



**UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA**  
**DEPARTAMENTO DE FILOLOGÍA INGLESA**

The Ideal and Ought-to L2 Selves of Spanish  
Learners of English

Motivación y Aprendizaje de Inglés en España:  
Búsqueda del Yo Ideal o Deónico

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*To Trevor*

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I initiated my research into the ideal and ought selves of language learners fully aware of the ought-to research self hovering in the shadows of my teaching career and an 'obligation' that I had fought to avoid for some time. Perhaps it was that sense of pressure that led me to identify with the struggles of language learners in Spain and the chance to explore their beliefs through Zoltán Dörnyei's ideal-ought L2 self motivational construct. One of the reasons for my hesitation (I now realise) was that my mind struggled to envisage a doctoral thesis self in any shape or form. However, after these few difficult but enjoyable years of study I can now say that I have started to see a glimmer of an 'ideal' researching self and this is a road I shall never regret taking. Therefore, I am enormously indebted to many people who have helped me reach this point.

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## INDEX OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES.....	X
LIST OF FIGURES.....	XI
RESUMEN.....	XII
<b>CHAPTER 7 . THESIS RATIONALE AND STRUCTURE.....</b>	<b>26</b>
1.0 INTRODUCTION.....	26
1.1 WHAT DOES MOTIVATIONAL RESEARCH OFFER? .....	28
1.2 WHY A STUDY ON L2 MOTIVATION IN THIS CONTEXT? .....	30
1.3 WHAT CONTRIBUTION DOES THE STUDY INTEND TO MAKE TO THE FIELD? .....	33
1.4 THESIS STRUCTURE .....	35
1.4.1 <i>Part One. Contextual background and literature review</i> .....	36
1.4.2. <i>Part Two: Research questions and empirical study</i> .....	37
<b>CHAPTER 8 . ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN SPAIN .....</b>	<b>40</b>
2.0 INTRODUCTION.....	40
2.1 ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMPETENCE IN SPAIN .....	41
2.2 THE EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM IN SPAIN.....	42
2.3 EVOLUTION OF ENGLISH AS A SUBJECT IN EDUCATIONAL POLICY .....	44
2.4 LANGUAGE TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING .....	49
2.5 LANGUAGE TEACHER RECRUITMENT .....	54
2.6 CRITIQUES OF EDUCATIONAL POLICIES: LOGSE (1990 – 2006) .....	56
2.7 EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN FL TEACHING: LOE (2006 – 2014) .....	57
2.8 ENGLISH OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.....	60
2.9 CURRENT PROVISOS FOR L2 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE.....	61
2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS .....	63
<b>CHAPTER 9 . OVERVIEW OF L2 MOTIVATION THEORY .....</b>	<b>66</b>
3.0 INTRODUCTION.....	66
3.1 DEFINING MOTIVATION .....	66
3.2 SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION.....	69
3.2.1 <i>Social-psychological stage</i> .....	70
3.2.2 <i>Criticism of the integrative motive</i> .....	73
3.2.3 <i>The cognitive-situated stage</i> .....	78
3.2.4 <i>The process-oriented stage</i> .....	93
3.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	98
<b>CHAPTER 10 . LANGUAGE LEARNER IDENTITY AND THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM .....</b>	<b>100</b>
4.0 INTRODUCTION.....	100
4.1 POST STRUCTURALIST VIEWS ON L2 LEARNER IDENTITY .....	100
4.2 FROM POSSIBLE SELVES THEORY TO THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM.....	109
4.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM.....	119
4.4 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH ON THE L2 MSS.....	124
4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	129
<b>CHAPTER 11 . EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM .....</b>	<b>131</b>
5.0 INTRODUCTION.....	131
5.1 VALIDATION OF THE L2MSS IN ASIAN CONTEXTS .....	133
5.2 EXPLORATIONS OF THE L2 MSS IN OTHER CULTURAL CONTEXTS .....	140
5.3 A QUALITATIVE PERSPECTIVE ON THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM.....	146
5.4 ASPECTS EMPIRICALLY UNEXPLORED IN THE L2 MSS .....	151
5.5 THE DYNAMIC FUTURE OF L2 MOTIVATION RESEARCH.....	153
5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	155
<b>PART TWO: EMPIRICAL STUDY .....</b>	<b>157</b>
<b>CHAPTER 12 . STUDY RATIONALE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....</b>	<b>158</b>

6.0 INTRODUCTION.....	158
6.1 RESEARCH RATIONALE AND AIMS.....	158
6.1.1 <i>Cultural variation</i> .....	160
6.1.2 <i>Interplay between the ideal and ought self paradigms</i> .....	162
6.1.3 <i>The role of the learning experience dimension of the L2 MSS</i> .....	163
6.1.4 <i>The role of attitudinal, goal related and affective variables in the L2 MSS</i> .....	164
6.1.5 <i>Variation according to language achievement and gender</i> .....	164
<b>CHAPTER 13 . METHOD.....</b>	<b>166</b>
7.0 INTRODUCTION.....	166
7.1 STUDY DESIGN RATIONALE: MIXED METHODS RESEARCH.....	166
7. 2 PARTICIPANTS.....	169
7.2.1 <i>Participating institutions</i> .....	169
7.2.2 <i>Quantitative phase participants</i> .....	170
7.2.3 <i>Qualitative phase participants</i> .....	178
7.3 MATERIALS AND METHODS .....	180
7.3.1 <i>The quantitative study instrument design</i> .....	180
7.3.2 <i>Pre-MFQ interviews: method and data analysis</i> .....	183
7.4 MFQ SCALES: ITEM SELECTION AND TRANSLATION.....	188
7.5 PILOT STUDY ADMINISTRATION AND ANALYSIS.....	195
7.6 PILOT STUDY ANALYSIS AND RESULTS .....	196
7.7 MAIN MFQ ADMINISTRATION AND DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES .....	199
7.8 DATA ANALYSES PROCEDURES FOR ANALYSIS OF RQS .....	208
7.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	210
<b>CHAPTER 14 . QUANTITATIVE STUDY RESULTS.....</b>	<b>212</b>
8.0 INTRODUCTION.....	212
8.1 THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM .....	212
8.1.1 <i>The IDEAL SELF</i> .....	212
8.1.2 <i>The OUGHT SELF scale</i> .....	215
8.1.3 <i>The L2 Learning Experience</i> .....	216
8.1.4 <i>Summary of results on the L2 MSS variables</i> .....	221
8.2 THE ROLES OF ATTITUDINAL, GOAL-ORIENTATION, AND AFFECTIVE L2 MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES IN THE SAMPLE .....	222
8.2.1 <i>Whole sample analysis</i> .....	222
8.2.2 <i>Contrast of attitudinal, goal-orientation, and affective L2 motivational variables across subgroups</i> .....	224
8.2.3 <i>Section summary</i> .....	227
8.3 CORRELATIONS OF L2 MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES WITH INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT AND THE L2 MSS .....	228
8.3.1 <i>Analysis of interplay between L2 motivational variables and L2 MSS concepts</i> .....	231
8.3.2 <i>Contrast of attitudinal, goal-orientation and affective variables across subgroups</i> .....	233
8.3.3 <i>Section summary</i> .....	236
8.4 CONTRAST OF MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES BY PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY .....	236
8.5 CORRELATIONS OF ATTITUDINAL, GOAL-ORIENTATION AND AFFECTIVE VARIABLES ACROSS PROFICIENCY GROUPS .....	240
8.6 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE SAMPLE.....	242
8.7 SECTION SUMMARY .....	246
8.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	247
<b>CHAPTER 15 . QUALITATIVE INSIGHTS INTO THE OUGHT L2 SELF.....</b>	<b>249</b>
9.0 INTRODUCTION.....	249
9.1. INTERVIEWS .....	251
9.1.1 <i>Interviewee recruitment</i> .....	251
9.1.2 <i>Interview structure, execution and analysis</i> .....	252
9.2 INTERVIEW ANALYSIS.....	253
9.2 <i>Elena</i> .....	253
9.2.1 <i>Summary of Elena’s interview analysis</i> .....	263
9.3 ANDRÉS .....	265
9.3.1 <i>Summary of Andrés’ interview analysis</i> .....	272

9.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS .....	273
<b>CHAPTER 16 . DISCUSSION.....</b>	<b>276</b>
10.0 INTRODUCTION.....	276
10.1 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE IDEAL L2 SELF DIMENSION OF THE L2MSS .....	277
10.2 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE L2 LEARNING EXPERIENCE DIMENSION OF THE L2MSS .....	281
10.3 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE <i>OUGHT SELF</i> DIMENSION OF THE L2 MSS.....	286
10.3.1 <i>Contributions to the ought L2 self: parental encouragement and instrumentality prevention</i> .....	287
10.4 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE ROLE OF GOAL RELATED AND ATTITUDINAL VARIABLES .....	290
10.4.1 <i>The role of integrativeness in the L2 motivation of the sample</i> .....	290
10.4.2 <i>The role of international posture</i> .....	292
10.4.3 <i>The roles of instrumentality promotion and prevention</i> .....	293
10.5 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE ROLE OF AFFECTIVE FACTORS.....	295
10.5.1 <i>The role of anxiety</i> .....	295
10.5.2 <i>The role of self confidence</i> .....	296
10.6 L2 MOTIVATION IN THE SAMPLE ACCORDING TO GENDER AND PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY .....	299
10.6.1 <i>Gender differences in the sample</i> .....	299
10.6.2 <i>Perceived Proficiency</i> .....	301
<b>CHAPTER 17 . CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY AND PRACTICE .....</b>	<b>304</b>
11.0 INTRODUCTION.....	304
11.2 MAIN CONTRIBUTIONS TO L2 MSS THEORY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH .....	304
11.3 INSIGHTS FROM THE STUDY FOR PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	308
11.1 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	309
11.4 FINAL THOUGHTS .....	311
REFERENCES .....	312
APPENDICES.....	333



## List of Tables

TABLE 7.1 DISTRIBUTION OF PILOT STUDY PARTICIPANTS BY DEGREE AND UNIVERSITY	170
TABLE 7.2 DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS BY DEGREE STUDIES AND ECTS CREDITS IN EFL	172
TABLE 7.3 GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS	173
TABLE 7.4 DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY YEAR OF STUDY IN STATE OR PRIVATE UNIVERSITY	174
TABLE 7.5 PARTICIPANTS' PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH	175
TABLE 7.6 PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY WITHIN AND ACROSS ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	176
TABLE 7.7 PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY WITH TIME SPENT ABROAD IN AN ENGLISH SPEAKING COUNTRY	177
TABLE 7.8 MOTIVATIONAL SCALES USED IN PREVIOUS L2 MSS STUDIES	181
TABLE 7.9 PRE-MFQ INTERVIEW: PARTICIPANT PROFILES	183
TABLE 7.10 SCALES USED IN THE PILOTING PHASE OF THE MFQ IN SPAIN	193
TABLE 7.11 CRONBACH ALPHA INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF THE PILOT STUDY SCALE ITEMS	197
TABLE 7.12 CRONBACH ALPHA INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF MAIN STUDY MFQ SCALES IN CONTRAST WITH PREVIOUS STUDIES	200
TABLE 7.13 PRINCIPAL COMPONENTS MATRIX OF THE OUGHT SELF MULTI-ITEM SCALE	204
TABLE 7.14 CRONBACH ALPHA INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF MFQ SCALES ACROSS ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	206
TABLE 7.15 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES FOR MAIN STUDY	209
TABLE 8.1 KRUSKAL-WALLIS CONTRAST OF INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT ACROSS ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	212
TABLE 8.2 KRUSKAL-WALLIS CONTRAST OF THE IDEAL SELF ACROSS ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	213
TABLE 8.3 MANN-WHITNEY CONTRAST OF INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT AND IDEAL SELF BETWEEN EDUCATION AND OTHER STUDIES SUBGROUPS	214
TABLE 8.4 KRUSKAL-WALLIS CONTRAST OF THE OUGHT SELF ACROSS THE ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	215
TABLE 8.5 KRUSKAL-WALLIS CONTRAST OF ATTITUDE TO LEARNING ACROSS ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	216
TABLE 8.6 KRUSKAL-WALLIS CONTRAST OF MEANS OF CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING ACROSS ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	218
TABLE 8.7 SCALE MEANS AND FRIEDMAN TEST CONTRAST FOR ATTITUDES TO PAST L2 LEARNING AND CURRENT ATTITUDES TO L2 LEARNING	218
TABLE 8.8 PEARSON'S CORRELATION COEFFICIENT ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING WITH CURRENT ATTITUDES TO LEARNING	219
TABLE 8.9 SPEARMAN'S RHO CORRELATIONS OF L2 MSS CORE CONCEPTS WITH INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	220
TABLE 8.10 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF MFQ ATTITUDINAL, GOAL-ORIENTATION, AND AFFECTIVE FACTORS FOR THE WHOLE SIMPLE	223
TABLE 8.11 ANOVA CONTRAST FOR ATTITUDINAL, GOAL-ORIENTATION AND AFFECTIVE VARIABLES ACROSS ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	224
TABLE 8.12 CORRELATIONS OF L2 MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES WITH INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT ACROSS SUBGROUPS	228
TABLE 8.13 ORDER OF VARIABLES AS CORRELATED WITH INTENDED EFFORT IN EACH SUBGROUP	230
TABLE 8.14 CORRELATION OF MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES WITH L2 MSS	232
TABLE 8.15 CORRELATIONS OF L2 MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES WITH L2 MSS ACROSS ACADEMIC SUBGROUP	235
TABLE 8.16 CONTRAST OF MEANS ACROSS ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY SUBGROUP	238
TABLE 8.17 SPEARMAN'S CORRELATIONS OF MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES WITH INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT AND THE IDEAL SELF BY PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY	240
TABLE 8.18 CONTRAST OF MEANS FOR MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES	243
TABLE 8.19 SPEARMAN'S RHO CORRELATIONS OF MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES WITH INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT AND IDEAL SELF BY GENDER	244

## List of Figures

FIGURE 2.1 FOREIGN LANGUAGE SKILLS IN EUROPE, (EF EPI STUDY, 2013)	42
FIGURE 2.2 CHANGES IN EDUCATIVE LEGISLATION FROM LGE TO LOGSE (SOURCE: WWW.UNESCO.ORG.)	45
FIGURE 2.3. EVOLUTION OF PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS STUDYING ENGLISH IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THE PRE LGE AND LOGSE SYSTEMS (SOURCE: MORALES ET AL., 2000, P. 88)	47
FIGURE 3.1 GARDNER'S (1985) SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE SOCIO- EDUCATIONAL MODEL	72
FIGURE 3.2 GARDNER'S 1985 REPRESENTATION OF THE INTEGRATIVE MOTIVE WITHIN THE SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL MODEL	72
FIGURE 3.3 THE SELF DETERMINATION CONTINUUM, SHOWING TYPES OF MOTIVATION AND REGULATORY STYLES AND LOCI OF CAUSALITY (RYAN & DECI, 2000)	90
FIGURE 7.1 MIXED METHODS STRUCTURE FOR EMPIRICAL STUDY	168
FIGURE 7.2 GENDER DISTRIBUTION IN ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	172
FIGURE 7.3 DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE BY YEAR OF STUDY	173
FIGURE 7.4 PARTICIPANTS' PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH	175
FIGURE 7.5 PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY WITHIN AND ACROSS SUBGROUPS	176

## Resumen

En esta tesis doctoral fundamentamos y detallamos un estudio empírico llevado a cabo en la Región de Murcia, España sobre el perfil de motivación en el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa (L2) de estudiantes universitarios. Dicho estudio es el primero en este contexto geopolítico en proponer un análisis de actitudes y comportamiento en cuanto al aprendizaje de inglés desde la perspectiva del Sistema Motivacional del Yo L2 (SMY L2). Este novedoso modelo de motivación fue conceptualizado por Zoltán Dörnyei (2005, 2009a) como un constructo psicológico más amplio y flexible que algunos de los tradicionales y dominantes acercamientos teóricos empleados para el estudio de la motivación en el ámbito de la L2, como ha sido, por ejemplo, la llamada motivación integradora (Gardner y Lambert, 1972).

A lo largo de las últimas décadas se ha resaltado la primacía de la motivación como un factor decisivo a la hora de determinar si un individuo persistirá hacia el logro en el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua (véase Dörnyei, 1998, 2001; Gardner 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) y la motivación es considerada una variable de igual potencia que la de la aptitud como precursor a la adquisición de la L2 (Dörnyei, 2010b). A pesar de los años dedicados a analizar el concepto desde distintas ramas de la psicología, perduran de algún modo las palabras de Corder (1981, p.1) cuando dice “Si existe motivación, es inevitable que el ser humano aprenda una segunda lengua, si está expuesto a los datos de dicha lengua”. No obstante, la motivación es un constructo psicológico de alta complejidad, casi imposible de definir de manera contundente ya que se compone de una amplísimo abanico de variables cognitivas y afectivas desarrolladas en el estudio de la psicología a lo largo del último siglo. En este sentido, Dörnyei (2001c) indica que es preferible ver el concepto de la motivación como un término ‘paraguas’ o global dada la gran variedad de factores que engloba. No obstante, una de las definiciones más conocidas que ha logrado encapsular grosso modo las dimensiones claves del término es la de Gardner (1985; Gardner y Lambert, 1972) en la que determina que para una verdadera motivación en L2 debe existir *deseo, esfuerzo y persistencia* hacia la meta, es decir, hacia la adquisición de la L2. Los mismos autores destacaban que en el logro en el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua la

clave residía en las actitudes positivas hacía la comunidad de habla de dicha lengua y el deseo de integrarse en dicha comunidad. Este concepto denominado la *motivación integradora* (véase Gardner & Lambert, 1972) ha dominado en el campo de la motivación en L2 durante medio siglo gracias a su probada capacidad para energizar y motorizar la conducta y el logro en el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa, sobre todo en casos de comunidades bilingües. No obstante, y como detallamos en el Capítulo 3, ya en la última década se ha llegado a cuestionar la lógica de tal supremacía sobre todo en lugares distintos a Canadá bilingüe y bicultural, contexto en el que los arriba mencionados autores llevaron a cabo gran parte de sus estudios.

La perspectiva teórica sobre la que se asienta el presente estudio surgió como fruto de las investigaciones realizadas en un contexto europeo, concretamente Hungría (véase Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006), en los que la motivación integradora se confirmaba una y otra vez como la variable por excelencia que determinaba la elección de la lengua extranjera a estudiar en poblaciones de estudiantes de la educación secundaria. Este hecho, algo incoherente ante la falta de proximidad de una comunidad de habla inglesa en dicho país, llevó a Dörnyei y asociados (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a, 2005b) a buscar una teoría alternativa que fuese capaz de dar respuesta a esta ambigüedad. Como fruto de sus indagaciones en teorías de la motivación en el campo la psicología general, Dörnyei (2005) conceptualiza el Sistema Motivacional del Yo L2 (SMY L2) fundamento en el concepto de *yoes posibles* (Markus & Nurius, 1986) que centra el eje de la capacidad motivadora en el futuro y el abanico de opciones que se abren ante el ser humano para decidir quién llegará a ser. Estos *seres posibles* residen en la imaginación del ser humano y es precisamente la capacidad de generar visiones e imágenes para anticipar nuestros *yoes posibles* que los fundadores del concepto resaltan como factor clave para que sirvan de guías ayudándonos a planificar nuestros caminos en la vida. Los fundadores del concepto Markus y Nurius (1986) conceptualizan una infinidad de seres posibles; no obstante, el constructo de Dörnyei engloba dos, basados en la distinción de los *yoes posibles* establecido por Higgins (1986, 1987) — el *ideal del yo L2*, el usuario de la L2 que queremos ser en el futuro; el *yo L2 deóntico* (traducción propia) o de obligación, el yo derivado de las consideraciones de otras personas y entidades en nuestro entorno

sobre quienes podemos o debemos ser en la vida. Además, de los dos *posibles seres L2*, Dörnyei completa su modelo con lo que llama la *Experiencia de Aprendizaje L2*, entendido como el abanico de factores que influyen en los contextos de aprendizaje de la segunda lengua (profesores, metodologías, materiales, etc.). Para ayudar a comprender la capacidad motivadora del modelo, Dörnyei (2005) se vale del concepto de la discrepancia de Higgins (1987), que hace referencia a la laguna que existe entre nuestro yo actual y el, o los, que deseemos alcanzar. En otras palabras, el deseo de subsanar dicha discrepancia constituye el motor que nos incita a la acción, que nos motiva a actuar.

La perspectiva que hemos descrito en los párrafos anteriores del Sistema Motivacional del Yo L2 (SMY L2) es la que se ha escogido para indagar en las actitudes y perfiles motivacionales L2 de estudiantes universitarios en la Región de Murcia. Este conjunto de individuos, al igual que sus pares en otras provincias españolas, se encuentran hoy en día en el punto de mira en cuanto a la competencia en lengua inglesa se refiere. España, tras años de procrastinar en asuntos de la enseñanza-aprendizaje de una lengua franca que le facilite la comunicación a nivel internacional, está muy necesitada de una población activa con dominio de lenguas extranjeras. A pesar de que los últimos estudios de índices de competencia en lengua inglesa en Europa (véase English First. English Proficiency Index EPI, 2014) señalan una ligera mejora en comparación con años anteriores, España sigue muy por debajo en los rankings de competencia comunicativa en la lengua inglesa en comparación con la mayoría de sus vecinos Europeos (Estudio europeo de la competencia comunicativa, MEC, 2012). Las cifras quizá sorprenden cuando se tiene en cuenta que los adultos jóvenes de hoy en día han cursado hasta doce años de lengua inglesa como asignatura obligatoria en la enseñanza primaria y secundaria, hecho que nos lleva a cuestionar las razones tras el bajo nivel de competencia que aparentemente presentan los egresados de dicho sistema de enseñanza. En los últimos años se percibe un esfuerzo por parte del Gobierno por subsanar este problema lingüístico en general, a través de su Programa Integral de Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras (2010 – 2020), y del enfoque pedagógico en el aula de lengua extranjera (LE) en particular, por medio de la recomendada implantación de un sistema de enseñanza bilingüe en centros educativos

de primaria y secundaria en todo el país (BOE 106/ 2006, 4 de mayo). No obstante, esta iniciativa, si bien pretende asegurar que las futuras generaciones de españoles sean capaces de comunicarse en la lengua inglesa con fluidez, está suponiendo un reto para actuales y futuros profesionales del sistema educativo español, los cuales se ven ante la obligación de mejorar y certificar su competencia lingüística para poder acceder a la profesión y llegar a formar parte de un claustro de profesores ‘bilingües’. Este conjunto de futuros profesores, junto con estudiantes universitarios de otras ramas que se encuentran ante un mercado laboral cada vez más exigente en formación lingüística, no se encuentran, en muchos casos, con un apoyo sólido en cuanto al aprendizaje de la L2 se refiere dentro de sus estudios universitarios.

Por tanto, el estudio que se plantea en esta tesis emplea el modelo psicológico del *Sistema Motivacional del Yo L2* de Dörnyei (2005, 2009) como prismático para un análisis detallado de las actitudes y creencias en el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa en la población universitaria en la Región de Murcia. El fin primordial de dicha investigación es la de proporcionar datos que puedan ser de ayuda para los depositarios o *stakeholders* en el ámbito de la enseñanza-aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa en España, ya que para poder asegurar buenas prácticas, tanto en políticas LE, como en las aulas de LE, hemos de entender la disposición motivacional de la población que se encuentra ante el reto de lograr la competencia comunicativa y así alinear objetivos y prácticas LE de manera acorde. Entre los objetivos principales, también se podría destacar la perspectiva innovadora de analizar cómo plantean estos estudiantes sus futuros *seres posibles L2* y de qué manera esta teoría pueda servir a los practicantes de la enseñanza de la lengua inglesa a plantear estrategias y técnicas de motivación en sus aulas.

Otro de los objetivos que planteamos en este trabajo es el de aportar datos empíricos que puedan ser de valía en cuanto a las lagunas que se pueden percibir en la validación de la teoría del SMY L2. La revisión de la literatura empírica detallada en el Capítulo 4, y que analiza estudios llevados a cabo en gran parte hasta la fecha en contextos de culturas orientales (Ryan, 2008, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009) destapa dos lagunas principales que requieren clarificación. Por un lado, el papel del llamado Yo

*deóntico L2 (Ought Self<sup>1</sup>)*, que representa las obligaciones o presión que podemos sentir de fuentes externas para aprender la L2, ha resultado algo menos patente (y potente) que el de su contrapartida, el *ideal del yo L2*. A pesar de de la insistencia de diversos autores (Markus y Nurius (1986) y Higgins, 1987, Oyserman, Bybee & Terry, 2006) en que debe existir un vertiente de ‘obligación’ externa o incluso de un Yo temido (*feared self*) para asegurar la eficacia motivacional de *yo posible o ideal*, este pilar del modelo, además de ser más difícil de precisar dada su procedencia de diversas fuentes externas al individuo, parece tener un papel algo más débil que el *ideal del yo L2* a la hora de constituir un factor motivador en las poblaciones estudiadas. En el mismo sentido, el rol de la familia que se ha destacado como fuente principal de un *yo deóntico L2* en contextos orientales, (véase el concepto del *imperativo chino*, Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005), no se extrapola fácilmente a contextos de occidente en los que el rol de la familia a la hora de escoger estudios parece de menor influencia (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a).

El presente estudio de investigación y su metodología se basan fundamentalmente en dos estudios llevados a cabo en Japón(a) (Ryan, 2008, 2009) y en Japón(b), China e Irán (Taguchi, Magid y Papi, 2009) para validar el constructo SMY L2 y analizar la motivación L2 de estudiantes universitarios y de educación secundaria en dichos contextos. El estudio se ha visto guiado por las siguientes preguntas de investigación (PI):

PI 1: DESDE LA PERSPECTIVA DEL SMY L2, ¿MUESTRAN UN PERFIL DOMINANTE DEL IDEAL DEL YO L2 LOS ESTUDIANTES QUE HAN ELEGIDO LA LENGUA INGLESA COMO LÍNEA DE ESTUDIO PRINCIPAL EN SUS CARRERAS UNIVERSITARIAS EN COMPARACIÓN CON AQUELLOS QUE ESCOGEN ESTUDIOS POCO RELACIONADOS CON EL ESTUDIO DE INGLÉS?

PI 2: DESDE LA PERSPECTIVA DEL SMY L2, ¿LOS ESTUDIANTES EN ESTUDIOS UNIVERSITARIOS RELACIONADOS CON LA FORMACIÓN DE PROFESORADO MUESTRAN UN PERFIL DEL YO DEÓNTICO L2 DOMINANTE EN COMPARACIÓN CON AQUELLOS ESTUDIANTES EN ESTUDIOS SIN RELACIÓN CON LA EDUCACIÓN?

PI 3. DESDE LA PERSPECTIVA DEL SMY L2, ¿QUÉ PAPEL JUEGAN LAS EXPERIENCIAS DE APRENDIZAJE L2 EN LA COMPOSICIÓN MOTIVACIONAL DE LA MUESTRA?

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<sup>1</sup> A pesar de que en el título de la tesis se utiliza el término *ought-to self*, de aquí en adelante se emplea *ought self*.

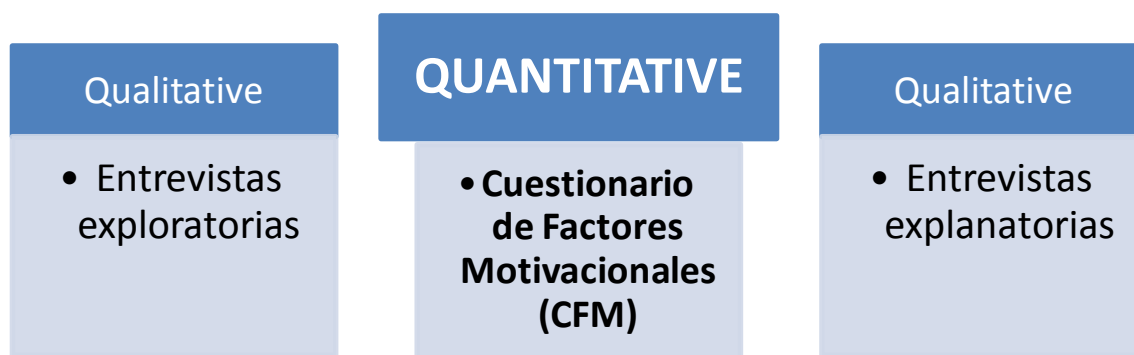
PI 4: DESDE LA PERSPECTIVA DEL SMY L2, ¿QUÉ PAPEL JUEGAN LOS VARIABLES COGNITIVOS, AFECTIVOS Y RELACIONADOS CON LAS METAS EN LA COMPOSICIÓN MOTIVACIONAL DE LA MUESTRA?

PI 5: DESDE LA PERSPECTIVA DEL SMY L2, DIFIERE LA COMPOSICIÓN MOTIVACIONAL DE LA MUESTRA DE ACUERDO CON LOS VARIABLES DE A) LOGRO EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA Y B) GÉNERO?

## Método

### *Estudio de método mixto*

Al igual que el estudio de Ryan (2008, 2009) en Japón, y siguiendo las recomendaciones de Ushioda (2009), el estudio propuesto aquí en España sigue una metodología QUAN — QUAL — QUAN (Morse, 1991, citado en Ryan, 2008) y que se estructura de la siguiente manera:



Este modelo de investigación de método mixto otorga protagonismo a la fase cuantitativa — el Cuestionario de Factores Motivacionales (CFM). No obstante, el estudio plantea dos fases cualitativas para poder valerse de las ventajas que este método presenta en facilitar una perspectiva detallada de las percepciones individuales ya que, como bien dice Ushioda, (2011, p. 12) los resultados de los estudios cuantitativos pueden convertirse en “manojos abstractos de variables”. Por tanto, con el fin de poder desambiguar ciertos aspectos del estudio cuantitativo, se establecieron dos fases cualitativas de entrevistas con estudiantes universitarios. La fase inicial con 10 estudiantes planteaba objetivos principales: a) establecer si los conceptos a incluir en el CFM tenían relevancia para los alumnos, p.ej. los conceptos de un *yo L2 Ideal* o un *yo deóntico* entre otros y b) comprobar el lenguaje que empleaban los estudiantes en español a la hora de hacer referencia a los distintos conceptos o variables a estudiar. La segunda fase cualitativa del estudio se estableció,



al igual que en Ryan (2008), para poder indagar en cualquier aspecto de los resultados cuantitativos que resultara ambigua. El aspecto más ambiguo de dichos resultados fue el concepto del *yo deónico*, ya que la escala psicométrica empleada con 6 ítems que hacían referencia a posibles fuentes externos de obligación o presión para aprender la lengua inglesa no obtuvo una cifra de fiabilidad de Cronbach esperado, además de unas medias más bajas de lo plantadas por la hipótesis, sobre todo en el grupo de estudiantes de carreras relacionadas con la Educación. Por tanto, se aprovechó la última fase cualitativa para entrevistar a dos estudiantes de dichas ramas de conocimiento y analizar a fondo sus percepciones de la obligación y las fuentes de esta.

#### *Estudio cuantitativo: Participantes*

Con el fin de proporcionar respuestas a las preguntas planteadas, se llevó a cabo, por un lado, un estudio piloto con 126 estudiantes universitarios y, por otro, el estudio cuantitativo principal con 530 estudiantes clasificados en tres grupos:

- a) Grupo Inglés: Estudiantes de Estudios Ingleses y Traducción e Interpretación
- b) Grupo Educación: Estudiantes de Educación Infantil y Primaria
- c) Otros Estudios: Estudiantes de diversas carreras universitarias

#### *El instrumento cuantitativo*

El CFM — un cuestionario multi-escala psicométrica de 13 variables motivacionales y con un total de 71 ítems, se creó a partir de aquellos utilizados por Ryan (2005, 2008) y Taguchi et al. (2009). A diferencia de Ryan (2005), que realizó el primer cuestionario para validar el modelo del SMY L2, centrándose más el *yo L2 ideal*, Taguchi et al. (2009) emplearon una escala específicamente diseñada para investigar el concepto del *yo deónico*, además de dos escalas para medir dos perspectivas, de acercamiento y defensiva, de la *instrumentalidad*. Además de sus intereses directos en validar el constructo nuevo del SMY L2, tanto Ryan (2005, 2009) como Taguchi et al. (2009) emplearon escalas psicométricas de las utilizadas en los estudios en Hungría

(véase Dörnyei et al., 2006) para medir varios aspectos cognitivos, afectivos y relacionado con las metas de la motivación L2. Para el CFM en España se realizó una selección de variables a medir de acuerdo con las preguntas de investigación planteadas y acorde con la información obtenida durante las entrevistas de la primera fase cualitativa. (Véase Capítulo 7 en el que incluimos el resumen de dichas entrevistas).

El CFM inicial, con 16 variables, entre ellas el de criterio de medida — intención de esforzarse en el aprendizaje de la L2 — se sometió a un estudio piloto con 124 estudiantes universitarios de un perfil similar a los escogidos para el estudio principal. La muestra disponía de una escala Likert de 6 puntos (0 a 5) para valorar sus percepciones de los ítems del cuestionario (véase Apendice IV). Tras el análisis estadístico de consistencia interna de las escalas de Cronbach, fueron eliminadas 2 de las escalas psicométricas utilizadas por Ryan (2008) que medían variables de *miedo a la asimilación y etnocentrismo* y que no obtuvieron una cifra aceptable de fiabilidad Cronbach. Como resultado del estudio piloto, fueron adaptados los ítems que componían la escala para medir el efecto del *yo deóntico* ya que los dos ítems incluidos que hacían referencia a la influencia de amigos afectaban de forma negativa a la fiabilidad Cronbach de la escala.

En la fase principal del estudio cuantitativo, el CFM se suministró a 535 estudiantes universitarios de las dos universidades en la ciudad de Murcia. Se mantuvo la escala Likert de 6 puntos (0 a 5) para la valoración de los ítems. Después de un análisis inicial de limpieza de datos fueron eliminados 6 de los cuestionarios por errores o falta de datos personales. Los datos fueron analizados a través de SPSS 17.

## **Resultados y conclusiones**

### *El ideal del yo L2*

Tres de nuestras preguntas de investigación iban dirigidos a explorar los tres pilares del constructo SMY L2 de Dörnyei (2005, 2009). Por tanto comentaremos los resultados más relevantes en relación a dichos conceptos. A través de un análisis no paramétrico (Kruskall-Wallis) de contraste las medias y medianas obtenidas

podimos confirmar la hipótesis inicial derivada de la pregunta 1, que aquellos estudiantes con mayor involucración con la lengua inglesa en sus estudios presentarían un perfil del *yo L2 ideal* más fuerte que los otros dos grupos de estudiantes. El nivel de significancia en la diferencia llegó a  $p < ,000$ . Se confirma, por tanto, que el concepto *ideal del yo L2* en este estudio en España, no solo tiene validez, sino que resulta ser una de las variables más fuertes en este conjunto de estudiantes. Los análisis de correlaciones no paramétricas realizados también nos llevaron a confirmar que el *ideal del yo L2* es la variable más relacionada con las intenciones de esforzarse en el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa en el futuro ( $r = ,71$ ,  $p < ,01$ ) en los tres grupos de participantes.

### *El yo deóntico L2*

En relación a la segunda pregunta de investigación y la hipótesis de que un *yo deóntico L2* sería más patente en estudiantes de la rama de educación, llevamos a cabo un contraste de las medias y medianas obtenidas en dicha escala. Pudimos comprobar que, al contrario de las expectativas, el *yo deóntico* obtuvo medias muy bajas en los tres grupos de estudiantes, aunque bien es cierto que el grupo de Educación obtuvo la media más alta ( $M=1,79$ ,  $DE 1,10$ ). Esta media se sitúa dentro del rango de 'en desacuerdo' dentro de la escala Likert utilizada para medir las percepciones de los participantes. A pesar de que la diferencia en las medias entre el Grupo de Inglés y los otros dos grupos de la muestra sí resultó significativa ( $p < ,000$ ), indicando que el Grupo de Inglés rechaza la noción de sentirse obligados o presionados a aprender la lengua, no hubo diferencia significativa ( $p < ,512$ ) entre los estudiantes de Educación y los de Otros Estudios. Este hecho indica que la muestra de estudios relacionados con la Educación no presenta un perfil fuerte del llamado *yo L2 deóntico*. Tras un contraste de los resultados con los obtenidos en estudios en países de Oriente (Ryan, 2008, 2009; Taguchi, et al., (2009), concluimos que el concepto del *yo deóntico* puede tener más fuerza en países en los que el papel de la familia en la educación de los hijos es mayor, por ejemplo, China (véase Chen Warden y Chang, 2005), mientras que en nuestro contexto Occidental, la influencia de padres y familia cercana sobre las decisiones que toma el estudiante durante sus años formativos en la universidad parece ser menor y por tanto no patente en la forma de un *yo deóntico*. Después de

los análisis cualitativos realizados también pudimos comprobar que medir una percepción de obligación en aprendices de la lengua inglesa a través de las figuras significantes en la vida de uno no parece tener relevancia en la población estudiada. Además, limitar las fuentes externas a otros individuos omite la posibilidad de medir la obligación o presión que emana desde las autoridades gubernamentales y educativas que transmiten sus deseos para la población a través de legislaciones, mensajes políticos y otros medios publicitarios.

### *La Experiencia de Aprendizaje L2*

Esta tercera dimensión del SMY L2 no había recibido un tratamiento detallado en los estudios anteriores al presente. Por un lado, a nivel teórico ha sido señalado como algo ambiguo dentro del constructo (McIntyre, McKinnon & Clément, 2009; Ryan, 2008), menos elaborado conceptualmente que los conceptos del *yo ideal* y el *yo deóntico*. En este estudio, dada la hipótesis de que las experiencias de aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa en la educación obligatoria serían algo negativas (véase el Capítulo 2 para una revisión de la enseñanza de inglés en el sistema educativo español), se decantó por analizar el concepto de *experiencia* desde dos vertientes temporales distintas, el pasado y el presente. Dicho análisis nos llevó a confirmar la hipótesis planteada sobre la negatividad de las experiencias pasadas, ya que la media en el conjunto de la muestra en la escala de la experiencia pasada bajó de forma considerable en el conjunto de la muestra ( $M=2,37$ ,  $DE 1,37$ ) frente a las actitudes hacía la situación de aprendizaje actual ( $M=3,37$ ,  $DE 1,07$ ). Este hecho aporta a la base teórica del constructo del *Sistema Motivacional del Yo L2* la relevancia de medir distintos aspectos temporales de la experiencias de aprendizaje L2 ya que, aunque pueda verse mejoras en cuanto a actitudes actuales, es importante tener en cuenta el efecto mitigante en las actitudes que pueda causar una experiencia de aprendizaje negativa y tomar medidas apropiadas para eliminar posibles secuelas ‘desmotivantes’ de dicha experiencia.

