (*idem*, p.679), empowering pupils and adapting classroom practice to meet pupils' needs. The MSLQ fits with this theory well given that it integrates feedback into the design of the questionnaire, giving value to learners' contributions to research by offering them a personalised report on their questionnaire responses (Pintrich et al., 1991, pp.51-60).

Rudduck and McIntyre (2007, p.108) highlight that non-response to pupil feedback and consultation can even worsen relationships between teachers and pupils, as 'the lack of response can be experienced by pupils as discourteous,' (*ibid.*), underlining the importance of teacher response to pupils' opinions when they have been asked for. Pupil consultation can be a powerful agent for positive change in the classroom but can also be damaging if the approach is insincere or half-hearted. (Thompson, 2009, p.686).

Pedder and McIntyre's 2006 study on pupil consultation showed that learners showed 'awareness of how they and their peers prefer to learn and what motivates them, that higher achieving pupils expressed awareness of the perspectives that shape the practices of their teachers,' (p.145) and, although teachers' responses to pupil consultation varied, pupils valued teachers who 'engaged with their contributions seriously,' (*idem*, p.145), expressing 'the importance to their learning of a balance between teacher and pupil talk and involvement,' (*ibid.*). It is clear that even the act of consultation and response has the power for a change for the better in rapport in classrooms, but within the consultation process, there is also scope for teachers to receive feedback on very specific areas of their practice depending on the questions they ask, although the process can be an uncomfortable one for teachers (McIntyre et al., 2005).

It is worth highlighting in this section not only the value of pupil consultation, but also the premise that pupils have the right to be consulted and listened to with regards to their education (McIntyre *et al.*, 2005, p.150) according to the 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child which states that '[t]he child shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds,' (United Nations. General Assembly, 1991, p.7). This extends to education, as Freeman (1996, p.37) comments, 'the views of children are to count [in relation to] decisions ranging from education to environment.' This includes the aspects of teaching and learning at school, so pupil consultation should be more than just a cursory survey of opinions, but rather should shape teachers' choice and delivery of content, their practices, and continued teacher learning.

There are concerns, however, that the medium for pupil consultation is generally through talk, and therefore divisions can arise for those pupils less capable of articulating their needs, whether through lack of confidence or lack of expressive awareness (McIntyre, 2005, p.155).

Furthermore, there is a danger of considering the pupil voice as a singular entity, whereas each individual pupil may have their own views to express (Fielding, 2007, p.306; Arnot and Reay, 2007, p.317) so we cannot take 'pupil voice' to be a collective opinion of the student body but rather must consider the nuances in order to respond adequately and respectfully of the pupils as individuals. Postlethwaite and Haggarty's findings from their 2002 study on the pupil perspective on what motivates them confirms this: pupils 'wanted teachers to see them as individuals' (Postlethwaite and Haggarty, 2002, p.187) and that 'pupils had clear views about things which support or hinder their learning,' (*idem*, p.201) which are well worth investigating and responding to.

Summary of literature review

A review of the existing literature shows the wide range of models of motivation. Gardner's Socio-Educational Model and AMTB easily integrate other dimensions of motivation that have

arisen in subsequent research. Recent research based on the AMTB continues to shed light on different facets of pupil motivation. The AMTB allows teachers to assess the overarching variables of motivation – integrativeness, attitude toward learning situation, motivation, and language anxiety (Gardner, 2010) – which give a valuable macro-perspective on motivation in the classroom.

Ryan and Deci's (2000) Organismic Integration Theory presents a useful continuum of motivation which gives teachers a visual scale on which to measure their pupils' motivation. The aims of the National Curriculum (2001, p.11) to promote a love of learning are congruent with the scale whereby teachers aim to assist their pupils in moving up the continuum toward integrated regulation and intrinsic regulation. This continuum is also valuable in considering motivation over time in response to changes in the individual and the classroom dynamic, in line with research by Williams and Burden (1997) on how motivation varies and with Ushioda's (1996, 2001) research on motivational flux in institutionalized learning.

This *motivational flux* is all too familiar in the classroom, with learners motivated one lesson and less so the next, even fluctuating within the space of a single lesson and teachers constantly gauge levels of motivation of the whole class dynamic and of individuals to keep students engaged and interested, as highlighted by Dörnyei and Ottó's Process Model of L2 Motivation, considering the movement between setting goals, evaluating progress towards these goals during the activity, re-evaluating and re-setting goals, and the plurality of these phases co-existing within the same moment.

Furthermore, each of these phases can, in a classroom environment, be influenced by the classroom dynamic – a highly social arena with its own social goals. Teachers are already well aware of how the classroom dynamic can pitch and roll according to the agendas of the individuals in the classroom, changing or disrupting the academic motivations of individuals present, so while the process oriented approach is interesting, it opens too many doors to then drill down to individual areas for intervention practically within the classroom.

The question this variable environment does raise, however, is that of measuring motivation at different moments: a measure of motivation at one moment only captures *that moment in time*, which does not necessarily paint an accurate picture of learners' motivation levels. Repeating the measurement of motivation would allow for two things: 1) a more accurate understanding of individuals' typical levels of motivation, and 2) an understanding of any patterns of change over time or in response to interventions.

From a classroom perspective, pupils' motivation should be regularly monitored, allowing teachers to intervene on perceiving low motivation at an early stage or, ideally, pre-emptively avert waning motivation. Measuring motivation through learning behaviours such willingness to communicate (WTC), task engagement, and use of learning strategies allows for early intervention and a proactive approach towards maintaining and increasing motivation levels. Earlier intervention on motivation could positively impact students' use of learning strategies, WTC in the L2 and task engagement – which in turn would bring greater benefits from the learning opportunities available in the classroom, more positive reinforcement from teachers, and an increase in motivation *and* outcomes (as motivation has repeatedly been linked to achievement in SLA). Waiting for low attainment to flag low motivation leads to late intervention, loss of learning opportunity, and feedback on outcomes rather than process. If we as teachers then qualify this low attainment, we are reinforcing learner disengagement by valuing SLA outcomes over the language learning process, reinforcing negative responses to failure, and increasing the level of anxiety experienced by pupils as a result of that failure (Galloway, 1998, p.94).

Dörnyei's work on motivational strategies, with Csizér (1998) and Cheng (2007), has highlighted different techniques in increasing pupil motivation. In response to the highlighting of these differences between cultures, a number of other researchers have applied Dörnyei and Csizér's Ten Commandments to different cultural contexts, largely considering the strategies' perceived importance according to teachers. A number of researchers (Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007; Al-Mahrooqi et al., 2012; Guilloteaux, 2013) also examined how often teachers claimed

to use these strategies (with the inherent risk of social desirability bias in the results) while others compared the perception of these strategies according to teachers and students (Ruesch et al., 2012).

Latterly, some researchers have also looked at the impact of these strategies on student motivational levels (Alrabai, 2014; Wong, 2014), demonstrating just how fruitful this area of research has been. Cucinotta's 2019 study based on Dörnyei's motivational strategies has highlighted the varying importance in different cultures, and in light of research into the dynamic nature of classroom and school culture, and not just national culture.

In terms of measuring motivation, a variety of methods have historically been employed, with self-report questionnaires by far being the most common method (Ainley and Ainley, 2019, p.670), but Kimura's (2003, p.78) observations on the multifaceted and dynamic nature of motivation would encourage a variety of measurements. Furthermore, it is important to consider methods that will not have adverse effects by disengaging and frustrating students, so shorter questionnaires and methods of observation would be more apt. Moreover, it is clear from the research discussed on pupil voice the importance of sincerely responding to pupil feedback: Rudduck and McIntyre's (2007, p.108) research made it quite clear that non-response to pupil feedback was viewed negatively by pupils, a view which Thompson (2009, p.676) reinforced. The MSLQ measures motivation, cognitive strategies and resource management, and places emphasis on feedback to pupils, with feedback forms integrated into the design of the study (Pintrich et al., 1991, pp.51-60) which give structure and clarity to the teacher response to the pupil voice, allowing participants to clearly see that their views have been taken seriously.

There is, however, a risk with pupil consultation that those pupils who are less eloquent may be further marginalised. Teachers have a role to play in assisting pupils in both the metacognitive skills and language to express their needs for their education. A more structured form of consultation may, therefore, be appropriate so that pupils are not

marginalised and all pupils can be involved – considering carefully, though, that an overly formulaic approach may produce predictable responses from pupils who may not feel that they have been given enough agency to express their views on their learning. In allowing pupils to express feedback on motivational strategies, teachers can work with their pupils as research collaborators, where their learning happens *with* them and not *to* them, in line with Thompson's (2009) findings on proactive consultation as a process of developing collaborative classroom relationships and empowering pupils.

Regarding motivation, while pupils do not necessarily express their views in the same language, 'students' views could be understood in terms of well-established theories of motivation,' (Postlethwaite and Haggarty, 2002, p.202) and are valid in contributing to improving learning and teaching. There is a sense that this could become more useful if teachers give increased attention to enabling pupils to access the tools for metacognition (Feuerstein, 1980), allowing pupils to engage more explicitly in expressing their views on their own learning and teachers' teaching.

Research Questions

The findings in my literature review have led me to devise the following research questions:

1. How do teachers within my organisation perceive the importance of different motivational strategies in the L2 classroom?
2. What is the pupil perspective on these motivational strategies? How do pupils rank the strategies their teachers employ?
3. Does teachers' implementation of motivational strategies to which pupils assign high value have any impact on pupils' motivation?
4. What strategies do pupils use to control their own motivation?

Hypotheses

The hypotheses relate to the research I am able to carry out under the current circumstances.

After reviewing the literature, it has led me to hypothesise that teachers within my school are likely to value similar strategies to those valued by the teachers in Cucinotta's 2019 research. Culturally, the teachers in my school are closer to those in this study as opposed to those in Dörnyei and Csizér's 1998 research in Hungary and Dörnyei and Cheng's 2007 research in Taiwan, both in terms of time and geography. Furthermore, recent language teaching trends and guidance have placed an emphasis on cultural elements, giving value to the teaching of the L2 culture. That said, I also anticipate that the core strategies relating to classroom climate, identified as important in all 3 pieces of existing research, will feature in my school's 'top ten', that teachers in my school will view challenging tasks as motivating, and that teachers will place great emphasis on the importance of pupil effort.

I would also hypothesise that pupils will value their own effort – the school has taken a very proactive approach within subject areas and within 'Wellbeing' lessons in empower pupils with growth mindset, explicitly teaching the value of their own effort. This is reinforced particularly well through the Sports Department, which issues clear directives on coaching which develop pupils' approach to effort. Furthermore, the school has engaged with lifestyle coaching through

an educational coaching training provider, which gives value to pupils being able to problems independently. I anticipate this coming through in the questionnaire, although it will also be interesting to follow this up in interviews to ascertain the depth of this belief and to assess social desirability bias in this response. I anticipate that pupils will also value teacher behaviour but will perhaps value task interest more highly than teachers.

In terms of the AMTB part of the student questionnaire, I hypothesise that pupils will be highly instrumentally oriented, although I anticipate that their views on parental encouragement will be relatively low for three reasons: firstly, given the national context of language learning, the political situation with Britain leaving the EU, and the curriculum emphasis on STEM subjects, I imagine languages not to be parents' highest priority; secondly, with teenage participants, it could be that the pupils underplay the amount of encouragement they are given by their parents; and thirdly, as a boarding school (and without the confines of a school-run!), it is perhaps easier for pupils not to engage with their parents to keep them abreast of the ins and outs of their academic life. Finally, I anticipate that my results will reflect existing research using the AMTB (see Tennant and Gardner, 2004; Masgoret et al., 2001) with a positive correlation between motivation and integrativeness.