## **Variables relacionadas con las metas L2**

### *La instrumentalidad como motivación orientativa*

Relacionado con el concepto de obligación originado en fuentes externas, pudimos comprobar que la dimensión de *instrumentalidad de evitación* de la dicotomía explorada en este estudio puede ser una medida más fiable de las percepciones de presión que siente la población universitaria de aprender inglés. Dicha escala apunta a los aspectos perjudiciales de no lograr una competencia comunicativa adecuada, como por ejemplo no conseguir el trabajo deseado. Y la muestra en su conjunto señalaba la importancia de dicha orientación a través de medias altas ( $M= 3.71$ ,  $DE= 1,01$ ) y correlaciones fuertes con el criterio de medida — intención de esforzarse en el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa en el futuro ( $r=.54$ ,  $p<.01$ ). La contrapartida de la dicotomía — la *instrumentalidad de acercamiento* — también obtuvo medias altas en el conjunto de la muestra ( $M= 3,84$ ;  $DE= ,803$ ) y una correlación ligeramente más alta ( $r = .57$ ,  $p<.01$ ) que la de *evitación* con el criterio de medida. Estos resultados nos muestran que existe una perspectiva de balance entre los dos tipos de orientaciones, aspecto que, conforme nos indica la teoría de los *yoes posibles* (véase Oyserman, Bybee & Terry, 2006; Dörnyei, 2005; 2009b), es una indicación positiva de que dichas orientaciones trabajen en conjunto y, por tanto, pueden llegar a ser eficaces a la hora de incitar a la acción.

### *La postura internacional*

El estudio, llevado a cabo en la Región de Murcia, constituye el primero sobre la motivación L2 que incluye la variable motivacional llamado por Yahima (2000, 2002, 2009) *international posture (postura internacional)* dentro de la gama de orientaciones conocidas, como la integradora o la instrumental. El concepto fue concebido por Yashima para dar respuesta a la orientación internacional que percibía en los participantes de sus estudios frente a la tradicional motivación integradora. Yashima (2000) propone que debe existir una forma más amplia y flexible de ver las posibilidades de comunicación en una lengua franca como la lengua inglesa a nivel global y que dicho constructo permite ir más allá del deseo de formar parte de un

grupo específico de habla inglesa. En el estudio en España, la *postura internacional* ha resultado ser muy relevante para el conjunto de la muestra obteniendo correlaciones moderadas con el criterio de medida ( $r = ,48$ ). Por otro lado la misma orientación internacional ha resultado ser aún más significativa en los grupos menos involucrados con la lengua inglesa en sus carreras (Educación:  $r = ,60$ ,  $p < ,01$ ; Otros Estudios:  $r = ,52$ ,  $p < ,01$ ) a diferencia del Grupo Inglés, que otorga más relevancia a la orientación integradora. Es posible que este último hecho sea reflejo del enfoque típicamente dado dentro de estudios de sus carreras. Proponemos, por tanto, que a nivel práctico, los resultados indican que podría ser de interés contemplar un mayor enfoque en los ámbitos internacionales en los que la lengua inglesa se utiliza para la comunicación. Una visión más amplia y flexible de las posibles comunidades de habla amplía el abanico de oportunidades de interacción a los estudiantes y permite que cada alumno construya una identidad en el ámbito de la L2 más acorde con sus idiosincrasias y gustos individuales. Además, podría verse disminuida la posibilidad de rechazo al no sentirse identificado con una comunidad específica y más cerrada, como, por ejemplo, la británica o la americana.

### **Las variables afectivas**

Dentro del estudio cuantitativo se incluyeron dos variables afectivas dentro del espectro de los factores motivacionales, la *ansiedad* o aprensión ante la comunicación en lengua inglesa, y la *seguridad en uno mismo*, o el autoestima (véase el Capítulo 3, sección X en el cual detallamos las diferencias entre los dos términos). Las escalas también fueron utilizadas en Ryan (2008), sin embargo, al percibir cierto solapamiento en los ítems creados por Ryan, se introdujeron algunas modificaciones. En cuanto a la *ansiedad*, nuestros resultados confirman mayores índices de este factor afectivo en el Grupo Inglés ( $M = 3,08$   $DE 1,32$ ) llevándonos a la conclusión que aquellos que están más involucrados con la lengua en el momento del estudio presentaban un perfil de *ansiedad* algo más agudo. Por otro lado, las valoraciones más bajas obtenidas en los dos grupos con menos hincapié en la lengua extranjera en el momento del estudio, además de las correlaciones débiles ( $r < ,18$ ) con los pilares del SMY L2, sugieren que, aunque pueda ser un fenómeno común en el aula de lenguas, la *ansiedad* no se considera un factor influyente dentro del perfil motivacional de la muestra estudiada.

*La seguridad en uno mismo* como variable afectiva es un factor que produjo resultados inesperados en la muestra estudiada. Se pudo comprobar que, sobre todo, en el análisis de las variables afectivas dentro de los grupos clasificados según su *competencia percibida* de la lengua inglesa, la *seguridad en uno mismo* es uno de los factores más relevantes en cuanto a intenciones de esforzarse en el futuro ( $r > ,45$ ), y que producía un índice de variabilidad más alto en el conjunto de la muestra (28%). Este dato no es fácilmente comparable con los resultados de estudios anteriores, ya que en Ryan (2008), como hemos mencionado, los ítems variaban y se solapaban conceptualmente con aquellos incluidos en la escala de *ansiedad*. Busse (2010) sí obtuvo unos resultados que la llevaron a resaltar el papel de la autoestima en el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras. Al igual que la antes mencionada autora, consideramos que la variable de *seguridad en uno mismo* es un factor que debe tenerse en cuenta tanto en futuros estudios, como en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de lengua inglesa.

### **Resumen**

El estudio llevado a cabo desde la perspectiva teórica del Sistema Motivacional del Yo L2 (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009) en la Región de Murcia nos lleva a confirmar la utilidad del constructo para explorar la motivación en L2 de actuales y futuros estudiantes de la lengua inglesa. Hemos confirmado que el *ideal del yo L2* es un concepto muy relevante para los aprendices de la lengua inglesa y que supera la capacidad de la tradicional noción de la motivación integradora para explicar las intenciones de esforzarse en el aprendizaje de dicha lengua. El papel del *yo deóntico L2* ha resultado difícil de identificar en el estudio cuantitativo y es un concepto que consideramos requiere de mayor indagación empírica en futuros estudios, además de tener en cuenta fuentes distintas de obligación a aprender la LE de las de los seres queridos o familia. Dentro del espectro de orientaciones hacia la meta de aprendizaje L2, encontramos que la *postura internacional* tiene una relevancia importante en la muestra y concluimos que podría considerarse su papel en el aula de lenguas extranjeras además de las orientaciones más conocidas, como la integradora. Por último, en relación directa con el SMY L2, hemos podido establecer una distinción entre las *experiencias de aprendizaje L2 pasadas* y las actitudes actuales hacia la

situación de aprendizaje que nos lleva a proponer que, en este contexto de la Región de Murcia, sería conveniente contemplar, a nivel práctico, las posibilidades de atribuciones negativas en los aprendices de lengua inglesa debido a experiencias pasadas.

En lo que se refiere a los variables relacionados con las metas u orientaciones en el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera, hemos podido comprobar la existencia de una instrumentalidad con dos vertientes —la de evitación y la de acercamiento— y nuestros datos nos llevan a concluir que la dicotomía funciona de manera conjunta y equilibrada a la hora de incitar a la acción. Aunque no se rechaza la existencia del motivo integrador, destacamos la relevancia para la muestra estudiada de la llamada orientación de la *postura internacional*, variable explorada a través del presente estudio por primera vez en un contexto español. Las observaciones realizadas nos indican que la postura internacional es una orientación que podría tener un papel importante dentro de los distintos contextos de aprendizaje para así acomodar las diversas orientaciones que puede presentar el alumnado.

En relación a los variables afectivos en la motivación L2, hemos destacado el papel de la *seguridad en uno mismo* o el auto-estima como factor significativo en la construcción de los *ideales del yo* L2 y su fuerte relación con las intenciones de esforzarse en el futuro en el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa y consideramos que es un factor que debe tenerse en consideración, tanto en la práctica de la enseñanza de la lengua inglesa, como en futuros estudios sobre la motivación L2.



# Chapter 7 . THESIS RATIONALE AND STRUCTURE

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## 1.0 Introduction

This thesis describes the design and conduct of a study carried out in a provincial region of southeast Spain, concretely, in the Region of Murcia. The study is the first to propose an exploration of the L2 motivation of Spanish learners of English within this context from the novel angle of the L2 Motivational Self System conceived by Zoltán Dörnyei (2005) as a more comprehensive and flexible construct than some of the traditional psychological approaches to the study human cognition, attitudes and behaviour in second language learning.

Motivation in second (L2) learning has been cited as a decisive factor in determining whether an individual will persist towards achievement in a chosen language and is considered to outweigh factors such as aptitude as a precursor to L2 acquisition (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). This is one of the aspects that make the study of language learning a fascinating field and, indeed, if language learning could be considered an optional skill reserved for only the linguistically talented, L2 motivation perhaps would not have become so relevant in L2 learning. However, this is not the case. Ability to communicate in foreign languages is fast becoming a basic need for the world's population (Graddol, 2006) and this is no less the case In Spain, where the need for a command of foreign languages among the work force dominates much dialogue on matters of internationalisation, employment, culture and education and it is increasingly more difficult to identify positions that can afford to ignore the benefits of a command of an internationally understood language in this country, with English as a *lingua franca* being the number one option for the majority. However, European and international studies on FL competence consistently report below average ratings for Spaniards of all ages — adults and school goers alike — when compared with our European counterparts (see Chapter Two for EU statistics on English language proficiency in Spain). Thus, not only are we far behind reaching the EU objective of mastering two or three languages other than the native tongue, but Spain, it appears,

is still struggling to come up to par in mastering English as a second/foreign language (L2).

Spain as a nation has been reiterating the need for competence in English for its citizens and workforce for many years now but, in particular, since joining the European Union in 1986. Most adults one comes across will speak at length of their desire or need for English in personal and professional lives; yet, despite its inclusion in compulsory education curricula since the 80s, competence in the language is not deemed satisfactory. Such is the case that the Government have recently taken matters in their own hands and, in an attempt to improve L2 competence for future generations, have encouraged the implementation of a bilingual, content-based education system from the early years of primary education (*Real Decreto 1513/2006*). Nonetheless, although some action on part of the Educational authorities is very welcome to ensure a linguistically competent Spain in the future, we have to consider that it is the young Spanish adults of today who are currently facing the challenge of acquiring or improving their English but, in many cases, without a similar type of governmental support.

In an attempt to bring further understanding to the predicament of our young adult population in Spain, this thesis study turns to the concept of L2 motivation. As a multidimensional psychological concept that facilitates an exploration of human behaviour from numerous cognitive, affective and socio-educational perspectives, L2 motivation offers great potential to understand better this disparity between the apparent desire to learn English and lack of success in doing so for so many. In this light, and given the significance of motivation for successful language learning, we propose that an exploration of the L2 motivation of young Spanish adults will offer valuable insight into their beliefs and attitudes and behaviour in the face of the current demand for language skills.

## 1.1 What does motivational research offer?

Motivation is of great importance in SLA: It provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed all other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 65).

Understanding learners' psychological processes when faced with learning a second language brings a much deeper awareness of the complexities of L2 learning and the extent to which personal drives and motives differ across individuals. The ultimate aim of learning a L2 – to understand and engage in communication with others – sets it apart from acquiring conceptual or factual knowledge and skills that are characteristic of other curricular subjects. Through verbal and written communication we present ourselves and our identity to others. How we communicate with others is part and parcel of who we are and humans take many years to develop their communicative ability and style in their mother tongues(s). In (Pinker, 1994) words “language is a distinct piece of the biological make-up of our brains” (p.18), and “tightly woven into human experience” (p.17). In this light, it almost seems incongruous to even attempt to reproduce a complex learning experience such as acquiring a second language in a classroom. We have all been able to learn a first language, assuming no related physical or cognitive impediments. However, it is not a simple matter of extrapolating that innate ability to the learning of second languages and many of us struggle or give up long before reaching our initial aims. Therefore, some of the essential questions that motivation research attempts to answer are: what drives certain individuals to want to learn and spend a great amount of time and effort acquiring new complex code of communication and engage with others in that language? Why do some persist, even in the face of failure, while others fall by the wayside? What combinations of factors come together in the successful learner to sustain his/her learning effort?

Motivation research offers greater awareness of the psychological activity behind language learning and can bring a wealth of knowledge and even motivational tools to stakeholders in L2 learning policies and practice. From decades of theoretical

and empirical study, we know that motivation encompasses socio-psychological, cognitive, affective and self related factors behind the language learning efforts of groups and individuals and thanks to concepts such as integrativeness, instrumentality, L2 anxiety, goal setting theories and achievement theories, among others, our knowledge on the diverse range of factors directing, influencing and sustaining L2 learning behaviour has advanced greatly. Nonetheless, there are so many angles from which to examine motivation that it stills remains an elusive concept. Unless we delve deeper into the nature of these and other processes, we cannot claim full understanding of the link between human behaviour and cognition in L2 learning. Therefore, in the second language learning and teaching domain, L2 education policies and recommendations for classroom methodologies and techniques cannot be fully justified, nor can effective teacher training programmes be ensured. The influence of many different motivational variables in L2 learning has been empirically proven (see Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011 for an overview) as theory has advanced enormously in the past 60 years. Nonetheless, as regards educational practice, although some progress has been made in establishing motivational strategies for classroom application (e.g. Dörnyei, 1998, 2001), the long and sometimes arduous process of language learning and teaching would benefit from further insights.

Despite the tremendous progress made in L2 motivation research over the past half a decade, decisive answers have not been found to cover the enormity of what L2 motivation actually encompasses and the circumstances under which motivation waxes and wanes in individuals. Research in the field is thriving and empirical studies are required in a diversity of L2 learning contexts in order to contribute to this dynamic field. One issue that is coming to the fore recently is that L2 motivation is not a universal concept that can be studied in isolation from local contextual factors (e.g. Norton Pierce, 1995, Norton, 2000; Ushioda, 2009, 2011). A focus on the socio-psychological processes of L2 learners, whilst taking into account the local cultural, historical, socio-political and educational background — the overall objective of the empirical study we report in this thesis — helps provide a more comprehensive, contextualised view of the role of motivational variables within a certain population of learners. The knowledge to be gained by this methodological approach not only

informs L2 motivation in general but provides contextualised data for local entities and individuals concerned about providing effective learning experiences.

## 1.2 Why a study on L2 motivation in this context?

In different EU contexts, L2 motivation is high in the research agenda for very different reasons. For instance, studies in the UK (e.g. Busse, 2013; Chambers, 1999) explore L2 motivation over concern about the drop in enrolments in second language courses at second and third level education. Studies in Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér & Nemeth, 2006) have examined the motivations behind language choice in populations that have options of studying German, Russian or English, among others. Few European studies on English language learning appear to originate from a desire to understand an apparent lack of L2 learning motivation, which is essentially the case in this thesis.

Two separate developments have encouraged the research described in this work, carried out in the region of Murcia, Southeast Spain. On the one hand, the demand for foreign language skills, especially English, has never been stronger in Spain. The Region of Murcia, thanks to its climate and costal position, presents even stronger demands for L2 skills in various sectors of business, given the high percentage of English speaking tourists and residents in the Region and its hinterlands. Murcia currently has just under 1,5 million inhabitants, yet, according to data on immigration and tourism (*Centro Regional de Estadística de Murcia: [http://www.carm.es/econet/sicrem/PU\\_datosBasicos/sec25.html](http://www.carm.es/econet/sicrem/PU_datosBasicos/sec25.html)*), the population of United Kingdom expat community residing in the Region of Murcia grew from 5.795 in 2004 to 22.513 in 2013, and an estimated 42.000 UK tourists visited the Region in 2014. This is solely an indication of the potential requirement for English in the tourist and services sectors within the Region without taking into account the need for English in the business sector for dealings with EU and global enterprises.

The L2 demand has been even further exacerbated by recent national educational policies promoting the implementation of a bilingual curriculum in

compulsory education – primary and secondary. The modifications to the teaching system have resulted in a requisite for teachers of all levels and subjects (*Decreto 286/2007*) to certify L2 competence –in the majority of cases, English Therefore, university students wishing to enter the teaching profession in the next few years are directly affected by these policies, as are current, in-service primary and secondary teachers, many of whom are also being encouraged to improve and certify their L2 skills. Thus, the benefits of possessing strong skills in English for the employment in all sectors are evident, and the recent economic recession has lent even further support to the need to produce a competitive CV, including strong linguistic skills, in order to gain employment.

A further angle to be considered is that of how and where young Spanish adults can work on their competence in English. Private language schools abound in the country, but they cost money and time. We also have to consider the perspective of universities themselves and the extent to which they can afford to include English as a foreign language in their different undergraduate and post-graduate courses. Perhaps with the exception of tourism related studies, in most undergraduate degree courses, EFL or ESP subjects, if offered at all, are restricted to a 6 ECTS subject, with a relatively large number of students per lecture hall. Circumstances are, thus, not ideal for those wishing to improve their English skills within their university studies. This raises the question of how students of today are facing these linguistic challenges and what motivational profiles can be found in the face of high demand and, arguably, little institutional support.

An in-depth exploration of the L2 motivation of university students in Murcia – a large part of the future labour force of the Region – will enable us to gather data on their attitudes and beliefs on English language learning and lead towards understanding *their* stance on the matter from angles such as their current attitudes to this challenge and the language itself; their past learning experiences; their goal related behaviour, and their affective dispositions in language learning and use, among others. From this data, we may be able to understand better how to meet the motivational needs of these students and fill this gap in our knowledge, as to date, no empirical data on the L2 motivation of students in the Region of Murcia is available.

The second circumstance that influenced the design of the thesis was the emergence of a novel theory within L2 motivation – The L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS), (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009), which claims to offer a broader view to traditional constructs of socio-psychological and cognitive motivational variables. The novel paradigm encourages a view of L2 motivation from the angle of learners as future L2 users and encompasses the concept of human imagination and its ability to generate visions of future ideal L2 using selves. Within the construct, the *ideal L2 self* concept is counterbalanced against an L2 self that represents the obligation to learn a L2 – the *ought L2 self*. This perspective of the influence of a sense of external pressure to learn a second language is what makes this theory particularly fortuitous in this particular setting, given the current language learning impulse in Spain on behalf of the educational authorities.

Currently, at this early stage of the application of L2 MSS theory in language learning contexts in Europe, we are aware that some interesting qualitative work is being carried out on the practical applications of the L2 Motivational Self System in Spain (e.g. McKay, 2014). However, the L2 MSS has not yet been applied qualitatively in a large scale study in Spain making the quantitative study proposed in this thesis a pioneering study in the application of the L2 Motivational Self System to explore language learning attitudes and behaviour in a Spanish population. The empirical study described in Part Two of this thesis also incorporates a qualitative dimension, which has facilitated yet further insight into the of Dörnyei's *ought self* construct and its functioning in two individuals in this local context. Thus, the construct that this thesis study employs facilitates an exploration of the interplay of a large number of established attitudinal cognitive and affective variables whilst doing so through the lens of a novel angle in L2 motivation research in a substantial sample of L2 learners in Spain. The psychological dimension of the imagination and its ability to generate anticipatory visions of oneself as a future language user is central to the concept under study in this thesis, which Dörnyei (2005) claims is the key aspect that differentiates this particular view of language learning from previous theories and affords the language practitioner a motivational tool in fostering and sustaining positive images of successful language users.

### 1.3 What contribution does the study intend to make to the field?

The intended contributions of the thesis to the field of L2 motivation can be described at empirical, practical and theoretical levels. Empirically, the study intends to provide evidence to support the relevance of the L2 Motivational Self System as a lens through which to explore L2 learner motivation. There is a gap in current research as regards knowledge on cultural variation in L2 self systems (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), which this study will help address as so far no studies have been carried out on a Spanish population. We also contribute to empirical research through the adaptation,, translation and piloting of a quantitative research instrument to explore a diverse range of motivational variables. Thus, to our knowledge, we employ the first extended Spanish version of a Motivational Factors Questionnaire (MFQ), (Ryan, 2005, 2008, 2009; Taguchi, Magid & Papi, 2009) aimed at exploring the concepts of the *ideal* and *ought L2 self* in Spain. The Spanish MFQ is an adapted and translated version of the original instrument (Ryan, 2005) that has also been extended to include variables employed by Taguchi et al. (2009) to explore the ought self dimension of L2 MSS theory, i.e. an *ought self* scale measure as well as an instrumentality promotion-prevention dichotomy measure. Among other motivational variables, we also include a psychometric scale to explore the novel orientation of *international posture* (Yashima, 2000, 2002). Although, recent and ongoing studies in the field (e.g. Kormos, Kiddle & Csizér, 2011) have employed parts of the original MFQs used by Ryan (2005, 2009) and Taguchi et al. (2009), no study to date, as far as we are aware, has produced a similarly extensive and comprehensive quantitative instrument incorporating all the above mentioned concepts. Therefore, the MFQ designed for this thesis study can also be considered the first combined version of the two MFQs described above to be used to empirically explore the L2MSS as well as the first Castilian Spanish version of the extended MFQ.

Continuing on advances in empirical research, we also carry out the first mixed methods study on the L2 MSS system in Spain. This method design, described in Part Two of this thesis, was elected in answer to calls for qualitative explorations of motivational variables which allow closer examinations of certain aspects of



motivational behaviour against a familiar cultural and socio-political background. The qualitative data brings a more personalised voice to the statistical information that at times can appear devoid of personality and ambiguous. Through these studies data is obtained on what Ema Uhsioda (2009) refers to as a *people-in-context relational* view of L2 motivation facilitating a closer inspection of attitudes and reactions to English as a demand on the labour market and the support students receive for their L2 learning in their educational and personal environment.

Theoretically, the study is intended to contribute to current knowledge on the recently developed L2 self system providing data on the role of and interplay between the ideal-ought L2 selves in a Spanish population for the first time. Dörnyei's (2005) theory has not been extensively explored as yet in cultures beyond Asia and this study contributes to the growing body of evidence of the role of the L2 self system in language learning contexts in Europe. This Spanish study findings provide comparative data on English language learning which will serve to complement evidence on L2 learning selves obtained in other cultures, such as Chile (Kormos et al. 2011), Hungary (see Csizér, 2012 for an overview), Sweden (Henry 2010, 2011), Poland (Pawlak, 2012) as well as being of use in contrasting the L2 self systems of learners' of other languages, such as German in the UK (see Busse 2010, 2013a, 2013b; Busse & Williams 2010), and of L3 learners (e.g. Henry, 2011, Henry & Cliffordson, 2013).

Conceptually, there are some aspects of Dörnyei's L2 self system that remain somewhat blurry, in particular the concept of the *ought self*. Studies so far carried out in oriental cultures have identified an Ought L2 Self manifested through the desires of significant family members. However, in Western contexts this same sense of obligation is not as immediately identifiable (e.g. Csizér & Kormos, 2009a). In order to contribute to this theoretical debate, we take advantage of the quantitative method of interview studies to examine the origins and nature of an *ought L2 self* in two language learners and provide qualitative evidence on the perception of L2 learning as an obligation and how these individuals are coping with this linguistic proviso from the perspective of preparing for entry to a future professional community of bilingual teachers. We also examine the third pillar of the L2 MSS — the learning experience —

in more detail than previous studies by differentiating attitudes to past learning experiences from current attitudes, which we feel will lend greater insight into the motivational make-up of our sample given popular reports of somewhat negative past learning experiences in compulsory education.

At a practical level, the mixed methods study conducted with university students in the Region of Murcia provides evidence of the sample's beliefs about language learning at four levels: their L2 self system, goal related behaviour, attitudinal beliefs about learning English, and affective dispositions. More specifically, we provide evidence on their idealised L2 language learning selves, which can be assessed from the point of view of the extent to which these ideal selves can act as future L2 self guides for university students in this particular area of Spain; the sense of obligation they feel from external sources to learn English; their L2 goals and aims — instrumental, integrative and/or international orientations — as regards their current or intended use of English as a L2; their attitudes to the language itself and aspects of the learning contexts they have experienced, past and present, as well as data on their affective stance regarding self-confidence or anxiety in learning or using the language. In the light of recent educational reforms establishing L2 requisites for primary and secondary teachers strengthening the already ubiquitous demand for competence in English, both in local and national business sectors, the data obtained offers a detailed vision of how these students are coping with this extra demand on their time, energy and resources and provides a motivational needs analysis that will prove beneficial for stakeholders involved in all aspects of policy design and implementation.

## **1.4 Thesis structure**

The thesis is divided into two parts. The first part presents relevant contextual information regarding the language learning history of young adults in Spain today, as well as the literature review that serves as the background to the empirical study presented in Part II. To follow, we outline the content of Parts I and II of thesis and the content of the chapters of each.

### 1.4.1 Part One. Contextual background and literature review

Part One is composed of five chapters presenting background information required to understand the context of study.

- **Chapter 2** provides a detailed background of English as a subject within the Spanish education system since the 1980s. The objective is to provide an understanding of the learning experiences of Spanish adults and university students of today during their compulsory and pre-university education and position the reader regarding current L2 competence deriving from formal education in these students.

- **Chapter 3** charts the evolution of the expanse of significant motivation theories and constructs from their origins in mainstream psychology to the pioneering studies on L2 motivation carried out in Canada. We then continue to examine the evolution of theory during the cognitive phase of psychological research and its contributions to the field of L2 learning, up to and including the subsequent 'process' phase of L2 motivation instigated by Zoltán Dörnyei during the 90s. This chapter thus sets the scene for an understanding of the emergence of the newer theory of the L2 Motivational Self System.

- **Chapter 4** examines in detail current post-structuralist theoretical concerns in the area of language learner identity and L2 motivation. Novel views on the social dimension of language learning are presented and examined before going into detail on the theoretical foundations of the L2 Motivational Self System as conceived by Dörnyei. Centering on the L2 MSS, we examine its claims to provide a broader perspective to that of previous constructs to explain L2 motivation, whilst also reviewing the literature on the origins and applications of the *possible selves* theory in mainstream psychology. We also examine critiques of the L2 Self System in order to establish its strengths and weaknesses as viewed by renowned scholars in the field.

- **Chapter 5** reviews the empirical work carried out to date on the L2 MSS both in quantitative and qualitative studies. From these studies we establish what has been achieved, as well as the different instruments used to explore this new construct. We then detail areas requiring further empirical or theoretical clarification.

#### **1.4.2. Part Two: Research questions and empirical study**

Part Two of the thesis is composed of seven chapters detailing the empirical study carried out. The structure is as follows:

- **Chapter 6** details the research questions that guide the design, implementation and analysis of the empirical study conducted for this Ph.D. thesis.

- **Chapter 7** describes the research design for the mixed methods study. The participating institutions and participants of all four stages of the pilot and main studies are detailed along with the procedures followed for the design and translation of the main study instrument – the Motivational Factors Questionnaire. The administration, analysis and results of the qualitative and quantitative stages of the pilot study carried out with over 100 participants are discussed and we finalise with the rationale for the adaptations carried out for the final MFQ and its administration in the main study phase to 520 university students.

- **Chapter 8** presents the results and analysis of the main quantitative statistical data in terms of the research questions posed.

- **Chapter 9** presents the qualitative results and analysis carried out for the second phase of the study to resolve ambiguities observed in the quantitative results on the role of the ought L2 self in this sample. Two in-depth interviews

exploring the *ought* dimension of the L2 MSS in two students of teacher training degrees are analysed.

- **Chapter 10** provides an in-depth discussion of the quantitative results obtained in order to provide answers to the research questions posed. The results are also contrasted with empirical evidence available in the L2 MSS literature in order to establish similarities and differences. Where relevant the discussion is complemented by evidence obtained in the qualitative study.

- **Chapter 11** concludes the thesis by highlighting the most significant results obtained and their implications for theory and practice at a local and global level within the field of L2 motivation. We discuss the contributions of this thesis to the field and indicate the limitations of the study. Finally, we outline the most relevant avenues for future research on the L2 Motivational Self System.

**PART ONE: CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND  
AND LITERATURE REVIEW**

## Chapter 8 . ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN SPAIN

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### 2.0 Introduction

To be able to understand the range of postures that the third level education students of today in the Region of Murcia present regarding the acquisition of communicative competence in English, it is essential to understand the educational background of these students and the demands they are currently subject to regarding competence in English.

Spain, thanks to the policies that originated under the 2004-2012 Socialist government, is currently undergoing great educational upheaval with respect to English language teaching and learning. The government's recent impulse to improve L2 competence in Spain has resulted in a series of policies set out in their 2011 *Programa Integral de Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras (2010 – 2020)* - a 10 year plan which proposes, among other measures, the implementation of bilingual education at both primary and secondary level education nationwide. The repercussions for university students planning to enter the teaching profession at these levels are more than significant. For third level graduates aiming for professional career paths other than teaching, competence in English as a foreign language (EFL) as is now a *sine qua non* in many sectors of the local, national and international labour markets, and few university graduates can disregard the need for a competitive level of competence in EFL. In this light, it is relevant to look back on the English language learning background of current day university students in order to set the scene for the heterogeneity prevalent in this population as regards communicative competence in English.

The aim of this chapter is to provide a detailed account of educational policy and practice in English language teaching and learning at the different levels of compulsory and non-compulsory education, particularly from the decades of the 80s and 90s, along with qualification and training requirements for English teachers in formal education in Spain and the local Region of Murcia. A further objective is to detail the current provisos for certification of L2 competence in Spain so as to provide

a backdrop for an exploration of L2 motivation in Spanish adults of today using Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) newly created L2 Motivational Self System construct.

## 2.1 English language competence in Spain

Headlines in national newspapers such as: *"España, a la cola de Europa en cuanto al inglés"* (Spain, trailing behind in Europe regarding English), (ABC, 2011, March 23rd) have not been unusual over the past years. In this particular article, which comments on the *English First* EPI study carried out in 33 EU countries, Spain is cited as third last behind Russia and Turkey in English language competence (EF EPI, 2011, p. 12). El País (21<sup>st</sup> June, 2012) *"Suspensos en inglés"* (Failed in English) makes reference to Spain's 14 year-olds coming bottom of the list, just behind France, in oral competence in a foreign language. A more recent European study - Eurostat, 2013 - has again reiterated the fact *"España a la cola de Europa en idiomas extranjeros"* ('Spain trailing behind in Europe in foreign languages', ABC, 2013, September, 26<sup>th</sup>).

This data situates Spanish adults extremely low in the ratings as competent speakers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Europe, and, given this fact, it may come as a surprise to some to know that most young Spanish adults of today have received instruction in EFL over at least their secondary and, in some cases, primary and university education. The average 20 year-old university student in 2012 has had at least 10 years of ELF teaching from 8 to 18 years old, at an average of 100 hours per academic year. This makes approximately 1,000 total lessons of potential exposure to the English language or at least to some aspects of the language. We should not assume, however, that an English lesson is necessarily delivered in that language but that, at least different aspects stipulated in the syllabus, such as grammatical rules and language functions, vocabulary and culture are dealt with. The outcome of formal education received in English tends to be school leavers who have varying levels of competence in written comprehension and expression but, to a large extent, are lacking in oral skills (see Figure 2.1). With regard to the latter, it is claimed that fewer than 40% of Spanish adults and fewer than 70% of Spanish businessmen can manage a basic conversation in the language (Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas, 2014). Even some years after a number of foreign language initiatives were introduced in L2 and L3



education policies thanks to recommendations in the European Commission’s meeting in Barcelona, 2002, the oral competence in English of students on finalising compulsory education are showing little improvement as we can see from the data provided by the EF English Proficiency Index of 2013 and shown in Figure 2.1.

**DESTREZA EN LENGUA EXTRANJERA**

Dominio del primer idioma extranjero en alumnos de 4º de ESO  
 Datos en % sobre el total de alumnos  
 Idioma: inglés, excepto en los países indicados (\*francés)

Niveles  
 ■ B1 y B2 Usuario independiente de la lengua  
 ■ A1 y A2 Usuario básico que utiliza lenguaje sencillo  
 ■ Pre A1 Por debajo del nivel básico

**COMPRESIÓN ORAL**

Suecia	91	8	1
Malta	87	11	2
Holanda	77	20	3
Eslovenia	67	28	5
Estonia	63	27	10
Croacia	56	32	12
Bélgica <sup>(1)</sup> *	40	50	10
Grecia	47	35	18
<i>Navarra</i>	34	48	18
Bulgaria	40	37	23
Portugal	38	39	23
Bélgica <sup>(2)</sup>	27	55	18
Bélgica <sup>(3)</sup> *	20	63	17
Polonia	28	45	27
<b>ESPAÑA</b>	24	45	31
<i>Canarias</i>	25	38	37
Francia	14	45	41
Inglaterra *	8	62	30
<i>Andalucía</i>	12	36	52
<b>MEDIA PAÍSES</b>	45	38	17

**COMPRESIÓN LECTORA**

Suecia	81	18	1
Malta	79	17	4
Holanda	60	36	4
Estonia	61	32	7
<i>Navarra</i>	42	49	9
Eslovenia	47	41	12
Bélgica <sup>(1)</sup> *	38	52	10
Bélgica <sup>(2)</sup>	31	59	10
Grecia	45	40	15
Croacia	40	44	16
Bélgica <sup>(3)</sup> *	24	64	12
<b>ESPAÑA</b>	30	52	18
<i>Bulgaria</i>	33	44	23
<i>Canarias</i>	29	52	19
Portugal	26	54	20
Polonia	24	49	27
<i>Andalucía</i>	19	57	24
Francia	13	59	28
Inglaterra *	10	68	22
<b>MEDIA PAÍSES</b>	41	45	14

Estudio realizado en todas las comunidades. Navarra, Canarias y Andalucía han aumentado la muestra para obtener datos propios. Bélgica, tres regiones según lengua oficial: (1) alemán, (2) francés, (3) flamenco.

Figure 8.1 Foreign language skills in Europe, (EF EPI Study, 2013)

Of the non-English speaking countries included in the EF study, the 15-16 year-olds finalising compulsory education in France and Spain are lowest in the ratings in oral comprehension, with the autonomous community of *Andalucía* showing the lowest level of B1-B2 oral competence of the entire table. As regards reading comprehension, nonetheless, Spain shows a higher rating of competence, which may be a reflection of the fact that this L2 skill has traditionally been emphasised in Spanish L2 classrooms in formal education.

**2.2 The educational administrative system in Spain**

Legislation of education in Spain is decentralised, as is the case with most governmental competences. At a national level, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (MECD) stipulates the basic overall structure of compulsory and pre-university education and the minimum curricular requirements for the different syllabi at pre-

primary, primary, secondary compulsory and secondary pre-university levels. The 17 autonomous communities are, on the other hand, each responsible for administrative organisation in education and hold competences to implement and plan in certain educational areas, such as the final syllabus for each curriculum, the optional subjects offered, the academic calendar, as well as the services and extracurricular activities that educational centres may provide. For instance, to accommodate the existence of a co-official language in an autonomous community, such as *Valenciano* in the Valencian community, *Catalán* in Catalonia or *Gallego* in Galicia, the national policy currently<sup>2</sup> states that the minimum timetable for core subjects will be 55% of the syllabus so as to allow for teaching of these languages, whereas for those communities with no co-official language, such as the Region of Murcia, the time dedicated to core subjects is stipulated as 65%.

Within the educational system in Spain there are three main types of school that may offer education from primary to *Bachillerato* (the final secondary year prior to third level education): *colegio o instituto público* - schools administered and financed by the state; *colegios concertados* - semi-private schools that are subsidised by the state, and *colegios privados* - private schools requiring parents to pay for education – many of the latter are Catholic schools run by clergy. There is no consensus as to which type of school overall offers a higher standard of education; standards can vary among all three depending on local socio-economic level and school policies, staffing, resources, etc. Private and semi-private schools could perhaps be considered to be under slightly more pressure to perform from a marketing perspective along with parental pressure.

In the following section we detail the evolution of the role of English as a school subject within formal compulsory and higher secondary education in the legislations prior to the 2006 educational reforms in Spain. Extracurricular options available for learning English are also discussed as well as the evolution of teacher training in foreign language pedagogy. The aim is to provide the reader with a detailed background in order to understand not only the position of English as a school subject

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<sup>2</sup> At the time of writing in 2013. Changes have been introduced to the stipulations made in previous legislations in the LOMCE legislation of 2014.

in education during the 80s and 90s, but also to gauge the general ambience in the country as regards the English language teaching and learning during these decades.

### **2.3 Evolution of English as a subject in educational policy**

A mandatory foreign language subject was actually first introduced under the *Ley General de Educación* (General Education Law) of 1970 into what was then known as a Basic General Educational system (*Educación General Básica* or EGB) which was divided into three educational stages for 6 to 14 year-olds. The initial stage comprised 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> year of EGB for 6 and 7 year-olds; the intermediate stage from 3<sup>rd</sup> to 5<sup>th</sup> year for 8 to 10 year olds, and the upper stage EGB and from 6<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> year for 11 to 14 year-olds (see fig. 2.2). Subsequently, in the 1990s, under the new Socialist government *Ley de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo* or LOGSE reforms, primary education was converted to a six year structure meaning that 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> year of EGB were incorporated into a secondary education cycle. This secondary phase was divided into a mandatory 4 year *Educación Secundaria Obligatoria* (ESO) for 12 to 16 year-olds and an optional 2 year pre-university preparation stage - *Bachillerato*, for 16 to 18 year-olds (see Fig. 2.2). The syllabus for this pre-university phase was stipulated by the universities.

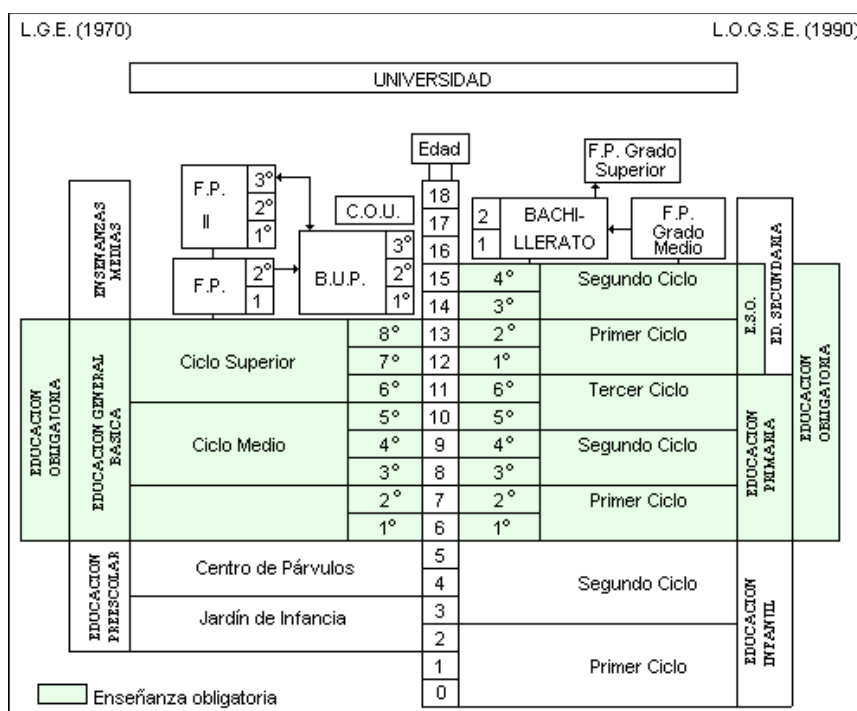


Figure 8.2 Changes in educative legislation from LGE to LOGSE (Source: www.unesco.org.)

Regarding foreign language subjects, in the 1970 legislation, schools were obliged to offer a choice of English or French to students from the 6<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> year of *EGB* (11 to 14 year-olds) and also were given the option of offering a foreign language in the lower years from 3<sup>rd</sup> of *EGB* to 8 year olds. Many schools at the time initially chose to offer French, possibly from a historical and geographical perspective and, perhaps, because of reluctance to break with tradition given the greater popularity until then of the French language. This means that the middle-aged population of Spain today would have received French as a foreign language subject at school. The practice of introducing the foreign language at the earlier stage of 3<sup>rd</sup> year, did not become popular (Morales, Arrimadas, Ramirez, López & Ocaña, 2000, p. 37) and Orduña, (2006) attributes this to a potential lack of primary teachers trained in foreign language teaching. However, English language education and training for teachers became more popular over the following decade, so by the end of the 80s, according to Morales, et al. (2000, p. 31), 87.7% of *EGB* from students 6<sup>th</sup> year onwards were studying English) on average for three lessons a week. Nonetheless, Madrid (1998b) indicates that conditions were not favourable in the *EGB* cycle for learning English and also points to the quality of training for teachers in modern languages, as one reason, further acerbated by what he called administrative ‘chaos’ and a lack of criteria in the

assignment of teachers and subjects in primary education. In essence, teachers were allowed to elect which courses to teach based on their seniority; this typically meant that the advanced courses of primary were chosen first leaving to more junior teachers, regardless of the speciality they had trained for. National media headlines started to reflect these issues:

"La enseñanza de los idiomas en España: un desastre (*Language teaching in Spain: a disaster*) (Escuela Española, 11/10/84, p.7).

"La enseñanza de idiomas es muy deficiente en la EGB" (*Language teaching is deficient in EGB*) (Comunidad Escolar 1/15 de mayo, 1984, p.11).

"El sistema educativo descuida la enseñanza de los idiomas" (*The educational system ignores language teaching*). Comunidad Escolar, (1/15 noviembre, 1993, p.17 y 18.)

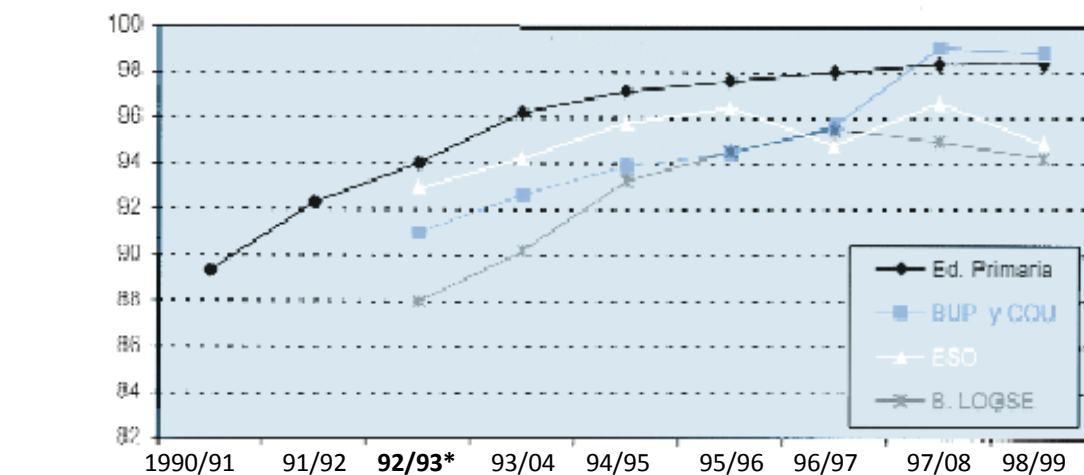
"La enseñanza de los idiomas es el aspecto más deficitario de la EGB" (*Language teaching is the most deficient aspect of EGB*) en Comunidad Escolar, (1/15 noviembre, 1993, p.17 y 18.)

"El idioma en la EGB: Un bonito adorno", (Languages in EGB: a pretty decoration) Escuela Española nº 2.740, (1-111-84, p.7).

(Madrid, 1998b, p. 216)

The 1970 legislation lasted 20 years with few reforms, none of which affected the foreign language teaching policy. The Socialist LOGSE, reforms of 1990 did, however, encourage schools to introduce an optional foreign language subject at a lower stage of Primary, meaning that school goers could be offered a foreign language subject from 3<sup>rd</sup> year of primary (8 yrs. old). Implementation of the 1990 reforms was progressive and it was not until 1999 that all compulsory educational centres were obliged to have completed the transition to the LOSGE educational system (Marchesi-Ullastres, 1995; Marchesi, 2003). This progressive implementation meant that, throughout the 90s, many schools still had not offered the optional foreign language subject in the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> primary courses. Nonetheless, a high percentage of students received English language instruction after the age of eleven. Figure 2.3 presents the

evolution of the number of students taking English as a compulsory subject at all levels of education over the decade of the 90s.



\*The LOGSE system introduces the new ESO and *Bachillerato* structure

Figure 8.3. Evolution of percentage of students studying English in primary and secondary education during the pre LGE and LOGSE systems (Source: Morales et al., 2000, p. 88)

However, headlines continued to reflect unsatisfactory results in the learning of the language. One study on almost 20,000 students of ESO placed English as the second highest of failed subjects behind mathematics Madrid, (2001, p. 26), a fact which the media were also quick to divulge.

It was not until the year 2000 that English became a compulsory curricular subject from 3<sup>rd</sup> year of primary, and subsequently, the short-lived *Ley Orgánica de Calidad en la Educación* 10/2002 - LOCE (The Organic Law on Quality in Education) of 2002 suggested the age of introduction of English be lowered to 1<sup>st</sup> year of primary. This, however, did not actually come into force until the 2006, LOE educational reforms. In compulsory secondary education or ESO, under the LOGSE mandate, a foreign language continued as a compulsory subject; English or French were the most popular electives offered with the standard three lessons a week. An optional second foreign language, popularly French, could also be taken in the *Bachillerato* pre-university cycle.

Regarding classroom methodology, the FL syllabus in Spain had always reflected a concern for modernisation in foreign language teaching techniques. For instance, some of the methodological recommendations during the LOGDE mandate, Madrid, 1995; Madrid and McLaren (1994) were:

- that the traditionally applied Audiolingual method be replaced by the communicative approach;
- that the context of mobility and interaction in English in Europe be taken into account in the syllabus;
- that a notional-functional perspective of language be adopted and the syllabus organised in terms of conceptual content and contextualisation;
- that student-centered learning be a central part of EFL methodology, and
- that the ultimate aim of EFL teaching was to develop students' communicative competence.

It is also the case that over the history of English language teaching in Spain, the stipulations for the teaching methodologies had always reflected concern for a balance of skills to be developed in the classroom, but for an emphasis on the teaching of oral skills, especially at initial stages of foreign language learning. For instance, even the 1970 LGE Order on pedagogical orientations (Order of 2 December, 1970) stipulated that should a foreign language be offered from 5<sup>th</sup> of Basic stage Education, there should be an initial introduction to oral language previous to engagement in teaching reading and writing skills, and in the case that English as a subject be introduced in 3<sup>rd</sup> year, a minimum of six months should be dedicated to developing oral skills in the language. Moreover, the use of audio-visual methodologies was, again, recommended (Morales et al., 2000, p. 30). However, despite legislative recommendations and many calls for implementation of a more communicative approach in the classroom (cf. Madrid, 2001), the reality was that English language teaching in Spain continued to follow a strong structuralist bent. It would seem that the large gap between the very pertinent methodological recommendations of educational authorities and actual practice in the foreign language classroom could lie in the interim phase of teacher training. As Rubio and Martínez (2012) rightly point out, quantity of learning hours is

one thing and quality of learning within that time is another. Therefore, we shall now take a look at the developments in training and employment requisites for language teaching professionals in Spain.

## 2.4 Language teacher qualifications and training

Perhaps, the restrictions for FL teachers to carry out their practice efficiently is most deeply rooted in the mediocre and deficient initial training that educational institutions offer teachers. But, furthermore, many other disenchantments would have to be added.

(Madrid (2001, p. 35) (my translation)

The many other 'disenchantments' that Madrid and colleagues refer to involve a lack of infrastructure, a reluctance to conform to many of the 1990 reform's proposals due to: a lack of rationale, thus a lack of trust in the promised outcomes, and the investment of teacher time and energy that these innovative proposals would mean for teachers (Madrid, 2001). However, in order to understand Madrid's reprisals, we shall detail how teacher education and training policy was organised.

### *Primary teacher education*

Primary teacher qualifications pre-2006, LOE reforms, were obtained through a 3 year *Diplomatura*, a university diplomature. The course was composed of a series of subjects common to all primary teaching areas and a series of optional subjects which students could opt to take to work towards what Madrid (2001) calls 'moderate' specialisation in the teaching of areas, such as Spanish Language and Literature, and Foreign Languages. The subjects offered in the branch of English teaching made up 30% of the total teaching time of the diploma course, which Madrid (2001) claims was not sufficient for thorough specialisation, and he cites a study by Gento (1984) in which primary teaching students claimed a 67% deficiency in their knowledge of English and a 52% deficiency in their knowledge of language teaching methodology. Various debate forums demanded an improvement in primary teacher training involving an extension of time devoted to methodology and classroom techniques as well as English language proficiency, (e.g. Gimeno & Fernández, 1980; Martín Uriz,



1981, all in Madrid, 2001). Rubio and Martínez (2012) also confirm that teacher trainees were not satisfied with their linguistic and methodological preparation for English teaching in the primary classroom and, this leads one to wonder what methodologies and teaching techniques *were* employed in those early years of language teaching. In this sense and in light of the criticism of EFL teaching practice in Spain over this period, it is interesting to bear in mind the words of Kubanyiova (2006, p. 4) when she discusses the effect of teacher training on classroom practice:

It has now been well established in research on teacher cognition that what teachers learn in teacher education programmes is filtered by prior experiences accumulated over the years of the "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975). This set of language learning experiences is transformed, largely subconsciously, into beliefs about how languages are learnt and how they should or should not be taught. The extensive body of research on the subject shows that if these beliefs are not made explicit, questioned and challenged (Freeman, 1991), teachers' pre-training cognitions regarding teaching an L2 may be influential throughout their career (Borg, 2003) despite the training efforts.

The Bologna reforms did bring about changes to the provision of education for pre-primary and primary teacher trainees in converting the previous three year diploma into a *licenciatura*, or four year degree, increasing the number of credits offered in a general pedagogical knowledge base and methodological practice. The new degree also offers a specialisation itinerary for English language teachers, which comprises 30 credits, and, although subjects can vary somewhat according to individual university policies, the Spanish Ministry of Education (MEC) has stipulated basic curricular skills to develop competences in FL teaching-learning processes and training in teaching methodologies for younger learners.

### *Secondary Teacher education*

In order to teach English at secondary level in Spain, previous to the third level educational reforms of the Bologna Process, language teacher education and training followed a consecutive system (Eurydice, 2012) which comprised a degree in *Filología Inglesa* (English Philology) followed by a post-grad university course for a teaching aptitude certification, known as the *Certificación de Aptitude Pedagógica* or CAP. The latter was a compulsory requirement for any degree holder who wished to teach at

secondary level unless they could certify two years' teaching experience. The English Philology degree syllabus provided instruction on a broad range subjects on aspects of linguistics, the history of the English language, its culture and civilisation, as well as diverse aspects of literature from the different English speaking countries. Optional subjects for those wanting to branch further into literature, cultural studies or language teaching were also included in the study plan. Rubio and Martínez, (2012) highlight the mere 6 ECTS devoted to language teaching pedagogy within the pre-Bologna *Filología Inglesa*. There was also no formal requirement within the degree for students to spend time in an English-speaking country (Eurydice, 2012), although students could opt for study periods English speaking countries under Erasmus grant scheme for a semester or longer. A graduate in English Philology was assumed to be an 'expert' in the language and its culture, nonetheless, not necessarily a competent communicator in the language, as the final qualification does not stipulate the actual level of achievement in the English language. An interesting fact in this vein is that the study carried out by Eurydice (2012) shows that Spain is one of the few countries in Europe that train 'specialised' primary and secondary language teachers, as opposed to the general trend in Europe for teacher training in all primary teaching subjects, and, at least, two subjects at secondary level, as is the case, for instance, in Ireland or Finland.

As the final part of teacher training prior to the 2009 reforms, The *Pedagogical Aptitude Certification* (CAP) course, administrated by autonomous communities and universities, varied in nature among national autonomous regions in Spain. The course duration could range between 10 and 30 credits composed of a percentage of theory (educational psychology and methodology) and a percentage of work placement, during which the student would spend a stipulated amount of classroom observation hours with a teacher/tutor at a secondary school of their choice. As Delgado (1999) describes:

The theoretical training included three large subject areas: Principles, aims and problems of education in their psychological, sociological and historical aspects; Technology and models of educational innovation; and specific didactics of each subject. Practical training mainly consisted in the elaboration of a certain

number of didactical units and their application during a training course in secondary schools, mainly in State secondary schools. (Delgado, 1999, p. 160)

We believe it is fair to say that CAP in general was not considered an extremely demanding course with students required to design teaching units for assessment and complete a work-placement observation diary; few students, if any, ever failed. In Delgado's (1999, p. 160) words "Since the CAP has often been (even sharply) criticised throughout the time of existence, a renewal of this system of education seemed to be imperative".

From our overview of L2 teacher training policies in Spain so far, the picture that emerges of the language teaching professional in secondary education in Spain prior to the Bologna process reforms is of undergraduates highly specialised in knowledge of the morphosyntactic and phonological features of the English language and diverse aspects of its history, culture and literature, but with a weaker skill set regarding proficiency in English and/or EFL methodological competence. The observations outlined in the previous sections on both primary and secondary teacher training, along with Kubanyiova's (2006) findings, lead us to conjecture that, despite some exposure to more modern methodologies, the standards of teacher training provided in Spain may have led L2 instructors to resort to organising their L2 teaching based on their own L2 learning experiences. Changing teachers' mindsets regarding how to teach in the foreign language classroom is a complex procedure and the training that students of the time underwent may not have been sufficient to alter their cognitions on their own learning experiences. Foreign language teachers, thus, would likely resort to some extent to their own learning methodologies and classroom observations as FL students, which would in all probability have followed the structuralist or audio-lingual focus that was prevalent at the time. Rubio and Martínez (2012) further highlight a number of factors restricting teachers with the best of intentions in the L2 classroom: large student groups per classroom; textbook quality; lack of resources, etc. This perspective brings insight to the issue of why the legislative recommendations in Spain at the time for more communicative approaches in the classroom did not seem to reach their mark. However, we must also bear in mind that according to the Eurydice report of 2012, in Europe, the statistics on use of the target

language in the classroom, if this is to be understood as implicit in an effective communicative methodology, tell us that Spain in 2011 equals the European average (marking 2,5 on a rating scale of 0 to 4) of teachers claiming to 'not usually' use the target language in the classroom (p.5).

The third level education reforms that came as a result of the Bologna Process in 2009 replaced the CAP course with a Master's Degree in Teacher Training, answering the general call for improvements and harmonisation in teacher education in the European Union (Eurydice, 2006), and for foreign language teacher training (EU report; Kelly, Grenfell, Allan, Kriza, & McEvoy, 2004). In the Master's degree, the teaching credits assigned to theoretical and practical instruction and work placements were doubled. In the specialisation in FL teaching within the degree special emphasis is placed on understanding language learner cognition, individual differences in language learning and learning strategies along with a stronger emphasis on a diverse range of teaching methodologies in the EFL classroom and the inclusion of information technologies in the language teaching and learning process. Eligibility for access to the FL itinerary in the teacher training Master's degree is restricted to graduates in English major degrees, such as English Studies or Translation and Interpretation, and, those who can certify a CEF level of B2 in the foreign language. However, as was mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, all students wishing to enrol in the Master's degree regardless of the subject they train for, are obliged to comply with the requirement of a B1 certificate in a foreign language, which, given its primary election as a FL subject at secondary level, tends to be English. Regarding eligibility for enrolment on the Master's course, Rubio and Martínez (2012) indicate that the objective of the Master's degree is to offer in-depth pedagogical knowledge and development of professional competences, and not initial training to the many graduates who enrol on the Master's course with little or no background in pedagogy, despite complying with the linguistic requisite.

We have so far in this chapter examined the role of English as a FL subject in primary and secondary education since the 80s in Spain from the perspective of legislation, curricular inclusion and teacher training. All of this has been done with the aim of understanding the current standards and attitudes regarding competence in

English in the adult population of today. A final consideration in this vein in order to provide a complete picture of the conditions under which the foreign language is taught in Spain is that of teacher employment, which we shall detail to follow.

## 2.5 Language teacher recruitment

Semi-private and private schools may hire teaching staff based on internal policies. However, as with all state employment in Spain, teaching staff for state-run schools gain employment through a competitive state exam system called *oposiciones*. Each of the 17 autonomous communities hold regional *oposiciones* for the different levels of education, on average, every alternate year for primary and secondary teaching positions, depending on the number of vacancies they have to fill. The *oposición* system is extremely competitive and preparation for the exam procedure can take up to a year or more. This is usually carried out with the support of special preparation centres, normally privately-owned language schools given that specific preparation is not provided at third level institutions. Those candidates who obtain a teaching position are those who have achieved a very high mark in the mean of the written and oral presentation exams. However, the candidates who actually pass the exam (achieving a mark of 50% or above) are included in a substitute teacher database and are eligible if required to provide substitute teaching duties and many may work in this fashion as supply teachers (*interinos*) for years acting as substitute teachers in different schools as required. Working as an *interino* will also contribute to work experience points for the next *oposición* and it is this added bonus that incites many to go through the arduous process.

Those who are successful at obtaining a position through the *oposiciones* system achieve life tenure in their jobs after a short trial period, making these exams an extremely attractive option for university graduates of all subjects. To become a government employee in Spain, prior to the recent cutbacks in education resulting from the economic recession, meant a guaranteed salary with 2 bonus salaries a year, a good pension and in most cases a relatively comfortable working day and these positions were highly valued, as are civil service positions in Spain in general. The high

value placed on a secure government employment is reflected in the 2010 Hofstede report (Hofstede, Hofstede, Minkov, 2010) on cultural profiles in a broad range of countries world-wide<sup>3</sup> claimed that 75% of young people in Spain would opt for employment in the civil service. For teaching positions, according to a blog dedicated to information on state exams ([www.opositor.com](http://www.opositor.com)), in 2010 more than 100,000 candidates sat the state exams for approximately 17,000 secondary teaching positions across Spain. In many cases aspiring civil servants will spend up to and beyond six to eight post-university years attempting to pass the exam and obtain a tenured position.

The Spanish *oposición* system, however, has been criticised as archaic, selecting candidates based on rote memorization ability and not on teaching merit or competence. The topics that candidates are required to study have not been revised since the 1993 LOGSE Decree, meaning that there has been no updating of subject content, references or methodological considerations in almost 20 years. Regarding continuous professional development, tenured teachers, once incorporated into the system in state schools are required to attend in-service training courses to be considered for promotion and/or salary increases (Eurydice, 2012). However, no stipulations are made that the training courses be related to the subject matter one teaches, meaning that foreign language instructors are not obliged to update their linguistic and methodological knowledge throughout their professional career.

As we saw in the previous section, teachers were not necessarily obliged to follow the stipulations of the legislation for implementation of the EFL syllabus, at least in terms of methodological considerations. This fact along with a closed bureaucratic system of employment for teachers in Spain and lax assessment systems in quality control in education prior to the Bologna reforms translates into little awareness of actual classroom practice and, as a result, it is highly likely that teaching standards have varied greatly in the EFL classroom in Spain.

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<sup>3</sup> In the 2010 edition *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, scores on the 4 dimensions established by Hofstede for cultural contrasts are listed for 76 countries.

## 2.6 Critiques of educational policies: LOGSE (1990 – 2006)

It is not an aim of this chapter to go into great detail on the changes that the Socialist government's LOGSE introduced into the educational system or the pros and cons of this. However, it is relevant to mention a few that may led to further understanding on the diversity in English language competence in Spanish universities today. The university students of today went through a great part of their education under a legislation that attempted to adopt a system similar to that of the British Comprehensive school. A new non-discriminatory *comprensivo* system was proposed through the LOGSE elevating compulsory education from 14 to 16 years-old. At face value, this initiative was to provide a more educated society and one that was to be educated from a constructivist paradigm centering on the support and development of individual diversity. However, opponents claimed that under this scheme many adolescents were obliged to endure an education they were not suited to for much longer, yet were unable to take vocational or professional training until much later in the *Bachillerato* cycle (Casquero & Navarro, 2008; Moreno, 2004). The Spanish MEC summary of the OCDE report for 2013 also cites a study indicating that this factor did not, as it had been anticipated, improve the issue of school failure and abandonment:

Por ello, luchar contra este fracaso debería ser un objetivo a corto plazo, en el que una posible solución podría ser el fomento de los programas de Formación Profesional. En esta línea, en un trabajo académico reciente, Florentino Felgueroso, María Gutiérrez y Sergi Jiménez-Martin (2012) sugieren que el retraso en la edad de inicio de la Formación Profesional de los 14 a los 16 años por parte de la LOGSE en 1990 no contribuyó al decrecimiento del abandono escolar temprano. (MECD, 2013, p. 9)

Attempting to avoid the high levels of *fracaso escolar* or school failure in essence, the LOGSE legislation had eliminated the regulated diagnostic examinations from final stage of primary and the four years of compulsory secondary education proposing a new open and flexible syllabus (LOGSE, 2006) that promoted a holistic continuous assessment approach evaluating all aspects of education (the teaching process, classroom attitudes, general skills and values, achievement, etc.). The LOGSE system did not stipulate core subjects that were compulsory to pass, therefore, graduates of ESO could then enrol in the *Bachillerato* stage having failed in vital areas

such as Spanish language, mathematics, history, geography, and English. There are no official statistics however on commonly failed subjects in *ESO* and *Bachillerato* owing to lack of state or regional involvement in examinations and final course marks.

Eligibility for university courses is also based on an average mark obtained in the university access exams (*Selectividad*), and for Spanish universities today, the comprehensive educational system that the educational legislation (LOGSE and LOE) fostered translated into great heterogeneity in students' core subject knowledge, e.g. Mathematics, Spanish, and English. The heterogeneity in the entrance level of school leavers to university also complicates the implementation of English subjects at third level education given that the subject matter may presuppose certain competence in English language skills, which is often lacking.

## **2.7 Educational reforms in FL teaching: LOE (2006 – 2014)**

The LOE system introduced profound changes in different aspects of education, such as reverting to diagnostic testing of basic skills at final year of primary and year two of secondary. With regard to English language learning, the initial LOE *Real Decreto* emphasises the requirement of a command in one or two foreign languages along with competence in the Spanish language as well as a regional language depending on the autonomous community in question. Therefore, a first foreign language was established in the initial primary stages, from 1<sup>st</sup> year and a second foreign language from 5<sup>th</sup> year of primary. Proposals involved permitting experiential FL teaching at pre-primary level for 3 to 5 year-olds. A further step was the encouragement of bilingual education system in primary and secondary education - a collaborative project between the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and the British Council project already initiated in 1996 in a small number of 42 schools throughout the country and one with a reported degree of success (Dobson, Murillo & Johnston, 2010).

Regarding secondary education, significant reforms in policy regarding curricular levels of competence in foreign languages were implemented, in line with recommendations of the Common European framework of Reference for languages



(CEFR). Levels of competence recommended at this level indicate that secondary students should prove a minimum of a CEFR B1 level in all four skills in their first foreign language. However, this requisite is one of progressive implementation and the stipulation is that official assessment of oral skills is not required until 2015<sup>4</sup>.

Rubio and Tamayo (2012), although not making reference directly to the overall evaluation system under the current legislation, do highlight a lack of rigor in continuous assessments and final evaluation in English language subjects in secondary education in Spain. They analysed secondary EFL teachers' assessment techniques and evaluation criteria, contrasting these with the evaluation criteria stipulated by the 2006 LOE Decree 1631/2006. These authors had originally hypothesised that teachers were not evaluating oral and aural skills, and were able to find some evidence to support this claim (p. 314). To a large extent, the assessment tools used by the sample studied are written exams, which assess grammatical and lexical knowledge and take up between 60% and 80% of the total assessment tools. The remaining percentage is normally assigned to aspects of classroom attitude and participation. The point that Rubio and Tamayo are making is that the five skills (reading, writing, oral comprehension and production, and conversational interaction) that make up the evaluation criteria of the legislation are not assessed proportionately in the secondary schools that formed the sample. These researchers question assessment methodology, stating that if the evaluation procedures reflect classroom work, it is unlikely that communicative methodologies are being followed, and that it is the structuralist approach that most likely continues to reign in L2 teaching. In conclusion the authors draw attention to the need to re-examine EFL teaching resources, classroom time and space, and teacher training in evaluation techniques.

The above-mentioned studies examine English language assessment under the stipulations of the quite recent 2006 legislation. However, it has been mentioned previously in this chapter that lack of evaluation during the LOSGE mandate was highly criticised. The question that studies, such as that of Rubio and Tamayo (2006), and Madrid, 2001, 2004) confirm is that language teaching methodology has tended to

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<sup>4</sup> At the time of finalising this thesis in December 2014, oral exams have not been included in the *Selectividad* exams in any of the autonomous communities and the educational authorities have officially delayed the test until the 2015-2016 academic year.

draw largely from the structural and audio-lingual approaches, and it appears this has been the case since the origins of language teaching in Spain, despite attempts to promote the communicative approach since the early 90s (cf. Valcárcel & Verdú, [1995] for an example of a detailed proposal for implementation of the communicative approach to language teaching in Spain).

It is coherent that the teaching methodology and assessment measures in secondary education are heavily guided by the assessment measures for the final *Selectividad* exam. In the *Selectividad*, formally known as *Pruebas de Acceso Universitario* (PAU), a look at the exam papers for English as a Foreign Language shows that they are entirely structured around a choice of two reading comprehension texts which are followed by series of multiple choice comprehension activities, a test of lexical knowledge and two short written commentaries on a subject related to that of the text. There has been little observable change to the format of the exams over the three academic years. Nonetheless, the one modification that can be observed is in the marking criteria. In 2010 and 2011 the criteria are based on the concepts of grammatical and lexical precision (accuracy), grammatical and lexical scope (fluency, sic.) and punctuation, with a negative emphasis on L2 errors. From 2012, despite no change in the exam format, the marking criteria and rubrics are based on the CEFR B1 descriptors in terms of competences and offer more detailed marking rubrics with an emphasis on the communicative ability of the student. From the exam format, we could infer that L2 teaching in the final years of secondary education cannot but focus on the content and form that is to be evaluated, thus is coercing L2 teachers to disregard listening comprehension and oral production in English, especially in the years approaching graduation from secondary school.

In summary, the provision for English as a school subject in Spain in the past forty years has undergone three major legislative periods, during which it appears that curricular design and methodological recommendations were always quite coherent with the recommendations from language teaching and research fields. Each legislative mandate lowered the age at which students were introduced to English in the school system and updated language learning objectives, content and methodology accordingly. However, there appears to have been a gap between educational policy

and teaching practice and learning assessment, as we have seen reflected in national headlines and in the empirical studies mentioned, besides the undeniable fact that English language competence in the generation that received English instruction during the LOGSE years is by no means what language policies had intended they should be. Our overview of teacher education and training policies over this time has shown that there have been potential lacunas in this area but that current post-graduate training programs are attempting to improve. From our overview, it is clear that achieving a level of oral competence solely from instruction in English as a school subject would have been a nigh on impossible task for school goers of the 80s and 90s. We shall now discuss the options available to this generation to learn English outside the school system.

## 2.8 English outside the school system

Aside from formal compulsory and voluntary secondary education, the only other regulated institution for language certification in Spain is the Official School of Languages of Spain (*Escuela Oficial de Idiomas*, or *EOI*), which is a state-run enterprise solely dedicated to the teaching of foreign languages. The first *Escuela Central de Idiomas* was set up in Madrid in 1911, to promote the learning of foreign language (English French and German) and enhance commercial relations in Europe. Over the course of history other languages were introduced and in 1960 *EOIs* were extended to other main Spanish cities. However, it was not until 1982 that Murcia inaugurated its first *EOI*. Local government is also in charge of the administration of these schools and teaching staff are selected through the competitive *oposición* exam and are considered *funcionarios*. *EOIs* have enjoyed certain prestige in their teaching standards and are considered to offer a high standard of education and assessment. Moreover, demand has always been high for entrance to these language courses both for training in language acquisition and official certification. Currently, in 2013, there are six academic courses of 120 hours each to progress from initial A1 to B2 level, the highest

level that the EOI currently certifies<sup>5</sup>. The stipulation, also passed in the 2006 LOE in adapting to CEFRL recommendations, that the *EOIs* do not offer language lessons or certification for C1 or C2 levels of any foreign language has proved quite controversial with the EOIs of many autonomous communities demanding the right to teach and certify at this level. The argument would appear quite logical as the previous structure of five academic courses certified a student in the equivalent of a Cambridge Advanced level, which is equated with a CEFRL C1 for instance by the *Asociación de Centros de Lenguas de Enseñanza Superior* or ACLES. This is yet another example of ambiguity and confusion in the interpretation of some aspects of the CEFRL from both a national and regional perspective and that in turn contributes to uncertainty among students and workers requiring official certification for various purposes.

A further option for English language learning in Spain is that of privately-owned language schools, which proliferated throughout the 1980s in major cities in Spain and are still extremely popular today perhaps due to the limited places on offer at the *EOI*. These language schools offer lessons mostly in an evening or night-school schedule for any age group – from pre-primary to adults. Private language schools are not regulated by any type of official educational organisation within Spain, although many offer preparation for official exams, such as Cambridge and IELTS. Private language schools can differ in their outlook and objectives, from those offering grinds to support school foreign language subjects and prepare students for the *Selectividad* university access exam, to those advertising more emphasis and training in the oral skills required for professional and/or educational purposes.

## 2.9 Current provisos for L2 communicative competence

The Socialist government (PSOE) educational reforms of 2006 radically changed English language education policy at primary level and, based on the CEFRL levels of communicative competence, set recommendations for L2 qualifications for all educational levels, especially third level students. The main changes involve the

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<sup>5</sup> At the time of finalising this thesis in 2014, the Education board of Murcia (*Consejería de Educación*) have announced their intentions to modify the L2 teaching hours offered in order to offer a C1 level of the L2 in 2015.

regulation of teaching qualifications in foreign languages for state schools wanting to implement bilingual education, which requires candidates for *oposiciones* to possess at least a B1 level certificate in a foreign language to enrol for the *oposición*. Practicing teachers in bilingual curricula and, most likely, those seeking employment at semi-private and private schools, are required to possess a B2 certificate in that language. The legislation<sup>6</sup> has affected universities in the region of Murcia, as well as nationwide, in that, students of pre-primary and primary education degrees are recommended to hold a B1 level of certification in a foreign language on graduation. In other degrees unrelated to teaching this requirement is also recommended, although, different autonomous communities have reacted to this recommendation in different ways – Andalusia’s universities for instance, in cooperation with the local Board of Education’s impulse to promote foreign language learning (*Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo*), initiated in 2005, have made this requirement mandatory for all third level graduates in its administrative region, whereas in the Region of Murcia, each of the state-run and private universities have their own policies on imposing a B1 certification as a standard requirement and in which degrees to do so. Therefore, the private university has chosen to set linguistic certification as a mandatory requirement solely for pre-primary and primary teaching graduates, whereas, the state university has no L2 requirement for graduation for any of their degree studies. However, in order to apply for a place on the Master’s degree in teacher training, which is compulsory for all candidates for a secondary teaching position, a B1 certification is also a mandatory requirement for enrolment at any local or national university. It must be stated that despite the requisite, university faculties do not always offer a foreign language as a subject within many degrees; those that do can rarely include more than a 6 ECTS EFL subject within their curricula for most degree courses. Although many third level institutions and colleges across the country are starting to implement Content and Language Integrated Learning methodologies to teach degree subjects (Lasagabaster, 2012), this methodology has not yet reached significant proportions in universities in the Murcia Region. The general tendency is that L2 courses and certification exams are made

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<sup>6</sup> (Orden ECI/3857/2007, de 27 de diciembre, por la que se establecen los requisitos para la verificación de los títulos universitarios oficiales que habiliten para el ejercicio de Maestro en Educación Primaria)

available through universities' annexed language centres; students have the option of taking these courses and/or exams at their own time and expense.

On a final note, regarding the provisos for L2 competence, there is great confusion within third level education in the Region of Murcia on which L2 certification entities are considered valid for a) graduation, if required b) enrolment on Master's courses and c) for future *oposiciones* or state exams. University language centres offer certification for enrolment on their own degree and Master's courses; however, these certifications are not valid for entities external to the universities, e.g. for *oposiciones*. In this regard, there is currently much agitated debate on whether the educational authorities will accept all L2 certifications offered by official entities, such as Cambridge, Trinity College London ESOL, or solely the government regulated *EOI* certifications. To date, no official announcement has been made on the L2 accreditation that will be accepted for the *oposiciones* to be held in 2015.

## 2.10 Chapter summary and conclusions

In the first sections of this chapter we provided an overview of the evolution of EFL as a school subject across the different legislative periods since the 80s. The aim of this was to offer in-depth insight into the lower level of communicative competence in English in Spain compared to many of its EU counterparts.

On the whole, after an examination of the background to English Learning in Spain, it is understandable that, at least in oral skills, communicative competence is low in Spain despite a certain regard for English, at least as a school subject and as a future instrumental communicative tool. The educational policies of the 80s and 90s on language teaching arguably left a lot to be desired regarding assessment and lack of quality control on teaching practice, which implied great heterogeneity in L2 classroom methodology and general teaching practice in formal state education. In defence of L2 teachers of the epoch, we have not been able to examine the conditions under which they worked and to what extent employing a communicative methodology was feasible. For the adults of today, this fact coupled with a scarcity of L2 input or opportunities for L2 interaction in Spanish society in general means that third level students of today present great heterogeneity as regards communicative competence

in English. The inevitable result is that those who only had EFL as a school subject may present higher levels of reading comprehension ability and grammatical knowledge and those who have had more communicative instruction, taken extra tuition, worked on their English independently and/or spent some time in an English speaking country may show higher abilities in oral skills. Of course, with current day global communication systems and more accessible international travel, it is much easier for university students to engage in autonomous learning and improving English and we have no evidence to know if this phenomenon is being taken advantage of to improve skills in English as a L2.

A further aim of this chapter was to provide a perspective of current L2 provisos for third level graduates so as to help the reader understand the position of a university student of today, and especially of those who now face the diverse and confusing policies regarding certification of competence in English. The linguistic policies for university students that have emerged thanks to the 2010-2020 *Plan Integral de Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras* may have taken many undergraduates by surprise, as many had already started their degree unaware of the extra linguistic requirement that would not be fully provided for within their studies. In some cases the new L2 proviso was surely highly disconcerting for students who suddenly faced the threat of being unable to graduate or enrol in the teacher training Master's course without demonstrating L2 competence. Moreover, the ambiguity over valid L2 certifications for the diverse educational and professional only adds fuel to the fire as L2 learners are unsure of which organisation to turn to. Furthermore, satisfying the governmental proviso means investment of time, as well as financial resources for English language courses and exam fees – yet another consideration that students have to face.

Taking into account the educational background we have just seen and the current demands for English in Spanish society in general, and in the education sector in particular, it is hoped that using the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) described in Chapters 4 and 5, to examine the L2 motivation of adults who coursed English as a school subject in the 80s and 90s, and who now face the challenge of acquiring English will prove enlightening as to the current motivational profiles we may find. The L2 MSS

purports to provide a much broader and flexible framework than any motivational construct to date from which to examine L2 motivation variables along with an emphasis on language learner experiences in formal and informal contexts and it is hoped that its tenets can shed more light on language learning motivation in this particular context with the idiosyncrasies we have discussed.



# Chapter 9 . OVERVIEW OF L2 MOTIVATION THEORY

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## 3.0 Introduction

Before we take a detailed look at the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005) as a novel lens through which to analyse second language learning motivation, it is necessary to examine the evolution of motivation theory and understand why there was a need for a change of perspective regarding L2 attitudes and beliefs. In the following chapter, definitions of general motivation are discussed prior to an in-depth look at the different theoretical perspectives that have emerged in motivational psychology and that have led to the multidimensionality of the concept. After this we examine how mainstream theory was extrapolated to the L2 learning arena. In subsequent sections, the most significant advances in the history of L2 motivation empirical research are detailed in order to trace the evolution of the concept to its current state within the L2 learning domain.

## 3.1 Defining motivation

If Motivation were a straightforward concept, it would be uninteresting  
(Galloway, Rogers, Armstrong & Leo, 1998, p. 42)

It is rare nowadays to read more than a few lines on the subject of motivation without coming across reference to its complexity. In fact the American Psychological Association once considered eliminating the term from its database owing to the wealth of meaning it generates (Dörnyei, 2009a). With reference to the lack of consensus in the research as to the precise nature of motivation, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 4) affirm that:

no existing motivation theory to date has managed – or even attempted – to offer a comprehensive and integrative account of all the main types of possible motives, and it may be the case that devising an integrative ‘superttheory’ of motivation will always remain an unrealistic desire.

Attempting to discover how Motivation might be delimited as far as a popular definition is concerned, we find that the Encyclopedia Britannica explains motivation as:

forces acting either on or within a person to initiate behaviour. The word is derived from the Latin term *motivus* (“a moving cause”), which suggests the activating properties of the processes involved in psychological motivation.

The Oxford Online Dictionary defines the noun form of motivation as: a “reason or reasons for acting or behaving in a particular way,” and the abstract noun form as: “desire or willingness to do something; enthusiasm”. Already here we can start to perceive slight differences between these two concepts as we could ask ourselves if a ‘reason’ for doing something could be synonymous with a ‘desire’ to do something. People do many things for many reasons but these may not always coincide with a want or desire to do them. On the other hand, there are many things that we could say we desire in life although we are not fully engaged right now in trying to obtain all of them. Thus, simply a desire for something would not suffice to define ourselves as motivated, nor would simply having a reason for doing something - we may carry out a course of action, but not necessarily feel enthusiastic about the process. However, there may be certain desires or objectives that we are currently working towards with different degrees of enthusiasm so it could be understood that, of all our ambitions, we have, for whatever reasons, prioritised and made choices as to which of them to pursue at this current time of our existence. It is precisely the nature of these reasons or motives, and their capacity to drive a person forward, that motivation research attempts to clarify. The crux of the question is summarised simply and concisely in the first part of Deci and Flaste’s (1996) book title: *Why we do what we we do. Understanding self motivation*. Nonetheless, it seems that agreement can only be reached along the more general lines that motivation concerns the direction and magnitude of human action involving elements of choice – why we decide to take a particular course of action; persistence - the amount of time we spend pursuing the

aim, and effort - how hard we are willing to work at the activity (Dörnyei, 2001c; Gardner, 1985). However, identifying constants in the nature of the stimuli or motives that influence the choices we make and sustain our persistence to obtain the many diverse goals we set ourselves remains an issue for L2 motivation researchers. Dörnyei (2001c) suggests that there is actually no such thing as motivation in a closed definable sense, and proposes that the term is better viewed as an umbrella term that covers a variety of meanings.

This lack of consensus at an academic level may come as a surprise to some given that in many everyday personal and social spheres such as the work place and education, motivation is a commonly used (and perhaps abused) term: “my students aren’t motivated”; “the workers need motivation”, “I would go to the gym, but I don’t feel motivated”, etc. In its popular use few seem to have problems understanding that motivation is an essential precursor to action and achievement, yet at the research level it has been impossible to find an all encompassing explanation of the phenomenon. The reason for this is that motivation has been studied from many different angles in mainstream psychology, and, to a lesser extent, in second language learning. Nevertheless, it has not been possible to merge all the different theoretical proposals into a whole that could be applied in general to an explanation of why we do the things that we do. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 4) present an interesting analogy to explain this further in the tale of the three blind men each touching a part of an elephant and arriving at very different conclusions as to the nature of the animal before them.