Finally, with reference to the MSLQ, I hypothesise that pupils will be more extrinsically than intrinsically motivated, and that their motivation scales will report more highly than their learning strategy use. In terms of the learning strategies, I anticipate that pupils will have a high perception of their effort regulation and strategies around time and study environment as well as high occurrence of peer learning strategies.

Methodology

Action research

Action research was first defined by Lewin in 1946 as research which results in social action, a 'continuous refinement' (Thomas, 2014, p.217) of your thinking, which is 'collaborative, responsive, democratic, developmental and capacity building,' (ibid.). It is a learning process for researchers and participants alike and bridges the gap between academics and their research, and classroom practice (Somekh, 1995, p.340).

While it is too small-scale to be generally representative, and is therefore not necessarily replicable, its value lies in the reality and practicality of its data and the macro-level detail of a study which can complement existing, established research, providing nuance and applicability that may not have existed with a larger scale and more scientifically constrained approach.

This is not to say that action research lacks rigour; indeed, while there are different conceptualisations of action research, all are grounded in the desire to improve practice through rigorous data collection and a strong body of evidence to support research (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p.344). With its focus on problem solving, action research is ideal for research within schools providing valuable insight into specific classroom contexts which contributes to a far larger body of research.

Cohen *et al.*'s 8-stage process of action research draws together several theories of undertaking. The stages are outlined as (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, pp.354-356): 1) identify and evaluate the problem which is significant in the practitioner's everyday teaching situation; 2) discuss ideas with colleagues – fellow teachers, researchers, advisors, mentors, managers – to formulate a research proposal; 3) review existing literature on the topic to be investigated; 4) modify or refine the research question if necessary; 5) select research methods and processes; 6) consider the evaluation methods to be used in the study; 7) implement the project over time; 8) interpret the data and evaluate the project. I have used these stages to direct my own research development.

Research method, a spanner in the works, and theoretical assumptions

I used a 'multi-method approach' (Robson, 1993, p.69), to address the multifaceted nature of the students and the teachers within the study. As stated by Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry (2015, p.3), 'in the social sciences, [...] the basic units of analysis are self-reflective human beings, dynamic situations tend to be so complex – and embedded in each other in such a multi-layered manner,' and within what is a small-scale study of a very specific context, a multi-layered approach would capture more nuances of the classroom dynamic and give deeper understanding of the pupils as individuals and within this setting.

Here is where it should be noted that the planned research and the actual research suffered a divergence due to the global Covid-19 pandemic. As such, I will take the route of outlining the planned process and then changes made to the research as a result of the current circumstances. I will discuss the impact of the pandemic on the research and participants within the limitations and the ethical considerations, and then will return to discuss the original methodology within the discussion and suggestions for further research.

Such a widespread and impactful event will be felt across research fields far more far-reaching than that of my own, and as such I strongly feel that I can only take the current situation at its merits – from my own perspective in this study, I consider that this research can provide a springboard to further research of my own as, effectively, an in-depth pilot study before implementing intervention cycles. Certainly, while continued work on motivation within my own context will not be assessed within the framework of the MSc, I have to consider the current situation as an opportunity to design intervention cycles which will have an impact on my teaching practice, and I can see the benefits that this will have for my pupils, my practice, and my development as a practitioner.

Method for collecting data

Overview of methodology

The method had two separate avenues of data collection, each with their own cycles. Avenue 'A', based on Dörnyei and Csizér's (1999) 'ten commandments for motivating language learners,' had the aim of identifying my school's ten most valued strategies from a teacher's perspective and engaging with the pupil voice to adapt these to suit the pupil body more pertinently, then verifying whether an adjusted approach on behalf of the teacher produced any real difference to pupil motivation. Appendix 10 gives a visual overview of avenue 'A'.

The second avenue of data collection sought to better understand levels of pupil motivation and pupil-led motivational approaches, allowing for an explicit response to pupil participation in order to value the pupil voice and their contributions. This used a combination of different methods. The first, a student questionnaire combining Tennant and Gardner's (2004) mini-AMTB and anxometer/ motometer measures, and Pintrich's (2004) MSLQ and feedback forms, looks to use well-established self-reporting methods to measure student motivation and give feedback on their responses to help garner greater awareness for self-motivating methods and learning strategies. The second used a series of observations adapted from Yashima *et al.*'s (2016) measures of willingness to communicate, to Lambert *et al.*'s (2017) tally chart of learning behaviours, and McCardle and Hadwin's (2015) structured observation sheet. Again, this avenue used a series of well-established measures to gain a deeper perspective on a small-scale context.

Teacher participants were the 5 French teachers within the languages department at my school (4 female, 1 male), teaching both full- and part-time. In using these participants, I hoped to gain an in-depth understanding of my specific teaching context and then to compare it to existing, well-established studies by Dörnyei and colleagues.

Pupil participants were two classes of year 10 (year 11 at time of writing) pupils of French in high-achieving mixed-ability classes, comprising 16 girls and 14 boys. 29 are full-time boarders,

with one day pupil. Two pupils have SEND, and the school has documented that both these pupils suffer from low academic self-esteem and raised academic anxiety.

Avenue 'A' of data collection

Cycle I

Teachers' strategy use was analysed with the focus on the importance they gave to certain strategies, with the aim of then creating a 'ten commandments for motivating language learners' specific to the school's learning context. Teachers were given Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) 51 strategies and asked to rank each one on a 7-point Likert scale in terms of its perceived importance ('not at all → 'extremely'). The questionnaire was piloted with 2 language colleagues from similar schools, and as a result, I adjusted the wording for greater clarity, then sent to my school's French department using a computer-based questionnaire (appendix I I). These were completed anonymously as there was no reason to maintain teacher identities for greater clarity within the data, and as the interest of this study is in the collective culture of my department, there was no need for individuals to be named. Furthermore, with a closed-question questionnaire, there was no likelihood of any safeguarding concerns being raised. With the research due to be discussed within department, this would also afford colleagues the confidence to respond honestly.

Data from the questionnaires was analysed using elements of Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) approach. First, the strategies were grouped into clusters by conceptual domain according to Dörnyei and Csizér's results to create a scale of related strategies. I used Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) conceptual domains, as theirs is a far larger study and these domains are well-established; the aim of this part of my study was not to look to change the macro-strategies that make up these domains, but rather to see the order of importance that teachers within my school context gave to these already established categories. The importance of these clusters was then ranked, and the top ten categories used to form my school's own version of the 'ten commandments for motivating language learners'. This list of 10 strategies was then

given to pupils to rank, to see how pupils viewed these motivational strategies, responding to the first and second research questions.

Pupils were then asked to rank the top ten strategies from the results of the teachers' questionnaire. This was to better understand the pupil perspective on the motivational strategies that teachers at my school value the most and to identify any divergence between the two perspectives. Pupils were also asked to score themselves out of 10 for their actual level of motivation in line with Tennant and Gardner's (2004) 'motometer' (appendix 12). It was important to take this measure at this early stage as I anticipated an initial rise during the class discussion phase of the strategies in cycle 2 as a result of their opinions being engaged with directly, so I wanted a base-line measure.

While this was originally planned for the end of March, this data had to be collected at the beginning of the new school year in September.

Cycle 2

Due to school closures, this phase of the research couldn't take place. Instead, I have outlined the plan for the research as planned. I will discuss this further in the limitations and plans for further research.

Following data collection from pupils, I would then present the findings in a department meeting, highlighting the similarities and the divergences between the strategies valued most by the teachers and those valued most by the pupils. Furthermore, we would discuss how these strategies would look in practice and the potential pros and cons for implementing different strategies in class. I have been fortunate that I have my department's full support for this research, so their collaboration would be invaluable in discussing how these strategies would look in practice and for brainstorming together about the anticipated impact of these strategies on pupils' motivation.

Successively, I would discuss the suggested interventions with our Head of Learning Support, both for a non-foreign language specialist's view on the strategies, using her expertise with EAL and non-verbal communication skills to enhance the discussions from my department; but

also to ensure that strategies were pertinent to the two pupils with SEND within the classes, whose levels of academic self-esteem had previously been noted as low.

Subsequently, I would dedicate class time to discussing the pupil ranking of the strategies with the two classes involved in the research, with the aim of gaining a more qualitative understanding of the strategies that pupils valued most and least – for example, practical examples of strategies which they think contribute positively to their motivational levels. At this point, pupils would also be asked to complete a second questionnaire to rank how often they thought these strategies were being used on a 5-point Likert scale (never → always) (appendix 13), and to score themselves out of 10 again on a ‘motometer’ scale.

At this point, I would also have some smaller-scale informal group interviews with pupils to ask follow-up questions to gather their opinions in more detail.

This would then allow me to plan strategies to implement into my lessons following the Easter holidays.

Cycle 3

Cycle 3 would involve explicitly planning strategies into my lessons throughout April, keeping a diary of their use and observations on their impact, both on individuals and the class as a whole. Appendix 14 shows the layout of a diary entry.

Pupils would also be asked to complete the frequency questionnaire from cycle 2 again to see how often they thought the strategies were being used, to compare with the first frequency questionnaire. Again, pupils would also be asked to assess their levels of motivation on a ‘motometer’ scale.

The observational notes would form the basis for a guided class discussion at the beginning of May where pupils would be consulted again on their views to see if they have perceived an increase in motivational strategy use and whether they feel that this has had an impact on their motivational levels. At this point, I would ask them to discuss any changes to the class ranking

of the strategies that teachers use to motivate them. I would compare this discussion with the results of the newly completed frequency questionnaire.

Following the completion of the first research avenue, I would prepare a list of my school's version of the 'ten commandments for motivating language learners' to present to and discuss with colleagues before the new academic year.

Avenue 'B' of data collection

Avenue 'B' of data collection (timeline in appendix I5) aimed to better understand pupils' own motivational strategies by combining self-reported data with observations of pupils, repeating these measures during the intervention in the first avenue.

The self-reported data was based on a combination of: Tennant and Gardner's 2004 mini-AMTB to assess pupils' motivation and the components making up their motivation: their goals, behaviour, desire to reach their goals, and attitudes toward learning French; and Pintrich's 2004 MSLQ, which looks at the regulation of cognition, motivation and affect, and context, offering a framework of types of self-regulatory strategies reflecting goal setting, monitoring, control, and regulation processes. This measures pupils' goals and value beliefs, their use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and their management of different resources. The AMTB was particularly useful in assessing just pupils' motivation and motivational behaviours, whereas the MSLQ had the advantage of structured feedback to allow a pertinent response to pupils' collaboration in the research, useful in their continued learning of foreign languages. A sample of this questionnaire can be seen in appendix I6.

This part of the research would have been carried out at the end of March, but due to school closures, data from the self-reporting questionnaires was collected in September instead. The following part of this avenue of data collection is outlined but could not be carried out.

The feedback from the MSLQ part of the questionnaire would then be returned to pupils *after* the final part of Avenue 'A', the group discussion and repeat of the questionnaire, so as to not skew responses within that avenue of data collection (this would also have the added benefit

of giving individuals in my classes concrete revision strategies to work on in collaboration with their new teachers as I left for maternity leave, and a clear direction in handing over these classes). I would use Pintrich's feedback forms as a basis for this feedback, modified to be more suitable to my pupils (appendix 17). Pupils would then be given the opportunity to discuss the questionnaire feedback on a one-to-one basis to help them implement any self-motivating or learning strategies that were highlighted to them. *Feedback will instead be given to pupils following submission of this dissertation, and work with them on motivation and learning strategies will continue throughout this academic year.*

To balance some of the pitfalls of self-reported data, I also designed an observational form which looked at motivated behaviours: willingness to communicate, task engagement, and use of learning strategies (appendix 18). This would have been implemented in class in April using recordings of the class. The school uses Iris Connect software, lesson-videoing software, as a matter of course to improve teaching practice, so all pupils have given permission for and are used to having their lessons videoed. This would allow me to observe pupils in my own classes and in reaction to teaching strategies being implemented through Avenue 'A's approach.