A wide range of contributions to theories of human motivation have accumulated over the past century from the different branches of psychological study. Starting with behavioural psychology, the dominant paradigm in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and concerned with observable reactions to external stimuli and events, we have, for instance, Skinner’s (1957) operant conditioning. Skinner demonstrated the effect of positive and negative reinforcement, reward and punishment, on behaviour. Behaviourism, however, largely ignored the mental processes affecting human reactions as the focus was on physiological acts. On the other hand, Freud’s psychoanalysis highlighted the significance of unconscious mental processes in human

development and how these incite us to take certain paths in life. Another significant dimension to theories explaining human motivation emerged from the Humanist School of Thought, referred to as the third force in psychology, in the shape of Maslow's (1943) article *A Theory of Human Motivation*, which presented Maslow's renowned hierarchy of needs, establishing the individual's drive to satisfy basic physiological requirements before continuing to meet other innate needs for safety, love and belonging, esteem and self actualization. Throughout, approximately, the past 80 years, the theoretical perspectives on motivation in general psychology have evolved from this unconscious, emotional (Freudian) dimension of human behaviour to the conscious, cognitive dimension that incorporates theories related to human thinking, e.g. goals, expectations, and beliefs on one's capabilities. Although the latter still form relatively solid bases to modern day concepts in motivation, there has lately been a resurgence of the relevance of emotion and affect within the notion of motivation thanks to a renewal of interest in this area in general psychology. A further dimension of culturally specific motives and values are also becoming a focus of attention within general psychology and this particular angle has become of extreme relevance, as we shall see, to the field of second language learning motivation.

This chapter will now continue to trace the more significant developments in mainstream motivation theories to their influence on theories of motivation in second language learning.

### **3.2 Second language learning motivation**

In the past decades research into second language learning motivation has undergone several phases meaning that we can now talk about three main stages in its history. Dörnyei (2005) describes these as: the social psychological period; the cognitive-situated period, and the process-oriented period. In following sections of this chapter, these stages are described along with their major contributions to the development of motivation theory. A subsequent section is reserved for what we could now call the fourth phase of L2 motivation theory, as we are currently on the threshold of further breakthroughs in our understanding of the dynamics of human

behavior as regards second or foreign language learning. The first of these stages that we shall be looking at – the Social-Psychological phase, also known as the Gardnerian period, was initiated in the late 50s through the work of Robert Gardner and colleagues in the bicultural/bilingual setting of Montreal, Canada. The theories that Gardner and associates developed as a result of their examinations of the motivations of language learners from the precociously novel perspective of individual psychology became a solid foundation and stepping stone for the next half century of debate and investigations into why some people are successful at learning second or foreign languages while others fail. It was the core of Gardner's (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985) motivation theory, the notion of integrativeness – to be understood as a positive affective disposition towards the L2 culture and its speakers to the extent that one could even desire to integrate with and adopt characteristics of that target language community that has generated most controversy, which has led to current innovative developments in the field. To follow, we shall take a look in more detail at Gardner's theoretical and empirical work and its influence on the subsequent two stages of language learning motivation research.

### 3.2.1 Social-psychological stage

The starting point in Gardner's motivation theory is, in accordance with traditional and widely accepted conceptions of motivation, namely that motivation concerns "those factors that energize behaviour and give it direction" (19: p. 281). In other words, motivation is usually conceived of as having a qualitative dimension, *goal-directedness*, and a quantitative dimension, *intensity*. (Dörnyei, 1994b, p. 516)

Until the decade of the 90s, the theoretical framework dominating research and study in the field of L2 motivation was the Socio-Educational model conceptualised by the social psychologists Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (e.g. 1959, 1972) mainly in the bilingual setting of Montreal, Canada, and to some extent in the U.S., where they studied the language learning desires and efforts of learners of French and English as second languages. To these investigators, languages are: mediating factors between different ethnolinguistic communities in multicultural

contexts (Gardner, 1985) and, in this sense, they considered the motivation to learn the language of the other community to be a primary force responsible for creating a desire for intercultural communication or affiliation.

To Gardner, motivation proper involved three observable elements: motivational intensity; a desire to learn the language; and positive attitudes towards the learning situation, and it was his belief that the truly motivated individual would display all three of these characteristics: “When the desire to achieve the goal and the favorable attitudes towards the goal are linked to effort and drive, then we have a motivated organism” (Gardner, 1985, p. 11). As a result of their studies, Gardner and Lambert (1972) developed a theory of second language acquisition - the *socio-educational Model*, which interpreted L2 motivation in terms of *integrative orientations*: the extent to which a language learner is willing to integrate with the target language community and the effect of this desire to integrate and adopt idiosyncrasies of the TL community on their motivation to learn the language. The model (see Figure 3.1) is a complex construct composed of various interrelated sociocultural, cognitive, affective and contextual concepts that combine to form three major factors influencing language learning: integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation; and motivation. It is within the individual difference domain of the model, that Gardner situates the integrative motive. This “operational formulation” (Gardner, 1985, p. 153) of the theoretical model is shown in Figure 3.2.

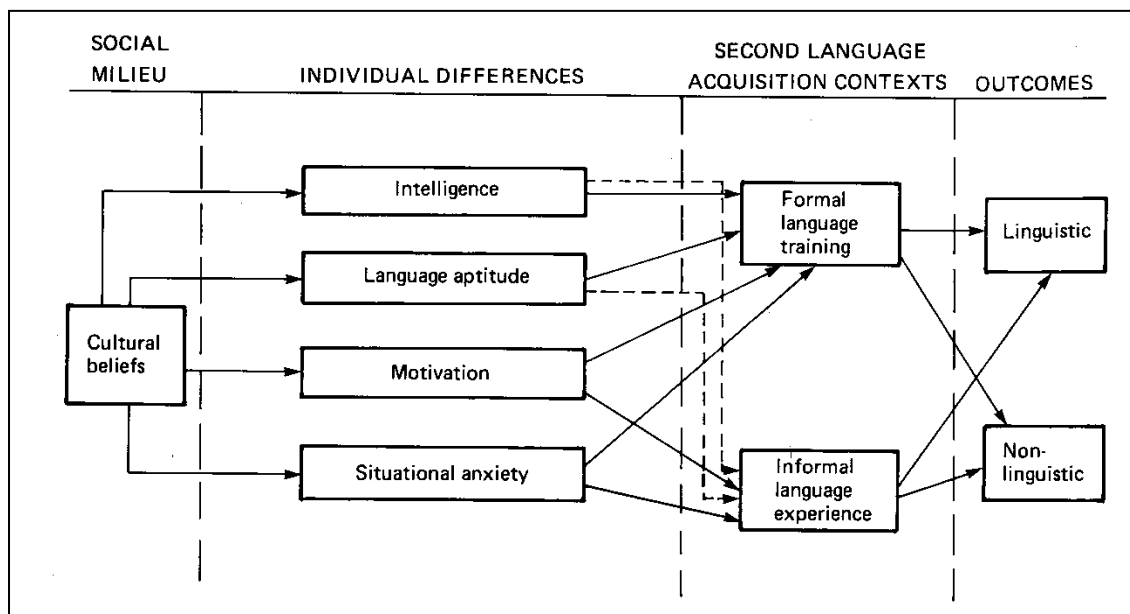


Figure 9.1 Gardner's (1985) schematic representation of the socio- educational model

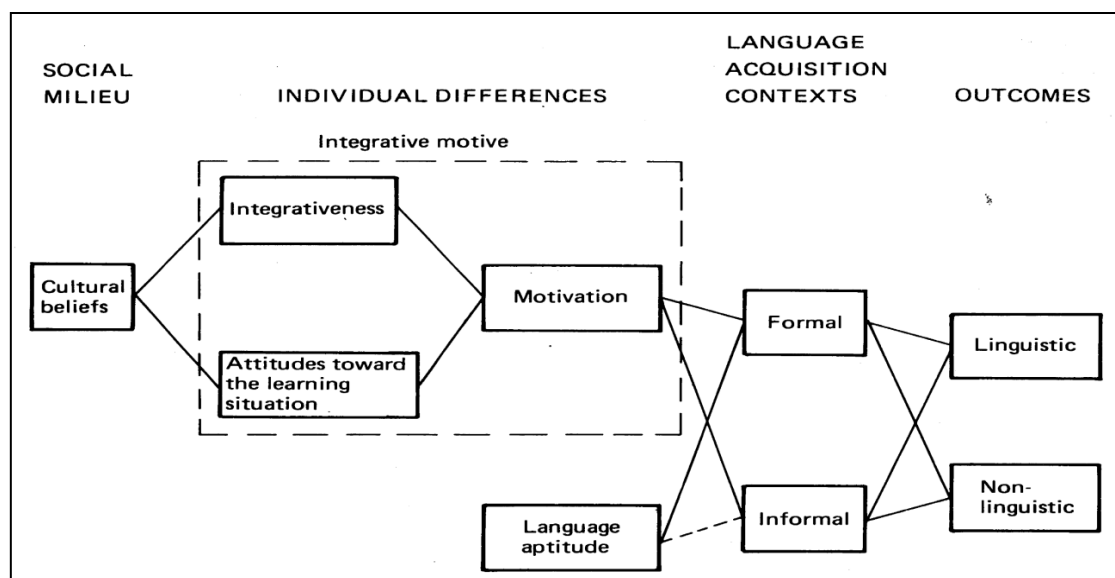


Figure 9.2 Gardner's 1985 representation of the integrative motive within the socio- educational model

As we can see the above representation shows that, somewhat confusingly, motivation, integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situation are all encompassed within what Gardner refers to as the integrative motive, which in turn is an individual characteristic of this learner. When discussing criticism of Gardner's model we shall be referring back to this operational formulation shown in Figure 3.2. However, before this we should mention that a further result of Gardner's work was

the Attitude-Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), (see Gardner 1985b), which could be described as a frequently used, standardized instrument with well documented psychometric properties and which involves a list of over 130 influential motivational factors such as, classroom anxiety, parental encouragement and evaluation of a teacher or a course within a specific learning situation. Even by the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the ATMB was still the only published standardised test of L2 motivation and has been the foundation for the design of most, if not all of the L2 motivation instruments developed in more recent large scale studies, for instance in Japan (Ryan, 2008) and Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei et al., 2006).

### **3.2.2 Criticism of the integrative motive**

Indeed, I believe that the most important milestone in the history of L2 motivation research has been Gardner and Lambert's (sic) discovery that success in L2 learning is a function of the learner's attitudes towards the linguistic-cultural community of the target language, thus adding a social dimension to the study of motivation to learn a L2.

(Dörnyei, 1994b, p. 519)

Undoubtedly the most debated and researched aspect of Gardner and colleague's investigations was the notion of 'integrativeness' (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner 1985) to the extent that even the current day theory of the self that this thesis is based on was developed precisely as a result of the desire to clarify the enigma that this concept has become over the past 50 years. Au (1988) was one of the first researchers to point out ambiguities in the socio-educational model and the integrative motive; others (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990; Horwitz, 1990; Oller, 1981; Oxford, 1996) soon followed. First of all, Gardner had come up with a novel concept that had no precedent in mainstream psychology and this was one of the issues that caused initial concern in the field. A concept of motivation based on an individual's attitudes towards an external social group was unique in psychology. But, what was the uniqueness due to? Was acquiring a second language also a unique



phenomenon and thus worthy of its own motivational perspective? Dörnyei (1994b, p. 247) writes in support of this view:

... due to the multifaceted nature and role of language (i.e. the fact that it is at the same time a *communication coding system, an integral part of the individual's identity, and the most important channel of social organization*), the motivational background of L2 learning involves a unique and necessarily eclectic construct.

It would appear that this unique social aspect of second language learning was little disputed, “this social argument has been accepted by researchers all over the world regardless of the actual learning situation they were involved in” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 67). It has become generally accepted that a second language learning as a subject has a very different nature to that of other subjects and as Dörnyei (2005) states “it explains partly why the theory of L2 learning and teaching has never managed to fully integrate into the broader domain of educational studies” .

A second issue that Dörnyei (1994b, 2001c, 2005) claimed was confusing is the fact that the term integrativeness has several terminological variations: *integrativeness; integrative motive and integrative orientations* and this, according to Dörnyei (2005), has been one of the bones of contention with the concept and ‘has led to misunderstandings’ (2005, p. 69). If we refer back to Figure 3.2 in the previous section, we mentioned that the actual structure of the construct as schematised by Gardner (1985) causes this terminological and structural confusion at first glance. Integrativeness is situated within the integrative motive alongside motivation, which brings yet another terminological and theoretical dilemma. Dörnyei raises this issue in his 1994b paper indicating that it is hard to know which interpretation is being referred to — motivation general, in its broader sense, or motivation as a cog in the wheel of the integrative motive, in Dörnyei’s own words:

This is a relationship that I have found difficult to grasp because to me "motivation" appears to be the broader term and therefore the relationship should be reversed, with the "integrative motive" being part of "motivation.

(Dörnyei, 1994b, p. 517)

Conceptually, the placing of motivation as a subcomponent within the construct of the integrative motive leaves us with a ‘chicken and egg’ dilemma: what comes first motivation or a desire to integrate with the target language community? Dörnyei, in the same paper, continues to point out that in the ATMB, designed to empirically test the socio-educational model of motivation subsuming the three constituent scales of the integrative motive: *desire to learn the L2; motivational intensity, and attitudes towards L2 learning*, also presents some overlapping of concepts that, in his opinion, should be more separate and clear-cut.

The final confounding issue that arose from Gardnerian theory is that of the supposed dichotomy of integrative and instrumental motivation. Although Gardner has consistently pointed out (see Dörnyei, 1994b; 2005) that his socio-educational model of L2 motivation does not include instrumental motivation/orientation, it appears frequently in L2 motivation literature and research possibly, according to Dörnyei (1994b), due to its ‘simple yet comprehensive nature’. Instrumental rewards as goals of L2 learning have frequently featured in studies involving learners that did not have the opportunity to ‘integrate’ with the target language community yet demonstrated high level of desire and effort to learn the L2. Shaw (1981, p. 112), for instance, claimed that, in parts of the world where English is learned as a foreign language, the integrative motivation, in the way it is understood by Gardner, plays only a minor role in the popularity of English. Similar arguments have been raised by other scholars (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001b; Krashen, 1981; McGroarty, 2001; Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005). Nonetheless, despite criticism, a look at Gardner’s 1985 volume, shows that he does recognise the potential of instrumentality as a L2 learning motive. This orientation was actually brought to the fore by Lambert (1974, in Gardner, 1985) as a pragmatic end to language learning, distinct from integrativeness in its lack of emotional involvement with the target L2 group. In his direct reference to the phenomenon, Gardner (1985, p. 133). states that:

Furthermore the integrative orientation is not necessarily the only one which will promote language acquisition. In some contexts instrumental orientation may be more influential.

Thus, although not highlighted as part of Gardner’s core theory, instrumental orientation or a set of pragmatic/utilitarian reasons for learning language, does indeed

appear in the 1985 Attitude-Motivation Test Battery and it would appear that, because of this, researchers have automatically adopted the view that instrumental orientations are counterparts to integrative orientations. More recently, Gardner (2001, p. 13) has reiterated that:

there can be other supports for motivation not directly associated with integrative motivation. Thus there may be instrumental factors contributing to motivation, and we could label this combination of instrumental factors and motivation as instrumental motivation.

It is patent that Gardner and colleagues did acknowledge forms of language learning aims other than that of the integrative disposition, nonetheless they focused more intensely on the concept of integrativeness as more relevant to their own particular setting, in which two distinct language communities cohabited. In other L2 learning contexts, for instance Europe, the growing critique of the significance of integrative motivation gradually originated as a result of observations of L2 learner motivation and achievement in cultures where the chances of liaising with members of the target language culture were almost non-existent, i.e. in monolingual cultures geographically distant from the L2 culture. Successful language learners in these settings could not realistically claim a high level of integrativeness to a culture they probably knew relatively little of. Empirical studies, therefore, aimed at discovering orientations distinct to integration and so highlighted instrumental, pragmatic reasons as being more relevant to these contexts. For instance Oxford (1996) cites a 1992 study of her own in which she examined university students' reasons for taking Japanese as a foreign languages subject and discovered both *integrative* (wanting to meet people from the target culture) and *instrumental* (future business prospects) reasons were common, although other orientations also came to light, such as intellectual stimulation and seeking a personal challenge. With regard to the diverse range of motives emerging in L2 motivation research, Clément and Kruidenier (1983) identified four main classifications of reasons for L2 learning in their learner samples: travel, friendship, knowledge, and instrumental orientation. These variables also featured in Noels, Pelletier, Clément and Vallerand, (2000) in their examination of instrumentality and self-determined forms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, leading

the authors to conclude that these four 'reasons' for learning should be considered as independent orientations in future research.

One of the dimensions most critiqued in the integrativeness enigma, particularly in more recent times, is the concept of a defined community of speakers of a particular language as *one* target language culture. The idea of a closed defined cultural community as 'proprietors' of a language, made sense in the Franco-Anglo bilingual context of Canada. However, this proprietary perspective, in the case of English, is becoming more and more disputed in the face of the current globalisation of the language. In this regard, McClelland (2000), commenting a study on Japanese language learners, called for a definition of 'integrativeness' that would focus on integration with an international or global community rather than on affiliations with native speakers. As a *lingua franca*, to what extent is it feasible to expect learners of the language to necessarily form an affective disposition towards, for instance, either Anglo-Saxon, American or Australian native speakers? And if this is not feasible, how can the target group orientations of these learners fit into their motivational make-up? There has been a response to calls for a reinterpretation of integrativeness to allow for the effect of globalization on attitudes to learning foreign languages and speakers, as well as the sense of identity a learner forms with real or imaginary L2 speaking communities (e.g. Kanno & Norton, 2003; Pavlenko, 2006; Yashima, 2000, 2002, 2009). The broadening focus on L2 learner identity is developed further in Chapters Four and Five.

So far in this chapter, we have discussed the main aspects of the social-psychological stage of L2 motivation and in the next section we shall continue with the advances that the cognitive-situated phase brought about. In conclusion, let it suffice to say that Gardner's conceptualisation of the social-psychological perspective of motivation as a precursor to success in learning a second language revolutionized the field of L2 learning motivation. Today his notion of integrativeness can be taken to have reached orthodox status, and developments in the field subsequent to Gardner, although critical at times, have never been able to ignore the rich contributions of the socio-educational model and the integrative motive. In the words of Oxford, (1996, p. 122) researchers working on motivation post Gardner were "standing on the shoulders

of giants". The Canadian studies served as a solid foundation for all further progress and led L2 learning motivational research to where it is today. Although we now turn to the cognitive phase of L2 motivation research, the socio-educational model is revisited with regards to adaptations made during the 90s.

### **3.2.3 The cognitive-situated stage**

The second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century brought a cognitive revolution in mainstream psychology making the concept of motivation more relevant to psychologists working in the field of education. The focus was turning to the influence of the individual's cognitive processing or introspection, making judgements on his/her abilities, potentials, limitations and past experiences, as well as the value attributed to the rewards to be gained from actions or indeed – task engagement - actually carrying out the activity itself. In L2 motivational psychology, for many the watershed of the cognitive era was the seminal publication of Crookes and Schmidt in 1991 in which they effectively 're-opened' the motivation research agenda and encouraged fellow researchers to set aside the 'static' integrativeness concept and to consider the various cognitive perspectives from which language learning motivation research could benefit. The gauntlet that Crookes and Schmidt had laid down was echoed by other researchers (Dörnyei, 1998; Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). For instance, Oxford and Shearin (1994) suggested extending the concept of motivation to include a long list of concepts that had become prominent in mainstream psychology, but which were not reflected in the socio-educational model. Dörnyei (1994b) called for an expansion of the study of motivation to include more explicit educational themes based on social cognitive theories: goal theories; self-efficacy theories; expectancy-value theories of achievement motivation; attribution theory; self-determination theory and self-regulation of action are examples that, as we shall see in the following section, greatly enhanced progress in understandings of human motivation in the cognitive situated period. The notion of affect and its ability to enhance or restrict action also emerged for the first time during the cognitive phase of motivation research bringing concerns of anxiety and self esteem to the fore.

*Goal theories*

The notion of the relevance of goals in task motivation originated in the concept of basic human needs outlined by Maslow's (1970) human needs hierarchy, which established basic human drives associated with satisfying our need for food, warmth, love, esteem, safety, etc. Contemporary research in cognitive theory has centered on elaborating theories on the influence of goals on human thinking, learning and action, two of which have become particularly influential in educational psychology, goal-orientation theory and goal-setting theory.

Goal-setting theory was established by Locke and Latham (1990) and it prioritises purpose as a propeller of human action claiming that individuals set goals and act by choice in order to reach them. In these authors' view, goals can differ in three main characteristics that cause them to differ: *difficulty*, *specificity* and *commitment*. Goals also affect individuals' performance by way of four mechanisms:

- Goals serve a directive function as they direct attention and effort toward goal-relevant activities and away from irrelevant activities
- Goals have an energising function and they help individuals regulate their effort to the difficulty of the task.
- Goals positively affect persistence.
- Goals affect action indirectly by leading to the arousal, discovery, and/or use of task-relevant knowledge and strategies.

(Locke and Latham 2002, p. 706-7)

These authors also state that individuals that have accepted or created specific, challenging goals persist longer at a task than those who claim goals of a more ambiguous nature or 'easy' goals. According to Locke and Latham (2006, p. 266):

The key moderators of goal setting are: feedback, which people need in order to track their progress; commitment to the goal, which is enhanced by self-efficacy and viewing the goal as important; task complexity, to the extent that task-knowledge is harder to acquire on complex tasks; and situational constraints.

Locke and Latham (2006) argue that goal-setting theory is an open theory, meaning that as further pertinent discoveries are made, they are incorporated into the theory. Thus, they set out eight categories that have advanced goal theories: goal choice; learning goals; framing; affect; group goals; goals and traits; macro level goals, and goals and sub-conscious priming. It is this flexibility that has probably led to the permanence of goal theories within most, if not all, psychological constructs related to motivation. As we see later in this chapter, goal theories are brought into play in self regulation of learning; self determination theory and, theories based on the concept of the self.

Goal-orientation theory (Ames, 1992a; Dweck, 1986; Maehr & Midgely, 1991) is an educational specific construct and Pintrich and Schunk (1996) describe it as one of the most active areas of research on student motivation in classrooms. Ames' (1992) summary of the theory explains that it highlights two contrasting achievement goal constructs or orientations that students can adopt towards their academic work. These two theories are:

- Mastery orientation, involving the pursuit of mastery goals, also labelled as task involvement goals or learning goals with emphasis on learning the content of the actual subject. Students with a mastery orientation wish to have a command of knowledge and know-how.
- Performance orientation, involving the pursuit of performance goals (or ego involvement goals) with a competitive focus on looking good, e.g. demonstrating ability, getting good marks or outdoing other students.

With respect to the role of goal setting in language learning, empirical research was conducted by Ushioda (1996a, 1998) involving a temporal perspective on L2 learners' aims or objectives. In her qualitative study, she discovered that learners' motivation arose more from positive learning histories rather than future goals and reached the conclusion that goals had really not been fully developed in these learners. This led her to hypothesise that definitive goal structures gradually evolved as learners engage in language learning and take time to form or crystallise. Another angle on goals is viewed by Dörnyei in discussing motivational strategies for the second

language classroom. Dörnyei warns, on the one hand, of the problems that can arise when group and individual goals do not coincide and, on the other, of the problem of parallel multiplicity – the existence of various academic, social and personal goals (Wentzel, 2000, 2007, cited in Dörnyei, 2001c), in one individual or group and emphasises the need, in the formal learning context, to maximise the learning groups' goal-orientedness by ensuring that individual language learning goals coincide with class group goal. In his words: "You have won half the motivation battle if the class group can agree on a common purpose and a sense of direction ..." (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 61).

Reflecting the significance of these theoretical perspective on goals, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) revised the original Socio-Educational Model in answer to calls for the "adoption of a wider vision of motivation" (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995, p. 505) and, adopting more modern cognitive theories, incorporated three mediating variables between the first two elements of the parsimonious sequence:

language attitudes    →    motivational behaviour    →    achievement

Thus, between language attitude and behaviour we find *goal salience* (specificity and frequency of learner goal setting); *valance*, the value attributed to learning the L2, and *self efficacy*, the expectancy component of being able to deal with language learning tasks and activities. (The two latter variables are discussed in subsequent sections of this chapter). As we shall see, goal setting theories are closely related to expectancy-value theories in that "commitment is seen to be enhanced when people believe that achieving the goal is possible (cf. 'expectancy') and important (cf. 'task values'" (Dörnyei, 2001c, p. 26).

### *self efficacy theories*

Whatever other factors may operate as guides and motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce effects by one's actions.

(Bandura, 2001, p. 10)

Self-efficacy theory, developed by Albert Bandura (1977) concerns people's perceptions of their own competence or capabilities to carry out activities. According to this theory of human behavior and motivation, "what people think, believe, and feel



affects how they behave” (Bandura, 1986, p. 25). The construct is based on capabilities in terms of performance, how well we believe we will do a task, not on our psychological make-up or who we are as people and the concept is task-specific or multidimensional, meaning that our beliefs on how well we will do on particular tasks is not generalisable over a diverse range of learning activities. One may feel confident in solving a mathematical problem but not at all confident in completing a complex crossword.

According to self-efficacy theory whether we choose or not to engage in activities and the intensity with which we do so will vary depending on how capable we believe ourselves of completing the task (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Thus when confronted with difficult tasks, a person with a low self-efficacy will be more likely to fail or give up as she perceives the difficulty as a personal threat rather than a challenge as would the person with a high sense of self-efficacy. Individuals that possess a higher level of self confidence in their abilities are more likely to stay positive in the face of failure. Self-efficacy theory has thus gained a significant role in the field of educational motivation given that it can help predict the effort students will make on familiar tasks and has been proven to “provide student with a sense of agency to motivate their learning through use of such self regulatory processes as goal-setting, self-monitoring, self evaluation and strategy use” (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 87). The implication for educators is the possibility of influencing learners’ self-efficacy beliefs as these beliefs are susceptible to change, unlike more stable personal trait beliefs, given the appropriate contextual conditions and outcomes. Beliefs in one’s own capabilities are not entirely related to one’s actual competence if we consider that the impressions we gain from other sources (e.g. other people’s opinions, feedback, evaluation, observation of others, etc.) contribute greatly to our self conceptions. In this sense, Bandura’s theory, although developed as a social cognitive theory, can also be seen as a social learning theory which, according to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 17) “describes learning in terms of the interrelationships between personal, behavioural and environmental or social factors”.

Regarding research on self-efficacy beliefs in language learning, we most frequently find studies which employ the term self confidence (e.g. Clément, Dörnyei,

& Noels, 1994; MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998; Noels, Pon, & Clément, 1996) or perceived competence (Baker & McIntyre, 2000; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 1998). Within the L2 field, self-confidence is seen as “self-perceptions of communicative competence and concomitant low levels of anxiety in using the second language” (Noels et al., 1996, p. 255). Bandura (1997), however, distinguishes self-efficacy from self confidence:

Confidence is a nondescript term that refers to strength of belief but does not necessarily specify what the certainty is about. I can be supremely confident that I will fail at an endeavour. (1997, p. 382).

Authors in L2 motivation, nonetheless, associate self confidence with higher levels of interaction with the target community (McIntyre et al., 1998) and lower levels of anxiety (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Clément et al. 1994; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997). Mills, Pajares and Herron, (2007) cite Dörnyei in their overview on the subject:

Although seemingly akin to self-efficacy, self-confidence measures are derived from the “quality and quantity of the contact between the members of the first language (L1) and L2 community” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 73). Thus, linguistic confidence is a key factor in one's ability to learn a L2, seek intercultural communication, and ultimately identify with the foreign culture. Differing from self-efficacy, which is a cognitively defined construct, self-confidence is a socially defined construct.

In attempting to distinguish the cognitive self-efficacy focus from a socially oriented self-confidence focus, one cannot help but feel that we are again facing potential terminological confusion. The conceptual overlapping in the terms may have some connection to the fact that self-efficacy in L2 learning has proven somewhat difficult to empirically measure across language skills and tasks and difficult to distinguish from perceptions of interest or task enjoyment (see Mills et al., 2007). More recently, the notion of confidence or, more precisely ‘perceived communicative competence’ (see McCroskey & Richmond, 1990) in seeking L2 interaction with others has also been studied under the concept of ‘willingness to communicate’ (e.g. MacIntyre, 2007; MacIntyre, Babin and Clément, 1999; MacIntyre, et al., 1998) as a conceptualisation of learners’ desire and volition in approaching potential L2 speaking

targets for interaction. Thus, self-efficacy, although forming part of many taxonomies of L2 motivation (e.g. Gardner 1895; Williams & Burden, 1997) in Bandura's sense has not received extensive empirical focus in L2 contexts. We shall now return briefly to the related notion of 'competence' and its emergence as a relevant concept in learning psychology.

### *Competence*

As we have seen, self-beliefs on ability and competence, from one angle or another, are central to the achievement motivation constructs described. More recently there has been a call for a refocusing of the terminology used to refer to human accomplishment by Elliot and Dweck, (2007) who, while recognizing the long and distinguished history of achievement motivation, claim that the literature on the subject lacks "coherence and a clear set of structural parameters" (2007a, p. 4). They attribute this to the fact that the concept itself is not clearly defined and that researchers have acted on an "intuitive, culturally based understanding of achievement motivation" (p. 5) that may not be broadly applicable to all individuals and situations of accomplishment. Their proposal is a refocusing of the concept to the term competence as a term that "has a precise meaning and is a rich and profound psychological concept" (2007, p. 6). The same authors argue that competence is an inherent psychological need of the human being and that individuals of any age or culture can strive for competence at any level without its conception being tied to some type of cultural or personal standard as may happen with the idea of achievement. The concept also facilitates an approach-avoidance dimension, in line with achievement motivation theories, in that individuals will also tend to avoid situations in which they may appear incompetent. In summary:

Competence motivation is ubiquitous in daily life, it has a substantial impact on emotion and well-being, it is operative across the lifespan and it is evident in all individuals across cultural boundaries. (Elliot & Dweck, 2007, p. 6)

The publication *A Handbook of Competence and Motivation* (2007) (re-edited in 2013) was dedicated to renowned authors (e.g. Weiner, Schunk & Pajares, Eccles, Heckhausen, Zimmerman) reconceptualising their different areas of enquiry into

achievement theory (intelligence, ability, motives, goals, anxiety, etc.) under the umbrella of the competence construct. Apart from reorienting the core constructs within achievement theory, the volume also covers dimensions concerned with: developmental issues, e.g. age, the influence of temperament and emotions on perceptions of competence, how these perceptions evolve over time, socialisation and the impact of family, peers and state institutions impact feelings of competence, and finally, the role of different self regulatory processes and motivational states, such as intrinsic motivation, flow and creativity in developing competence. It would appear that the proposal is being taken quite seriously and no doubt will become the accepted term under which to examine human accomplishment. As Ryan (2008, p. 56) states:

People are motivated to increase feelings of competence and an understanding of this fundamental point provides a focal point for subsequent understanding of the specific reasons behind human action.

#### *Self-worth theory of achievement motivation*

According to Covington's (1984, 1992, 2000) self-worth theory, motivation is regulated by our need to maintain face — a basic sense of personal worth — when confronted by failure or negative feedback. Self-worth theory suggests that “protection of a sense of ability is a students' highest priority — higher sometimes than even good grades” (Covington, 1992, p. 17). Thus, the need for approval leads individuals to employ different strategies in order to maintain their self-esteem in certain situations. Within the educational context, this may lead to the implementation of face-saving strategies, such as that of, when confronted with a challenging task, intentionally not making the required effort so that actual ability to do the task would not be questioned. To be seen as lacking the competence to do the task would be more detrimental to one's self concept than placing the blame on controllable factors such as effort or lack of time. The implication here is that fear of failure through a perceived lack of competence will lead us to abandon tasks and activities in order to maintain self esteem, while as long as we are performing to the expectations of our peers and educators it is implicit that we will sustain motivation to act.

Affective concerns in terms of self worth and self esteem and their ability to spur on or inhibit learning have also found their niche in the L2 learning sphere. Extensive work has been carried out on affective factors such as anxiety in language learning and its facilitating and debilitating effects (e.g. Aida, 1994; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), and by Arnold (1999) which provides extensive overviews of empirical and theoretical work carried out in this field and indeed, practical suggestions for enhancing self esteem in the L2 classroom have close ties with the L2 motivational self system that we discuss in more detail in Chapters Four and Five.

*Expectancy –value theory of achievement motivation*

Expectancy-value theory explains why we humans do the things we do from the point of view of how well we expect to do on a task based on beliefs about our ability and the worth or value we assign to the activity itself and/or the outcome of that task. Atkinson and colleagues (Atkinson, 1964, 1966) was the first to develop a comprehensive model of achievement motivation within an expectancy-value framework. They saw human achievement as based on a formula that involves a blend of a degree of need for success and/or a desire to avoid the negativity of failure. To these elements they also added the person's expectations of a successful outcome based on previous experience and the value or worth assigned to the incentive. Wigfield and Eccles (2000), who based on their own work on achievement theory (e.g. (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992) indicate that:

Expectancies and values are assumed to be influenced by task-specific beliefs, such as, ability beliefs, the perceived difficulty of different tasks and individuals' goals, self-schema and affective memories. These social cognitive variables, in turn, are influenced by individuals' perceptions of their own previous experiences and a variety of socialisation influences. (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000, p. 69)

The worth attached to the activity also concerns a composition of a variety of value elements, outlined by Wigfield and Eccles, (2000) as attainment value or the importance of the outcome; utility value or usefulness of the task and intrinsic enjoyment value of the activity.

Achievement theory was very influential in the decades after its conception and the core concepts of ability and the value placed on engaging in a task and the outcome of the activity continue to feature in subsequent education related to motivation theories, as well as in the field of L2 attitudes and beliefs. Although, it is not a question of rejecting previous models, the issue is that the different theoretical bases lead researchers to focus on ability and expectations slightly differently. As Schunk, (2000), in an edition of *Contemporary Educational Psychology* specifically dedicated to clearing up the confusion with different motivational constructs, puts it: “Problems arise because how we define constructs influences which measures we use to assess them and how we interpret our research results”. Thus Wigfield and Eccles (2000), insist that, although the core concepts of ability and expectations are present in most major theories, the definitions of the constructs vary across different theoretical perspectives “especially with respect to specificity and exactly what aspects of ability are asked about” (p. 72). They claim that future ability related research should attempt to determine differences and similarities in the measures used. In the following section, however, we shall take a look at the next significant step in the evolution of expectancy-value theories, which came in the shape of attribution theory.

#### *Attribution theory*

Attribution Theory (AT), instigated by Weiner (1985, 1992), can be described as the subjective reasons to which we attribute our past successes and failures. Thus, in situations in which, for instance we don't obtain what was desired, we will tend to examine the reasons for this and assign blame to one or a number of factors. In school environments learners tend to attribute past successes or failures to factors such as ability, effort, luck or help/hindrance from others (Graham, 1991). An important and novel dimension of AT, in contrast to its predecessor, is the identification of the properties of causal attributions, what Weiner (2000, p. 4) calls “the heart and soul of an attributional approach to motivation”: locus (whether a cause is internal or external to an individual); stability (a cause that can be constant or varying over time) and controllability (whether we have any influence on the factor in question). In this way, ability and effort can be understood as internal causes of success, whereas the difficulty of a task or having someone help with the task is external. Factors such as

luck or opportunity are neither stable nor controllable. In the operationalisation of Weiner's theory, it is the factors that we believe are less controllable, i.e. lack of ability, that will tend to impede our making an effort in a given direction in the future, whereas in the case of attributions that we believe within our control, e.g. making more of an effort or spending more time on a task, the chance that we will make an attempt at achieving that goal is higher. More recently Weiner (2007) has concentrated on the attribution processes of others, i.e. the emotional reactions of teachers and classmates on individuals' performances and how these affect the person's self-concept and consequently, their motivation.

Regarding AT in the field of second language learning, Ryan (2008) gives the example of an older learner blaming lack of achievement on age based on the popularly held belief that learning a language at a younger age is easier. This factor would be seen in AT as internal, stable and uncontrollable. On the other hand a learner blaming a poor teacher is attributing an external, unstable and a potentially controllable factor on his or her language success. Causal attributions have been included in some major L2 motivation constructs. Ushioda (1996, 1998), in the studies mentioned previously, for instance, studied attributions in foreign language learning from a qualitative viewpoint, examining French learners' motivational thinking. Her investigations highlighted that students maintained a positive self-concept in negative situations thanks to the attribution of positive outcomes to personal, internal factors and negative outcomes to temporary, unstable and controllable factors. Williams and Burden (1999) established clear differences in the way children of different age groups constructed success and in the range of attributions given in cases of success and failure. Younger learners tended to attribute L2 success to listening and concentrating whereas the older child brought a more ample range of options to the attribution process, such as the influence of others and ability.

Interestingly, it would also appear that attribution-types vary according to cultures with Dörnyei (2001c) citing ability and effort as of high relevance in Western cultures and Williams, Burden & Al-Baharna (2001) finding that their Arab sample never attributed success to luck, for instance, and even 'ability' was not significant in the participants' attributions. Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011, p. 55) indicate that AT is a very

interesting avenue for further qualitative research into L2 learners' motivation given the studies mentioned have proved a "rich source of insights into the causal attributional processes of L2 learners".

### *Self-determination theory*

This theory has an advantage over empirically derived orientation frameworks in that it provides psychological mechanisms — self determination theory and perceived competence — that can explain and predict how orientations are related to learning outcomes. (Noels et al., 2000, p. 63)

Deci & Ryan's (1985) Self-determination theory (SDT) brought a further dimension to rationales behind human action and has become a hugely influential approach in motivational psychology. Starting from the basis that we engage in some actions or tasks because we find them inherently enjoyable (intrinsic motivation) while, in others, our aims stem from a need to meet or satisfy some external demand (extrinsic motivation), these researchers developed a complex construct based on SDT which can be understood as a broad framework for the study of human motivation and personality, which a) develops a meta-theory for framing motivational studies, b) is a formal theory that defines intrinsic and varied extrinsic sources of motivation, and c) offers a description of the respective roles of intrinsic and types of extrinsic motivation in cognitive and social development and in individual differences (Deci and Ryan, 2002).

Intrinsic-extrinsic motivation has popularly been widely viewed as a dichotomy or as a strong vs. weak type of motivation. However, SDT as developed by Deci and Ryan (1985) situates the relationship between the two types of motivation along a scale or continuum. The scale (See Figure 3.3) starts with non-self determined, amotivation phase of self regulated behaviour in which instrumental values of a given task are very much external to the individual and unrecognised. Once the perception of extrinsic rewards gradually progresses along four phases of internalisation, self regulation of action initiates and becomes more internalised at each stage. It is this concept of internalisation and a concomitant, growing sense of competence and autonomy that influences progress along the continuum to finally reach the sage of full



endorsement of the end goal and accompanying intrinsic enjoyment of the activity. Humans make and sustain efforts more successfully when they feel competent and self-determined, thus they become agents of their own actions rather than reacting to mandatory external stimuli.