I would have also observed a number of individuals in other subject areas as a control to better understand the individuals' baseline of academic motivation, to avoid drawing conclusions about pupils' motivation in languages which may apply across their subjects. This phase would have included collaboration with colleagues in different subject areas through follow-up conversations to understand whether the observed classes had been representative of the 'norm' for that class. Pupils are also used to teachers observing in lessons.

Appendix 19 shows the timelines for these two avenues of research.

Rationale for methods used and limitations of research methods

Mixed methods were used for this research in order to gain greater depth of results. The initial questionnaire for teachers was a closed-question questionnaire using a seven-point Likert scale. This method was chosen as this part of the research was based on well-

established larger-scale research. This allowed for comparisons to be drawn with existing research from a variety of studies and enabled statistical analysis. However, on a small-scale study such as this, few conclusions can be drawn from the statistics. Instead, this method needed to be combined with other approaches, both quantitative and qualitative, in order to gain a clearer picture of this school's particular context.

The teacher questionnaire was the springboard for the rest of the investigation. Having used the teacher data to create my school's 'ten commandments for motivating language learners,' pupils were asked to rank these strategies. While this did not initially allow for nuances of opinion from the pupils nor justification for their responses, it did allow for all pupils to contribute equally and all their voices to be heard and subsequently a view to be taken from existing research, teacher responses and pupil responses to create the list of strategies most relevant within my school context.

The pupil questionnaire based on the AMTB and the MSLQ with the 'motometer' used in Tennant and Gardner's 2004 research was a useful measure in understanding pupil attitudes, motivation and motivational behaviours, although self-reporting measures do face criticism for their inherent risks of social desirability biases, over-subjectivity, and low self-awareness among younger participants (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995, p.2). That said, the closed questions within the questionnaire make the responses more accessible even to less articulate students, creating a more 'level playing field' for all pupils' contributions to be valued.

Using computer-based questionnaires has its advantages and disadvantages, the main advantage being data processing. In terms of their drawbacks, by having the participants complete the questionnaire on the school network, potential issues around security, privacy, and reliability of bandwidth were avoided. Furthermore, as a means of collecting closed-question data, participants' level of computer literacy was not a concern, especially as all participants use computers on a daily basis at school. Likewise, concerns about long instructions on screen being misread (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p.277) were avoided as I went through the preliminary

information in person with participants. It also allowed me to set responses to 'required', ensuring completion of the questionnaire, although being present would allow me to take note of any questions that individuals particularly did not want to answer and, if necessary, override this setting. Participants were also reminded of their right to withdraw at any point. Moreover, I was careful to make sure that the questionnaire presented the negative end of the scale first as, according to Christian *et al.*'s (2009) report, while this does not make a difference to the response, it does decrease the response time which is less likely to frustrate or fatigue participants. The ethics of these means of collecting data will be further discussed in the 'other limitations and ethical considerations' section.

At this point, research becomes theoretical on how it would have been carried out under normal circumstance.

The round-table teacher discussion and class discussion following the establishing of the ten motivational strategies most relevant with my school and to our pupils would then enable me to gather a more nuanced view on the opinions of both my colleagues and my pupils, although with discursive approaches, there is the risk that less articulate pupils may struggle to contribute as extensively as some of their peers.

Careful grouping for informal conversational interviews following a class discussion would go some way in reducing this issue by ensuring that less articulate pupils were given the chance to respond as well as their peers. Informal conversation interviews would allow for more salient questions arising from observations and is relevant to the individual and their circumstances (Patton, 1980, p.206), but does entail a less systematic approach. Likewise, group interviews have the advantage of being time-sensitive and allow for a collaborative approach from participants who, in this context, are used to working together and developing conversation and ideas together (Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p.432), but does run the risk of one individual dominating or influencing other pupils' responses (Arksey and Knight, 1999, p.76).

On balance, as the purpose of this part of the data collection was to enrich the statistical data I already had, I felt that informal group interviews were appropriate in order to have more relevant responses from pupils and to allow them space to express their views more freely to sense the various pupil voices within the class, countering and balancing the closed questions of the Likert-scale. Although informal, conversational interviews would still require careful planning following the class discussions, with initial key questions to follow with open ended questions to probe pupils' responses.

Behaviour tallies within the observations would have the benefit of reducing observer biases giving the observer a very specific focus and enabling statistical analysis of signs on learner motivation over time as these observations are repeatable. However, it would be impractical to observe every member of the class on this basis, so I would select three pupils of varying state motivation to follow over time. The use of Iris Connect software would enable me to accurately record evidence of the different learning behaviours: willingness to communicate, task engagement, and use of learning strategies.

A diarised record of implementing motivational strategies would have two advantages: allowing for a qualitative response with a depth of data to supplement evidence from the more quantitative approach of the lesson observations; and also in revealing teacher biases to me as I compared my perception of the impact of these strategies from the diary entries to the statistical evidence from the observations. I would expect to find some misunderstandings within my own perception of the impact of the motivational strategies when compared to observations within the same lesson.

In terms of collaborative elements, the round-table discussions with colleagues would provide 'fresh eyes' in developing approaches for the implementation of strategies in class. Close collaboration with Learning Support would ensure that I had taken a diligent approach to ensuring these strategies were appropriate for my pupils with SEND, as well as giving me the

opportunity to gain another professional's views on the strategies the department had discussed and developed.

Finally, the feedback element of the MSLQ and the group discussions are an essential part of the method in response to the pupil voice. This has a two-fold impact, being motivational in and of itself as pupils feel valued for their contribution and opinion, but also from a metacognitive point of view in helping pupils to better understand motivational strategies for themselves.

Other limitations and ethical considerations

In terms of other limitations to this study, the global Covid-19 pandemic has clearly had a major impact on the research project as a whole, changing the timeline and the data I have been able to collect. The adjusted approach has only allowed for the preliminary data to be collected, seriously limiting the findings and discussion of this research. However, as already mentioned, I will still be able to use the planned research this academic year which, although not assessed, does allow me to continue with action-based research to improve my own practice and share that best practice with my colleagues.

However, apart from the practical limitations in collecting data, which I have already discussed at length in the 'research method' and 'methods for collecting data' sections within this methodology, there are other considerations to be made about its impact on participants. Namely, that as a member of staff with a pastoral role in the school, even before term had started I had been made aware of a number of pupils, both within the participants and beyond, about whom concerns had been raised with reference to their academic self-esteem and anxiety levels as a result of an extended period of time studying from home. Clearly, this has implications on the research's measurements of motivation, anxiety and academic self-esteem included in the AMTB and MSLQ part of the questionnaire. Having discussed with colleagues the potential impact of a questionnaire about motivation and anxiety at this time, we concluded there are no particular ethical concerns around this research being carried out

under the current circumstances, but it will need taking into account in the findings that some of the participants' motivational levels may be lower than anticipated. Nevertheless, it is also a useful moment in time to be carrying out research on the motivational levels of our pupils, and increasing their own awareness of strategies which may enable them to bolster their own motivation, as the impacts of the current situation may well be far reaching, especially when we consider that this cohort also faces uncertainty around their exams, with discussions over adjusted exam specification and adjusted approaches to exams rife in the media, fuelling further uncertainty and concern.

Another effect of the pandemic has been loss of teaching time due to school closures. We were fortunate as a school to have online systems in place before the closures of schools in the UK, so immediately carried out our lessons online with just the loss of one Saturday morning's lessons. That said, as an international school, there were challenges for those pupils in different time-zones in accessing the online lessons, so they have received far less teacher support since the beginning of lock-down. This raised a question in my mind over the ethics of using class time to carry out research, which I discussed with my Head of Department. We concluded that the benefits of learning how to better motivate our pupils outweighed the disadvantages and, with research being carried out in the first week back, pupils would not be interrupted in the middle of a topic when they had gained momentum in their studies.

Beyond Covid-19 then, there are other ethical considerations to be made. While the initial questionnaire has a closed-question approach, if there are any participants whose responses reveal a worryingly low level of motivation, I will need to follow this up through the correct pastoral routes in line with school policy. Furthermore, any concerns which arise through the class discussion and group interviews will also need to be followed up, whether they be pastoral concerns or more serious safeguarding concerns. I have outlined this in my CUREC form, as my safeguarding duties as a teacher override the confidentiality of the participant responses. Student questionnaires were not anonymous – with questions which asked about academic anxiety and motivation, I considered that my pastoral duty could require me to

follow up on any concerns arising from the research. Pupils were informed of the confidentiality of their responses within the normal bounds of confidentiality at school in line with school policy. Data reported in this research contains no reference to individuals, and data collected is stored on the school servers in line with the school's policies on privacy and GDPR. Furthermore, a key part of the MSLQ section in avenue 'B' of the research is the feedback to pupils on their motivation and learning strategies. This feedback will be made available to the pupils only and discussed with classroom teachers only with their express permission.

Observations using Iris Connect technology requires the videoing of classes. This falls under 'modus operandi' of the school, as we use this technology regularly to improve teaching practice. The videos made are securely stored and accessible only by the researcher. For the purposes of this research, videos would be used as a means of capturing data from my own lessons, enabling me to teach and observe the same lesson. On completing the observations, videos would be deleted. Again, any safeguarding or pastoral concerns would take precedent over confidentiality, in line with school policy and my duty of care as a practitioner.

Next for consideration, including and responding to the pupil voice as a central tenet of this research carries with it its own considerations: while pupils' opinions are to be valued, their lack of experience and hindsight may also prevent them from understanding what is best for them (as a group and as individuals) and from making balanced risk-benefit judgements. For example, pupils may respond that they value knowing where they stand in comparison with their peers, but not necessarily consider the impact on low-achieving individuals in terms of their anxiety, or indeed on high-achievers who may become complacent. I have tried to counter this by using class discussion as a forum to explore strategies with them, but there will be points within the research where I need to use my own professional judgement and that of my colleagues. With this example, a 'ranking list' may not be deemed appropriate, but there may be another approach which would make comparison possible and suitable for all individuals within the class.

Where such decisions need to be made, there is a subsequent dilemma – sharing reasons for decisions as a teacher is not always possible yet ignoring the pupil voice when you have asked for it risks demotivating pupils. In this case, I would explain that I have had to make a decision based on professional judgement, acknowledging their views as sensitively as possible.

Finally, I have to consider that the two pupils with SEND are documented as having low self-esteem and academic confidence. I have discussed this research at length with Learning Support and we have concluded that the research comprises of positive interventions which reinforce the strategies that these pupils and the Learning Support Department are working on together. As such, while I am to be aware of these two pupils in my research, the interventions themselves are unlikely to cause any negative outcomes for them.

Results and discussion

Avenue 'A', cycle I

Teacher questionnaire

The first step in collating the data from teachers was to rank-order the strategies according to the importance allocated to them by the teachers. As my sample size was small (5 teachers), I felt that it was not appropriate to change the conceptual domains (scales) allocated to the strategies from Dörnyei and Csizér's 1998 research, as their sample size allowed for a rigorous reliability analysis in allocating strategies to scales.

Having organised the strategies into their scales, the problem was then ascertaining the importance value for the scales, as taking a simple mean could have the effect of one marginal item reducing the overall value of otherwise highly ranking scores, presenting a false impression for the overall scale. To overcome this problem, I started with the first step used by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) by taking the highest-ranking strategy in each scale to determine the order of the scales, adding to it each of the strategies which belonged to the same conceptual domain to create the initial ranking order, taking the first 10 scales to form the basis of the 'ten commandments' for my school.