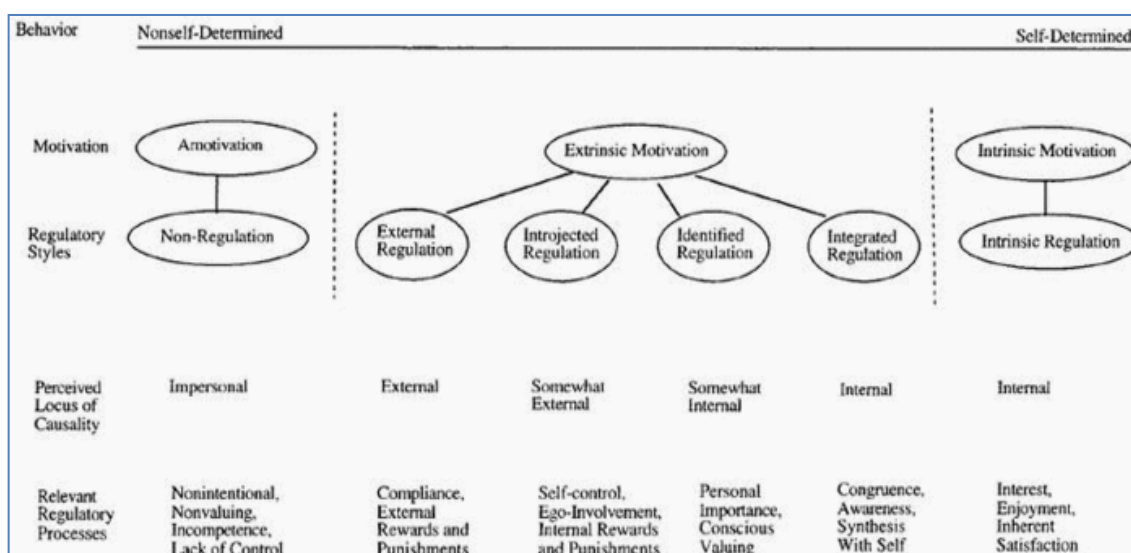


Figure 9.3 The Self Determination continuum, showing types of motivation and regulatory styles and loci of causality (Ryan & Deci, 2000)

Many attempts were made to incorporate SDT into L2 motivational research and establish relations between self-determined, self-regulated action and intrinsic enjoyment of the L2 learning process. Perhaps the most consistent were those of Noels, Clément and Pelletier (e.g. 2001); Noels, Pelletier, Clément and Vallerand, (2000). Noels et al., (2000), developed a Language Learning Orientations Scale, based on SDT, which outlined a hierarchical scale starting with *amotivation*, or *learned helplessness*, (a 'what's the point' attitude), leading on to *external regulation*, (in search of tangible benefits of L2 learning), *introjected regulation* (self-afflicted pressure to perform so as to avoid feelings, for instance, of guilt) and *identified regulation* (personal choice to achieve a valued goal). The scale then continues to intrinsic forms of motivation based on Vallerand's (1997) distinction (in Noels, et al., 2000) between a desire for knowledge, accomplishment and/or task stimulation. Noels and colleagues empirically tested and contrasted the tenets of SDT against integrative/instrumental orientations and established that "the instrumental

orientation and the SDT external regulation orientation were strongly correlated, and that the travel, friendship, and knowledge orientations were quite highly intercorrelated with identified regulation and intrinsic motivation” (Noels, et al., 2000, p. 34). In the formal L2 learning context, they determined that positive teacher behaviour, i.e. autonomy supporting and providing informative feedback, enhanced students’ levels of intrinsic motivation; these findings in turn comply with the findings of the authors of the original concept in that the fundamental needs that humans feel obliged to satisfy are: *autonomy; competence and relatedness*.

SDT theory is still highly relevant in L2 motivation theory, and some initial parallels (Busse, 2010, 2013a; Dörnyei, 2009) can be found with the newer construct of the L2 Motivational Self System that is detailed in Chapter Four. We shall therefore be referring back to SDT at different stages of the theoretical and empirical discussion of this thesis.

### *Self-regulation of learning*

SRL concerns the application of general models of self-regulation to issues of learning with a particular focus on academic contexts. Models of SRL, that is, attempt to understand how students can and do take an active role in managing their own academic functioning. (Wolters, 2010, p. 2)

Self regulation of learning has quite recently become an umbrella term under which the traditional concept of learner strategies is considered a sub-component. (Wolters, 2010). Although learner strategies were once thought of as part of the taxonomy of individual differences and akin to learning styles, it has been observed that strategies, rather than being a stable trait of the learner, are more related to the actual process of learning. That is to say that the learner selects certain strategies depending on the type of learning he or she is faced with (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005, p. 162). On the one hand, learning styles can be considered idiosyncratic to the learner, given that a style is “a strategy used consistently across a set of tasks” (Snow, Corno & Jackson, 1996, p. 281). Macaro (2006) attempts to disentangle the theoretical debate on learning styles and offers a model from which to see learning strategies interrelated with, but distinct from L2 skills, cognitive learning processes and learner styles.

On the other hand, Self Regulation of Learning (SRL) broadens the scope of possible strategies that the learner can apply and refers to the use of processes that activate and sustain thoughts, behaviors, and affects in order to attain goals, thus assuming a more dynamic nature than learner strategies (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). Zimmerman and Schunk (2001, p. 1) describe SRL as “neither a mental ability nor an academic performance skill, self regulation refers instead to the directive *process* through which learners transform their mental abilities into task related academic skills”. SRL is influenced by at a behavioural, personal and environmental level and at the first — behavioural — level behavioural we find four components

- Observational.: Deliberate attention to specific aspects of one's own behaviours.
- Emulative: Comparing one's current progress toward a goal with a standard.
- Self-controlled: Ability to use strategies independently.
- Self-regulated: Making evaluative responses to judgments of one's own performance.

(Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003, p. 64)

Zimmerman (2002) provides an overview of SRL in which he outlines the phases *Forethought, Monitoring, Control, and Reflection*. Through self regulatory strategies learners plan their learning, they are aware of when learning is taking place, they change or adapt learning techniques depending on the progress observed, and take heed, in the reflective stage of which strategies or techniques worked for them. The interesting aspect of SRL is that many of the previous theories discussed in this chapter, such as goal theory, attribution theory and expectancy-value of achievement theory are functional elements within self regulation of learning. As Dörnyei (2005, p. 192-3) states “we are dealing here with a complex and far-reaching system”. Schunk (2001 p. 2), for instance, cites Zimmerman (1998) in emphasising the importance of goal setting theories within SRL:

Most theories of self-regulation emphasize its inherent link with goals. A goal reflects one's purpose and refers to quantity, quality, or rate of performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). Goal setting involves establishing a standard or objective to serve as the aim of one's actions. Goals are involved across the

different phases of self-regulation: forethought (setting a goal and deciding on goal strategies); performance control (employing goal-directed actions and monitoring performance); and self-reflection (evaluating one's goal progress and adjusting strategies to ensure success.

Vockell (2001) indicates that self regulatory learners possess the following skill set:

- Valuing learning and its anticipated outcomes
- Setting performance goals
- Planning and managing time
- Holding positive beliefs about one's abilities
- Attending to and concentrating on instruction
- Effectively organizing, rehearsing, and encoding information
- Setting up a productive work environment
- Using social resources effectively
- Focusing on positive effects
- Making useful attributions for success and failure

With reference to the complexity of the concept of SRL, Boekaerts, Pintrich and Zeidner (2005, p. 4), in the introduction to their *Handbook of Self Regulation*, highlight the need to “define the construct theoretically and empirically distinguish it from other similar constructs”. Thus, SRL is currently a very active field in various dimensions of general psychology. Dörnyei (2005, p. 195) describes SRL as “still rather sketchy, lacking real integration”, but believes that SRL will provide researchers with plenty of scope to examine learning behaviour and cognition.

### **3.2.4 The process-oriented stage**

The process-oriented stage of interest in the temporal dimension of attitudes and behaviour originated within the field of L2 motivation. Dörnyei and colleagues (e.g. Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001c), were the instigators of interest in the ebbs and flows of L2 classroom motivation with the passing of time. These scholars were initially concerned with the need to examine the significant mainstream psychological

constructs we discussed in Section 3.2.2 in the second language learning classroom under one all encompassing construct. They concur with Weiner (1984) in that: “Any theory based on a single concept, whether that concept is reinforcement, self-worth, optimal motivation, or something else, will be insufficient to deal with the complexity of classroom activities” (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998, p. 44). The resulting process-oriented model of L2 Motivation was based on Heckhausen and Kuhl’s (1985, in Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) action control theory, which distinguishes different temporal stages in motivated action: choice motivation — how intentions are formed, and executive motivation — how intentions are implemented. Importantly, action control theory takes the basis of goal theory one step further in distinguishing desires of end results from commitments to reaching the end result, e.g. a view goals that spur one to prioritise among various desires and take action towards one particular target. .

It was Dörnyei’s interest in establishing a set of motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2001a) for L2 instruction that led to his development of a model of motivation divided into temporal stages that could cater for motivational flux within formal learning contexts and the different strategies that would aid motivation in each phase. The Process Oriented Model of motivation initially conceptualised by Dörnyei (1994b) incorporated three levels: the language level; the learner level and the learning situation level, which represent the “three basic constituents of the L2 learning process” (p. 279). The first — learning — level takes into account attitudes towards the target language and its culture and speakers as well as the tangible rewards of achieving competence in the second or foreign language, not hugely distinct to the Gardnerian model; the second — *learner* — level incorporates the psychological and emotional aspects that the learner may bring to the learning process, such as anxiety, the influence of past experience and attributions. Finally, the *learning situation* level accentuates the multidimensional aspect of Dörnyei’s model by specifically subsuming the elements relevant to formal classroom situation: the teacher and teaching style, the course materials, the learner group as a whole, etc.

Within the L2 learning sphere, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) explored the difference between choice motivation, i.e. opting for a particular course of action, and executive motivation, in this sense supporting Heckhausen’s (1991, in Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998)

view that the latter is a distinct procedural type of motivational which demands strategy implementation in order to progressively develop the skills required to reach an end learning goal. As an expansion of the multidimensional motivational model (Dörnyei, 1994b), Dörnyei and Ottó, (1998) made a further breakthrough in L2 motivation studies by taking into consideration the fact that nothing remains stable over time. They consequently developed the process model of motivation “to specify the components and mechanisms making up the L2 motivation process” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 83) and provide explanatory evidence for the potential ups and downs of the motivational flow. Drawing from action control theory and its contributions to self regulation of action from a temporal perspective, the process oriented model breaks down the process into discrete temporal segments:

i) *Preactional Stage or Choice Motivation*- the transformation of wishes and desires into commitments;

ii) *Actional Stage of Executive Motivation*. In this phase these goals are then operationalised into intentions, which, in turn are put into action in the pursuit of the goal.

iii) The *Postactional Stage* involves assessment or evaluation of events. This *Motivational Retrospection* will be important when it comes to making language learning decision in the future.

Each stage of the process oriented model subsumes a varied set of motivational influences based on the claim that “people are influenced by a set of factors while they are still contemplating an action that is different from the motives that influence them once they have embarked on the activity” (Dörnyei, 2005, p.86). The model thus becomes very complex in its various stages. *Choice* motivation may be influenced to a greater extent by motives related to learner self beliefs – for instance, expectancy of success, and an individual’s appraisal of the value of the L2 goal, whereas in *executive* motivation factors related to the actual learning experience come into play – e.g. influence of the learner group or the teaching style, as well as affective factors of self confidence or anxiety.

With regard to the second — *actional* — stage of the model, in which the individual has progressed from a stage of desire to intention formation, we can see to what extent Dörnyei and Ottó take into account previously discussed motivational theories and the complexity of motivational variables involved in this one phase:

- Expectancy of success/perceived coping potential
- self-efficacy/self-confidence
- perceived goal difficulty
- amount of expected support
- L2 anxiety
- perceived L2 competence
- L2 contact
- causal attributions
- Relevance (personal and setting related); cost-benefit calculations
- Need for achievement and fear of failure
- Degree of self-determination (type of regulation)
- Goal properties (goal specificity; goal proximity; goal harmony/conflict; level of aspiration)
- Availability of task opportunities and options
- Learner beliefs about L2 learning; knowledge of learning strategies; domain-specific knowledge
- Urgency; external demands; unique opportunity

(Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 54)

The Postactional phase of the process-oriented model encompasses the motivational variables of action vs. state orientation (Kuhl, 1994, in Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998), which distinguishes procrastination in state orientation from proactive striving towards a goal; behavioural control; distracting influences and obstacles, and finally the end result of not taking action. Dörnyei and Ottó's complex model lead them to a deeper definition of motivation as a:

dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised,

operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out. (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 64).

The process-oriented model provides for the complexities of motivational flux especially in the situated context of the foreign language learning classroom. However, although the construct raises questions that require empirical study for clarification (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 87), its complexity renders it a difficult model to apply comprehensively in empirical research. Perhaps for this reason, studies carried out to date on the ebbs and flows of learner behaviour have not been plentiful. Dörnyei (2005) makes reference to empirical research (e.g. Koizumi & Matsuo, 1993; Tachibana, Matsukawa & Zhong, 1996; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennand and Mihic, 2004; Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt & Shohamy, 2001; Chambers, 1999, and Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002; All in Dörnyei, 2005) as instances in which a decrease in motivation was found in formal learning contexts involving participants of different age levels and different time spans. In a qualitative study on 20 Irish learners of French, as mentioned in the section on goal related theories, Ushioda (2001) investigated the motivational flux of these adult learners over a time span of 16 months and found significant changes especially in relation to goal orientation – essentially she discovered that learners, over time, developed clearer definitions of L2 related personal goals. Interestingly, Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005), in a qualitative study that covered two decades of 25 learners' experiences were able to establish a pattern of episodes in the learners' lives that deeply affected their motivational disposition ranging from the process of maturation to the involvement of a significant other to spending time in a host country (Shoaib & Dörneyi, 2005). More recently Hiromori (2009) explored learners thinking process between the intention formation stage of motivation and intention enactment. He found that the difference between unfulfilled desires and purposeful action lay in learners' subjective estimates of the expectancy-value dimension of the end goal of L2 learning, with low levels of expectancy, value, and intention in less motivated individuals. His suggestion is that teachers become more sensitised to their students' attributions in order to help overcome challenging and potentially demotivating moments in the learning process.



Dörnyei's contribution of a dynamic view of L2 motivation, while not extensively studied as a comprehensive model, has given rise to a focus on the multiple factors that may converge at a given time in a learners' path towards linguistic achievement. Whilst effectively extrapolating mainstream motivational theories to the language learning sphere and encompassing these under one construct, he firmly turned attention to the second language classroom and, most importantly, was the instigator of a view of the role of the L2 teacher and how L2 instructors can become agentive in exploring, enhancing and helping maintain learners' motivation.

### **3.3 Chapter summary**

The space that the chapter has dedicated to an overview of significant theories contributing to our current knowledge of motivation in a) mainstream psychology and b) their influence on L2 motivation research has not allowed for the depth that these theories merit. Neither has it been possible to detail other influential theories such as Schumann's acculturation theory (1978, 1986) or his neurobiological perspective on affect and cognition in language learning (Schumann, 1999). Without intending to undermine the significance of these and other works in the development of motivation theory, the intention in our overview was to outline the most relevant developments of the past decades and set the scene for the discussion in the following chapter on a newly developed motivational construct, which its creator (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009a) hopes can provide an open, flexible casing within which the diverse motivational theories we have seen can fit together. There is no denying the complexity of attempting an overall explanation of what motivation is and how it works. In this sense, perhaps the best explanation for the current state of the art can be found in MacIntyre, Noels and Moore's (2010, p. 1) consideration:

...there is no single dominant paradigm in SLA research. The study of motivation in SLA is now approached from a number of different perspectives, using a number of different methodologies. This state of the art is not unique to SLA; it also characterizes the study of motivation in general. Grand theories of motivation have centered on psychological needs, drives, will, reinforcement conditions, or cognition, which have all taken their turn as a dominant

perspective (Reeves, 2009). However, in addition to these research foci, there has been an underlying thread of humanism, interest in emotion and psychology, concern for the self, and study of other processes that have been present in the study of motivation in psychology.

The problem that has arisen with the development of the multiple perspectives on motivation is that, in promoting new theories and different viewpoints, the tenets of previous theories on occasions fall to the wayside, instead of becoming a base for further complementary work. MacIntyre et al. (2010, p. 3) reprimand researchers who oversimplify or simply provide inaccurate accounts of previous work in the field of motivational psychology in an effort to promote their own 'winning formula'. The concrete example they give is the well known equivocal dichotomising of Gardner's (1985) integrative and instrumental orientations. In accordance with Dörnyei, (2007), these authors ask "need there be only one valid point of view?"

In our overview we have seen two major theories that have attempted to encompass the multidimensional views of motivation under one overarching construct. The socio-educational Model, although a tremendous breakthrough in its time and a perspective that has set the foundations of over 50 years of study on L2 motivation, is not quite flexible enough to accommodate the many valid constructs contributed throughout the cognitive-situated period, nor dynamic enough to reflect the complexities of time on learning processes. Dörnyei did achieve this in his process-oriented model of L2 learning motivation, yet given its breadth and depth, empirical researchers can still only afford to focus on a given angle at a time. Long term studies are required to examine its all encompassing potential.

# Chapter 10 . LANGUAGE LEARNER IDENTITY AND THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM

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## 4.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter we looked at the transition of L2 motivation research from its social psychological initiations through its enrichment thanks to the contributions of cognitive theory perspectives, and the view of motivation as a dynamic process susceptible to variations and change at different stages of its evolution. In this chapter, we shall first outline the current shift in thinking on language learner identity within a globalised world along with some proposals for a refocusing of the concept of learner identity. We then outline some recent theories suggested as alternatives to integrativeness and discuss one in particular – *International posture*, conceptualised by Yashima (2000, 2002) and a motivational variable that also examined in the empirical study in this thesis. To follow, we offer an in-depth description and discussion on the origins, theoretical bases and empirical validation of Zoltán Dörnyei's (2005) proposal for a view of the language learner from a self perspective and the L2 Motivational Self System (L2 MSS). The chapter ends with a discussion on the benefits and limitations of how Dörnyei's novel construct can help us understand the language learner better within different cultural and learning contexts and some personal observations on applying the LMSS system in a Spanish context.

## 4.1 Post structuralist views on L2 learner identity

'Identity', according to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics is "a person's sense of themselves as a discrete, separate individual, including their self-image , and their awareness of self. In the Encyclopaedia of Applied Linguistics, the concept of how we are seen by others is brought into the definition: "the way we conceive ourselves as individuals or as members of groups, or, indeed, the way others perceive and categorize us"

Identity as a construct in the L2 learning domain came to the fore in the conceptualisation of integrativeness, which was understood as a sense of one's own

identity with or closeness to a specific target community. However, despite more than 50 years of research since its conception, the dominant rationale of the integrative motive as a propeller of L2 learning behaviour has remained a thorn in the side of many researchers and adversaries of the notion. The essence of the debate — that it is possible to be a successful language learner without an intense desire to join, become part of and adopt the behavioural characteristics of a particular language community — has become even stronger in the face of the phenomenon of English as a global language, no longer under the ownership of a definable community, and a communication code that is spreading inexorably way beyond geographical frontiers and their associated cultural connotations. As Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009a, p. 3) indicate, over the last few decades:

we have witnessed the phenomena of globalization, the fall of communism and European reconfiguration, widespread political and economic migration, increased mobility with the rise of budget airlines, ever-developing media technologies and electronic discourse communities — all contributing in one way or another to the inexorable spread of global English, the World English varieties, and repercussions for the loss or maintenance of various national, local or heritage languages.

English is now spoken by more non-native speakers than native speakers (Graddol, 2006) meaning that, statistically, opportunities of close interaction with native speakers are also much lower and probably, for many L2 users simply not relevant. As Graddol also indicates and is seconded by Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009a, p. 3) “English as a foreign language has become a standard core curricular subject at primary school level in so many countries, that it is now a universal basic skill to be taught alongside literacy and numeracy”. The dominance of English thanks to its position as a *lingua franca* in almost every area of commerce, education, and digital social networking induces scepticism if we consider, for example, in a European context, the incongruence that a positive sense of identity with a relatively small and distant language community such as the UK or Ireland can have such an energising effect on another nation’s desire to learn English. It seems that integrativeness has indeed become unfeasible or ‘untenable’ in the words of Coetzee-Van Rooy (2006, p. 439) who argues strongly against its tenets. Her standpoint from her particular

linguistic context of South Africa is that this 'simplex' view of identity misrepresents the:

complex sociolinguistic realities of language learning, language use and cultural identity in Post-colonial, World English contexts, where multidimensional identities and pluralism (rather than integration) are the norm. (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006, p. 439)

Coetzee-van Rooy, along with Norton (2000), Kanno & Norton, (2003), Pavlenko (2002) and Ushioda (2006, 2009, 2011) have become the main voices in the currently emerging post structural shift in focus of learner identity in an attempt to readjust the view of the language learner traditionally seen as a mono or bi lingual-cultural entity. These theorists argue that, traditionally, in motivation literature the gain in linguistic and cultural capital that comes in learning the second or foreign language is achieved only by sacrificing part of one's own culture as if, on undertaking to learn a new language, one sheds a part of one's identity to facilitate the creation of a new one which would be more compatible with the new target community.

This current thinking advocates an emphasis on the social multidimensionality of users of more than one language (Ushioda, 2006). Norton (2000, p. 5) views identity as "how a person understands his or her relationship with the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how that person understands possibilities for the future" and she criticises the tendency in SLA to identify and classify learner attributes in separate incompatible parcels, e.g. motivated or unmotivated, showing an integrative or an instrumental disposition, within a natural learning environment or a formal one, an anxious language user or a self confident one. Individual language learners in the ebb and flow in a language learning lifetime can find themselves in all of these and other states simultaneously, and Norton feels that focusing on individual differences while ignoring the social complexity and diversity which give rise to social interaction and constant negotiation of identity — 'power struggles' in Norton's (2000) words, has occasioned artificial distinctions between the individual and the social "which lead to arbitrary mapping of particular factors on either the individual or the social with little rigorous justification" (Norton, 2000 p, 4). As part of the language learners' negotiation and construction of his or her

identity, Norton (2000); Kanno and Norton (2003), and Pavlenko and Norton, (2007) discuss the relevance on the idea of *imagined communities* — a term originally used by Anderson (1991) — to represent how the learner sees her interaction and engagement in the L2 with society. Under the concept of imagined communities, the learner draws both from her experience and imagination to create a world in which she feels she can belong, and in which her particular skill sets are relevant. In other words, she develops an imagined identity (Norton, 2001, p. 66). Imagined communities can be a blend of perceived reality and fiction as are indeed our own national and regional communities, if we consider Anderson's (1991, p. 6) claim that individuals of any nationality really can only use their imagination to define their own nation community as “even members of the smallest nation will never know most of their fellow-members, meet them or even hear of them, yet in the minds of each love the image of their communion”. The important factor is that imagined communities are relevant and idiosyncratic to the learner within his or her particular educational professional, social or political context and allow them to create a space to interact competently in the L2.

In support of what she calls the ‘social turn’ in SLA studies, Ushioda (2009) argues strongly in favour of what she calls a ‘person-in-context relational view of motivation’ – a need to focus on individuals and their complex relationship with their macro/micro societal influences – as opposed to establishing linear cause-effect relationships among the diverse motivational facets of L2 attitudes and behaviour in large population samples. Ushioda's view is that despite the ‘individual’ nature of motivation, quantitative observations tend to distribute particular traits in a population, and she quotes Atkinson (2002, p. 536, cited in Ushioda, 2009) in her argument that, by doing this, “they neutralise by design what is variable and individual” (p. 215). Her view is that while these studies can offer statistical information as to what type of behaviour certain motivational dispositions can, on average, lead to, they do not offer the necessary insight or tools to gain a deeper understanding of an individual's motivation within a particular cultural or learning context. She claims “we need to understand second language learners as people and as people who are necessarily located in particular cultural and historical contexts” (Ushioda, 2009, p. 216). Her argument is for a relational view of the individual as a

“self reflective, intentional agent” who interacts with a “fluid and complex system of social relations, activities and experiences and multiple micro and macro contexts” (2009, p. 220).

In relation to cultural contexts, as Ushioda (2009) states, context or culture tend to be taken as “something pre-existing, a stable, independent background variable outside the individual” (p. 218) and that cultural profiles tend to be formed at a macro contextual, national level, which ignores potential differences at micro-contextual, local levels. Ushioda (2006, 2007a, 2009) points to various theoretical and analytical frameworks she feels would contribute “in an integrated, but not discriminate way (2009, p. 221) to a deeper understanding of this contextually embedded relational view of motivation and identity”. Among these frameworks, she points to Vygotskian sociocultural theory (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006); ecological perspectives (Van Lier, 2004); theories of situated learning and communities of practice (Toohey, 2000); socio-cognitive approaches (Atkinson, 2002), as well as to the previously mentioned post-structuralist and critical perspectives (Norton, 2000; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004) (All in Ushioda, 2009). As a more detailed example, Ushioda cites Sealey and Carter (2004) as an example of how contemporary social theory views the individual’s relationship with her multi-faceted society:

It is a distinctive characteristic of human beings that we have reflexivity – that is that we have the ability through self-consciousness to attain a degree of objectivity toward ourselves in the world, and to make decisions among a range of possible choices, rather than simply be determined by the world and our instincts (or, we might add, by our componentised subpersonal parts). However our agency or human intentionality must always contend with the properties of social structure which act to constrain or facilitate our intentions. Motivation is thus conceptualised not as an individual difference characteristic, but as emergent from relations between human intentionality and social structure. (Ushioda, 2009, p. 221)

The ‘social turn’ in SLA (Block, 2003; Ortega, 2012) and in L2 motivation research also derives from a need to find ways to marry contrasting paradigms that have developed alongside each other in a parallel fashion: socio-cultural vs cognitive; quantitative vs qualitative, positivist vs interpretative. The direction being proposed in



the current literature that would facilitate an interrelated theoretical perspective, is that of a non linear dynamic systems approach — a strand of complexity theory and emergentism “specifically developed to describe development in complex dynamic systems that consist of multiple parts and in which the multiple interferences between the components own trajectories result in non-linear, emergent changes in the overall system behaviour” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 89). For keynote articles of these new paradigms in L2 motivation see De Bot, Lowie and Verspoor (2007), Dörnyei, (2009b) and Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006), and for a more recent overview of empirical research carried out under the new dynamic systems approaches, fast becoming the more relevant paradigm for L2 motivation research see Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry (2015).

Although the field of L2 motivation research is currently moving towards a whole new dynamic systems approach, the developments mentioned regarding approaches to explorations of L2 learner identity still leave much to be explored and, in this sense, perspectives of L2 identity are central to our empirical exploration of L2 motivation in this study. The perspective adopted stems from the concept of identity as constructed by the imagination, in a similar vein to Norton’s imagined communities; a more ample, acquiescent sense of identity facilitating a more panoramic view of the language learners’ potential circles of interaction than integrativeness. Before discussing the L2 Motivational Self System (L2 MSS), this interesting venue of research on identity in its application to L2 learning and use is examined.

#### 4.1.1 *International Posture*

The first significant attempt to empirically examine learner attitudes to real and imagined language learning communities in L2 learning and acquisition is that of Yashima (2000, 2002), who adopts the term *International posture* within the L2 learning field with regard to learners’ perspectives on the type of community they engage with in the second or foreign language. International posture, according to Yashima (2000) is a desire to communicate with and participate in a non-specific L2 culture at a much wider, global level than that of a specific country or closed L2 group. Yashima describes this as subsuming: approach tendencies in communication with other cultures; an international friendship orientation; and an interest in international

affairs, vocations and activities. Yashima (2000, 2002) developed the concept of international posture after examining Japanese learners' communicative orientations, using McCroskey and Baer's (1985 in Yashima, 2000) and MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément and Noels' (1998, in Yashima, 2000) concept of *willingness to communicate* (WTC), along with Gardner's (1972) socio-educational model, as a starting point to develop a L2 communication model for her study. She initially posited that "English seems to represent something vaguer and larger than the American community in the minds of young Japanese learners" (Yashima, 2002, p. 57). To test her hypothesis, her L2 communication model also drew on attitudinal and motivational concepts initially developed by Gudykinst (1991) within L1 intercultural communication research, such as, approach-avoidance tendencies in communication with other cultures, and ethnocentrism, defined by Gudykinst (1991, p. 66-67) as "a tendency to interpret and evaluate others' behavior (negatively) using our own standards" or a "bias towards the ingroup that causes us to evaluate different patterns of behavior negatively rather than try to understand them".

Yashima (2002, p. 63) concludes from her studies that "international posture influences motivation, which in turn, predicts proficiency and L2 communication confidence". She acknowledges the dual learning goals of EFL learners in Japan, such as gaining grades and qualifications on the one hand and a perhaps less immediate desire for international communication and interaction on the other, but claims that differing degrees of international posture in learners allows for both integrative *and* instrumental aspects of motivation. These two orientations had in the past become almost dichotomous with much empirical research in different learning contexts claiming dominance of one or the other in their samples (for examples, see Chapter Three). Under the conceptualisation of international posture, Yashima manages to accommodate the two and the construct allows for a more dynamic and flexible approach in which orientations may fluctuate in line with specific short term goals. In this sense, the novel view of identity accommodates a range of individual differences regarding immediate L2 academic learning goals along with encompassing the relevance of international communication goals (Yashima, 2009, p. 146). International posture has thus become a significant concept highlighted as a very relevant variable in

L2 motivation in empirical studies in Asia (e.g. Hashimoto, 2002; Ryan, 2006, 2009; Yashima, 2002, 2009; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004;) as an alternative to studying learners' desires to integrate with US and Australian cultures, but, as yet has not become a major focus in studies in Europe. The Motivational Factors Questionnaire (MFQ) that has been designed for the empirical study in this thesis does, however, feature a series of items that form an international posture scale in order to measure this dimension in L2 learners in Spain, the first to date, as far as we are aware, to be applied in a study in a Spanish context.

As Ushioda and Dörnyei, (2009, p. 3) state “the concept of international posture considerably broadens the external reference group from a specific geographic and ethnolinguistic community to a non specific global community of English language users”. However, Ushioda, (2006, p. 150) questions the concept of an ‘external’ reference group as she points out that through international posture an individual can perceive herself as a *de facto* part of a global community, developing an internal form of identity as an internal process of identification. Ushioda’s view is more consistent with Norton’s imagined communities in which the learner feels he or she has the potential to be part and parcel of the social or professional group. With regard to L2 identity from the perspective of international posture, Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) also surmise that this new construct would appear to offer a more extended, flexible lens through which to examine language learners’ attitudes and a multidimensional view of identity as regards communicative goals and intentions.

International posture is included as a variable in the quantitative MFQ that this study employs as an instrument to explore L2 motivation. Although the concept has emerged from and been analysed in an Asian context, there is no reason to assume that its tenets are not applicable in European contexts and indeed, given the geographical proximity of other nations in Europe for whom use of English as a L2 is an everyday occurrence, it would seem very pertinent to examine the attitudes of Spanish learners of English from a possible less culturally biased international perspective. Should it be the case that Spanish learners of English *do* have a more international outlook on L2 communities of practice (Norton, 2000), there could be interesting repercussions for teachers and practitioners who try to promote knowledge of and

contact with specific English speaking cultures in an effort to motivate learners. If learners are forging for themselves an identity within a more ample, flexible global community, those of us involved in the teaching-learning process could be missing the mark so to speak in our motivational practice by constantly turning learners' attentions to specific L2 cultures under an outdated notion that these communities are somehow 'proprietors' of the English language.

In the following section of this chapter, the recently developed construct on learner L2 identity and L2 motivation by Zoltán Dörnyei (2005; 2009a) — the L2 Motivational Self System (L2 MSS) — is detailed from its origins in mainstream motivation psychology to its theoretical base in second language motivation and finally to the empirical evidence of its success in expanding the concept of the integrative motive. The L2 MSS looks at learner motivation from the psychological perspective of the self, and in particular from the notion of *possible selves* (Markus & Nurius, 1986), which, for the first time in psychology examines the temporal dimension of the future and its influence on human action.

## **4.2 From possible selves theory to the L2 Motivational Self System**

The initial interest for Dörnyei in the advantage of considering concepts of identity and the self to bring more light to the integrativeness puzzle occurred as a result of a meta-analysis of the results of a large scale longitudinal study carried out at three different phases of data collection over 15 years (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a, 2005b; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér & Nemeth, 2006), carried out in Hungary with a total of over 8,500 students. The researchers measured learners' motivation through their election of foreign language subjects at school, and, in doing so, examined a large number of motivational variables, including the construct of integrativeness. The findings of the studies conducted over the three phases showed the "uncontested superiority of integrativeness as a predictor of language choice" (Dörnyei & Clément, 2001, p. 423), along with the puzzling fact that the variable of integrativeness mediated the effects of all other motivational variables in the studies. This unusually high level of what would be interpreted as a desire for close contact with a native English speaking target community as a primary motive

behind language learning, for a learner group who had little or no contact with the L2 target culture, did not make sense to the researchers. This incongruence led Dörnyei and Csizér (2002, p. 453) to contemplate that:

The process of identification theorised to underpin integrativeness might be better explained as an internal process of identification within the person's self concept rather than an identification with an external reference group.

Dörnyei (2005) proceeded to reinterpret integrativeness in such a way as to accommodate its main tenets, but, at the same time, allow for a more flexible framework for the interpretation of L2 motivation. He turned to a concept in mainstream psychology that had emerged, on the one hand, from personality research and, on the other, from motivation research: the self.

Although the concept of the self is one of the most popular within the diverse branches of psychology with a daunting list of related terms, one particular area in personality research on the self in the 1980s — personality trait psychology, had been successful in distinguishing major and stable dimensions or traits of personality (cf. The Big Five) and, as a consequence, motivational psychologists were starting to pay more attention to how individual differences in personality affect human behaviour. The link between personality and motivation research brought the concept of self-regulation of action or human agency and effort to the fore. However, a novel dimension from which to explore self development had occurred in mainstream psychology — looking at development of the self from a future perspective; it is in this dimension of the self, or *possible selves*, that Dörnyei finds scope for deeper insight into L2 learning motivation.

To be able to fully comprehend the notion of possible selves and the tenets of the L2 MSS, it is necessary to consider the origins of the concept, and trace its development through general motivation psychology to the potential application of its principles to learners of a second language.

4.2.1 *Possible selves in mainstream motivation psychology*

The notion of *possible selves* originates through the work of psychologists Markus and Nurius and was first detailed in their seminal 1986 paper of the same title. Their paper starts with the following definition:

Possible selves represent individual's ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming, and thus provide a conceptual link between cognition and motivation. Possible selves are the cognitive components of hopes, fears, goals, and threats, and they give the specific self-relevant form, meaning, organisation, and direction to these dynamics. (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954)

Markus and Nurius (1986) explain that in research on the self concept in mainstream psychology, one area that had proved very complex and diverse was that of self knowledge and its role in regulation of behaviour. At that time, they felt there was more to be understood than was contributed through the prevalent focus on the past and present of the self — analysing the present self as constructed through past experience — so they turned to the concept of how individuals perceive or imagine themselves at future moments of their lives, labelling this concept *possible selves*. Subsequently, they were able to establish that all individuals possess expectations, hopes and fantasies about their futures, shaping visions of what individuals can eventually become based on their considerations of past and present influences:

the pool of possible selves derives from the categories made salient by the individual's particular sociocultural and historical context, and from the models, images and symbols provided by the media, and by the individual's immediate social experiences. Possible selves thus have the potential to reveal the inventive and constructive nature of the self but they also reflect the extent to which the individual is socially determined and constrained. (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954)

The authors indicate that, there must be a feasible link between our now selves and possible selves. What an individual dreams of becoming in the future must be based on a current knowledge or intuition of his or her capabilities. As Segal (2006, p. 82) states “future possible selves are fantasy tempered by expectation (or expectations leaved by fantasy)”. This entails that fantasy alone in dissonance with

capability would not constitute an authentic *possible* future self. However, within possible selves theory, the people we could potentially become are not only formed through the awakening and nurturing of potential talents and abilities, the fears or threats that we perceive in life also shape how we lead our lives as do the expectations of significant others. MacIntyre, MacKinnon and Clément (2009a, p. 46) summarise Markus and Nurius' main framework of influences on potential future selves as follows:

...a form of future-orientated self knowledge that can be divided into three distinct parts: the expected self; the hoped for self and the feared self, each with varying impacts on motivation and self-regulation. The expected self is a future self that a person feels he or she can realistically achieve, and it may be positive or negative in valence. The hoped for self represents a highly desired possible future, which is not always grounded in reality. A feared self is what a person is afraid of becoming in the future, despite wanting to avoid that future.

These expected, hoped for and feared selves do not necessarily act separately but in conjunction to support the individual to take action. Positive attractors draw towards a desired end-state act along with preventative strategies that draw away from feared states create a winding approach-avoidance path towards one's end goals. Possible selves help set a purpose for our behaviour – explaining why we do what we do — and “under this conceptualisation, motivation is the conscious striving to approach or avoid possible selves in order to achieve one's inner-most potential” (MacIntyre et al., 2009a, p. 46).

At a cognitive-affective level, a person uses schemas or theories to “lend structure and coherence to the individual's self relevant experiences” (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 955). The resulting ideas or visions we have of ourselves in different areas of life, as students, as parents, as friends, as professionals, etc., help shape our hopes and expectations for the future. Possible selves are instrumental in the extent to which we react to the stimuli provided by our social, educational and professional environments, and “in this way, the self concept becomes a significant regulator of the individual's behaviour” (1986, p. 955). The L2 Self System construct conceptualised by Dörnyei (2005; 2009a) from the *possible selves* theory is also heavily influenced by Higgins' view of possible selves. (Higgins, 1987), Contrary to Markus and Nurius'

infinite range of possible selves or various forms of expected, hoped for, and feared selves, Higgins conceptualises only two types of future selves: The *ideal self* — a singular entity involving what people hope or wish to become — and the *ought self* — what a person feels obliged or duty-bound to become, possibly as a consequence of what significant others think they should become rather than themselves. Markus and Nurius had based their broad spectrum of potential selves on the future visions created by the individual herself, although they included an ought self in the range, whereas Higgins brought the influence of significant others and relevant social groups more specifically to the fore in his conceptualisation of the ought self. In Higgins' view, significant others could influence all types of possible selves, and could help to form the ideal self depending on the extent to which the individual accepts and internalises the visions that others may have for him or her. However, in general terms, family, peer and social pressures that have not been internalised are theorised to make up the figure of an ought self. Dörnyei (2009a) surmises, in subsequent literature, that the influences on the ideal self have been kept separate from those on the ought self; indeed, we will see in diverse studies on the subject that these two selves have been dealt with in an almost dichotomous fashion and regarding this, Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006, p. 627-8) warn that confusion may arise in attempting a precise delimitation between ideal and ought selves given that it is part of human nature to conform to social expectations and obligations adopting external values as part of one's own self system. Therefore it may be difficult to establish at what point external obligations are internalised and begin to form part of one's ideal self. Dörnyei (2009a, p. 14) here draws a parallel with the 4 stages of internalisation of extrinsic regulation detailed by Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory (see Chapter Three) from external to introjected to identified and finally to integrated regulation of values and norms. In his view, external and introjected regulation would appear analogous with ought selves, whereas introjected and integrated regulation with the ideal selves. However, it is not clear where the boundary between these lies.

In comparison to Markus and Nurius' (1987) broad range of selves, Dörnyei, (2009, p. 13) describes Higgins' single selves as more 'precisely defined technical terms' which are "composite self guides that sum up all the relevant attributes" (2009,



p. 14), and, it is these ideal and ought self guides that Dörnyei has elected to include in his language learning motivation model. Before detailing this further, however, it is important to examine how exactly possible selves incite action.