Before wording the macro-strategies for the final version of the teachers' 'ten commandments', I faced another problem: some of the high-scoring scales included lowly-ranked strategies. To overcome this problem, strategies were only included in the final wording of the 10 macro-strategies if their mean minus standard deviation did not drop below 3.5, as the point when it would become negatively valued on the Likert-scale (appendix 20). The macro-strategies then formed the list of the teachers' 'ten commandments for motivating languages learners' relevant to my school, which was then presented to pupils in the first part of their questionnaire.

Pupil questionnaire

Pupils were given the teachers' list of macro-strategies to rank from most motivating to least motivating. The wording was changed slightly to make it more appropriate and accessible for the pupils. As per my hypothesis, pupils ranked their own effort as the main motivating factor in learning languages, and the top and bottom items in the list were the same as that of the teachers. There was quite a difference in the order of the other strategies, which will provide some fruitful discussion in department.

Macrostrategy - teacher ranking	Change	Pupil ranking
1. Help students to realise that it is mainly effort which is needed for success.	0	1. Help students to realise that it is mainly effort which is needed for success.
2. Develop a good relationship with students.	-1	2. Present the tasks properly with clear instructions and guidance.
3. Set a personal example with well-prepared lessons, and a clear sense of motivation and commitment.	-4	3. Develop a good relationship with students.
4. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence through positive feedback, creating opportunities for success, encouragement, and using mistakes as a natural part of the learning process.	0	4. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence through positive feedback, creating opportunities for success, encouragement, and using mistakes as a natural part of the learning process.
5. Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in class.	0	5. Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in class.
6. Present the tasks properly with clear instructions and guidance.	+4	6. Make language classes interesting with challenge, variety, and curiosity.
7. Make language classes interesting with challenge, variety, and curiosity.	+1	7. Set a personal example with well-prepared lessons, and a clear sense of motivation and commitment.
8. Avoid making comparisons between students	-1	8. Encourage questions and contributions from students and encourage them to take responsibility for organising their own learning.
9. Encourage questions and contributions from students	+1	9. Avoid making comparisons between students
10. Organise extracurricular language activities.	0	10. Organise extracurricular language activities.

Table 2: teacher- and pupil- ranking of the macro-strategies (teacher n=5; pupil n=30).

Motometer and Anxometer scales

Pupils were also asked to rank both their motivational levels and anxiety levels out of 10 within this same questionnaire, with motivation returning an average of 6.9 and anxiety a level of 3.5 (n=30). This measure would have been repeated in subsequent cycles, as well as forming part of the informal conversational interview although were unable to be used in this way due to the current pandemic. These results were, however, used to measure State Motivation and State Anxiety and compared with the results of the AMTB, discussed in the following section. The motometer/anxometer questions are shown in appendix 21.

Appendix 21 compares my results with two studies using the '10 commandments for motivating language learners' – the original results from Dörnyei and Csizér's 1998 study, and Cucinotta's 2019 study referred to within my hypothesis. It shows that, contrary to my hypothesis, teachers within my study do not place great emphasis on the cultural aspects of language learning having a great impact on motivation, having more in common, in fact, with Dörnyei and Csizér's study. Classroom climate does feature in the list, although not as highly as anticipated.

Interestingly, pupils valued challenge more than teachers, although both teachers' and pupils' top category for increasing motivation was supporting pupils in their own efforts towards success. This was not a great surprise given the culture within my school and the emphasis placed on growth mindset within Wellbeing lessons and across subject areas. It is pleasing to see that pupils value this as highly as the teachers, although I would have explored this in the planned interviews to assess for social desirability bias.

In terms of analysis within the data, I looked at the mean, median and standard deviation of the two separate classes, and by gender (appendix 22). All sub-categories of participants placed extra-curricular activities as the least impactful strategy both by median and mean ($SD=1.42$), and I would suggest that this is down to the number of commitments that pupils already have. Teachers encouraging pupil effort then came out as the top category overall (median=8) and for both boys (median=9) and class 1 (median=8), with girls and class 2 favouring good rapport between the teacher and class (median=8.5 and 8 respectively). It should be noted that for girls and class 2, effort was ranked 2nd, demonstrating its value to most of the participants.

Avenue 'B'

Pupils' self-reporting questionnaires

Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

Within the pupil questionnaire, pupils completed a mini-AMTB based on that of Masgoret *et al.* (2001). I also used the motometer/ anxometer scales that pupils completed self-assessing their level of motivation and anxiety to give a measurement for state motivation (SM) and state anxiety (SA) to compare to trait motivation and trait anxiety assessed through the AMTB. Appendix 24 shows the survey items used in the mini-AMTB.

I then grouped the items to form clusters of aggregate scores using the groupings from Masgoret *et al.* (2001). With such small sample sizes, my aim was not to re-define established clusters – these clusters have been well tested for their reliability (see Tennant and Gardner (2004), Masgoret and Gardner (2003) and Masgoret *et al.* (2001)), but rather the focus was on how my school's context compares to existing research and to better understand motivation and its contributing factors within the context of my school.

In line with Masgoret *et al.*'s (2001) results, and with those of Tennant and Gardner (2004), shown in Table 5, the pupils displayed a strong correlation between Motivation and Integrativeness ($\rho=.6$, $p= 0.0007$), between Trait Motivation (assessed through the AMTB) and State Motivation (assessed through self-rating) ($\rho=.6$, $p= 0.0003$), and a strong negative correlation between Attitude toward the Learning Situation and Anxiety ($\rho=-0.5$, $p= 0.003$), which confirms my hypothesis that pupils in this study would also confirm the positive correlation between Motivation and Integrativeness shown in existing studies.

Unlike results from other studies, however, there is not a strong correlation between Trait- and State- Anxiety, nor between Motivation and Attitude toward the Learning Situation, with results from my study showing a far weaker correlation than that of Tennant and Gardner (2004, p.255). In line with Gardner's model (1985), there is little correlation between anxiety

and motivation. Appendix 24 presents all the correlations obtained through this assessment of the composite scales using Spearman's rho.

The AMTB would normally be used to test the motivational value of particular types of teaching methods and learning activities, and I had planned to repeat this measure following implementation of teaching strategies from the '10 commandments' to assess their impact on the motivation of pupils. Unfortunately, this has not been possible due to Covid-19, but I have assessed levels of individual variables and their correlations, comparing them to existing research for a point of reference. While this does not assess the concept of motivation over time, it does give a snapshot into my pupils' motivation.

Within individual variables, there was unsurprisingly a very strong correlation showing that pupils who had a strong desire to learn French also had the most positive attitude toward learning French ($\rho=0.84$) and high integrative orientation ($\rho=0.69$), however both returned p-values which suggest low statistical significance. There is also a strong correlation between the latter two variables ($\rho=0.61$, $p=0.0005$), and between State Motivation and Attitudes toward Learning French ($\rho=0.56$, $p=0.0003$). Unsurprisingly, French Course Anxiety and French Use Anxiety are closely correlated ($\rho=0.77$), but again the p-value was statistically low.

A positive for teachers to take away is that the more favourably pupils view their teachers, the less course anxiety they suffer from, and that pupils who view their teachers positively also have a positive view of French class ($\rho=0.61$, $p=0.0003$), although the direction of causality is unclear. This is comparable to results in Masgoret *et al.*'s findings (2001, p.289), and suggests that a valid avenue for further research may be to look at how attitude toward the teacher might impact pupils' attitudes toward French. Masgoret *et al.*'s findings suggest that children with favourable attitudes toward the L2 are highly motivated to learn it, and there is a positive correlation within my own results between State Motivation and Desire to Learn French in the same vein ($\rho=0.47$, $p=0.005$). Appendix 25 shows the aforementioned correlations.

In response to my hypotheses, the results would indicate that pupils do have a high instrumental orientation, with a scale mean of 5.6 of a possible 7. Their views on parental encouragement were only slightly lower, with a standard deviation of only 1.1, showing no major outliers, which is encouraging as it shows that most pupils perceive at least that they discuss their academic performance with their parents and perceive a high level of input from them. These results can be seen in appendix 26. Pleasingly, trait anxiety has the lowest mean, and with less than 3.5 out of 7 shows that the mean response of our pupils is to 'mostly disagree' that French class and using French makes them anxious. That said, pupils are slightly more anxious about French class than using French outside the classroom, suggesting that there is room for improvement within the classroom culture.

Motivation and Learning Strategy Questionnaire

Two problems were highlighted by Pintrich and Johnson (1990, p.83): the lack of knowledge about appropriate learning strategies, and the motivation to use them. The MSLQ combines a measure of motivation and factors which contribute to motivation, and a measure of students use of learning strategies. Dörnyei (2003, p.17) describes learning strategies as, by definition, examples of motivated behaviour, so the rationale for including a measure of learning strategy use was to explore instances of motivated behaviour, using this as a measure taken over time to identify the impact of teaching interventions on motivation. Clearly, this has not been possible without being able to carry out the teaching interventions, but the results of the MSLQ do reveal some interesting data to us, and I will explore the results of the motivation section and learning strategy section of the questionnaire separately before looking at what the two sections combined can tell us.

The correlations between the components making up the motivation scale demonstrate a strong positive correlation between intrinsic goal orientation and a number of other components. Intrinsic goal orientation refers to the pupils' perception of why they are engaging in a task and being motivated by reasons such as challenge, curiosity and mastery – that is, participating for the sake of interest in the task itself, and not as just a means to an end

such as better exam performance or to please their parents. The pupils with high intrinsic goal orientation had higher values of task value (the student's evaluation of how interesting, important or useful the task is), control of learning beliefs (the belief that pupils' own efforts to learn garner positive results), and self-efficacy for learning and performance (a pupil's appraisal of their own ability to accomplish a task). Task value also showed a strong positive correlation with control of learning beliefs and self-efficacy for learning and performance, and the latter two components are also positively correlated.

A high sense of extrinsic goal orientation (completing a task as a means to an end, for example to achieve better grades, rewards, external evaluation or competition) was strongly positively correlated with self-efficacy for learning and performance, but the positive correlations with other indicators for motivation were far weaker. These results are shown in table 8.

	<i>Intrinsic Goal Orientation</i>	<i>Extrinsic Goal Orientation</i>	<i>Task value</i>	<i>Control of Learning Beliefs</i>	<i>Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance</i>
Extrinsic Goal Orientation	0.33				
Task value	0.66	0.35*			
Control of Learning Beliefs	0.63*	0.35*	0.54*		
Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance	0.62*	0.66	0.52*	0.65*	
Test Anxiety	-0.23	-0.18	-0.11	-0.11	-0.36*

Table 8: In-depth analysis of motivation scales using the MSLQ. Correlations using Spearman's rho of components making up the motivation scale (n=30).

*p<0.05

What this tells us is unsurprising – intrinsic goal orientation has a greater impact on more motivational components, and with a mean response of 4.6/7 points for intrinsic goal orientation, there is certainly scope for improvement for our pupils.

The highest value component for our pupils was control of learning beliefs, demonstrating again that pupils value effort above all in their motivation, and supporting my hypothesis over their mindsets and views on their own effort. This tallies with results from the 'ten commandments' where pupils rated encouragement of their own effort as the most important strategy a teacher could use to motivate them. It also reflects the high level of motivational

intensity that pupils affirmed through the AMTB. Conversely, pupils rated self-efficacy for learning and performance as relatively low, suggesting that there is scope to improve their confidence in their own abilities. The value component means are shown in table 9, and confirm my hypothesis that pupils are overall more extrinsically than intrinsically motivated.