The question of how the selves can influence self regulation and guide us on life paths somehow inspiring the decisions we take is addressed by Higgins (1987) through the concept of *discrepancy*. Higgins (1987, p. 321) explains that “self-discrepancy theory postulates that we are motivated to reach a condition where our self-concept matches our personally relevant self-guides”. The term *discrepancy* is used to describe awareness of the difference or gap between the actual self and what a person would like to become or feels they should become due to the aspirations of significant others. This discrepancy can cause unease or emotional turmoil, and a person will take action in an attempt to alleviate that feeling of discomfort – which, from many diverse perspectives as Higgins (1987) explains could range between feelings of apprehension, dissatisfaction, disappointment, shame, guilt, fear or some other type of “emotional vulnerability” (Higgins, 1987, p. 323). Also highlighting a distinction in the emotions that different types of future orientations can generate, Shah, Higgins and Friedman (1998) examine the ideal and ought selves and two distinct types of instrumentality: promotional and prevention oriented. They associated the more positive approach tendencies of hopes, aspirations and accomplishments with the ideal self and the negative associations of avoiding disappointment, punishment or failure with the ought self.

Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) bring further understanding to the executive force of an ideal self in that they define three components in the articulation of an ideal self: the formation of an image of a desired future, which is cognitive in nature but arises from one’s dreams and values; hope as a fuelling emotion in the creation of future self guides; and finally, the person’s core identity as a stable and unconscious set of individual characteristics based on personal contextualised experience. These authors see the emotion of hope as a result of a degree of optimism and judgement of self efficacy and argue that hope is not solely a cognitive process as argued within cognitive psychology, but an affective, experienced state and that “the hope component of the ideal self model is defined by one’s ability to generate cognitive

processes that assess and judge the feasibility of that which is hoped” (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006, p. 627). The three components described above can be interpreted as an evolutionary continuum starting with a dream which can be considered feasible or not based on an assessment of past achievements, effort and ability. Seen from Boyatzis and Akrivou’s perspective, bringing one’s assessment of ability into play differentiates hoped for and expected selves from unrealistic fantasy. As an individual starts on the path towards a certain goal, an action plan unfolds, which is also nourished and/or tempered by one’s own assessment of progress along with the input and feedback of different relevant social individuals and groups. The complexity of this process can be understood quite clearly in Pizzolato (2006) who conducts a grounded theory study on the gradual construction of successful college students’ possible academic selves in a sample of young black, socially-disadvantaged, low income students. In the study these students are asked to describe the difficult process of constructing a college oriented possible or ideal self in a social context where college was not normally an option. These students detail how their first glimpses of a potential academic self came about, in some cases as children, through encouragement from parents and/or a desire to avoid becoming like certain people around them, and at later stages, as adolescents struggling with the peer identity conflicts that they encountered. These participants indicate how, through reflecting on these conflicts and attempting to balance in-group identity with college aspirations, they managed to achieve their initial goal of entering college. We say initial because Pizzolato (2006, p. 67) makes it clear that, although attaining the initial goal had proved a long complex process of self reflection, negotiation and discovery, it does not mean that these students will actually get through college successfully:

Further investigation of these students’ stories during their collegiate experience suggests the college environment provided new challenges and forms of marginalization with which these students had to cope and which threatened their maintenance of their college student possible self. (Pizzolato, 2006, p. 67)

Pizzolato concludes that rather than visualising themselves as something they were not, i.e. white advantaged students, these individuals were in need of constant reappraisal of old and discovery of new conceptual and procedural schemas that

enabled them to overcome obstacles such as an incongruent sense of identity with the target, clashes in identity with different peer groups, and even the problems of obtaining the knowledge needed to enrol in college.

Within motivational psychology, other studies within educational contexts, have centered on the different mechanisms and incentives required to narrow the gap between a current self and a future self. Oyserman, Bybee and Terry (2006) observed a gap between college students' academic possible selves and actual academic achievement. They hypothesised that low achievers lacked strategies to self regulate behaviour due to perceptions of a) incongruence with other social identities, b) misinterpretations of task difficulty, and c) lack of social support leading to inadequate implementation self regulatory strategies. They designed an intervention program that involved anticipating future events by visualising and verbalising them in varying forms and preparing for positive future outcomes to attempt to bring the possible self into students' working memory, in other words, into a more readily accessible space in their minds. In an attempt to decrease the over-interpretations of difficulty these students appeared to perceive, the program also involved designing maps to help anticipate obstacles as well as outlining possible strategies and contingency plans to overcome failure. The intervention programme was deemed successful (Oyserman et al., 2006) as the intervention sample registered steadier achievement rates in comparison to students who had not been subjected to the intervention techniques.

From the above instances, it can be seen that working to promote learners' possible selves is educationally relevant. This, precisely, is one of Dörnyei's aims in centering the possible selves paradigm within the domain of foreign language learning. The L2 motivational Self System, which we discuss in the following section, has been designed both to facilitate a framework that is broad and flexible enough to incorporate the many psychological constructs that relate to language learning motivation, such as goal theories, attribution theories, etc., that we discussed in Chapter Three, and a theory that can also offer practical tools to the language practitioner wishing to foster L2 motivation. To continue, we detail the L2 MSS theory and the requirements that Dörnyei, based on the literature on possible selves, claims are essential to ensure an effective future L2 self guide. We also discuss one particular

aspect that Dörnyei (2009a) feels has not been exploited sufficiently in the possible selves domain in mainstream psychology – the potential of imagery and the power of the imagination to enhance motivation.

#### 4.2.2 *Language learning possible selves: the L2 Motivational Self System*

From Markus and Nurius' possible selves theory (1987) and Higgins' self discrepancy theory (1986), Dörnyei (2005, 2009a) proposes what he calls the L2 Motivational Self System (L2 MSS). This broad construct of L2 learning incorporates an *ideal L2 self*, an *ought L2 self*, and the further dimension of *the L2 learning experience*.

The ideal L2 self encapsulates the ideas or visions one may have of oneself using the foreign language in the future. Dörnyei claims an L2 ideal self perspective equates to integrativeness in the sense that learners may have ideal selves that are proficient in the L2. From Gardner's viewpoint this phenomenon was interpreted as a desire to become closer to that community, nonetheless, Dörnyei sees this as a future ideal or guide formed through the experiences, hopes and desires of the learner and one that the learner will seek to emulate. Under the ideal self conceptualisation, the target vision or ideal may go beyond what was restricted within integrativeness to a sense of positive identification with a native speaker community, and the connotations that becoming closer to that community meant distancing oneself from one's own community, somehow having to compromise current relationships in order to leave space for the new one. The ideal self construct further enables the incorporation of positive instrumental motives that the learner has internalised – getting a good job, becoming a more knowledgeable person and so on — that had mistakenly become dichotomous and not fully compatible with the integrative motive.

The L2 ought-to self, on the other hand, represents extrinsic influences on the self and incorporates social pressures and obligations or duties related to knowledge of the L2 imposed by external social groups or entities — for instance, the L2 ideals that parents, teachers and significant others have for their loved ones and protégées. Another facet of the L2 ought self comes from the fear of what one may become in life without L2 competence. Dörnyei here draws a parallel between the ought self and

negative instrumental motivation – the preventative focus of avoidance of negative outcomes, e.g. failing to live up to expectations or getting low exam marks.

The *L2 learning experience* involves “situation specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 106). This third cornerstone of Dörnyei’s L2 Self System is conceptualised “at a different level from the two self guides” (2009a, p. 29) and is specific to foreign language learning contexts. The experiential angle of L2 learning presents a dimension with no precedent in mainstream psychology research on the self. Therefore, it is the learning experience, past and present, which involves all formal learning aspects from the teacher to the learner group; methodology and materials; and even, the experience of success, which in itself is a complex psychological construct, that Dörnyei feels contributes specifically to the creation of L2 possible selves. However, although, in rationalising his new theory Dörnyei (2005; 2009a) goes to great lengths to argue the case for the utility of a possible selves view of L2 learning development, the final cog in the L2 MSS wheel — the learning experience — has not been developed with the same detail. Of course, Dörnyei’s previous work on the process-oriented model of motivation we described in Chapter Three did define a great number of elements related to the learning context, and perhaps this is why he indicates that “future research will hopefully elaborate on the self aspects of this bottom up process”.

In a subsequent publication (2009c), discussing the L2 self concept within the emerging field of Dynamic System Theory (DST), Dörnyei refers to the three composite pillars as *attractor basins* that overlap cognitive, emotional and conative domains. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 97) describes possible selves as “broad, overarching constellations that blend together motivational, cognitive and affective areas”. It is the integration of emotion – senses such as fear, hope, or obligation that bring ‘cold’ cognition to life and in convergence with the component of vision enable or cue the individual to devise a set of plans or strategies towards his or her target. In Dörnyei and Ushioda’s words, this ‘package’ can be seen as the “ultimate motivational conglomerate” (p. 97).

### 4.3 Practical implications of the L2 Motivational Self System

The studies cited previously by Pizzolato (2006), and Oyserman and colleagues (2006) among other research on possible selves in general motivation psychology, have given rise to awareness that certain conditions must be in place for future selves to be considered effective. Within the domain of the L2 MSS and with regard to the practical implications for the effective generation and maintenance of an ideal L2 self guide, Dörnyei (2009a, p. 18) draws on seven conditions he feels are most significant and that could even become the basis for the development of effective motivational strategies for language instructors complementing his well known 10 commandments (Dörnyei, 2001a) for motivational classroom practice.

The existence of a future possible self is, of course, not a guarantee of actually achieving a future goal. In the theory previously reviewed in this chapter, discrepancy — a sense of discomfort produced by the gap between a current self and a future guide or guides (ideal or ought or a combination of both) has been discussed as a precursor to action. Thus, there must be a feeling of wanting to reach that possible, ideal or ought self and a resulting emotion or emotions that accompany the desire, and so, incite action. Nonetheless, it is also clear from research that certain other conditions are required in order to be understood as actively involved in sustaining effort towards achieving a possible self. Dörnyei (2009a) summarises these provisos, indicating that effective future selves are:

- **Vivid and elaborate (mental) self representations:** essential to the effectiveness of a future self is the ability to generate a clear image of the desired self. This aspect will be detailed in the next section as, in Dörnyei's view, the capacity to generate a clear detailed future vision is the true engine of the L2 MSS and one that can both regulate and fuel the other conditions to be mentioned.
- **Plausible:** a future self must be perceived as realistic based on one's abilities. By *antonomasia*, future self guides must be *possible*.

- **Balanced:** An ought self should complement the ideal self; harmony, as opposed to clashes between desires and responsibilities are necessary to ensure congruence in working towards a given future identity.
- **Activated:** In other words, incorporated into the working self concept or working memory. Priming, or cueing is necessary to trigger working self concepts, and this priming takes place through events and experiences — real or imaginary.
- **Accompanied by procedural strategies or action plans:** As seen previously in Oyserman et al. (2006), to take steps towards an ideal future one must be aware of the knowledge needed to reach the target and some idea of how to coordinate energy and time to proceed towards the ideal.
- **Offset by a feared self.** Also based on Higgins' (1987) and Markus and Nurius' (1986) work, it is claimed that a motivationally effective self may take an approach path towards the goal. However, action is fuelled even further when an individual is under the complementary influence of avoidance of a feared self – a representation of what could happen if the desired self is not attained.

On this last point, notably, a feared self is not included in Dörnyei's parsimonious model, yet it is outlined as a requisite for an effective self. This raises question of the sources of feared selves. These may reside within the individual and/or derive from external sources, which also raises the questions of the relationship between an ought self and a feared self. One wonders whether a feared self is an extension of the ought self or a fourth element that should perhaps feature within the model given its role as one of the six requisites for a functional self guide.

We now turn to the aspect of the L2 MSS model that Dörnyei (2005, 2009a) considers the essence of the system for practical enhancement of ideal selves in L2 learning contexts.

#### *4.3.1 The L2 Motivational Self System and imagery*

Future possible, expected, hoped for or feared selves reside in our imaginations and dreams (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006; Dunkel & Kerpelman, 2006; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Markus & Ruvulo, 1989; Oyserman et al., 2006; Ruvolo & Markus, 1992; Segal

2006) and Dörnyei (2009a, p. 17) seconds Segal (2006) in affirming that “it is the integration of fantasy with the self concept construct that marks Markus and Nurius’ (1986) work as truly innovative”. The power of the imagination also emerges as a distinguishing factor between the possible selves construct and goal theories, in which individuals identify goals as desired end-states. Dörnyei (2009a, p. 15) expands Pizzolato’s (2006) argument that possible selves are larger than one or a combination of the various dimensions of goal setting and goal achievement theories indicating that it is the fact that possible selves can be embodied or privately conceptualised through the senses that takes the construct beyond goal related perspectives. Envisaging our possible selves may also bring affective reactions, as Leary (2007, p. 319) states “motives and emotions are inextricably linked”. Thus, the essence of the fuelling capacity of self guides is that the images of the possible selves we might generate are accompanied by emotions, which is what makes picturing a future projected image similar to a real experience. For instance, an athlete may be fuelled by the mental picture of standing on an Olympic podium to receive a trophy as the end result of arduous months or years of training. Generating this ideal vision will likely produce a simultaneous feeling of overwhelming pride producing goose-bumps and perhaps tears. On the other hand, a weak student may envisage herself as a school dropout producing feelings of guilt or embarrassment. Through self-relevant imagery, possible selves can become tangible, visualised states that for the individual approximate a reality sensed through the emotions.

Oyserman et al. (2006), described above, is one of the clearest examples to be found in mainstream psychology of a study in which the creation, elaboration, and development of students’ future projections featured in a successful intervention programme to help students overcome negative views of difficulty on their course and bring their future academic selves into their working memory. The visions the learners generated facilitated cueing or prompting of the appropriate actions to take and encouraged self regulation of their actions. The fact that, as this study shows, a person’s capacity for imagery can be manipulated and enhanced, has led Dörnyei to believe that the power of the imagination can become of great functional and motivational value within L2 instructional settings as it provides practitioners with a



tool to help learners create vivid and detailed L2 ideal selves, and develop and/or consolidate the required conditions for an effective ideal L2 self as we outlined earlier.

Taking the possible selves from a theoretical model to an practicable level in L2 learning, it is the belief of proponents of the L2 Motivational Self System (see Abdullah & Al Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a, 2009b, 2014; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009a; Lyons, 2009; Magid, 2011; Magid & Chan, 2012; You & Chan, 2015) that exploiting this capacity and looking at language learners in terms of possible selves or future self-guides enables us to tap into motivational behaviour through the images learners generate of their future selves and the emotional reactions that these can produce. Although there is little empirical evidence to date to suggest that working on L2 selves in instructed L2 contexts will improve motivation and achievement, fruitful attempts are being made in that direction (see Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Magid, 2011; Magid and Chan, 2012). Dörnyei (2009a) outlines the potential of imagery and the imagination to develop and sustain the conditions mentioned in the previous section: the existence of an L2 ideal self; a vision that is detailed and elaborate; plausible; activated in the working memory or self concept; accompanied by relevant and effective procedural strategies so as to be able to work towards the goal; and that there should be a counteracting anti-ideal self or a vision of a feared non-L2 self. In the first place future self guides must be sensed, seen, available and accessible to the mind, which means that individuals with a high capacity for imagination will be more successful in being able to envisage a future ideal self. It is claimed that the more elaborate the vision, the more effective it will be as a guide (Ruvolo & Markus, 1992) and, importantly, that a lack of motivation could be attributed to the inability to generate a clear vision. In this vein, Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) claim that when ideal vision is low, there can be a superficial commitment to future desires, which they define as a 'New Year's resolution' attitude. Dörnyei (2009a) suggests that, although an ideal L2 self cannot be generated unless the seed of the vision or desire exists (we can't generate a product without raw material), teachers can engage learners' imaginations by helping them self analyse their reasons and motives for learning along and examine positive and negative past experiences, strengths and weaknesses and thus elaborate on their desired L2 futures. Some activities he suggests from previous

studies (e.g. Hock, Desher, Schumaker, Dunkel & Kerpelman, 2006; Oyserman et al., 2006, cited in Dörnyei, 2009a) involve choosing from photographs of potential L2 role models, interviews or focus groups in which learners identify words and phrases which correspond with their desired end-states, and essays in which students describe in detail their ideal self visions.

A rationale for the use of imagery to enhance motivation is not a new concept. Indeed generating positive visions has long proved a very effective tool in sports psychology to encourage persistence in training and optimal performance in athletes, tennis players, golfers, etc. In a similar fashion imagery has been applied in health disciplines to assist patients with difficult diseases and life threatening conditions. Dörnyei feels that sustaining and strengthening ideal L2 visions can be approached from a similar stance by using positive imagery to guide learners through difficult stages of the learning path or in overcoming obstacles in their progress. In their intervention programme Oyserman et al. (2006) specifically worked with imagery to counteract students' perceived difficulty of the academic task, which was a subjective view of their task capabilities, based on their appraisal of their past failures and low ability. They had students anticipate potential obstacles through designing learning maps or timelines, identifying problem areas and discussing ways to overcome these. These activities helped bring the academic self into the working memory and pre-prepare strategies to overcome potential pitfalls. It makes intuitive sense that interventions such as these might prove beneficial to the second language learner to help them persist during motivational lows.

When considering the above-mentioned capacity of the practical capacity of the L2 MSS to help learners' generate visions as well as the previous mention of a need for procedural knowledge to activate a self guide and develop a relevant action plan, we start to look outside the self concept and more closely at the learning situation, which, we might add, is one of the first direct references made in Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2009a) volume to the features of this third cornerstone of the L2 MSS theory. Dörnyei here suggests that, in a similar way to the strategies recommended in goal setting theories, and coinciding with Dörnyei's (2001a) recommendations for motivational classroom practice, L2 teachers also can discuss study plans and

methodological issues with individual learners as well as encourage them to review and monitor their own plans and progress. Finally, it is suggested that visions of a feared self or the consequences of a non-L2 self should also feature in L2 classroom intervention programmes given that the need to avoid the 'anti-goal' (Carver, 2006) can help energise motivation towards the target (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b; Oyserman et al., 2006; Oyserman & Markus, 1990).

#### **4.4 Conclusions and future research on the L2 MSS**

In the following chapter we discuss the empirical studies carried out to test the L2 MSS in distinct cultural contexts. However, before doing that we summarise the theory that has been discussed in this chapter and what we can gain from looking at learners from a possible selves' paradigm. We will also discuss some of the concerns that have been expressed in the literature on digressing from the dominant, traditional views of motivation to a new conceptual domain, and outline some of the theoretical areas that are not so clear in the L2 MSS.

MacIntyre et al. (2009a) perceive three broad areas in the future of motivation research with the L2 MSS, which could help validate the construct as a more advantageous lens through which to explore L2 motivation than the integrative approach. The first is that a focus on developments within the learner and away from the attractions of an external target group will allow for a more educator friendly approach to classroom motivation. Secondly, they see the possible selves' angle as being potentially a more flexible approach to examine motivation in language learning contexts outside the bilingual setting of Canada, where the majority of studies on integrativeness have taken place. Taking the L2 self as part of a global community eliminates the need for a target L2 group to be defined. Finally, MacIntyre and colleagues see great potential in the L2 self system for examining multiple motivations within one individual and examining how learners manage to juggle the many competing motivational forces in their lives to prioritise certain objectives over others. It might be added in this vein that these aspects could have some very interesting implications for the L2 classroom and English language learning in contexts such as

Spain. Under the restrictive tenets of the socio-educational model, L2 motivation research in European settings has tended to highlight instrumental orientations over integrative motives, especially for adult learners (e.g. Gómez-Martínez 2000, 2001, 2005; Lasagabaster 2003, Fuertes-Olivera y Gómez-Martínez 2004, 2005). However a concept such as international posture or imagined global communities allows for a re-appraisal of distinct motivational orientations in learners, which, in turn could shape the way that teachers and language practitioners present L2 culture in formal learning settings. Learners who find difficulty identifying with the values customs and lifestyles of the English speaking cultures imposed on them in the L2 classroom can be offered more malleable, accessible and agreeable versions of L2 interaction.

MacIntyre, et. (2009a) constitute the main voices claiming caution in diving into a new theory on L2 motivation and potentially jeopardising the vast amount of relevant work carried out to date in the L2 motivation field. These authors accept that this ‘reframing’ of Garner’s integrative motive arises from a great deal of research on the self and is very pertinent as it a) provides for further understanding of motivational attitudes in the face of current perspectives on global ‘acultural’ English; b) it allows for convergences within the individual of various motivational orientations along with both motivating and demotivating factors; and c) it further helps solve a number of terminological ambiguities that the Socio-educational model created (see Chapter Three for critiques of the integrative motive). However, in the eyes of these researchers, it is not wise to completely discard previous theories or we may be in danger of what MacIntyre et al. (2009a) call “throwing the baby out with the bathwater”— the very title of their (2009a) critique. We should add here that after a review of the literature on the evolution of motivation research over the past 50 years and an examination of L2 motivational self system, it is true that one begins to question how the complexities of the more established motivational constructs of goal theory, attribution and achievement theories, self-determination theory, and affective variables, such as anxiety and self efficacy, among others, might fit in to the new ideal L2 selves’ domain. The innovative aspect of possible selves is that they give insight into the future, whereas motivation theory until now had centered on past and present influences. However, our view is that the plausible visions we create for the future are

inevitably based on past experience and beliefs about capability, as Cross and Markus (1994, p. 134) state:

A possible self may serve as a node in an associative network of experiences of strategies and self knowledge. In this way, the possible self may link effective steps and strategies ..... with beliefs about one's abilities and competence in the domain.

Thus, we could say that no matter what terminology we use to discuss overall concepts of L2 motivation, the issues that concern many language teaching practitioners, finding practicable ways to incite or induce motivation in learners and/or possibly understanding a lack of motivation in learners, still revolves around learner beliefs on ability and competence and the self regulatory strategies employed to reach end L2 goals. We should also observe that much of the justification or rationale behind the creation of the L2 MSS largely centres on the two self guides – the ideal and ought L2 selves. Little mention is made in the literature of the theoretical foundations of the third pillar of Dörnyei's system – the language learning situation – which is particular to L2 learning and unfounded within mainstream psychology work on the selves. Within Dörnyei's construct, the learning situation is external to the self concept and encompasses past and present attributions related to actual learning and achievement within formal and informal learning contexts. As we know from previous L2 research, many L2 beliefs stem from these past and currently evolving learner selves. The danger that we perceive here is that the stronger focus is on the novel dimension of the Ideal L2 self; indeed, efforts are currently underway to develop and recommend classroom strategies to help foster an ideal L2 vision (e.g. Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). However, it may be the case that prescribing motivational practice in which teachers help learners create positive future visions without a deep consideration of the belief system that the learner has built based on past experience may be, in cases of negative attributions or low self confidence a little like painting over the cracks. L2 practitioners must also be made explicitly aware of the foundations of the future self guide theory in order to understand the difference between fostering an unrealistic fantasy or fostering a plausible reality.

We have mentioned that there is a chance that possible selves can be confused with end-goals, although Pizzolato (2006) and Dörnyei (2005, 2009a) have drawn a

distinction between the two concepts. MacIntyre et al. (2009a, p. 52) also point to the risk of confusing self guides with goals and the need to clarify, for instance, if the motivating potential of possible selves can be equated with that of the proven driving force of proximal, distal goals within goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990). The conflict that likely emerges in individuals when prioritising from among multiple goals is discussed in Dörnyei's (1998) review of L2 motivational variables and is an issue that still requires research under the L2 MSS paradigm. In relation to the notion of proximal or distal goals, MacIntyre et al. (2009a) also express concern on the temporal dimension of possible selves — the need to take into account the changes that may occur in ideal or ought selves over time — or, for example, at particular moments of time such as, when approaching situations of particular pressure to perform. Although these authors do not explicitly mention a feared self, this is what intuitively comes to mind when one considers this latter possibility of 'pressure' to perform – fear of not performing and the consequences of this. It may be the case the so far 'elusive' concept of fear within the L2 MSS, which has been referred to in passing but not explicitly detailed theoretically, may come into play. Further research could perhaps explore this possibility.

Regarding measurement of possible selves, MacIntyre et al. (2009a) indicate that, contrary to the acclaimed measurement instrument that Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) has become, it has been common in studies on the self to employ qualitative research methods. MacIntyre and colleagues feel that in this sense, inconsistencies in methodological styles may make L2 motivation even more complex. This aspect also concerns both Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009b), who acknowledge the cautions that MacIntyre et al. outline in the same volume expanding on these to point out the greyer areas of the L2 MSS theory that would require further research. To follow we detail each of these areas indicating the gaps requiring future research:

- i) The uniqueness of the self guides. Are there several distinct guides or one broad multi-faceted one?

This question arises from Markus and Nurius' (1986) broad range of possible selves as opposed to Higgin's (1987) classification of an ideal and an ought self or

combined approach-avoidance or promotion – prevention tendency within one broad self. Influences on an ideal self are internal and particular to the individual’s cognitive and emotional make up, nonetheless, the range of influences on a ought self could be hugely complex given the diversity of societal, educational, political and influences and individual interpretations of these even within one cultural context. Another related question that Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009b) point out as needing further enquiry is the relationship or interface between the ideal and ought-to selves. They question at what stage the external pressures and obligations of the ought self become incorporated into the internal ideal self value system. Noels (2009) also discusses this aspect in contrast with Deci and Ryan’s (1985) self determination theory, which establishes a continuum of degrees of internalisation of external influences.

- ii) The relationship between emotions as important motivators and future self-guides.

This is a concern that MacIntyre et al. (2009a, p. 47) also reflect indicating that “The emotions experienced are critical to understanding the motivational properties of possible selves”. In response to the call for clarification, MacIntyre and Gregorson (2012) have gone on to address the issue of emotions by examining further the effect of positive emotions on learning in contrast with the inhibiting associations of negative emotions.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009b, p. 353) concur with McIntyre et al. (2009a) in a further research niche:

- iii) The problems of how to measure the elaboration of a future self guide.

Essentially the issue here is that measurement of self guides in general psychology has traditionally been of a qualitative nature, but to date “there is neither a standard measure of possible selves, nor a standard index that is extracted from possible-selves measures” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009b, p. 354). On the other hand, psychometric instruments traditionally used to examine L2 motivation, possibly given its narrower past/present focus, have been quantitative in nature. The different measurement techniques used to examine L2 selves, both quantitative and qualitative in nature are described in the following chapter along with the studies on the imagery

aspect of L2 ideal and ought selves. In line with the emphasis placed on the need for qualitative investigation in the L2 learning domain of self and identity, the empirical study reported in the second part of this thesis employ mixed methods to explore the L2 MSS in Spain putting the measurement issue to the test in this cultural context.

iv) Potential cross-cultural variation in L2 ideal and ought selves.

The L2 MSS construct was developed as a result of a large scale study carried out in the particular cultural context of Hungary, and, as we shall see in the following chapter has been tested and validated in the cultural contexts of Japan, China and Iran. All of these studies have examined motivation through the L2 MSS at a large scale national level and, excepting Hungary, in Asian contexts. This thesis brings the L2 MSS into play to explore L2 motivation and attitudes for the first time in a very different European context — Spain — yet does so, not at a national level, but in a particular region of the country, in line with Ushioda's 2009 call for researchers to examine motivation in particular micro contexts facilitating closer examinations of the interplay of particular social and historical influences on learners' attitudes to and behaviour in language learning. Segalowitz, Gatbonton and Trofimovich (2009) on examining the effects of ethnocentrism on fluency and pronunciation in the L2 express a similar concern:

There is a need to understand whether the different facets of ethnolinguistic language identity and of the L2 Motivation Self system are specific to a language learning context or whether at least some of these facets may be 'universal', common to a variety of language teaching and learning situations. (Segalowitz, et al., 2009, p. 190)

## **4.5 Chapter summary**

In this chapter we have attempted to reflect the general post-structuralist shift that research in language learner identity is taking, and started the chapter by commenting on two efforts to conceive a broader, more flexible view of learner identity than that of Gardner's (1985) integrative motive: Norton's (2000) imagined communities and Yashima's (2000; 2002) international posture. We then continued to a detailed discuss of the tenets Markus and Nurius' (1986) possible selves theory which



fostered Zoltán Dörnyei's (2005) conceptualisation of the L2 Motivational Self System. As, we discussed, Dörnyei (2005, 2009a, 2009b) sees great potential in examining learner L2 motivation from the angle of the ideal and ought L2 selves as it offers a more ample perspective from which accommodates a broader range of orientations and motivational possibilities. Also discussed is the potential of imagery and the imagination in developing and strengthening the capacity to envisage future selves and thus enhance motivation. Finally, we have commented on some grey areas of the L2 MSS that require further research. The following chapter describes in detail the empirical research carried out to test the validity of the L2 Motivational Self System.

## Chapter 11 . EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM

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### 5.0 Introduction

Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2009a) volume on learner identity and motivation features a series of studies which have been successful in empirically testing the L2MMS model. Given that the concept of the *ideal L2 self* had emerged as a result of the meta-analysis of the longitudinal data obtained in Hungary with a cumulative sample of 8.593 language learners, it was necessary to test and validate the tenets of the construct in settings other than Hungary in order to eliminate any chance of cultural bias (Dörnyei, 2009a). To this end, diverse quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods studies were carried out, mostly in Asian cultures<sup>7</sup>.

The empirical study reported in this thesis is based on an application of this newly validated theory in yet another cultural setting — Murcia, southeast Spain. Therefore, given that our empirical study design is largely based on four pioneering studies in validating the L2 MSS theory, it is pertinent in this chapter to examine in detail the quantitative and qualitative methodologies followed in these four as well as examine and contrast the results obtained.

The first study we examine in detail is Ryan's (2008) mixed methods study in Japan carried out for his PhD thesis, whose main results are reported in the previously mentioned 2009a volume. The other three studies we examine here, testing the tenets of the L2 Self System in Japan, China and Iran were also PhD studies, and, as was the case with Ryan, carried out under the supervision of the instigator of interest in the possible selves view of L2 motivation, Zoltán Dörnyei. The main quantitative findings of Taguchi and colleagues have been reported in one publication (Taguchi, et al., 2009) but more detailed findings of the individual studies feature in Magid (2011) and Papi (2010). Aside from these four large scale national surveys, smaller quantitative L2 MSS studies were also carried out in Hungary (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Csizér & Lukács,

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<sup>7</sup> The fact that the validation studies were carried out in Asia appears to be coincidental as these happened to be either the professional workplaces or home countries of the four Ph.D. students that carried out the first empirical studies under the supervision of Zoltan Dörnyei.

2010) and the main findings obtained in these are commented on in subsequent sections of this chapter. The quantitative evidence that all these studies produce, as we shall see, supports the claim that the L2 Motivational Self System is applicable in a wide variety of cultures and most studies also coincide in supporting the claim that “future self-guides are potent motivators” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009b, p.351).

In order to review all possible applications of the L2 MSS, we also comment in this chapter on findings from other quantitative, qualitative and mixed method studies probing more deeply into different angles of the possible L2 selves paradigm. For instance, we look at gender difference in Henry (e.g. 2009, 2011b); imagery in Lyons (2009) and Al-Shehri, (2009); self-determination theory (SDT) and self-efficacy in Busse (2010, 2013a), Busse and Williams (2010); L2 motivation models examining the role of goals; self efficacy beliefs and parental support in the context of Chile (Kormos, et al., 2011), and the application of the L2 MSS construct to the L3 selves of language learners in Sweden (Henry, 2009), and in Hungary (Csizér & Lukács, 2010).

In the final section of this chapter we elect to closely examine two qualitative studies that explored the L2 MSS tenets through interviews with language learners in the contexts of a) Pakistan (Lamb, 2009), and b) Korea, Kim (2009c). These two studies differ from the above mentioned quantitative investigations in that their theoretical backgrounds were based on distinct theories of social learning mentioned in Chapter Four. Therefore Lamb (2009) analysis his participants’ L2 attitudes and behaviour through the lens of Lave & Wenger’s (1991) Situated Learning Theory, and Bordieu’s (1991) Social Theory, whereas Kim (2009c) chooses to view L2 learners’ motivation through the tenets of Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory (SCT) and Activity Theory (AT) (e.g. Engeström, 1999, in Kim, 2009c). These authors qualitatively employed these complementary theories to analyse their participants’ evolving *ideal* and *ought selves*, which is also the objective of the study in Spain. This is, again, a pioneering endeavour in a Spanish context, thus, bearing in mind that this qualitative avenue is relatively new in L2 motivation research, we consider it relevant to provide in-depth examples in this chapter to show how qualitative methods can be extremely insightful tools to understand individual perspectives and identity development in L2 motivation.

## 5.1 Validation of the L2MSS in Asian contexts

In his mixed methods study carried out in the context of Japan, Ryan (2008, 2009) administered a large scale motivational factors questionnaire (MFQ) to over 2,397 Japanese secondary and university students, and carried out semi-structured interviews at initial, intermediate and final stages of the study. In describing the educational background to his exploratory study Ryan (2008) states that English language learning in Japan carries a strong instrumental bent due to the exam orientated bias of the Japanese educational system, and that, particularly at secondary level, communication practice in the language is generally forfeited in favour of exam preparation. At university level, on the other hand, L2 English learning becomes what he calls “fuzzy and exotic entity” (2009, p. 125) devoid of any real purpose. Against this background, Ryan’s objectives were to test the L2 MSS construct and use its tenets to explore L2 motivation throughout his sample.

The research instrument (MFQ) for the Japan study, and one that has been adapted for use subsequent quantitative studies, was designed by Ryan (2005). As well as basing this empirical instrument on Dörnyei’s L2MSS theory, the design of the MFQ was informed by a large expanse of previous research and empirical studies on L2 motivation (e.g. Clément et al., 1994; Gardner’s 1985 ATMB), as well as the questionnaires employed in the large scale studies in Hungary (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei et al., 2006). The final MFQ was made up of a total of 17 scales targeting a range of motivational variables and aimed at examining the relationship between ideal L2 selves and attitudes and beliefs on aspects such as English language itself; attitudes to the learning situation, attitude to global learning communities, and ethnocentric attitudes, among others (see the quantitative instrument design for the Spanish study in Chapter Seven). Aside from a measurement of the more established motivational variables, Ryan (2005) also created new multi-item scales to directly measure the *ideal self* construct and social milieu and so directly target the L2 MSS core components.

The findings of Ryan’s (2008, 2009) study are also discussed in detail in comparison with the empirical evidence found in Murcia in Chapter Nine. Therefore

we shall limit the comments in this chapter to the overall conclusions with regard to the L2 Motivational Self System. As anticipated the evidence in Japan supported the view that L2 motivation could be reinterpreted from a self perspective. Ryan highlights the remarkably high correlation that was found between the integrativeness concept and the *ideal self* across almost all the different age groups of the sample. He discovered that the *ideal self* is indeed a stronger predictor than integrativeness of intended learning effort and willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, 2007) in his particular context. Ryan argues in conclusion that the notion of integrativeness, although still relevant, should now be considered, “one local manifestation of a much more complex, powerful construct” (2009, p. 137). In his own words:

...what is presented in the classroom as English is not necessarily compatible with a view of language as a system of communication between people and language learning as based on a desire to engage with other speakers of the language. Learners may make efforts to learn both these forms of ‘language’ but the nature of these efforts is surely different; the *Ideal L2 self* appears to do a much better job at distinguishing between these forms of language learning.  
(Ryan, 2009, p. 138)

Although, it is clear from Ryan’s data that the *ideal self* is a stronger motivational force, it is the case as Busse (2010) also points out that Ryan does seem to discard the significance of integrativeness, which obtained a strong relationship with his participants intentions to learn. Busse observes that Ryan does not explore integrativeness in the detail it merits and she argues that a clearer distinction was required between the emotional identification with the target group and positive attitudes towards the group. Ryan claims that integrativeness can be ‘relabelled’ an *ideal self* and ‘reinterpreted’ through the tenets of the *ideal self*. We conjecture that a reinterpretation of integrativeness is justified but that relabeling the concept under the novel theory of the *ideal self* entails an equation of the two concepts, which so far in the literature does not seem justified. Ryan’s scale measuring integrativeness was entitled *attitudes towards the L2 community* and targeted the concept of liking people from these communities as well as considerations of the strong role of English speaking nations in the world. The *ideal self* scale contained items on a capacity to see one’s self interacting in English in the future. It does not make intuitive sense that the

two can be equated. Although the *ideal self* has proved a less restricted construct to that of integrativeness, surely its conceptual base – positive attitudes to English speaking communities will continue to have their role in a learners’ value system.

In contrasting his results in Japan with the Hungarian findings, Ryan does indicate that some commonalities in attitudes and beliefs regarding second language learning are evident across the two cultures, refuting any suspicion that the L2 motivation variables studied are culture specific to Hungary and “not generalisable” (Ryan, 2008, p. 264). However, it is clear that there are differences in the two cultural contexts examined. For instance, there was quite a difference in the correlation between social obligations, incorporated in a scale entitled *mileu* and intended learning effort. The relationship was quite a bit lower in Japan compared to Hungary, which Ryan (2008, p. 165) claims could indicate “important differences in the role the learner’s immediate social relationships play in the language learning process”. Ryan did not include a specific scale targeting the *ought self*, nonetheless, he examined external influences on the participants’ intentions to learn English through the aforementioned scale of *mileu* and another on *parental encouragement*. Ryan’s findings on this dimension of the L2MSS construct were not as significant as those of the *ideal self*. His data revealed a weaker influence of social and family obligations on intended effort and he conjectured that *ought self* variables only really came into effect when incorporated into the *ideal L2 self* value system. However, as we shall see throughout this examination of empirical studies, the ambiguity in pinpointing the sources of external pressure to learn a language is reiterated in most of the empirical examinations of the *ought self* dimension of Dörnyei’s theory.

Ryan, thus, concluded, and this corroborates the hypothesis reached on the basis of the Hungarian study meta-analysis (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2006), that the *ideal L2 self* vision proved a stronger influence on effort to learn than the *ought self*, or at least stronger than the influence of significant others or *mileu*. For his sample, he also confirmed that an international view of L2 interaction — the idea of participation in a more ambiguous, vaguely defined, globalised English speaking community — was indeed more motivating to learners than that of joining a defined group; in Ryan’s words “when the ties between that L2 community and a specific national group in this

case, the US – were removed, the correlation with intended effort rose markedly” (2008, p. 266).

Ryan (2008, 2009) does advocate the self system as offering a more accommodating construct than previous models from which to examine learner motivation, although he does question the alignment of the L2 self with other potential or possible self domains within the individual and, in line with MacIntyre et al. (2009a), how a learner might prioritise goals when facing conflicting selves. Ryan also suggests that it may be more clarifying to examine attitudinal variables against a measure of actual effort as opposed to claims of intended effort given that intention does not actually imply commitment. This, however, we conjecture, is quite difficult to attain when measuring a future related construct such as the *ideal L2 self*. It may not necessarily be the case that a future guide influences current action for a diverse number of reasons such as, time or resources. The theoretical essence of effective future guides is that they help anticipate, and set out and prepare for future plans and necessary action. Therefore any measurement of the energising potential of an *ideal L2 self* must necessarily take future plans into account.

Ryan’s MFQ was adapted for use in the quantitative phases of three studies conducted by Taguchi, Magid and Papi, (2009) in three distinct cultural contexts: Japan (Taguchi et al., 2009), China (Magid, 2011, 2012) and Iran (Papi, 2010). Magid’s (2011) study also involved a qualitative intervention programme (see Magid & Chan, 2012) aimed at enhancing motivation through imagery techniques. For the quantitative stages of the tripartite studies, a number of scales from Ryan’s (2005) MFQ were used for the measurement instrument (for a detailed description of the design, adaptations and translation procedure see Taguchi, in Dörnyei, 2010a).

The MFQs in the three Asian contexts were administered with the same overall objective of testing the tenets of the L2 Motivational Self System. However, Taguchi and colleagues also set themselves the objective of exploring the concept of the *ought self* in more depth. To this end, they contrasted *ought self* influences with a dual construct of instrumentality, distinguishing the positive and negative influences of instrumental orientations based on Higgins’ (1998) approach-avoidance distinction (see Chapter Four). They created two scales, *instrumentality promotion* — targeting

the more favourable external influences on language learning attitudes and behaviour — and *instrumentality prevention* — targeting goals that may set students on an avoidance type path of behaviour, e.g. not failing an exam. A final objective of their studies was also to explore further the third cornerstone of the L2 Motivational Self system: the L2 learning experience, as thus far this concept had not been empirically tested within the L2MSS.

Taguchi et al. (2009) explored a combined sample of almost 5,000 participants, the largest study thus far carried out on the L2 MSS. Through statistical correlation analysis and the more sophisticated techniques of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), and against a backdrop of three quite different socio-political and educational contexts, the researchers were able to establish a strong relationship between integrativeness and the *ideal self* over the three participant groups meaning, in their view, that the two constructs could be equated in the three cultures and supporting Ryan's (2008, 2009) findings. The *ideal self* also proved to have a stronger impact than integrativeness on their criterion measure (intended learning effort), and the authors coincided with Ryan in that a relabeling of integrativeness within the paradigm of the L2 *ideal self* was justified. The arguments presented previously in this regard are reiterated here as the exploration of integrativeness in Taguchi et al. (2009) also appears to pre-empt the significance of attitudes to English speaking cultures.

In both China and Iran, unexpected results were found regarding the role of instrumentality prevention. The authors had justified the qualitative difference between each type of promotion/prevention aspects of instrumentality given that they found evidence to support the notion that the two were indeed distinct conceptualisations of the pragmatic orientations in their participants. However, contrary to expectations, a strong relationship appeared between instrumentality promotion and the *ought self* in China and Iran, but not in Japan. Theoretically, instrumentality promotion, given its positive orientation, would be expected to correlate with the *ideal self* and instrumentality prevention with the *ought self*. In their discussion of the incongruence in an association between a positive approach tendency and external pressure to learn in only two of their three contexts, Taguchi et al. (2009) and Magid (2011, 2012) point to the pivotal role of the family in China. The



one child legislation of this population means that a young professional will feel a binding obligation to support aging parents and will, therefore, endeavour to embrace his parents' career choices and obtain a position of prestige in order to fulfil this familial duty. In Iran, expectations are also high that offspring will bring honour and prestige to the family through position and knowledge. This cultural distinction in the motivational make up that the Chinese sample presents has been highlighted in another motivation study carried out by Chen, Warden and Chang (2005) who found evidence to support a conceptually different motivation construct to the Western one in the degree of internalised motivation in their sample (more attributable to an *ideal self*) to meet the demands of society and the educational system. Denominating this phenomenon the 'Chinese imperative', Chen and colleagues surmised that this non-individualistic perspective on achievement observed in their sample was perhaps due to the peculiarities of Chinese Confucian culture. It would seem that Taguchi and colleagues also tapped into this alternate perception of societal obligations and duties of Eastern cultures in their own study.

The statements or items that made up the instrumentality promotion scale in these studies targeted areas related to a need for English proficiency in order to qualify for promotion at work, for further studies and/or to become a more knowledgeable person, aspects that, in these cultures, also comply with what these students feel duty-bound to achieve. In the third cultural setting, Japan, as anticipated, instrumentality prevention correlated strongly with the *ought self*. However, the impact of attitudes to L2 culture and community and instrumentality promotion on the *ideal self* was nearly twice as large as in China and Iran. With regard to this discrepancy, Taguchi et al. (2009) explain that, in Japan, obligation to comply with family expectations is not quite as strong as in the other two cultures, and employment status is not so largely dependent on proficiency in English. In the Japan sample, the authors surmise, the personally agreeable self is a stronger component of the *ideal self* than the professionally successful one, and intrinsic enjoyment of the learning activity becomes more relevant in the absence of pressure.

In summary on the instrumental dichotomy analysed, it would appear that the greater balance observed between the influence of attitudes to the L2 culture and

community and instrumentality in the Chinese and Iranian samples could be indicative of a more “fully fledged and rounded” *ideal self* (Taguchi et al., 2009, p. 85), a self that is both personally agreeable and professionally successful, as opposed to the ‘personally agreeable ideal self’ encountered in Japan. From these findings, we can see that the interpretation of instrumentality in its positive and negative dimensions applied in Taguchi and colleagues’ studies would appear to be heavily culture dependent, i.e. in cultures where compliance with family duty is prioritised over personal ambitions. The realm of the influence of significant others is one that has received attention in subsequent L2 MSS literature (Csizér & Kormos, 2008, 2009a) nonetheless, a clear picture has not emerged of the difference between significant others as an *ought self* dimension of L2 motivation and as a single measure of family support. This topic is revisited in section 5.2 below.

Finally, Taguchi et al. (2009) concluded that the learning experience dimension that they had examined in their study through the attitudes to learning English scale also varied across the cultures examined. The *ideal self* was found to be a stronger predictor of intended learning effort, nonetheless, this in turn was mediated both directly and indirectly by attitudes to learning. Whereas in Japan and Iran they found the indirect influence “considerably stronger” (2009, p. 87), China presented a balanced influence of the two. The authors attribute this to the ability of Chinese learners to quell any negativity that may arise in the learning context in their ambition to achieve L2 proficiency. In the Japan and Iran findings, enjoyment in the learning situation is relatively significant in predicting the amount of effort they are willing to put into achieving their L2 goals. It is important to point out here that the learning experience dimension has not received deep empirical consideration in these Asian studies. Attitude to the ‘atmosphere’ of lessons and a liking for the learning process does not probe into the expanse of classroom related variables nor the influence of distinct past learning experiences on current positive attitudes.

In summary, the four Asian studies, which pioneered L2 MSS research successfully validated its tenets in the three contexts examined and justified its application as a powerful explanatory L2 motivation construct. The *ideal L2 self* emerged in all four studies as highly significant for the participants and a strong

mediator between the motivational variables examined and intentions to learn English in the future. The studies helped towards understandings as to the nature of the *ought L2 self*, in the sense that, in Asian cultures family emerged as a strong external source of duty or responsibility to learn English, nonetheless, the conceptualisation of a Chinese imperative leads to questions on the role of the family and transcendence of societal obligations in non-Asian contexts. Attitudes to current learning or the *learning experience* angle of the L2 MSS was highlighted as relevant to different degrees of intrinsic enjoyment of L2 learning in the populations explored. However, these studies did not explore the concept in great detail as the multi-item scales employed in the questionnaires targeted enjoyment of learning without specifying which aspects of learning contributed to these feelings, e.g. teachers, methodology, learning groups, etc. Subsequent studies, as we shall now see, chose to examine the L2 MSS from distinct angles and offer diverse insights into its capacity to explain L2 motivation.

## 5.2 Explorations of the L2 MSS in other cultural contexts

The empirical studies carried out in Asia on the utility of the L2 MSS as a motivational theory were quickly followed by studies applying its tenets in diverse cultural contexts.

Csizér and Kormos (2008, 2009a) present L2 MSS studies carried out with secondary and university learners of English in the city of Budapest. In a previous study, Kormos and Csizér (2008) had previously established that the most effective predictor variables of the *ideal self* were the L2 learning experience and international posture, a fact they wished to corroborate in this 2009 study. Another hypothesis was that parental encouragement would contribute to the samples' L2 experience, knowledge orientation and *ought self*. Kormos and Csizér (2008) and Csizér and Kormos (2009) were also able to provide support for Dörnyei's theory through their results, although, they stipulate that "the ideal L2 self seems to play a more substantial role in determining motivated behaviour than the ought-to self" (2009a, p. 106). They also established that *ought selves* were indeed primarily socially constructed and, in their sample, largely based on parental encouragement (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a, p. 109). In this study parental encouragement was the only significant determinant of the

socially constructed *ought self* regardless of parents' actual knowledge or use of the language. The fact that parents in the sample attached high value to English language learning was embraced by students and in some cases appeared internalised in the self system. However, parental encouragement was also patent in the construction of the less significant *ought self*.

The *ought self*, was nonetheless, much less influential on language learning effort than they had hypothesised as they found it “seems to play a limited role in predicting the effort Hungarian students invest in language learning, as in the university student sample its relation to motivated behaviour was very weak” (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a, p. 105). They concluded that, given the monolingual status of Hungary within Europe and the pervading socio-economic pressure to acquire English that students can perceive at an early age, young people by the age of 16 have internalised the values attached to the importance of speaking English and embraced these values leading them to form part of their *ideal selves*. In comparing the two cohorts, the researchers did find the *ought self* to be a significant influence within the university group, but not in the secondary students, and surmised that the younger learners, being at an earlier stage in the development of their *ideal selves*, did not manifest this future oriented facet to such an extent.

As regards the L2 learning experience, the researchers found that despite the requisite of a strong self concept and intrinsic involvement in learning the L2, “positive attitudes to the learning context and the teacher as well as motivating activities, tasks and teaching materials seem to influence both the students' self concept as well as how enthusiastically they study the L2” (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a, p. 108). The learning experience dimension or intrinsic enjoyment of learning activities was found to be a stronger predictor of motivated behaviour in the secondary school sample than the *ideal self*, and equally as strong as the *ideal self* in the case of the university sample. Given that most of the university students involved in the study were actually taking English for specific purposes courses related to their chosen degrees, the authors suggest that relevance of the ESP courses to their future needs could also affect their positivity.

The significant role of parents, L2 attitudes and self efficacy beliefs in the development of L2 selves were also significant factors in Kormos, et al. (2011), who developed an interactive model to explain the interrelationships of these variables on the emerging L2 selves of their participants in Chile. Their study is one of the first to examine L2 motivation to learn English in speakers of Spanish as an L1, as this thesis study does in Spain. The model, composed of goal related factors, attitudes, parental support and self efficacy beliefs established a hierarchy of motivational influences in which L2 attitudes and self related concepts, (*ideal* and *ought selves* and self efficacy beliefs) directly influence motivated behaviour. Indirect influences on the self concept emanate from parents (the only 'significant other' measured in the model), and, on attitudinal variable, from the learning situation. Goals are found in the lower levels of the model, suggesting that L2 behaviour originates in goal perception (international posture and knowledge orientation), and are interrelated with all variables examined.

The concept of self-efficacy in the construction of L2 *ideal selves* has also featured in a longitudinal mixed methods study by Busse and Williams (2010) in a study on learners of German as a L2 in the UK. Busse, in her PhD. thesis study, employed self-determination theory in conjunction with the tenets of the L2 MSS and found self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation to be strong determiners in the maintenance of motivational highs in her learners and strongly related to the challenges presented in different language learning tasks. Low points in the learners' motivation coincided with low levels of self-efficacy. Busse and Williams (2010) propose that the L2MSS be expanded to include present selves as well as SDT and self-efficacy beliefs, an argument also presented by Henry (2011b) discussed later in this chapter.

The L2 MSS construct has also been brought into play to examine L3 learning (Cszér & Lukács, 2010; Henry 2009; 2011a, 2011b). Henry has carried out some interesting work on gender differences in the development of L2 and L3 selves in Sweden (2009, 2011b), and the interference that the developed L2 speaking self may cause in constructing a L3 *ideal self* (2011b). Henry highlights the link between the affective dimension of the self concept and the emotional identification with L2 speakers that defines integrativeness. He highlights the differences found between

males and females particularly in the male tendency towards independence and a female tendency towards interdependence:

This would suggest the presence of deep-rooted differences in the ways in which females and males conceptualise situations that involve identifying and communicating with a yet-to-be-discovered other.

(Henry, 2011b, p. 86)

One major contribution of possible selves that sets it apart from previous motivational constructs is the direct connection to emotions. As we have seen theoretically and empirically positive selves are associated with emotions, e.g. pride, enjoyment, hope, etc. (Higgins, 1987; Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006) whereas avoiding negative possible selves implies avoiding feelings of feelings of shame, guilt and embarrassment (Higgins, 1987). However, emotions have not featured strongly in L2 MSS studies. The tendency has been to examine L2 use anxiety (e.g., Papi, 2010) or feelings of self confidence or self efficacy (e.g. Ryan, 2009; Kormos et al., 2011), whereas a range of emotions are discussed in the mainstream psychology on possible selves. For instance, Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) advocate the role of hope and optimism and call for further research on the links between self efficacy, optimism and hope, and between the variables of hope and the degree of activation of the *ideal self*, which these scholars identify through the concepts of consciousness, salience and coherence. These are areas as yet unexplored in language learning motivation under the L2 MSS paradigm, although studies are ongoing on the role of optimism in L2 learning. For instance, Guillen, Pérez and Arnaiz (2013) established a strong connection between optimism and intrinsic enjoyment of L2 learning in their university sample.

The theoretical importance of emotions in the construction, development and maintenance of effective self guides lends coherence to Dörnyei's insistence on the capacity of the teacher to strengthen learners' *ideal self* visions through imagery enhancement techniques (Al Shehri, 2009; Apple, Falout and Hill, 2012; Magid, 2012; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Dörnyei and Chan, 2013; Sampson, 2012). Al Shehri (2009) found evidence to support the view that learners with a high visual capacity or a "marked visual learning style" (p. 164) were better able to generate visions of themselves as ideal L2 users. To this end, Hadfield and Dörnyei, (2013) have devised a series of activities that range from those aimed at creating a L2 ideal vision, to nurturing that

ideal, to sustaining the vision throughout the learning experience. Importantly, in the light of the results of the empirical research in which the *ought self* has not clearly emerged, intervention programs are suggested for the *ideal L2 self*, which is an entity intrinsic to the learner, nonetheless, given that the *ought self* is developed through external influences, intervening to help create an elaborate or detailed *ought self* does not seem viable. Dörnyei (2009a, p. 32), for instance, considers that “this future self guide does not lend itself to obvious motivational practices”. We contend that this is indeed possible from the point of view that teachers and teaching institutions also constitute external sources and, as such, it is within their power to transmit ought beliefs on L2 learning. In this regard, Apple et al. (2012) analyse students’ lack of commitment to L2 learning in science students in Japan and their proposal is to work on these students’ conceptions of real world professional need for English by bringing working professional to the classroom and thus enhancing learners’ conception of the need for English in the future work and their sense of self efficacy and bringing self regulatory learning measures into play. This supports our argument and Apple et al.’s (2012) proposal could help towards the development of a responsible *ought self*. In his words:

If technical college students find the pursuit of an Ought-to L2 Self compelling, learning about real-life experiences of Japanese S&E specialists who use English in the workplace could potentially increase motivation. Reflecting upon this new knowledge through active discussion might help reinforce awareness and kindled interests. (Apple et al., 2012, p. 5)

Finally, the evolving nature of the possible selves leave the construct highly suited to examining the dynamic, temporal dimension of L2 Motivation. Kim’s (2009a, 2009c) and Lamb’s (2009) longitudinal qualitative studies discussed at a later stage in this chapter were able to trace the evolution of their participants’ *ideal* and *ought selves* over a period of time. Busse and Williams, (2010) explored motivational flux in terms of task related self efficacy learners of German over an academic year. With regard to shorter term motivational fluctuations, Pawlak (2012) analysed the fluctuations in L2 learners’ motivation over a series of lessons, which facilitated an identification of motivating and demotivating aspects of the learning experience in her Polish sample.

As with any new theory, much remains to be seen as to the capacity of the L2MSS to deepen our understanding of why good language learners do the things they do and, why ineffective language learners do not do certain things. Nonetheless, as research into on the L2 MSS progresses, it is also inevitable that there are still ambiguities to be investigated and that as research progresses more fuzzy areas appear. One aspect of the L2MSS in particular that has not transferred neatly from theory to empirical validation across the different cultures examined is that of the *ought self*.

The problems with the 'obligation' dimension of the L2MSS are twofold: in the first place there is the issue of a difficult to identify boundary between the pressures to learn deriving from external sources and the values, hopes and expectations that are integrated within the L2 *ideal self* vision. In the second place, in certain settings and age groups the components that make up an *ought self* are distinct, and/or feeling duty bound to learn a language is not a significant predictor of motivation, thus its role within the L2 MSS is still in need of further examination. In the Asian settings (Ryan, 2008, 2009, Taguchi et al., 2009), the influence of family pressure to learn comprising an *ought self* has proved somewhat influential, although never as strongly affecting learning behaviour or intended behaviour as the *ideal self*. As we saw in the high correlations that Taguchi et al. (2009) discovered between the positive instrumentality promotion and external sense of responsibility that comprises the *ought self*, it appears that internalisation of family duty may be idiosyncratic to the Chinese culture. However, in other contexts, e.g. Japan (Taguchi et al., 2009) and in Hungary (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Csizér & Lukács, 2010) the influence was quite a bit weaker on learning behaviour, or not significant at all, as was the case with secondary students in Hungary. The empirical study in this thesis examines the *ought self* in detail, both quantitatively and qualitatively in an attempt to examine its tenets in a particular context in Spain and so provide a deeper perspective of its role in the development of L2 selves in learners of English.



### 5.3 A qualitative perspective on the L2 Motivational Self System

The studies we have seen in these initial chapters, both within socio-psychology and cognitive motivational psychology, examine and outline motivational variables at a national level through psychometric techniques and statistical procedures, with the respective cultural backgrounds (Canada, Hungary, Japan, China, Iran) also somewhat generalised to nations as a whole. As was discussed in Chapter Four, both Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009a) encourage further qualitative, interpretative approaches to the study of the L2 self within particular social environments. As featured in Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2009a) compilation of studies on the L2 MSS, four studies Kim; Kubanyiova; Lamb; and White and Ding (all in the 2009a volume) have taken up this challenge. In a distinct approach to previous studies, Kubanyiova (2009) examines the response of EFL teachers to a course on motivational strategies from the perspective of their future possible teaching selves, and White and Ding (2009) examine teacher identity evolution in online learning environments. Kim (2009a, 2009c) and Lamb (2009), on the other hand, focused on L2 learners and examine individual identity under the lens of the L2MSS in conjunction with other current day theories on human agency. Given that an aim of the empirical study that this thesis reports is to explore qualitatively the development of L2 *ideal* and *ought selves* employing a similar post-structuralist approach to methodology as those of Kim (2009a, 2009c) and Lamb (2009) it is considered pertinent to examine these latter two qualitative studies and their findings in detail.

Kim (2009a, 2009c), proposed to explore the potential of integrating Vygotskian Sociocultural theory, Activity theory and the L2 Motivational Self System, and, in particular, attempt to fill the gap caused by the, 'neglected' interrelationship between the *ideal* and *ought selves* (p. 274). Activity theory (AT) (Engeström, 1987, in Kim, 2009c) centres on the complex interaction between the *subject* (L2 learner) and his or her engagement on the road to achievement of the *object* (the L2) and the relationships that emerge on that path with various influences deriving from external entities (the learners' general community, significant others, the L2 learning community; and the instruments available to achieve the goal). Kim maps this complex

system of the individual, her learning goals and the various external influences onto the L2 Motivational Self System by equating the subject or learner to the *ideal self*, and equating the potential demands of the community to the external pressure forming an *ought self*. Kim notes here, in line with theoretical assumptions of ideal-ought influences, that should tension between the subject and the community not be overcome, demotivation could result. The L2 learning experience in Kim's study is related to the AT dynamics of the learning community and learning instruments. Kim also highlights Locke and Latham's, (1990) goal theory within the AT framework as significant in the operationalising of the object into manageable, specific proximal and moderately difficult goals.

To achieve his aim, Kim (2009c) details the L2 learning experiences of two Korean learners of English, focusing on the monthly semi-structured interviews he had carried out in a previous 2007 study. Kim was able to analyse his learners' discourse in detail in search of goals he could determine as internalised and, thus, and incorporated into an *ideal self*, or still at an extrinsic and not fully endorsed or internalised stage in the learners' language learning path. A specific research aim was to examine instrumentality in the formation of the subjects' L2 selves. As a result he was able to establish a difference between the internalisation of learning goals into the *ideal* or *ought selves* in his sample. He describes one individual's full acceptance or internalisation of the employment path he felt he should take, and the requisite for English competence in order to obtain this very specific and defined goal, which, within this person's personal and educational life was fully supported and strengthened by the required elements of community, instruments and division of labour. The second participant, on the other hand, posited a somewhat vague acknowledgement of a need for English in a future employment, yet had no clear definition of what that employment would involve. This latter participant, in Kim's eyes was evidencing an *ought self* as a result of the pressure in Korea to learn English as a *lingua franca*, nonetheless, as a result of this lack of explicit purpose, had not elicited nor engaged the support of the other elements of AT.

Kim's (2009c) results support the notion that *ideal selves* and *ought selves* are not necessarily separate entities and that "instrumentality, or pragmatic orientations

can be merged into either the ideal L2 self or ought-to L2 self, depending on the degree of internalization” (Kim, 2009c, p. 291). Significantly, Kim posits that without the support of community and its related rules and division of labour, it is difficult for the L2 learner to develop a “positive, competent, and promotion based future L2 self-image” (p. 291). Should this support not be available, Kim claims that learners will default to a prevention-focused *ought self*. Implicit in this latter fact and in line with other theories such as SDT is that learning will therefore be less effective.

Lamb (2009) undertook to qualitatively explore the learning motivations of two young Indonesian students of English over a period of two years in a situated context in order to scrutinise more closely the influences of the particular community in question. The theoretical backdrop to his investigation, according to Lamb, 2009) centred principally on learning within the post-structuralist perspective of identity in Lave and Wenger’s (Wenger, 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991) situated learning theory and Bourdieu’s (1991) social theory (All in Lamb, 2009),. The tenets of these neo-Vygotskian approaches to learning coincide with those of activity theory (Lantolf, 2000) and language socialisation (Kramsch, 2002) in the sense that they view learning and knowledge as a result of negotiation in interaction with others in society. Advancement in knowledge is achieved as the individual progresses through differing contexts of situated learning and adapt to the changes that occur in our relations with others (peer, teachers, authority figures, experts, etc) throughout this advancement. The term ‘communities of practice’ is employed (e.g Kanno & Norton, 2003; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001) to make reference to the circles we move in and negotiate learning through.

Lamb (2009) draws from Dörnyei’s connection between ‘imagined communities’, brought to the field of second language learning by Norton (2001), that depicts the social, professional or academic circles we may aspire to integrate with yet do not have immediate, tangible possibilities of entering, and Dörnyei’s (2005, 2009) perception of the power of visualisation or imagination in the construction of the L2 *Ideal self*.

A final key notion that Lamb highlights for his study purposes is a conceptualisation of identity as ‘site of struggle’ for the learner in cases where access

to a community is not straightforward owing to conflict arising in relationships with members, or threats to the legitimacy of an individual's status within a given community. An individual's agency may be enhanced or constrained both externally — by the frameworks of opportunities and restrictions imposed by others — and internally, through our own psychological make-up (Bourdieu, 1991). It is here that Lamb sees a parallel with the possible selves' framework and uses it as a lens to understand the results of his longitudinal study.

Lamb (2007) combined surveys and interviews in a two-year longitudinal study on the motivational flux of a cohort of secondary school learners in a middle class, educational centre in Sumatra. In his (2009) article, Lamb reports on the aspirations, goals, attitudes and behaviour of two particular subjects in an attempt to gain more insight into the apparently contrastive promotion - prevention (*ideal - ought self*) stances that each child had demonstrated during the survey. Although he did not use a precise psychometric form of assessment in the analysis of these two cases, Lamb provides a detailed account of their reflections against the theoretical backdrop presented previously. The more promotion-focused subject, a girl called Dewi, presented, in his view, a much more specific vision of an *ideal self*, a *user* of English, with a 'cultural capital' (Bourdieu, 1991, in Lamb, 2009), gained through previous high-quality education in English, parental encouragement, private tuition, access to literature and media and technological resources that enabled her to regulate her own learning to a great extent. These learning opportunities were important to Dewi, especially as she was quite critical of the methodology used in her traditional classroom and a teacher that, according to her, did not have the required mastery of the English language to engage in authentic communication with her, nor did she provide sufficient opportunity in the class for authentic L2 interaction. Regarding this, Lamb (2009) contended:

By not speaking the language clearly herself, the teacher does not seem to represent a master practitioner in the wider English speaking community; and by not providing her with opportunities for oral practice, she offers a very restricted set of knowledge practices that deny Dewi the legitimate peripheral participation she craves for in the eventual realisation of her *ideal L2 self*. (2009, p. 243)

Throughout Dewi's interviews, she was able to state relatively clear goals of fluency in English and describe visions of a future profession that would enable her to travel and engage with others in English. Lamb felt that it was these visions of an 'imagined community' that *may* sustain Dewi's ability to self regulate her learning despite the frustrations at the constraints that her current classroom 'community' imposed on her.

Dewi's counterpart, on the other hand, who lacked any cultural capital of previous exposure to English, demonstrated a dominant *ought self* tendency. Through his conjectures on the imperative to learn English, from a *lingua franca* perspective: "In Ajeng we need English (sic) .. Wherever we go we need English.....Everywhere, including school, English is examined, it's important" (p. 235). Lamb sees that his second interviewee appeared to transmit an overt 'desire' to acquire the language. His learning behaviour, however, limited to completing homework assignments, and participating in class only when requested — going through the motions, so to speak — reflected his compliance with his family and teacher's recommendations rather than any incorporation of the values associated with the L2 as a communicative tool. Lamb surmises that, for children like Munandar, classroom activities such as drilling, chanting and completing textbook exercises:

are so dissimilar to the knowledge practices of expert L2 users — and the language itself a dry code rather than the value-laden expression of human beings and intentions — pupil's classroom activity is actually a form of 'legitimate non-participation' in this wider community of practice. (Lamb, 2009, p. 242)

Lamb echoes Lave and Wenger's (1991) warning in that this type of learner, in the long run, is susceptible to prioritising the 'exchange value' of learning, (i.e. complying with educational requirements in order to pass tests over the 'use value' of the experience. (2009, p. 245). This conjecture coincides with that of Kim (2009c) discussed previously in that extrinsically sourced reasons for learning can result in ineffective learning.

The author of the study made no pretence to be categorical, or present prototypes, in his descriptions of these two very different motivational profiles, but has managed to demonstrate the utility of blending situated learning theory, social

theories, and the L2 MSS as an analytical lens for qualitative studies. Lamb (2009) feels that his study does support the view that “the ideal and ought selves can be useful explanatory constructs in language learning (p. 243). Nonetheless, he does point out that social theory has been critiqued as non-deterministic. He posits the poststructuralist view that context is multilayered and dynamic and that “individual agency is always unpredictable and has the potential to overcome social disadvantage” (Lamb, 2009, p. 244). It is not possible, thus, to predict eventual destiny with regard to English, similar to the argument posed by Pizzolato (2006) discussed in Chapter Four. For Lamb’s interviewees, social and educational dynamics may offer further constraints to one and unexpected opportunities to the other which may drastically change their current perceptions of the L2 and the path they may take with regard to its real world usage.

To sum up, this overview of two studies that have managed to show how merging post-structuralist theories with the *ideal-ought self* construct has shown us an insightful way of empirically exploring the dynamics of the evolution of future selves, while facilitating a view of the support, challenges and struggles the learner faces from external elements around him or her.

#### **5.4 Aspects empirically unexplored in the L2 MSS**

In this brief section we point to two areas that have so far been ignored in the L2 MSS empirical research, feared selves and the working self concept. One aspect of possible selves theory discussed in the theoretical overview in Chapter Four is the emotion of fear. A feared self has been denoted as essential in the efficacy of a self guide (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Higgins, 1987; Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006; Oyserman, et al. 2006), yet this extreme form of emotion has not featured in the aforementioned studies. This is curious, given that in applying the possible selves theory to L2 learning, Dörnyei also lists fear as an essential component in the make-up of an effective L2 self guide. Thus, we suggest that there is a gap as to the role of a *feared self* within the construct along with its potential as a possible driver of motivated behaviour. Markus and Nurius (1986), Higgins (1987), Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) and Oyserman et al.

(2006) all claimed that a feared self would help set an individual on an avoidance path complementing the approach impulse created by more positive associations with achievement. In relation to possible selves and achievement, although emotions are mentioned in connection with an *ideal L2 self*, no affective variable is associated in the literature with the *ought L2 self* and we feel that considering the emotion of fear more closely in connection with obligations may prove insightful. For instance, a potential element of fear may be implicit in Chen et al.'s (2005) *Chinese imperative*, as it may be the case that not bringing the expected honour in return for a family's 'investment' in L2 learning, could entail a feared self that enhances the *ought self* effect. From Taguchi et al.'s (2009) instrumentality dichotomy, which identified an approach-avoidance distinction in pragmatic gains and potential losses in L2 achievement or failure, we contend that an avoidance action path could again become more immediate and effective or triggered in the face of fear.

We also coincide with Henry (2011c), who makes an interesting and relevant observation that another element that figures heavily in the major works of the above cited authors on possible selves in mainstream psychology — the *working self concept* has also been overlooked in the initial studies on L2 motivation from a self perspective. (Henry, 2011c, p. 128). Although his studies centre on the detrimental effect of the English L2 self on L3 self development, his observation reminds us that a range of domain specific possible selves exist within the individual at one time and there must be a trigger to bring a particular self into action or the working memory:

...a possible self may have little effect on purposeful action. Instead, it is the domain-specific possible self along with other contextually relevant self-conceptions that together determine the individual's behaviour and responses in particular situations. This array of self-knowledge and self-conceptions is contained in what Markus and Nurius call the 'current' or working self-concept. This they define as "that subset of one's total repertoire of self-conceptions – including core, habitual views of the self, the more episodic and domain-specific views of the self, and the conceptions of possibility – that is active and 'working' at any given point in time" (Markus & Nurius, 1987, p.163)

(Henry, 2011c, p. 129)

With an activated self, as Oyserman et al. (2006) discuss, cueing and self regulation of action become relevant. If the possible self exists, yet has not been prioritised, action is unlikely. We feel that it is necessary to examine both these concepts further within the language learning domain. In studies on L2 motivation an *ideal self* may easily emerge in learners however, but if not activated would remain a fantasy and, as Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006, p. 634) state, when ideal vision is low, there may be a superficial commitment to future desires – a ‘New Year’s resolution’ type of attitude. Apple et al. (2012) discuss the fact that a sense of urgency to have a command of English only seems to appear in the population that they analysed once these students are actually facing the job market. We suspect that the adrenaline rush that comes from the onset of fear could be the trigger that causes one to prioritise the language learning self when a clear *ideal self* has not been developed. Perhaps this necessary trigger is relevant in situations where students have not had an enjoyable or productive learning experience, as was the case with those of Apple’s sample and whose *ought self* is not salient and effective enough to incite action.

## 5.5 The dynamic future of L2 motivation research

The situated, person-in context dynamic, relational view (Ushioda, 2009, 2011) of individual motivation along with Dörnyei’s (2005, 2009b) L2 Motivational Self System and relevant socio-constructivist theories of identity are evolving into an interrelated network of study and research under the concept of a Dynamic Systems perspective, originally suggested as a relevant avenue of enquiry for L2 motivational and other research concerns by Larsen-Freeman (1997, 2002), Ellis and Larsen-Freeman, (2006) and described by De Bot et al. (2007) as “A set of variables that interact over time”. De Bot and colleagues propound that:

language development can be seen as a dynamic process. Language development shows some of the core characteristics of dynamic systems: sensitive dependence on initial conditions, complete interconnectedness of subsystems, the emergence of attractor states in development over time and variation both in and among individuals. (De Bot et al., 2007, p. 7)



A dynamic systems theory (DST) post-structuralist approach to language acquisition argues against the linearity in language learning processes that most cognitive and socio-linguistic theories to date have followed. The structuralist approach has led to an excess of dichotomous concepts, whereas DST is essentially a mathematical concept that denotes the complexity and unpredictable change over time in relationships between two simple systems. Applying this concept to an individual within an intricate network of cognitive and psycholinguistic internal systems, and social and educational external systems could prove to be the flexible approach that would enable us to explore attitudes and beliefs in L2 acquisition with the language learner in her interaction with her complex and dynamic environment. A focus on individual trajectories in language learning eliminates the neutralisation caused by attempting to interpret cause-effect patterns among isolated dependent-independent variables and across large samples, therefore rendering individual variation and merging of variables at given points in time impossible to detect.

One lively, and practical, avenue of research within the DST approach has been taken by Dörnyei (e.g. Dörnyei, Muir and Ibrahim, 2014; Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry, 2015 for overviews) in the form of Directed Motivational Currents (DMC). A DMC can be likened to the idea of an individual being carried along like as if by tidal wave, impulse at different stages of a path by a highly desired goal or vision. Dörnyei et al., (2014, p. 9) describe a DMC as an “intense motivational drive which is capable of stimulating and supporting long-term behaviour, such as learning a foreign/second language (L2)”. Dörnyei and colleagues (e.g. Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2014) see potential for manipulation of DMCs at different levels and timescales of learning promoting the ideal of boosting an individual’s motivation at given points in the learning trajectory. In this sense, we see that, although, motivation theory continues to develop rapidly, there is a continuous attempt to merge theory and practice and “enabling teachers and researchers to link these two worlds that sometimes seem to run parallel rather than interconnecting” (Doiz, et al., (2014, p.177).

## 5.6 Chapter summary

We have, in this chapter, explored the findings of large scale studies that have attempted to draw an overall picture of national motivational profiles in distinct cultural contexts through the lens of the newly developed L2 Motivational Self System. The overall aim of these studies was to test the applicability of Dörnyei's construct in contexts other than that of Hungary, and secondary aims targeted diverse aspects of the composition of this construct, such as the roles of integrativeness; instrumentality; the learning context and experience; ethnocentrism, and degrees of identity with a non-specific L2 community and it can be said that the L2 Motivational Self System has been deemed to be a valid construct and one that lends a different interpretative framework to various aspects of motivational variables; it is an applicable construct in a variety of cultural contexts and offers further explanatory power in the analysis of learner attitudes and behaviour in these settings than previous constructs such as integrativeness. The three pillars of construct have all proved separate entities that each influence L2 motivation. Even the learning experience, somewhat critiqued by Ryan (2008) as in danger of falling to the wayside, has shown influential (e.g. Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Kormos et al., 2011) in the construction of the L2 self concept. The L2MSS also shows great flexibility in its capacity to adapt to quantitative and qualitative research and blend with other theories of human agency and behaviour such as activity theory, goal-setting theory and socio-cultural theory, as we have seen in the qualitative studies. Although much further research is required, it would seem that the aim of providing a broader interpretative framework to integrativeness, without excluding its tenets, has been achieved. It can be seen, for instance, that Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory may help explain the continuum of internalisation of external values from the ought to the *ideal self*. However, it remains to be seen how the vast and sometimes confusing range of standard motivation theories, e.g. attribution theory, expectancy-value of achievement theory, among others, (see Chapter Three) may also complement and find added interpretations from a self paradigm. We must remember, nonetheless, that essentially the L2 MSS is yet another construct been added to an almost unmanageable plethora of motivational related concepts and although, the new future perspective of learning trajectories will

no doubt brings its fruits, as it stands, the L2 MSS is an additional perspective of L2 motivation, not one that naturally accommodates previous theories *per se*. It remains to be seen whether the most recent turn towards dynamic systems theory can manage to provide an all encompassing view of human agency in the language learning endeavour.

## PART TWO: EMPIRICAL STUDY

# Chapter 12 . STUDY RATIONALE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

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## 6.0 Introduction

As we have seen in the previous chapters, the L2 MSS has proved to be a theory that is capable of offering new insight into L2 motivation from a different, more ample viewpoint to previous theories such as integrativeness. It is important to reiterate that the intention in the creation of the L2 selves construct is not to reject the socio-educational model and its renowned core – the integrative motive, but to offer a theory that appears to have the potential to go beyond the restrictions of its tenets, whilst allowing for the emergence of other significant dimensions of language learning motivation. The empirical work carried out to date has been successful in determining that the core concept of the *ideal self* is indeed a significant mediating factor in the formation of L2 and L3 learners' motivation. However, the same research has not yet been sufficient to answer the many questions that have arisen throughout debates on the validity of the L2 MSS and its capacity as a framework from which to explore the many facets of L2 motivation. The empirical study carried out in this thesis applies the L2 MSS construct in a partial replica of the studies carried out in Ryan (2008, 2009) and Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) in an attempt to address some of the gaps perceived in the research carried out to date. This chapter provides the rationale for the application of the L2 MSS in a Spanish context under one broad exploratory research question from which the specific research questions (RQs) that guide the empirical study have derived.

## 6.1 Research rationale and aims

The dimensions to be addressed in utilizing the L2 self system construct to empirically examine a certain population are essentially twofold: theoretical and practical. At the theoretical level, the study carried out in Spain intends to contribute empirical data to inform current research by lending further insights into the explanatory power of the L2 MSS in a Spanish culture. Although the overriding intention underlying the use of the L2 MSS lens

to examine L2 motivation in Spain is one of exploration stemming from a sense of curiosity as to the picture that may emerge from this particular theory, certain questions that must be

posed in order to guide the study and contribute in a structured fashion to current knowledge. The rationale to follow details the research questions (RQs) created to this end. Contextual knowledge and experience of the cultural context and the educational background to be examined also leads one to anticipate potential findings, which invariably leads one to formulate hypotheses. These shall be outlined for each RQ where pertinent.

The empirical study is guided by five essential areas that we feel we can contribute to, and that have been identified, among others, in the literature as lacunas in current knowledge on the L2 self:

- Cultural variation in *ideal* and *ought* L2 selves
- Interplay between the *ideal* and *ought* self paradigms
- The role of the learning experience within the L2 MSS
- The role of attitudinal, goal related and affective variables within the L2MSS
- Potential variation in *ideal-ought* profiles according to variables of language achievement and gender

The following sections detail the rationale, research questions and, where relevant, hypotheses of findings as a foundation for the empirical investigation of these areas in a Spanish population of learners of English.

### **6.1.1 Cultural variation**

As we identified in the theoretical overview in Chapter Five, one major area of concern identified in the 2009 publication focusing specifically on L2 MSS studies (e.g. Dörnyei and Ushioda; MacIntyre et al., Segalowitz et al. all in 2009), is that of cross-cultural variation in the formation and composition of future L2 selves. For instance, MacIntyre et al. (2009) indicate that in mainstream psychology, the self has proved to vary across cultures with one of the main differences discovered between Eastern and Western nations, Eastern cultures show a tendency to view the self in conjunction with others — as a collective — as opposed to the more independent view of the self in Western cultures.

To date, the empirical studies discussed in the previous chapter used the tenets of the L2 MSS to explore attitudes and beliefs on language learning mainly in Asian contexts, although, even within these contexts, cultural variation was identified. Aside from Hungary

(Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Csizér & Lukács, 2010) and Poland (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pietrzykowska, 2011; Iwaniec, 2014;); Sweden (Henry, e.g. 2009, 2010, 2011), studies using the L2 possible selves paradigm to examine L2 learners motivation to learn English within a European context are scarce, and, at the time of writing, no studies have yet been published on the L2 MSS in a Spanish context. Given that Spain, politically at least, is investing heavily in time and resources in English language learning (see Chapters One and Two), we feel that this as yet unexplored setting may prove fruitful as regards a Western context in which to examine the L2MSS. Therefore, the first aim of the empirical study of this thesis is to address this gap in the research for a need for feedback on cultural motivational profiles.