Value component	Mean	SD
Control of Learning Beliefs	5.18	0.72
Extrinsic Goal Orientation	5.08	0.86
Intrinsic Goal Orientation	4.68	0.90
Test Anxiety	4.64	0.95
Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance	4.57	1.00

Table 9: Value components, mean point-scores on a seven-point scale and standard deviation (n=30).

In terms of the learning strategies scales, the most used scale is effort regulation, once again reinforcing the idea that pupils value the fruits of their own efforts. The effort regulation scale is made up of items which represent pupils' ability to control their effort in the face of distractions and tasks which do not interest them, signifying commitment to goals and continued use of learning strategies. Conversely, the least significant strategy scale relates to peer learning, showing that there is scope to develop pupils' collaboration with one another. With a mean of 4.5 out of 7 for all of the learning strategy scales, this part of the study shows relatively low use of learning strategies, raising the question over whether this is due to a lack of motivation or a lack of knowledge about these learning strategies. I would suggest that, given the relatively high scores from the motivational scales in the first part of the MSLQ, that this underuse stems principally from a lack of knowledge about different learning strategies, and as such the feedback forms and subsequent class discussions, while not included in the scope of this research project, should prove useful as a teaching tool following this study. The impact of an intervention on learning strategy use could be an interesting area of research in future studies.

Table 10 shows the strategy types, scales and means discussed in the previous paragraph. This table also shows that the high position for effort regulation and low position for peer learning is reflective of Pintrich *et al.*'s 1991 study results, and that pupils in this study had relatively higher scores for seeking help. This may reflect the age of the participants who were university students in the original study, and the value that pupils in this study placed on rapport with their teacher in the 'ten commandments' in the Avenue A pupil questionnaire.

Strategy type	Strategy scale	Mean	SD	Mean in Pintrich <i>et al.</i> 's 1991 study
Cognitive and metacognitive strategies	Rehearsal	4.66	0.70	4.53
	Elaboration	4.58	0.82	4.91
	Organisation	4.56	0.90	4.14
	Critical thinking	4.12	0.61	4.16
	Metacognitive self-regulation	4.27	0.54	4.54
Resource management strategies	Time and study environment	4.74	0.59	4.87
	Effort regulation	5.04	0.96	5.25
	Peer learning	3.94	1.06	2.89
	Help-seeking	4.59	1.11	3.84

Table 10: Mean and standard deviation for learning strategy scales for this study (n=30) and for Pintrich *et al.*'s 1991 study.

Conclusion

Students need to have both the "will" and the "skill" to be successful in classrooms, and we need to integrate these components in our models of classroom learning.

– Pintrich and De Groot, 1990, p.38

Response to research questions

In response to the first two research questions, teachers within my school highly value the encouragement of pupil effort as a strategy for motivation. This places the emphasis on self-efficacy, a view which is reciprocated by pupils. Both teachers and pupils value good rapport and have similar views on classroom climate. However, teachers placed far greater importance on how they present themselves and the example they set, whereas pupils stated that they were more motivated by strong task design with clear guidance. Neither teachers nor pupils ranked extracurricular language activities as an important motivational strategy, suggesting that both considered that learning should primarily be motivated in the classroom.

It was not possible to assess the impact of teachers' implementation of motivational strategies on pupils' motivation in response to the third research question due to Covid-19, however it was possible to look at the strategies that pupils use to control their own motivation in response to the fourth. Pupils showed good use of motivational strategies, reflected in their high scores for control of learning beliefs and high effort regulation. However, they showed relatively low learning strategy use, particularly with peer learning, critical thinking and metacognitive self-regulation. These are clear areas for development and further investigation.

Summary of findings, impact on teaching practice and implications for further research

Overall, the results show that pupils value the more 'people-centred' strategies from their teachers, those which focus on encouragement and positive feedback, and developing good

rapport. The pupil ranking of teachers' strategies also showed that pupils valued the motivational impact of challenging tasks more than teachers, which rather throws down the gauntlet to teachers in creating more challenging tasks to push our pupils. This is, however, tempered by the relatively low scores from pupils on self-efficacy for learning and performance from the MSLQ, showing that pupils have a relatively low expectancy for their own success and appraisal of their own abilities, so any increase in challenge needs to take pupil confidence and self-efficacy beliefs into account to ensure that it is appropriate challenge. Perhaps given how highly pupils rated clear instructions and guidance, this is how we as teachers can give appropriate support to high-challenge tasks to give pupils opportunities to succeed, although I anticipate that feedback and encouragement, rated highly by teachers and pupils alike, will provide the key to increasing these self-efficacy beliefs. Further research should look at the impact of teachers prioritising these strategies. I believe that the planned research methods within this study would go some way to assessing the impact of these strategies.

Efforts by the school to develop growth mindset and self-efficacy beliefs are clear throughout the findings, although further research is needed to ascertain the extent to which these responses rest on social desirability bias, and to assess the pupil perception versus reality of these self-efficacy beliefs – that is, to what extent pupils actually demonstrate self-efficacy in practice. I would suggest that the qualitative investigations originally planned in this research would address these questions, particularly through the use of the informal conversational interviews and class discussions.

In line with existing research, results from the MSLQ showed motivation and integrativeness to be closely correlated, so including teaching of L2 values may have a positive impact on pupil motivation. The MSLQ also revealed a negative correlation between attitude toward the teacher and course anxiety, which has promise for teaching practice: while we cannot directly control how our pupils view us, we can have real impact on our pupils' anxiety levels through developing people-centred motivational strategies which the pupils rated in the 'ten commandments for motivating language learners'. It would be worth investigating pupil views

of their teachers through class discussion and investigating the qualities of a teachers they view positively.

A positive correlation between state motivation and pupils' desire to learn French suggests that it is worth investigating interventions to increase state motivation. Clear tasks and increasing learners' self-confidence through positive feedback and encouragement are both strategies that the pupils rated highly which could have an immediate motivational impact so therefore impact on state motivation. This would be worth investigating as an intervention in further research. Again, planned research into the impact of interventions could go some way to responding to this line of enquiry, particularly through use of diarised strategy implementation, discussions with pupils over change in strategy use, and repetition of the AMTB to assess the impact of strategy use by teachers.

Finally, there is huge scope for research in increasing pupils' use of learning strategies and the impact of this on both motivation and achievement. There is only a marginal increase of learning strategy use with pupils with higher motivational levels, but some strategies are far more likely to be used. This suggests that other learning strategies need explicitly teaching and practising in class. Learning diaries, as per Lichtinger and Kaplan's (2015, p.119) research, could prove fruitful for future research on the impact of strategy use ensuring that pupils explicitly review and reflect upon their strategy use. While increasing pupils' use of learning strategies and the impact of this on both motivation and achievement will not be measured within the scope of this research, I will be feeding back to pupils on their learning strategy use and will look to work with class teachers to monitor the impact of this intervention on motivational levels: I hope to disseminate the findings from this research in a department meeting to discuss the differences in the rankings of the 10 commandments, looking at the ways we can deploy these strategies practically in the classroom. I will also work with my classes through the feedback sheets from the MSLQ, using class discussion to monitor the impact of the learning strategies from the pupils' perspective. A follow-up discussion in department will then look at how teachers perceive the impact of strategy use and the impact of greater pupil awareness of

motivational and learning strategies. Following these department discussions, I will also be meeting with my school's Head of Teaching and Learning to look at the wider implications of this research beyond the Modern Languages department, then putting together a short professional development session to present to teaching colleagues at the school's CPD carousels.

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Appendices

Appendix I - the constituent scales of Gardner's 1985 'Attitude/motivation test battery,' adapted from Dörnyei, 2005, pp.72-73.

The constituent scales of Gardner's 1985 'Attitude/motivation test battery'		
Component of motivation	Items	Example
Attitudes to French Canadians	10 Likert-scale items	'French Canadians add a distinctive flavour to the Canadian culture.'
Interest in foreign languages	10 Likert-scale items	'I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.'
Attitude toward European French people	10 Likert-scale items	'I have always admired the European French people.'
Attitudes towards learning French	10 Likert-scale items	'I really enjoy learning French.'
Integrative orientation	4 Likert-scale items	'Studying French can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.'
Instrumental orientation	4 Likert-scale items	'Studying French can be important for me only because I'll need it for my future career.'
French class anxiety	5 Likert-scale items	'It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our French class.'
Parental encouragement	10 Likert-scale items	'My parents really encourage me to study French.'
Motivational intensity	10 multiple choice items	'When it comes to French homework, I: a) Put some effort into it, but not as much as I could. b) Work very carefully, making sure I understand everything. c) Just skim over it.'
Desire to learn French	10 multiple choice items	'If there were a French Club in my school, I would: a) Attend meetings once in a while. b) Be most interested in joining. c) Definitely not join.'
Orientation index	1 multiple choice item	'I am studying French because: a) I think it will some day be useful in getting a good job. b) I think it will help me to better understand French people and way of life. c) It will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people. d) A knowledge of two languages will make me a better-educated person.'
Evaluation of the French teacher	25 semantic differential scale items	'Efficient _: : : : :_ inefficient'
Evaluation of the French course	25 semantic differential scale items	'Enjoyable _: : : : :_ unenjoyable'

Appendix 2 – questions from the mini-AMTB (Tennant and Gardner, 2004, p.253)

1. If I were to rate my feelings about learning French in order to interact with French Canadians, I would have to say they are: Weak \leftrightarrow Strong
2. My attitude toward French Canadians is: Unfavorable \leftrightarrow Favorable
3. My interest in languages other than French and English is: Very Low \leftrightarrow Very High
4. My desire to learn French is: Weak \leftrightarrow Strong
5. My attitude toward learning French is: Unfavorable \leftrightarrow Favorable
6. My attitude toward my French professor is: Unfavorable \leftrightarrow Favorable
7. If I were to rate my feelings about learning French for practical purposes such as to improve my occupational opportunities, I would say that they are: Weak \leftrightarrow Strong
8. My anxiety in speaking French outside of class is: Very Low \leftrightarrow Very High
9. My attitude toward my French classes is: Unfavorable \leftrightarrow Favorable
10. My anxiety level in my French classes is: Very Low \leftrightarrow Very High
11. I would characterize how hard I work at learning French as: Very little \leftrightarrow Very much

Appendix 3 – composite scales on the mini-AMTB

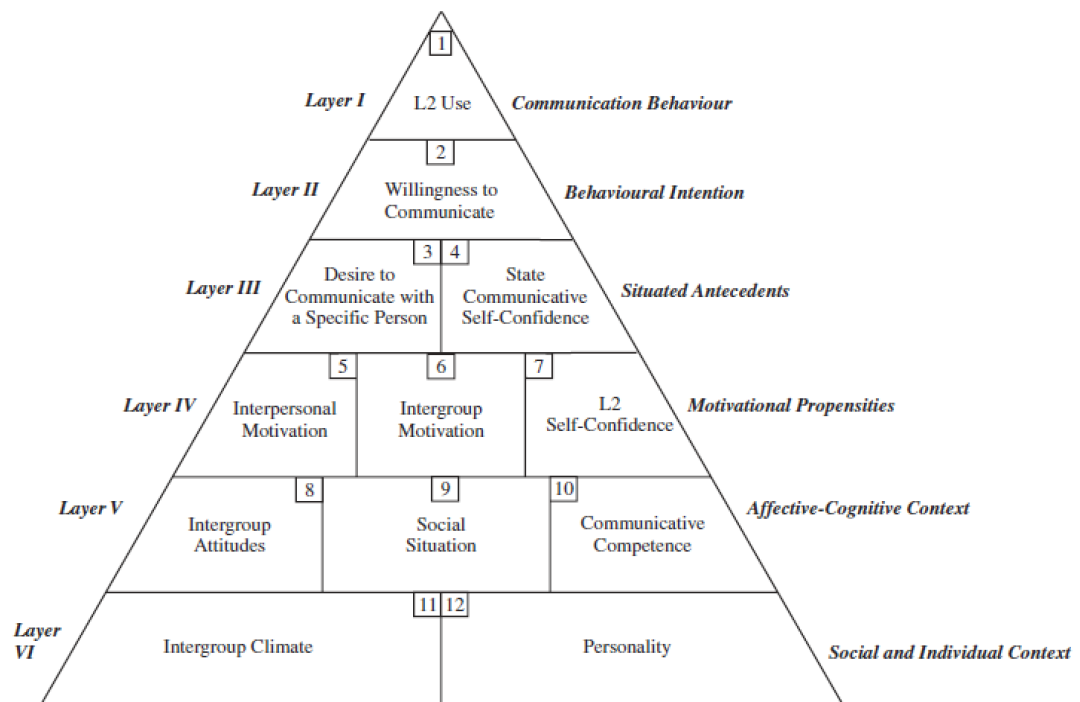
- Integrativeness = integrative orientation + attitude toward French Canadians + interest in foreign languages
- attitudes toward the learning situation = attitude toward learning French + attitude toward French instructor
- motivation = motivational intensity + desire to learn French + attitude toward learning French
- language anxiety = French use anxiety + French course anxiety
- Instrumental orientation (one item)

Appendix 4 – survey items in the mini-AMTB questionnaire using a 7-point scale

(adapted from Tennent and Gardner, 2004, p. 253)

Item	Content
IO (Integrative Orientation)	If I were to rate my feelings about learning French in order to interact with French Canadians, I would have to say they are: Weak $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Strong
AFC (Attitude toward French Canadians)	My attitude toward French Canadians is: Unfavourable $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Favourable
IFL (Interest in Foreign Languages)	My interest in languages other than French and English is: Very Low $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Very High
D (Desire to Learn French)	My desire to learn French is: Weak $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Strong
ALF (Attitude toward Learning French)	My attitude toward learning French is: Unfavourable $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Favourable
PROF (Attitude toward French Instructor)	My attitude toward my French professor is: Unfavourable $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Favourable
INST (Instrumental orientation)	If I were to rate my feelings about learning French for practical purposes such as to improve my occupational opportunities, I would have to say they are: Weak $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Strong
FUA (French Use Anxiety)	My anxiety in speaking French outside of class is: Very Low $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Very High
COURSE (Attitude toward French Course)	My attitude toward my French classes is: Unfavourable $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Favourable
FCA (French Course Anxiety)	My anxiety level in my French classes is: Very Low $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Very High
MI (Motivational Intensity)	I would characterize how hard I work at learning French as: Very Little $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ Very Much

Appendix 5 – schematic representation of the variables influencing WTC
 From “Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in a L2: A Situated Model of Confidence and Affiliation,” by P. D. MacIntyre, R. Clément, Z. Dörnyei, and K. Noels, 1998, *Modern Language Journal*, 82, p. 547.



Appendix 6 – classroom observation scheme (Cao and Philp, 2006, p.491)

WTC behaviour categories (basis of tally chart for observation of individual students) In the presence of the teacher:

1. Volunteer an answer (including raising a hand).
2. Give an answer to the teacher's question.
 - (a) Provide information – general solicit.
 - (b) Learner-responding.
 - (c) Non-public response.
3. Ask the teacher a question.
4. Guess the meaning of an unknown word.
5. Try out a difficult form in the target language (lexical/morphosyntactic).
6. Present own opinions in class.
7. Volunteer to participate in class activities.

Appendix 7 – 6 areas that good language learners use to manage their own learning, from Oxford, 1989, p.236

- 1) *Metacognitive strategies*, such as:
 - a. paying attention;
 - b. self-evaluating; and
 - c. self-monitoring.
- 2) *Affective strategies* to control their emotions and attitudes, such as:
 - a. anxiety reduction; and
 - b. self-encouragement.
- 3) *Social strategies*, such as:
 - a. asking questions; and
 - b. becoming culturally aware.
- 4) *Memory strategies*, such as:
 - a. grouping;
 - b. imagery; and
 - c. structured review.
- 5) *Cognitive strategies*, such as:
 - a. practicing naturalistically;
 - b. analysing contrastively; and
 - c. summarizing.
- 6) *Compensatory strategies*, such as:
 - a. guessing meanings intelligently; and
 - b. using synonyms or other production tricks when the precise expression is unknown.

Appendix 8 – Phases and areas for self-regulated learning

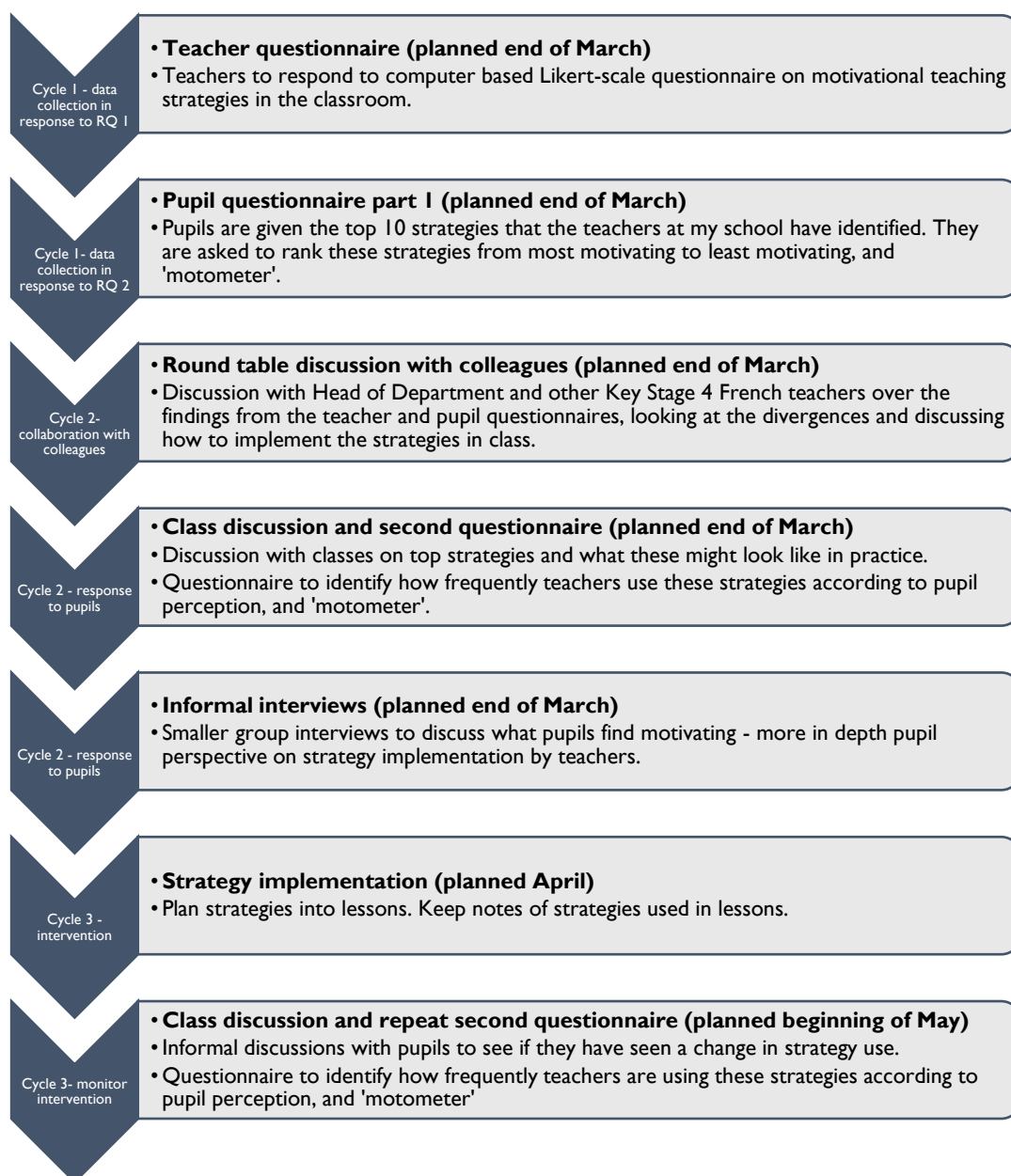
From Pintrich, 2004, p.390, demonstrating how the four phases of self-regulation impact motivation, as well as the behaviours associated with these phases.

Phases and relevant scales	Areas for regulation			
	Cognition	Motivation/Affect	Behavior	Context
<i>Phase 1</i> Forethought, planning, and activation	Target goal setting	Goal orientation adoption	Time and effort planning	Perceptions of task
	Prior content knowledge activation	Efficacy judgments	Planning for self-observations of behavior	Perceptions of context
	Metacognitive knowledge activation	Perceptions of task difficulty Task value activation Interest activation		
<i>Phase 2</i> Monitoring	Metacognitive awareness and monitoring of cognition	Awareness and monitoring of motivation and affect	Awareness and monitoring of effort, time use, need for help Self-observation of behavior	Monitoring changing task and context conditions
<i>Phase 3</i> Control	Selection and adaptation of cognitive strategies for learning, thinking	Selection and adaptation of strategies for managing, motivation, and affect	Increase/decrease effort	Change or renegotiate task
			Persist, give up Help-seeking behavior	Change or leave context
<i>Phase 4</i> Reaction and reflection	Cognitive judgments	Affective reactions	Choice behavior	Evaluation of task
<i>Relevant MSLQ Scales</i>	Attributions	Attributions		Evaluation of context
	Rehearsal	Intrinsic Goals	Effort Regulation	Peer Learning
	Elaboration Organization	Extrinsic Goals	Help-Seeking	Time/Study Environment
	Critical Thinking	Task Value	Time/Study Environment	
	Metacognition	Control Beliefs Self-Efficacy Test Anxiety		

Appendix 9 – Dörnyei and Csizér's 'ten commandments for motivating language learners' (1998, p.203).

Prepare for the lessons properly.
Show a good example by being committed and motivated.
Try to behave naturally and be yourself in class.
Be as sensitive and accepting as you can.
Create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.
Bring in humour, laughter and smile.
Have games and fun in class.
Have game-like competitions within class.
Give clear instructions.
Provide guidance about how to do the task.
State the purpose and the utility of every task.

Appendix 10 – a visual overview of avenue ‘a’ of data collection.



Appendix II – sample from the teacher questionnaire

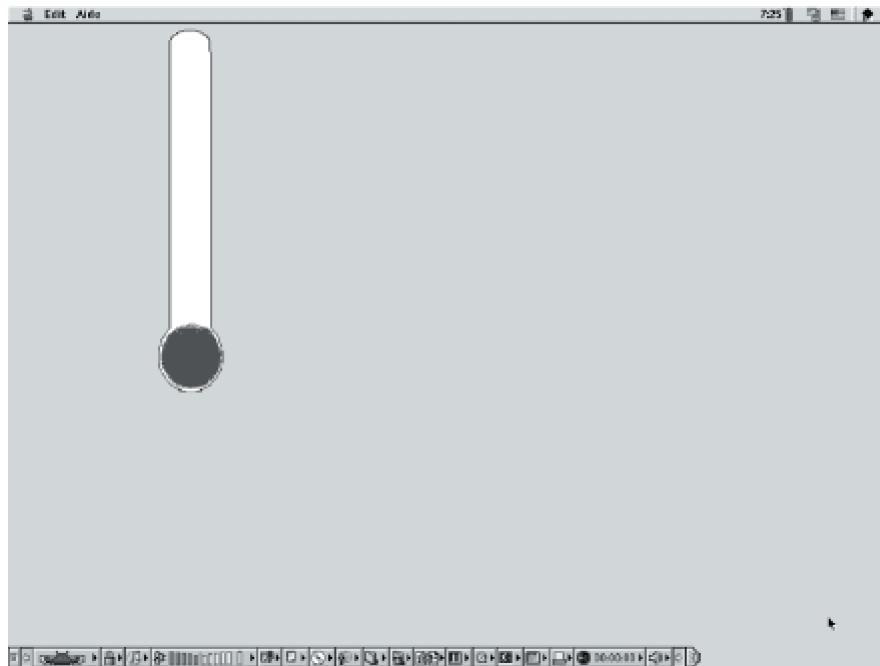
The teacher questionnaire was made up of 50 items: this is an example of its presentation.

1. Rate the following teaching strategies in terms of their impact on student motivation with 1 being 'not at all important' and 7 being 'extremely important'.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
S1. Prepare for the lessons properly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S2. Show a good example by being committed and motivated.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S3. Try to behave naturally and be yourself in class.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S4. Be as sensitive and accepting as you can be.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S5. Create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S6. Bring in humour and laughter, and smile.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S7. Have games and fun in class.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S8. Have game-like competitions within class.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S9. Give clear instructions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S10. Provide guidance about how to do the task.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix 12 – ‘motometer/anxometer’ (Tennant and Gardner, 2004, p.254)

Thermometer for Measuring State Variables (10 Levels Measured by Mouse Click): STM (State Motivation) Motometer and STA (State Anxiety) Anxom-



Appendix 13 – second pupil questionnaire on frequency of motivational strategies used by teachers

1. For each of the statements, rate how often this happens in your French class, with 1 being 'never' and 7 being 'every lesson'.

	1 - never	2	3	4	5	6	7 - every lesson
My teacher helps me to realise that it is mainly effort which is needed for success.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher develops a good relationship with me and my classmates.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher sets a personal example of motivation and commitment and prepares lessons well.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher uses positive feedback and encouragement, allows me to succeed, and uses mistakes as a natural part of learning to increase my self-confidence.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher creates a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in class.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher presents tasks with clear instructions and guidance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher makes language classes interesting with challenge, variety, and a sense of curiosity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher avoids making comparisons between pupils.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher encourages questions and contributions from the class, and gives us responsibility for organising our own learning.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My teacher organises extracurricular language activities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix 14 – diary entry template

Date:	Lesson day and time:	Class:
Lesson topic:		
Overview of lesson plan:		
Macro strategy:		
Implemented how?		
Perceived pupil response:		
Any discussion with colleagues about strategy prior to lesson?	Any discussion with colleagues about strategy following lesson?	
Other comments (e.g. class mood, observed or not?)		

Appendix 15 – a visual of the planned timeline for Avenue ‘B’ of the research

March	April	May
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Self-reporting questionnaires •Mini-AMTB type questions •MSLQ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Observations in French class of motivated behaviours •Control observations of pupils in other subjects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Give MSLQ feedback forms to pupils •Give pupils the opportunity to discuss their feedback forms on a one-to-one basis

Appendix 16 – sample from the MSLQ part of the pupil questionnaire

7. Select the box that reflects your opinion most accurately, with 1 being 'weak' and 7 being 'strong'. *

	1 - weak	2	3	4	5	6	7 - strong
My motivation to learn French in order to communicate with French people is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My desire to learn French for the sake of learning French is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My desire to learn French for practical purposes (e.g. to get good grades/into a good university/a good job) is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. Select the box that reflects your opinion most accurately, with 1 being 'unfavourable' and 7 being 'favourable'. *

	1 - unfavourable	2	3	4	5	6	7 - favourable
My attitude towards French people is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My attitude toward learning French is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix 17 – feedback cover page and example of feedback on scales

FEEDBACK FORM

Earlier this term, you took a questionnaire to gather information about what motivates you and about your study habits. This form gives you feedback about your study habits, learning skills and motivation, and gives you the information you need to understand your scores.

The aim of this feedback is to help you to determine your strengths and weaknesses. You may want to use this feedback to improve your study skills or motivation, and all of the skills included here are learnable. The hints included are just suggestions, and there will be many other ways to improve each area. You may want to discuss strategies with your tutor, with your teacher, or with me but you don't have to if you don't want to.

How to interpret your scores

All the sections are based on a seven-point scale. Although some scores were worded negatively (i.e. 'When homework is difficult, I give up or only study the easy parts'), these scores have been reversed, so that in general, a higher score (4-7) is better than a lower score (1-3). The only exception is the test anxiety section, where a high score means that test scenarios make you more anxious.

The average score for your class, as well as the breakdown of the scores for the bottom 25%, middle 50%, and the top 25% is provided for each section. If your score is at the bottom 25% on a section, this means that most of your classmates are reporting more motivation or use of learning strategies than you in that section. If your score is in the middle 50%, then you are similar to most of your classmates, and if your score is in the top 25%, then you think you are more motivated or use more learning strategies than the majority of your classmates.

In general, if your scores are above 3, then you are doing well in this area. If you are below 3, then it may be worth investing some time into developing your skills in this area, asking for help, or discussing with your tutor/teacher/me how to improve in this area.

Motivation section

The first three sections refer to your motivation for the class, confidence in doing well in school, and your anxiety about taking tests.

1. Motivation: Interest

This is a measure of how interested you are in the material being covered in your French class. A high score means that you like what you are studying and are very interested in the topics covered in class.

Your score:

Class mean:
Bottom 25%:
Middle 50%:
Top 25%:

Suggestions:

Skim the table of contents of the textbook or the exam specification and make a list of the three topics that most interest you and of the topics that least interest you. Pay particular attention to these topics. What is it about the three most interesting topics that makes you like them so much? What is it about the other three topics that makes them uninteresting? Can you find any of the characteristics of the three most interesting topics in the three least interesting topics? If you can identify what it is about the three most interesting topics that makes you like them so much, you may be able to apply what you found to the three least interesting ones, and perhaps you'll find that those uninteresting topics aren't so uninteresting after all!

2. Motivation: expectancy for success

This is a measure of your perceptions of your potential success in this class and of your self-confidence for understanding the class content. A high score means that you think you will do well in class and feel confident that you will be able to master class material.

Your score:

Class mean:
Bottom 25%:
Middle 50%:
Top 25%:

Suggestions:

Evaluate your current approach to a piece of homework from different points of view. For example, describe the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of your own approach from your own perspective. Then imagine how a classmate might evaluate your approach. By analysing the way you are tackling a piece of homework, you may be able to figure out what you're doing right and what you're doing wrong and can change your approach. A better understanding of the way you learn, what works and what doesn't work, may help increase your confidence in doing well in French.

Appendix 18 – observation form for motivated behaviours

Observation form for pupil motivation		
Class:	Date:	Day and lesson period:
Willingness to communicate - tallies Volunteer an answer (100, raising a hand)		
Give an answer to teacher's question: - Provide information – general solicit. - Learner-responding - Non-public response		
Ask the teacher a question		
Guess the meaning of unknown word		
Try out difficult form in TL		
Present own opinions in Class		
Volunteer to participate in class activities		
Task engagement Time on task 1 (without prompting or encouragement): Time on task 2 (without prompting or encouragement): Time on task 3 (without prompting or encouragement):		
Behavioural engagement: Indicators of sustained attention and mental effort* in task 1		
Indicators of sustained attention and mental effort* in task 2		
Indicators of sustained attention and mental effort* in task 3		

Social engagement: Indicators of social engagement** in task 1	
Indicators of social engagement** in task 2	
Indicators of social engagement** in task 3	
Use of learning strategies – tallies Asking questions: Guessing meanings: Using synonyms or other production tricks when the precise expression is unknown: Vocalised self-encouragement, correction, or self-evaluation: Using memory strategies: Personalising presentation of work as a memory/learning strategy:	

*Sustained attention and mental effort being measured through indicators where pupils engage with each other, such as evaluating ideas, directing, explaining, informing, providing justification, and asking questions.

**negotiation moves – corrective feedback, modified output, co-constructions, confirmation checks, clarification requests, and metalinguistic exchanges; backchannels produced (verbal and non-verbal).

Appendix 19 – timeline of the two avenues of research

Table showing how the two avenues of research tally up together, with collation of research over the summer, and the final combined cycle being a presentation to colleagues in department of the findings with a subsequent discussion on how to use the findings to improve our practice as a faculty.

March	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Avenue 'A'• Cycle 1 - teacher questionnaire on strategies; pupil questionnaire on strategy ranking; pupil 'motometer' 1• Cycle 2 - round table discussion with department; collaboration with Learning Support over strategy implementation• Cycle 2 - class discussion on strategies and second questionnaire on perceived frequency of strategy use; informal interviews with follow up questions• Avenue 'B'• Self-reporting questionnaires
April	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Avenue 'A'• Cycle 3 - strategy implementation in lesson planning; record of lessons in diarised form.• Avenue 'B'• Observations in class using 'Iris Connect' software; observations of class in other subject areas.
May	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Avenue 'A'• Cycle 3 - class discussion and repeat second questionnaire on perceived frequency of strategy use; pupil 'motometer' 2• Avenue 'B'• MSLQ feedback forms and individual meetings to discuss motivational and learning strategies.
August	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Collate findings
September	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Discussion of findings with colleagues in department to shape future practice.

Appendix 20 – Final rank order of the strategy scales showing the top 10 scales and their component strategies, importance scores per strategy and standard deviations (n=5)

The final wording and order for the macro-strategies is shown in the table with the ordered scales, constituent strategies, strategy mean and standard deviations, with the lower-ranking strategies removed from the scales. The italicised strategies determined the order of the scales as the highest-ranking strategies.

Scale	Strategy	Strategy mean SD	Macrostrategy - teachers' ten commandments
Effort	S42. Help students to realise that it is mainly effort which is needed for success.	6.6	0.8 1. Help students to realise that it is mainly effort which is needed for success.
Rapport	S12. Develop a good relationship with your students.	6.4	1.3 2. Develop a good relationship with students.
Teacher	S1. Prepare for the lessons properly.	6.4	1.3
Teacher	S2. Show a good example by being committed and motivated.	6.2	1.3
Teacher	S3. Try to behave naturally and be yourself in class.	4.2	1.6 3. Set a personal example with well-prepared lessons, and a clear sense of
Teacher	S4. Be as sensitive and accepting as you can be.	4	1.0 motivation and commitment.
Self-confidence	S13. Give positive feedback and appraisal.	5.8	1.3
Self-confidence	S14. Make sure that students experience success regularly.	5.6	1.6
Self-confidence	S15. Constantly encourage your students.	5.6	1.0 4. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence through positive feedback, creating
Self-confidence	S16. Demystify mistakes as a natural part of learning.	5.6	0.8 opportunities for success, encouragement, and using mistakes as a natural part of
Self-confidence	S17. Select tasks that do not exceed the students' competence.	4	1.6 3 the learning process.
Climate	S5. Create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.	6.2	0.8
Climate	S6. Bring in humour and laughter, and smile.	5.6	1.3
Climate	S8. Have game-like competitions within class.	4.6	1.3
Climate	S7. Have games and fun in class.	3.6	1.1 5. Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in class.
Task	S9. Give clear instructions.	6.2	1.6
Task	S10. Provide guidance about how to do the task.	6	1.0
Task	S11. State the purpose and utility of every task.	4	0.8 6. Present the tasks properly with clear instructions and guidance.
Interest	S22. Make tasks challenging to involve your students.	6	0.8
Interest	S21. Vary the activities.	5.8	1.0
Interest	S20. Offer a variety of materials.	4.8	1.6
Interest	S24. Raise students' curiosity by introducing unexpected or unusual elements.	4.8	1.1
Interest	S18. Select interesting tasks.	4.4	1.1
Interest	S19. Choose interesting topics and supplementary materials.	4.4	1.1
Interest	S23. Build on the students' interests, rather than tests or grades, as the main energizer for learning.	3.4	1.3 7. Make language classes interesting with challenge, variety, and curiosity.
Comparison	S50. Avoid any comparison of students to one another.	5.8	1.3 8. Avoid making comparisons between students
Autonomy	S26. Encourage questions and other contributions from the students.	5.6	1.0
Autonomy	S27. Share as much responsibility to organise the learning process with your students as possible.	4.4	0.8 9. Encourage questions and contributions from students and encourage them to take
Autonomy	S25. Encourage creative and imaginative ideas.	4.2	1.6 responsibility for organising their own learning.
Group	S41. Organise extracurricular language-learning activities.	5.4	1.1
Group	S38. Include regular groupwork in your class.	4.2	0.8
Group	S39. Help students to get to know one another.	3.2	1.3
Group	S40. Be an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.	2.6	1.1 10. Organise extracurricular language activities.

Appendix 2I – section from pupil questionnaire showing motivation and anxiety

self-rating

What is your level of motivation right now? Please think about how you are feeling right now as you begin this French lesson. Consider how hard you think you will try to learn the material, how much you want to learn the material, and how much you will enjoy the session and then summarize your overall motivation below.

[More Details](#)

30

Responses



6.90 Average Rating

What is your level of anxiety right now? Please think about how you are feeling right now as you begin this French lesson. Consider any feelings of apprehension, worry or nervousness that you feel about your French lesson, and then summarize your overall anxiety below.

[More Details](#)

30

Responses



3.50 Average Rating

Appendix 22 – mean, median and standard deviation of pupils’ ranking of my school’s teachers’ ‘10 commandments’

Strategy	Mean class 1	SD class 1	Median class 1	Mean class 2	SD class 2	Median class 2	Mean all pupils	SD all pupils	Median all pupils	Mean boys	SD boys	Median boys	Mean girls	SD girls	Median girls
10. Organise extracurricular language activities.	1.81		1.11	1.86	1.75	1.00	1.83	1.42	1.00	1.79	1.12	1.00	1.81	1.68	1.00
9. Encourage questions and contributions from students and encourage them to take responsibility for organising their own learning.	4.13	1.71	3.50	3.29	2.30	2.50	3.73	2.02	3.00	4.21	2.15	3.00	3.31	1.85	3.00
8. Avoid making comparisons between students	3.50	2.63	2.00	2.79	1.31	2.50	3.17	2.12	2.00	2.00	1.24	2.00	4.19	2.23	4.00
7. Make language classes interesting with challenge, variety, and curiosity.	6.38	2.39	6.00	6.00	2.60	6.00	6.20	2.46	6.00	6.29	2.16	6.00	6.13	2.75	6.00
6. Present the tasks properly with clear instructions and guidance.	7.50	2.19	7.50	6.64	2.24	6.50	7.10	2.22	7.00	7.29	2.37	7.50	6.94	2.14	7.00
5. Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in class.	6.06	2.98	6.00	6.93	2.30	7.50	6.47	2.67	7.00	6.43	2.82	7.50	6.50	2.63	6.50
4. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence through positive feedback, creating opportunities for success, encouragement, and using mistakes as a natural part of the learning process.	6.88	1.54	7.00	6.93	1.86	7.00	6.90	1.67	7.00	6.79	1.93	6.50	7.00	1.46	7.00
3. Set a personal example with well-prepared lessons, and a clear sense of motivation and commitment.	5.06	2.79	4.50	5.43	2.10	4.50	5.23	2.46	4.50	5.00	2.15	4.50	5.44	2.76	4.50
2. Develop a good relationship with students.	6.25	2.84	6.50	7.93	2.02	8.00	7.03	2.59	8.00	6.79	1.76	6.50	7.25	3.19	8.50
1. Help students to realise that it is mainly effort which is needed for success.	7.44	2.50	8.00	7.21	2.58	7.50	7.33	2.50	8.00	8.43	1.95	9.00	6.38	2.58	7.00

Appendix 23 – '10 commandments' from teachers (n=5) and pupils (n=30) in this study, teachers in Dörnyei and Csizér's 1998 study, and Cucinotta's 2019 study

Teachers' 10 commandments from present study	Pupil ranking of teachers' 10 commandments from present study	Dörnyei and Csizér's 10 commandments	Cucinotta's 10 commandments
1. Help students to realise that it is mainly effort which is needed for success.	1. Help students to realise that it is mainly effort which is needed for success.	1 Set a personal example with your own behaviour.	1. Climate: Create a friendly and pleasant atmosphere in the classroom
2. Develop a good relationship with students.	2. Present the tasks properly with clear instructions and guidance.	2 Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.	2. Interest: Make tasks more stimulating, engaging, and enjoyable
3. Set a personal example with well-prepared lessons, and a clear sense of motivation and commitment.	3. Develop a good relationship with students.	3 Present the tasks properly.	2. L2 values: Promote the interest toward the target language and its related cultural values
4. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence through positive feedback, creating opportunities for success, encouragement, and using mistakes as a natural part of the learning process.	4. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence through positive feedback, creating opportunities for success, encouragement, and using mistakes as a natural part of the learning process.	4 Develop a good relationship with the learners.	4. Avoid comparison: Avoid any comparison of students to one another
5. Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in class.	5. Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in class.	5 Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence.	5. Group: Promote group works and activities that involve all the students
6. Present the tasks properly with clear instructions and guidance.	6. Make language classes interesting with challenge, variety, and curiosity.	6 Make the language classes interesting.	6. Support: Encourage students and help them achieve their learning goals
7. Make language classes interesting with challenge, variety, and curiosity.	7. Set a personal example with well-prepared lessons, and a clear sense of motivation and commitment.	7 Promote learner autonomy.	7. Be yourself: Act naturally in front of students
8. Avoid making comparisons between students	8. Encourage questions and contributions from students and encourage them to take responsibility for organising their own learning.	8 Personalize the learning process.	8. Share experiences: Encourage students to share personal experiences and thoughts
9. Encourage questions and contributions from students and encourage them to take responsibility for organising their own learning.	9. Avoid making comparisons between students	9 Increase the learners' goal-orientedness.	9. Responsibilization: Help students to be autonomous and responsible for their own learning
10. Organise extracurricular language activities.	10. Organise extracurricular language activities.	10 Familiarize learners with the target language culture.	10. Rules: Establish a set of classroom rules that students agree upon

Appendix 24 – survey items in the mini-AMTB questionnaire (7-point scales)

Item	Content
Integrative orientation (IO)	My motivation to learn French in order to communicate with French people is: Weak \leftrightarrow strong
Attitudes toward native French speakers (AF)	My attitude towards French people is: Unfavourable \leftrightarrow favourable
Interest in Foreign Languages (IFL)	My interest in languages other than French and English is: Very low \leftrightarrow very high
Desire to learn French (D)	My desire to learn French is: Weak \leftrightarrow strong
Attitudes toward learning French (ALF)	My attitude toward learning French is: Unfavourable \leftrightarrow favourable
Attitudes toward French teacher (PROF)	My attitude toward my French teacher is: Unfavourable \leftrightarrow favourable
Attitudes toward French class (COURSE)	My attitude toward my French class is: Unfavourable \leftrightarrow favourable
Instrumental orientation (INST)	My desire to learn French for practical purposes (e.g. to get good grades/into a good university/a good job) is: Weak \leftrightarrow strong
French use anxiety (FUA)	I worry about speaking French outside of class: Strongly disagree \leftrightarrow strongly agree
French class anxiety (FCA)	I worry about speaking in my French class: Strongly disagree \leftrightarrow strongly agree
Motivational intensity (MI)	I would characterise how hard I work at learning French as: Very little \leftrightarrow very much
Parental encouragement (PE)	My parents encourage me to learn French: Very little \leftrightarrow very much

Appendix 25 – mini-AMTB cluster results

Correlations among the measures from the mini-AMTB, with measures grouped according to established clusters used by Tennant and Gardner (2004), Masgoret and Gardner (2003) and Masgoret *et al.* (2001) (n=30) (relevant p-values detailed in main body of writing).

	SM	SA	INST	ATLS	MOTIV	INTEG	ANX	PE
SM	1.00							
SA	-0.09	1.00						
INST	0.19	-0.09	1.00					
ATLS	0.23	-0.10	0.21	1.00				
MOTIV	0.59	-0.12	0.20	0.31	1.00			
INTEG	0.29	-0.18	0.03	0.21	0.62	1.00		
ANX	-0.22	0.33	-0.40	-0.50	-0.26	-0.15	1.00	
PE	0.16	-0.04	0.29	0.13	0.17	0.11	-0.21	1.00

Appendix 26 – mini-AMTB item results

Correlations between the individual items on the mini-AMTB taken as part of the pupil questionnaire, and the state- and trait- motivation and anxiety scores which pupils self-rated using Spearman's rho, with the correlations mentioned in the main body of the writing in bold (n=30).

	SM	SA	INST	PROF	COURSE	MI	D	ALF	IO	AF	IFL	FCA	FUA
SA	-0.09												
IO	0.19	-0.09											
PROF	0.43	-0.27	0.24										
COURSE	0.02	0.05	0.14	0.61									
MI	0.33	-0.36	0.35	0.16	-0.03								
D	0.47	0.01	0.06	0.42	0.17	0.17							
ALF	0.56	-0.02	0.14	0.42	0.14	0.06	0.84						
IO	0.27	-0.13	-0.08	0.23	0.06	0.22	0.69	0.61					
AF	0.00	0.16	0.15	0.17	0.40	0.22	0.16	0.16	0.15				
IFL	0.31	-0.34	-0.01	0.08	-0.10	0.30	0.34	0.21	0.45	-0.09			
FCA	-0.13	0.42	-0.37	-0.54	-0.32	-0.19	-0.09	-0.21	-0.04	0.08	-0.21		
FUA	-0.28	0.21	-0.39	-0.51	-0.35	-0.14	-0.18	-0.37	-0.13	0.00	-0.24	0.77	
PE	0.16	-0.04	0.29	0.16	0.08	0.17	0.15	0.08	0.18	0.03	0.02	-0.21	-0.19

Appendix 27 – Descriptive statistics from the mini-AMTB

Scales, scale mean, item, item mean and standard deviation from the mini-AMTB in the pupil self-reporting questionnaire (n=30).

Scale	Scale mean	Item	Item mean	SD
Instrumental orientation	5.6	Instrumental Orientation (INST)	5.60	1.35
Attitude toward learning situation	5.53	Attitude toward French teacher (PROF)	5.77	0.97
		Attitude toward French class (COURSE)	5.30	1.18
Trait motivation	5.14	Motivational intensity (MI)	5.00	0.87
		Desire to learn French (D)	5.20	1.40
		Attitude toward learning French (ALF)	5.23	1.22
Parental encouragement	5.13	Parental encouragement (PE)	5.13	1.36
Integrativeness	4.87	Integrative Orientation (IO)	5.03	1.43
		Attitude toward French people (AF)	5.27	1.60
		Interest in foreign languages (IFL)	4.30	1.88
Trait anxiety	3.28	French course anxiety (FCA)	3.47	1.68
		French use anxiety (FUA)	3.10	1.75