Nonetheless, quantitative empirical enquiries at a national level across diverse micro-cultures, still leave gaps in our knowledge as to variation within cultures (e.g. Csizér and Kormos, 2009a; Ryan, 2008). Hence, Ushioda's (2009) recommendation that studies on L2 motivation centre on a situated relational view of their participants. Therefore, in order to provide a more intricate profile of the L2 selves, attitudes and beliefs of Spanish learners of English, these shall be studied against a micro-contextual, situated socio-political and educational background of a particular locality of Spain — the Region of Murcia. The hypothesis is that cultural differences will be found in a Spanish population. This conjecture is largely based on a) the truism that cultures in general tend to differ; b) that the Spanish culture has historical and socio-political and educational idiosyncrasies in comparison to the countries studied to date, and c) on the somewhat pessimistic L2 learning background discussed in Chapter Two.

Therefore, taking into account that the overriding objective in the thesis study is to partially replicate four previous L2 MSS studies with the aim of exploring this new concept in a distinct cultural setting, the following broadly expressed overall research aim is posed and it is from this that the specific questions derive:

WHAT CAN THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM TELL US ABOUT THE L2 ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND BEHAVIOUR OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN SPAIN?

The specific research questions (RQs) posed to guide the study address the following research gaps:



### 6.1.2 Interplay between the *ideal* and *ought self* paradigms

A second area that this study will aim to contribute to is the role of the two L2 selves specified by Dörnyei as central to his L2 MSS within this micro-context of Murcia. The conception of the *ideal self* as the imaginary embodiment of ultimate or desired attainment in the L2 and that of the *ought self* as the extrinsic source of a sense of duty raises questions as to their existence and nature within this population of current or future L2 learners. In Chapter Two, a panoramic view of English in the educational system in Spain was provided along with a description of current legislative requisites and government recommendations for all future university graduates to achieve a B1 certification in a foreign language. Spain's status as a European community member with an inevitable role to play in international globalisation also implies that knowledge of English for Spanish citizens can only be advantageous both professionally and personally. The recent debut of the L2 MSS paradigm as a novel motivational theory is providential in that the desire (*ideal*) versus obligation (*ought*) continuum, also, complemented by the learning experience dimension could be the perfect instrument with which to measure the effect of these recent events on L2 learning motivation within the context specified for the study. Furthermore, theory, specifies that *ideal L2 selves* can only be effective if offset against an *ought* or a *feared self*, although, empirical evidence has not enabled a confirmation of this fact in some of the collectives studied, especially in non-Asian cultures (e.g. Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Csizér & Lucács, 2010; Kormos et al., 2011). Therefore, in order to explore the existence and nature of an *ideal L2 self* as well as an *ought self* in this population, it was necessary to establish how to best examine the interplay of these two dimensions in the cultural and educational context in question. Taking into account the current pressure to learn English in Spain that might bring an *ought L2 self* to light, as well as the existence of groups who might choose to learn English of their own free will and thus possess strong *ideal L2 selves*, it was hypothesized that students who had elected to continue with English in university studies would possess strong *ideal L2 selves*, whereas, those who had chosen lines of study related to education would surely reflect the external pressure put on this collective through an *ought self* to a greater extent than groups not perceiving such pressure. Research questions two and three were established to facilitate exploration of the two self dimensions and any possible interplay between them:

RQ1: DO STUDENTS WHO HAVE CHOSEN ENGLISH AS A MAJOR LINE OF STUDY AT UNIVERSITY SHOW A STRONG IDEAL SELF PROFILE IN THEIR L2 MOTIVATION IN CONTRAST TO THOSE WHO CHOOSE STUDIES LARGELY UNRELATED TO ENGLISH?

RQ2: FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE L2 MSS, DO STUDENTS IN STUDIES RELATED TO EDUCATION AT UNIVERSITY SHOW A STRONG OUGHT SELF PROFILE IN THEIR L2 MOTIVATION IN CONTRAST TO THOSE INVOLVED IN STUDIES UNRELATED TO EDUCATION?

### **6.1.3 The role of the *learning experience* dimension of the L2 MSS**

As we have seen in the literature review, the third pillar of the L2 MSS has not received the same level of attention theoretically or empirically as the possible L2 selves (e.g. Ryan, 2008; Taguchi et al., 2009). We should reiterate the fact that this dimension is unique to L2 motivation theory as there are no precedents for the influence of a learning experience in any self related constructs in mainstream psychology. It is also the case that the definition of this experiential dimension is not as clear cut as would be hoped, which may have added to the somewhat ambiguous treatment it has received in the empirical studies discussed in Chapter Five. The term 'experience' appears to encompass any dimension related to cognitive and emotional motivational variables affected as a result of formal and informal learning. Revisiting the definition (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29) we find it refers to:

...situated executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the peer group, the experience of success). This component is conceptualized at a different level from the two self guides and future research will hopefully elaborate on the self aspects of this bottom up dimension.

The definition provided by Dörnyei and, very closely related to his pre-L2MSS, process-oriented theory of L2 Motivation, raises many questions; which is also implied in Dörnyei's suggestion that future research may help disentangle the relevance of the abundance of factors that can be attributed to a 'learning experience'. This study hopes to address this gap by taking the potential influence of this third dimension strongly into account in the construction of L2 selves in the population to be examined. Against the

background of an educational system that appears to have left a lot to be desired regarding development of communicative competence in English, it is hypothesised that current attitudes to and beliefs about learning may be negatively affected by past learning experiences largely at secondary school, given the non-communicative, structural approach to teaching discussed in Chapter Two. The specific research question that addresses the learning dimension is:

RQ3: AS MEASURED BY THE L2 MSS, WHAT ROLE DO L2 LEARNING EXPERIENCES PLAY IN THE CURRENT L2 MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN THE REGION OF MURCIA?

#### **6.1.4 The role of attitudinal, goal related and affective variables in the L2 MSS**

The L2 MSS is a framework that flexibly accommodates exploration of a wide variety of motivational variables (MacIntyre et al., 2009). Dörnyei (2005, 2009) provides the analogy of the core concepts of the L2 MSS as ‘attractor basins’ to which various other motivational variables are drawn. Chapter Three on the study background offered an overview of the main socio-psychological, cognitive and affective variables that have been established as influential factors in L2 motivation, as well as the newer socially-oriented perspectives, e.g. the variable of International Posture. An essential part of contributing to current knowledge of the explanatory power of the L2 MSS, on the one hand, and to the particular motivational make-up of the population in this study, on the other, is an exploration of the role of these motivational variables in this cultural context as yet unexplored. Therefore, L2 motivational concepts, such as; goal directed behaviour or orientations (instrumentality; integrative orientation and international posture); affective variables, such as self-efficacy and language use anxiety, as well as the influence of family on one’s motivation to learn shall be explored in this study. Essentially, this area of the study requires a broader question in order to allow for exploration of the relationship of these variables with the core concepts of the L2 MSS.

RQ4: AS SEEN THROUGH THE L2 MSS, WHAT ROLE DO THE DIFFERENT ATTITUDINAL, GOAL-RELATED AND AFFECTIVE VARIABLES PLAY IN THE MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP OF THE SAMPLE?

#### **6.1.5 Variation according to language achievement and gender**

A full exploration of the capacity of the L2 MSS as a motivation theory involves taking into consideration a variety of variables beyond that of study choice. Motivation has

traditionally been looked at from the perspective of achievement in the L2 (e.g. Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997) and gender differences (e.g. Henry, 2009; Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002) Thus, for a thorough exploration of L2 motivation facilitating a comprehensive contribution to L2 MSS theory and practice, variables of perceived proficiency and gender should also be given priority in the empirical study. Research question 5 targets these variables for the Spanish study:

RQ5. AS MEASURED BY THE L2 MSS, DOES THE MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP OF THE SAMPLE DIFFER ACCORDING TO VARIABLES OF A) PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH OR B) GENDER?

It is hoped that the above five RQs will facilitate a structured exploration of Spanish learners of English in this local province and enable us to offer further empirical evidence of the utility of the L2 MSS as a vantage point from which to examine L2 learner beliefs, attitudes and motivated behaviour. In the following chapter, the empirical study design as guided by the above RQs is described along with the instruments used and the sample population selected to best provide answers to the questions posed.

# Chapter 13 . METHOD

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## 7.0 Introduction

This chapter details the design of the empirical study carried out for this thesis. A mixed methods study design rationale is first presented, and the nature and purpose of the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study are explained. The second section details the participants of all the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. Section three details the design of the quantitative study instrument, the Motivational Factors Questionnaire (MFQ). Section four outlines the steps followed for the translation the MFQ into Spanish, and the administration procedures for the pilot study. Section 7.5 then presents the statistical analysis of the quantitative instrument in preparation for the main study. In section 7.6 the final version of the quantitative instrument is presented along with the MFQ scale reliability validation data obtained in the main study.

## 7.1 Study design rationale: mixed methods research

As was discussed in Chapter Three, more recent post-structuralist views on L2 motivation have brought the individual and his or her multidimensional capacity for interaction and negotiation within the social environment to the fore. Ushioda (2009, p. 215) also argues that motivation, being variable and individual, is difficult to fully investigate through quantitative methods. Statistical procedures that establish linear causal relations and 'neutralize' the data cannot fully reflect the multidimensionality of motivation or the complex, idiosyncratic dynamics of such an intricate attribute. Ushioda and Dörnyei (2011) contend that the combination of both types of research allows one to achieve an elaborate and comprehensive understanding of a complex matter by enabling the researcher to examine the phenomenon from different angles. This triangulation method of research is broadly defined by Denzin (1978, cited in Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007) as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" and defended by Jick (1979, p. 604) in that:

In all the various triangulation designs one basic assumption is buried. The effectiveness of triangulation rests on the premise that the weaknesses in each single method will be compensated by the counter-balancing strengths of another

The study herein described partially replicates two previous L2 MSS studies, (Ryan, 2008; Taguchi at al., 2009) and proposes to examine L2 motivation in a university population through a mixed methods design similar to that used in Ryan (2008), which can be represented as follows:

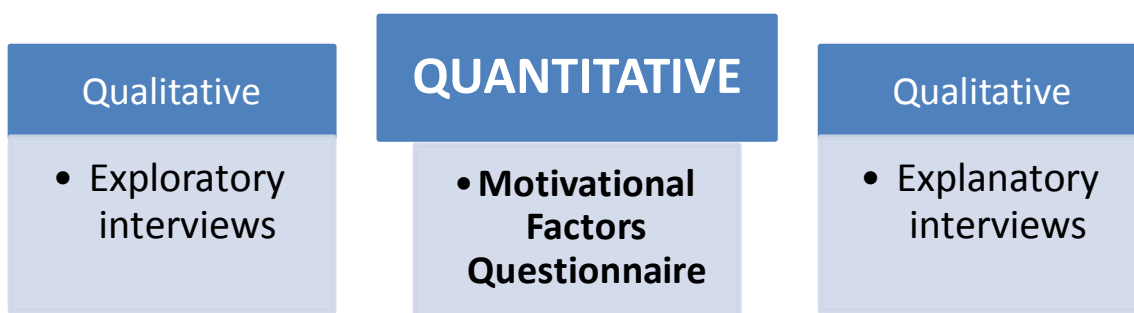


Figure 13.1 Mixed methods structure for empirical study

The qual - QUAN - qual structure (Fig. 7.1), which was originally devised by Morse, (1991, 2003, in Ryan, 2008), and is advocated as a research method by Ushioda and Dörnyei, (2011), indicates that priority is given in weight to the quantitative data, which is preceded and followed by qualitative phases.

The main data collection instrument in the QUAN phase of the study is a Motivational Factors Questionnaire (MFQ), the design and piloting of which is discussed in section 7.4 of this chapter. Prior to the design of the MFQ, in the initial qualitative phase, interviews are carried out so as to able to gain insights from learners into potential contextual variables regarding the *ideal* and *ought* L2 *self* dimensions of the construct. As the questionnaire was to be translated into Spanish, a further aim of this phase was to explore the terminology participants would use in their mother tongue when making reference to these newer theoretical paradigms regarding possible future English-using selves and how these students perceive external obligations. Once the quantitative data is collected and analysed, further explanatory interviews are carried out to help clarify some of the aspects that may remain ambiguous in the quantitative study.

## 7.2 Participants

### 7.2.1 Participating institutions

The research questions (RQs) described in the previous chapter specifically targeted the university population of the Region of Murcia, Spain. The sample for the study was chosen from the two main universities<sup>8</sup> in the city of Murcia – the state run University of Murcia (UMU) and the privately run Catholic University (UCAM).

The University of Murcia is a well established university with approximately 30,000 graduate and post-graduate students in total. A wide range of over 50 degree studies are offered in the 20 faculties of the university ranging from Health and Sport sciences, Medicine and Veterinary Studies to Education studies, Business, Law, and the Arts and Humanities, e.g. English Studies, Spanish Language and Literature. Aside from the two English major Degrees, (English Studies and Translation and Interpretation), the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) in degree studies at the University of Murcia, as in the case in the Spanish university system in general, varies according to faculty and department policy. For instance, in a degree such as Tourism Studies, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) features as a mandatory 6 ECTS credit subject in each year of the four-year degree. On the other hand, Business Administration students are offered 6 ECTS credits in an EFL subject in the fourth year of the degree. On the other hand, many degree studies have no English subject at all in the syllabus.

The Catholic University of Murcia has to date just over 12,500 graduate and post-graduate students in a range of degrees offered in a total of six Faculties, such as Health Sciences, Sport Sciences, Nursing, Communication, Education, Business and Law, as well as Polytechnical College. The UCAM does not offer studies in English major degrees. As is the case with the state university, the inclusion of an English subject within a degree largely depends on faculty policy. EFL is emphasised in degrees such as Tourism which offers 18 mandatory ECTS over the four-year degree, and Business students are offered an elective 4 ECTS subject in 4<sup>th</sup> year. Furthermore other degrees such as Nursing and Physiotherapy have also mandatory ESP subject in their study plan.

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<sup>8</sup> There is a third Technical College in the Region of Murcia which was not included in the sample given the ample range of studies available at both universities mentioned.



For the empirical study four main participant groups were selected from the above described universities: the pilot study participants (N = 124); the main study participants (N=529); as well as the participants of the two qualitative phases of the study — the Pre MFQ interviews carried out with 9 participants, and the in-depth post MFQ interviews carried out with 2 participants.

### 7.2.2 Quantitative phase participants

We shall now detail the participant profile of the groups that, on the one hand, took part in the pilot study phase (Brady, 2014) and, on the other, in the main study.

#### *The pilot study participants*

The MFQ was administered to a total 137 university students during the final week of the 2011/2012 academic year. The participants were enrolled in different degree courses both in the state and private university. The sampling procedure was that of convenience sampling (Dörnyei 2010), as permission was obtained to administer the pilot study through direct contact with colleagues at both universities. One aim at this stage of the study was to vary as much as possible the undergraduate degrees in order to access participants from a broad range of study choices, including English majors and non-English majors, somewhat similar to the distribution to be followed in the main study. Table 7.1 shows the academic distribution of the pilot study participants across degree studies.

**Table 13.1 Distribution of pilot study participants by degree and university**

<b>DEGREE STUDIES</b>	<b>UMU (STATE)</b>	<b>UCAM (PRIVATE)</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
CLASSICAL STUDIES	19	2	20
SPANISH STUDIES	41	1	42
ENGLISH STUDIES	8	1	9
BUSINESS STUDIES	1	22	23
TRANSLATION STUDIES	6	1	7
NURSING	...	12	12
PHYSIOTHERAPY	...	10	10
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>124</b>

*The main study participants*

The MFQ was completed by a total of 529 graduate students from a range of different degrees studies. The participants, detailed in Table 7.2, were again selected on the basis of a convenience sampling method by which work colleagues and acquaintances from faculty departments contacted and permission was solicited to administer the questionnaire during lecture hours. The MFQs were administered in two phases of the academic year, the first phase in May 2013, and the second phase after the summer break in October 2013. The administration procedure was carried out personally by the author of this thesis study to ensure all instructions were delivered in a consistent fashion across the sample and eliminate risk of different delivery styles influencing the completion of the questionnaire. The profiles, based on the RQs posed in Chapter Six were the following:

- a) **English Majors:** a student population that had chosen a Degree with a strong focus on the English Language. English Studies and Translation Studies (UMU) were the two degrees chosen to represent this cohort.
- b) **Education:** given the recent educational stipulation for future teachers in Spain to represent a potential ought profile, students enrolled in teacher training degrees i.e. pre-primary and primary education were selected along with students from degrees that have a high rate of employment in secondary teaching, such as Spanish Language and Literature.
- c) **Other Studies:** this subgroup is intended to represent students in lines of study that did not present a clearly defined educational or legislative connection to English language competence, although English would likely be considered a desired skill in many of the professional careers relating to these degrees.

Table 7.2 shows the distribution of the main study participants in academic subgroups and the mandatory ECTS credits in English as a foreign language (EFL) in their degree studies.

**Table 13.2 Distribution of participants by degree studies and ECTS credits in EFL**

<b>DEGREE STUDIES</b>	<b>N (%)</b>	<b>EFL (ECTS)</b>
<b>ENGLISH MAJOR</b>		
ENGLISH STUDIES	101 (19.0%)	< 200 ECTS
TRANSLATION STUDIES	75 (14.%)	< 180 ECTS
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>176 (33.1%)</b>	
<b>EDUCATION</b>		
PRE PRIMARY EDUCATION	56 (10.5%)	12 ECTS
PRIMARY EDUCATION	68 (12.8%)	12 ECTS*
SPANISH LANGUAGE AND LIT	26 (4.9%)	-
CLASSICAL STUDIES	25 (4.7%)	-
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>175 (32.9%)</b>	
<b>OTHER STUDIES</b>		
TOURISM STUDIES	33 (6.2%)	24 ECTS
BUSINESS STUDIES	31 (5.8%)	6 ECTS
PHYSIOTHERAPY	46 (8.7%)	6 ECTS
COMMUNICATION STUDIES	62 (11.6%)	6 ECTS
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>173 (32.7%)</b>	
<b>TOTAL SAMPLE</b>	<b>529 (100%)</b>	
<b>MISSING INFORMATION**</b>		<b>6 (1.2%)</b>

\*In Primary Education a 30 ECTS itinerary in English Language Teacher Training is optional in third year. However, the participants in this sample were second year students and thus would not have taken this module.

\*\* Given the missing information, these students were eliminated from the data analysis.

The gender distribution in the sample is shown graphically in Figure 7.2. As we can see the number of females is more than double the number of males in both the English Major and the Education group. In the Other Studies group the gender distribution is much more balanced.

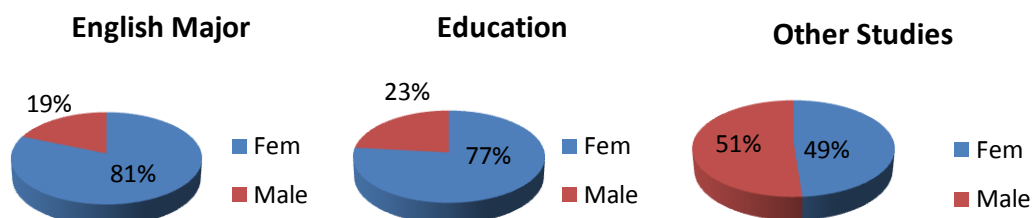


Figure 13.2 Gender distribution in academic subgroups

The exact figures for gender distribution are presented in the following Table:

**Table 13.3 Gender distribution of participants**

	Male	Female	Total
<b>English Major</b>	32 (18,7%)	137 (81,3%)	169
<b>Education</b>	38 (23,3%)	125 (76,7%)	163
<b>Other Studies</b>	85 (51,2%)	81 (48,8%)	166
<b>Missing</b>	-	-	31
<b>Total</b>	155 (31,0%)	343 (69,0%)	498

Regarding the distribution of the sample by year of study, Figure 7.3 shows that 50% of the whole sample are second year students with the other 50% relatively evenly distributed among years one, three and four.

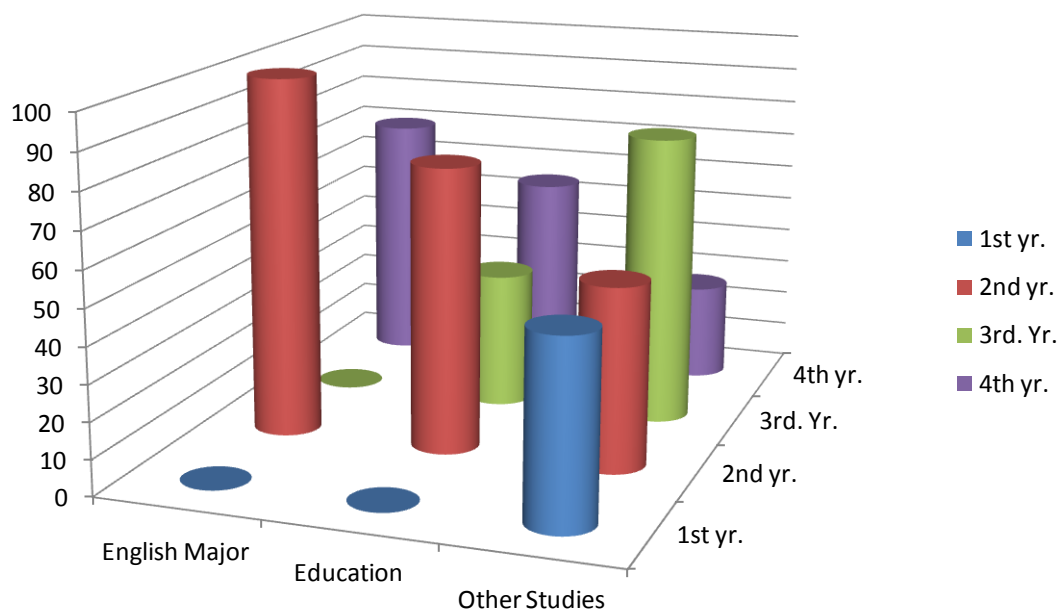


Figure 13.3 Distribution of sample by year of study

Table 7.4, below, presents the academic subgroups by year of study with additional information on the distribution across the two universities.

**Table 13.4 distribution of sample by year of study in state or private university**

	YEAR	ENGLISH MAJOR	EDUCATION	OTHER STUDIES	TOTAL	% OF TOTAL
<b>STATE</b>	1ST YEAR	...	...	22	<b>22</b>	4.2%
	2ND YEAR	97	74	30	<b>201</b>	39.1%
	3RD YEAR	2	3	23	<b>28</b>	5.4%
	4TH YEAR	70	54	1	<b>125</b>	24.3%
						<b>73.5%</b>
<b>PRIVATE</b>	1ST YEAR	...	...	29	<b>29</b>	5.6%
	2ND YEAR	3	2	51	<b>56</b>	10.9%
	3RD YEAR	...	35	4	<b>39</b>	7.6%
	4TH YEAR	...	1	12	<b>13</b>	2.5%
						<b>26.6%</b>
		172	169	172	<b>513</b>	<b>100%</b>

The participants were also asked for their age and a self report of their proficiency in English along with a confirmation of the number of months they had spent in an English speaking country. The average age of the sample was 21.5, with a minimum age of 18 and a maximum of 48. There were no significant differences in ages according to study choice.

The levels of perceived proficiency reported for the academic subgroups are shown graphically in Figure 7.4 and numerically in Table 7.5. We should point out that a self reported level of proficiency may not coincide with true levels of L2 achievement due to modesty and/or a lack of perception as to actual proficiency. However, in agreement with Ryan (2008), in a study such as this one, which examines learner self perceptions and a number of related psychological variables, a subjective account of proficiency may have more relevance than an objective report of actual proficiency, given that what learners feel they have achieved is more relevant to their psychological make-up. For ease of interpretation, the proficiency levels are categorised according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR).

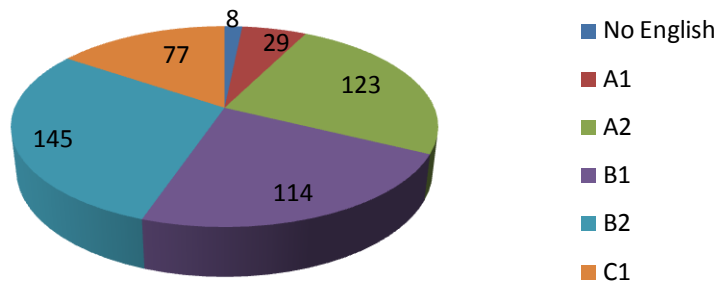


Figure 13.4 Participants' perceived proficiency in English

Table 13.5 Participants' perceived proficiency in English

LEVEL	N	% OF TOTAL
NO ENGLISH	8	1.5%
A1	29	5.6%
A2	123	23.7%
B1	114	21.9%
B2	145	27.9%
C1	77	14.8%
TOTAL	496	95.4%
Missing	33	4.6%

A large proportion of over 70% of reported proficiency levels across the sample are evenly distributed across the A2 to B2 levels, with a small proportion of participants professing an A1 or lower level of English, and almost 15% of the sample situated in the C1 category. Regarding perceived proficiency across the three academic subgroups, which we can observe in Figure 7.5 and Table 7.6 below, the higher level (C1), as expected, is to be found in the English Major group, as 41.7% of this group claim to have a C1 level of proficiency and 54.7% a B2 level. No notable differences are observed between the Education group and the Other Studies group, with the main levels of proficiency spread across an A2 or B1 CEFR level. A low 19.4% of students in the Education groups claim to have a B2 level of English along with 12.4% at this level in Other Studies.

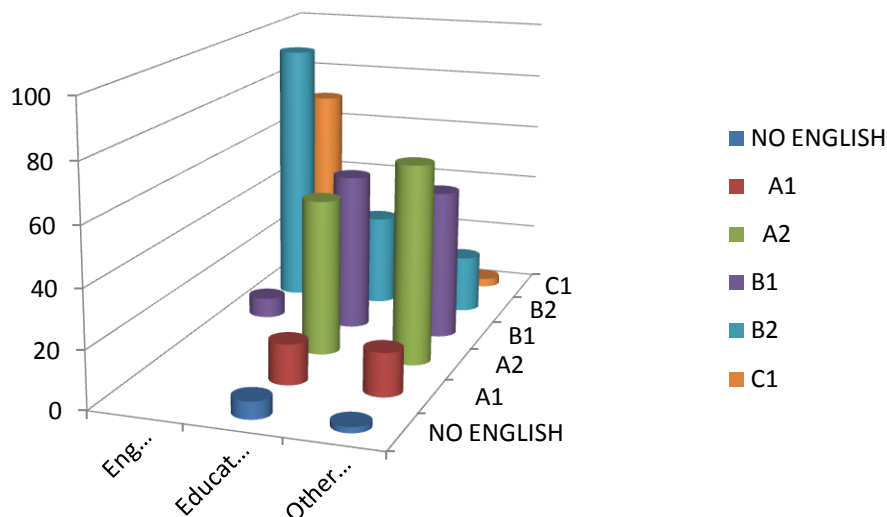


Figure 13.5 Perceived proficiency within and across subgroups

Table 13.6 perceived proficiency within and across academic subgroups

ACADEMIC STATUS	NO ENGLIS H	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	Total subgroup
ENG MAJOR				7	93	70	170
				4,1%	54,7%	41,2%	100,0%
EDUCATION	6	14	54	55	32	4	165
	3,6%	8,5%	32,7%	33,3%	19,4%	2,4%	100,0%
OTHER	2	15	69	52	20	3	161
STUDIES	1,2%	9,3%	42,9%	32,3%	12,4%	1,9%	100,0%
<b>TOTAL SAMPLE</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>496</b>
	<b>1,6%</b>	<b>5,8%</b>	<b>24,8%</b>	<b>23,0%</b>	<b>29,2%</b>	<b>15,5%</b>	<b>100,0%</b>

\*missing responses: 33

The participants were also asked to indicate the number of months they had spent in an English speaking country or in a country in which they had largely used English to communicate. Table 7.7 presents this data in contrast with perceived proficiency.

**Table 13.7 Perceived proficiency with time spent abroad in an English speaking country**

ACADEMIC STATUS	MTHS ABROAD	CEFRL LEVELS OF PROFICIENCY							Total	%
		No English	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1			
ENGLISH MAJOR	0 mths				4	48	31	<b>83</b>	48.8%	
	1-2 mths				3	32	12	<b>47</b>	27.6%	
	3-4 mths					1	6	<b>7</b>	4.1%	
	5-6 mths					2	5	<b>7</b>	4.1%	
	7-8 mths					2	2	<b>4</b>	2.4%	
	9-12 mths					6	12	<b>18</b>	10.6%	
	over 12 mths					2	2	<b>4</b>	2.4%	
EDUCATION	0 mths	6	12	43	36	14	1	<b>112</b>	67.9%	
	1-2 mths		1	11	17	13	2	<b>44</b>	26.7%	
	3-4 mths				1	5		<b>6</b>	3.6%	
	5-6 mths						1	<b>1</b>	0.6%	
	over 12 mths				2			<b>2</b>	1.2%	
OTHER STUDIES	0 mths	1	14	57	31	8	2	<b>113</b>	70.2%	
	1-2 mths	1	1	9	12	7		<b>30</b>	18.6%	
	3-4 mths			2	6	1		<b>9</b>	5.6%	
	5-6 mths			1	2	2	1	<b>6</b>	3.7%	
	7-8 mths					1		<b>1</b>	0.6%	
	over 12 mths				1	1		<b>2</b>	1.2%	
	Total	8	28	123	115	114	145	<b>77</b>	496	

\*missing responses: 33

A sizeable proportion, 59.2% of the whole sample, have not spent any significant length of time in an English speaking country. A total of 23.2% of the participants have spent between one and two months abroad. We can see that this is the case within the English Major group for a higher number of 18 C1 users of English who have spent between 9 and 12 months in an Anglophone community. However, also of note in the perceived C1 proficiency group, is that 34 students of a have not spent any time in an English speaking country.

This concludes the data on the participants selected for the main quantitative study. In the following section, the participants of the qualitative study are detailed.



### 7.2.3 Qualitative phase participants

This section details the profiles of the participants of the two qualitative phases of the empirical study: the pre-MFQ and post-MFQ interviewees.

#### *Pre-MFQ interview participants*

The initial qualitative stage of interviews was conducted with the aim of:

- a) Exploring learners' perceptions of the motivational variables being considered for inclusion in the MFQ.
- b) Determining how learners' would transmit their perceptions of their future visions as language users in Spanish, which would inform the translation of the English MFQ items into Spanish.

In order to comply with the above objective, we followed a criterion sampling method (Dörnyei, 2011) whereby potentially motivated individuals were selected, i.e. that had chosen to study English at university, or that demonstrated a certain level of achievement in the English language as it was assumed they would be suited to identifying with the tenets of the L2 MSS system. Therefore, learners who had chosen a course of study with a major emphasis in English at the state university, and those that were considered relatively successful in English proficiency certification exams carried out at the private university were invited to take part in the interviews on a voluntary basis. This was done thanks to the collaboration of lecturers at both universities who requested volunteers from among their students. The volunteers were informed by email that the researcher was working on a study exploring attitudes to learning English in Spain. All those who volunteered were interviewed, making a total of 9 interviewees and all gave their consent for the interview to be recorded and for the information gathered to be used on an anonymous basis. The nine interviewee profiles along with the interview data are detailed in Section 7.4.1 To follow we offer a brief outline of the background of each:

- Interviewee A: a 20 year-old female student of 2<sup>nd</sup> year of English Studies (UMU)
- Interviewee B: a 24 year-old, male student of 3<sup>rd</sup> year of English Studies (UMU)

- Interviewee C: a 20 year-old female student of 2<sup>nd</sup> year of English Studies (UMU)
- Interviewee E is a 23 year-old male student of 4<sup>th</sup> year Translation Studies (UMU)
- Interviewee I is a 23 year-old female student of 4<sup>th</sup> year Translation Studies (UMU)
- Interviewee F, a 22 year-old male student of 4<sup>th</sup> year of Translation Studies (UMU)
- Interviewee G is a 20 year-old female, student of Tourism (UCAM)
- Interviewee H is a 25 year-old female student of the Nursing Degree (UCAM)
- Interviewee D is a 22 year-old male student of 3<sup>rd</sup> year of the Nursing Degree (UCAM)

### *The post- MFQ participants*

Given that the post MFQ qualitative explanatory phase of the empirical study was designed to help resolve ambiguities that might be present in the quantitative data results, the selection of participants could not take place until the results of the MFQ data had been analysed. As we shall see in the results and discussion (Chapters Eight and Ten), the quantitative data left us with many questions regarding the *ought self* paradigm of the L2 MSS construct and its role in this Spanish cohort. Given that the *ought self* was hypothesised (RQ2) to be a strong influence in Education students, two students from teacher training studies were selected on a criterion sampling basis for in-depth interviews on their attitudes and beliefs on the linguistic requisites imposed by Spanish educational authorities in order to be able to teach in Spain. The profiles of both students, outlined below, are also presented in the full interview data analysis in Chapter Eleven.

- Student A is a second year female student of the Pre-Primary Education Degree at the State University with A2 self report of English proficiency. She had taken part in the quantitative study with her classmates a few months earlier and was contacted through a friend for the interview.
- Student B is a third year male student of the Primary Teaching Degree at the Private University with a B2 self report level of proficiency. As an intern of the Language Department he was contacted directly and asked to participate in the Post-MFQ phase.

## 7.3 Materials and methods

In this section we describe the qualitative instrument as well as the interview procedures for the pre and post MFQ qualitative phases of the study.

### 7.3.1 The quantitative study instrument design

The Motivational Factors Questionnaire (MFQ) that this study employs was originally designed by Ryan (2005), to be used in the first empirical exploration (Ryan, 2008; 2009) of the L2 MSS and test its tenets against the long-standing concept of integrativeness in Japanese L2 learners (see Chapter Five, section 5.1). Ryan's MFQ contained scales targeting the newer concepts of the *ideal self*, international orientation and ethnocentrism, which were pertinent to Ryan's particular RQs (Ryan 2008, 2009). Nonetheless, as he intended to contrast the tenets of the novel L2 MSS with those of the dominant Integrativeness theory, he also replicated the relevant variables used in the Hungarian studies by Dörnyei and colleagues (e.g. Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a, 2005b; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001). On the other hand, the MFQ used in Taguchi, Magid and Papi's (2009) was also based on Ryan's (2005) MFQ, but was adapted for the idiosyncrasies of their studies in Japan (b)<sup>9</sup>, China and Iran. In particular, Taguchi and colleagues aimed at exploring the *ought self* in more depth as Ryan had not specifically targeted this L2 MSS variable.

Ryan's (2005) extensive MFQ was composed of a total of 106 statement and question type items clustered into 17 scales (see Table 7.8) and measuring three broad categories of motivational variables that he categorised as:

**Self-related factors:** the self-related factors targeted in the original Japanese MFQ are concerned with the personality traits of the individual and his or her future perspectives regarding the language. (i.e. the *ideal self*)

**Attitudinal:** referring to beliefs about the outside world and the role of English, such as, attitudes towards the L2 culture and community, interest in foreign languages, integrative and instrumental motives.

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<sup>9</sup> Japan (a) makes reference to Ryan's 2008, 2009 study, while Japan (b) refers to Taguchi's 2009 study.

**Situational:** centering on the use and learning of English while including the influence of significant others', such as parents in this L2 specific context, Self Confidence and Language use anxiety.

So as to be able to gauge the effects of the above variables, Ryan (2008, 2009) employed two criteria of L2 motivated behaviour:

- i) Intended Learning Effort: plans to engage in language learning in the future;
- ii) Willingness to Communicate: the extent to which learners are open to communication with speakers of L1 and the L2.

Table 7.8 shows all the motivational variables used in the two Asian studies on the L2, which have served as the base for the design of the MFQ in Spain.

**Table 13.8 Motivational scales used in previous L2 MSS studies**

Ryan (2005, 2008, 2009) <sup>10</sup>	Nº of items	Taguchi, Magid & Papi (2009)	Nº of Items**
INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	8	INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	4/6/6
1. IDEAL SELF	6	1. IDEAL SELF	5/5/6
2. CULTURAL INTEREST	6	2. CULTURAL INTEREST	4/3/4
3. ATTITUDE TO THE L2 COMMUNITY*	8	3. ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE L2 COMMUNITY	4/4/4
4. INSTRUMENTALITY	10	4. INTEGRATIVENESS	
		5. INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	5/8/6
		6. INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	5/5/8
5. INTERNATIONAL EMPATHY	3	...	
6. INTERNATIONAL CONTACT	4	...	...
7. INTEREST IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES	5	...	...
8. FEAR OF ASSIMILATION	4	...	...
9. ETHNOCENTRISM	5	...	
10. TRAVEL ORIENTATION	4	...	...
11. ENGLISH USE ANXIETY	6	...	...

<sup>10</sup> Ryan designed the MFQ in 2005, in 2008 he employed the MFQ in his unpublished Ph.D thesis; in 2009 he published the results of his study. To avoid confusion, when referring solely to the MFQ design, Ryan, (2005) shall be cited.

12. ATTITUDES TO LEARNING ENGLISH	6	7. ATTITUDES TO LEARNING ENGLISH	4/4/6
13. MILIEU	6	8. Ought Self	4/7/6
14. PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	4	9. FAMILY INFLUENCE	4/5/6
15. SELF CONFIDENCE	5	...	...
16. WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE (IN ENGLISH/IN JAPANESE)	8 (x2)	...	...
TOTAL ITEMS	106		39/47/52

\*In Ryan, items targeting the concept of integrativeness were embedded in the scale of *Attitude to L2 community*

\*\* In order of Taguchi (Japan)/Magid (China)/Papi (Iran)

For the design of the MFQ to be used in Spain as the first quantitative instrument to validate the tenets of the L2MSS in this particular cultural context, all previous MFQ scales and items were examined against the RQs posed. An initial pre-selection of scales was made based on the following rationale: a) one of our aims was to replicate these two previous studies, so all the motivational variables used in these studies had to be considered for use in Spain and b) Taguchi et al. (2009) had used a specific *ought self* and Instrumentality Prevention scale, which did not feature in Ryan (2005), so we were anxious to include these. The end result required an MFQ that could be as precise as possible in measuring the L2 MSS tenets and as broad and flexible as possible regarding the other categories of motivational variables to explore. However, considerations of questionnaire length (Dörnyei, 2010); and considerations of the relevance of the variables different cultural context had to be taken into account.

In order to inform the MFQ design, and following the qual – QUAN – qual method structure proposed in section 7.1, a qualitative exploratory stage had been planned for the purpose of exploring in a Spanish sample the existence and nature of the variables used in previous studies. To follow we shall describe the pre MFQ qualitative stage procedure.

### 7.3.2 Pre-MFQ interviews: method and data analysis

#### *Interview method*

A series of semi structured interviews were carried out with the nine volunteer participants. The interviews were conducted entirely in Spanish and lasted between 30 and 40 minutes (see Appendix I for the interview question guide). The interviews were recorded with the consent of the participants and tape analysed. Tape analysis (Dörnyei, 2011) is a method whereby notes are taken while listening to the recordings, is recommended in the case where a qualitative phase of research is “intended to provide additional illustration or clarification” (p. 248), and full transcriptions of interviews are not justified.

The responses were analysed on two occasions. Firstly, notes were taken directly after the interviews so as to take into account any additional information on extralinguistic features of the conversations. The notes were then contrasted with the motivational variables presented in Table 7.8. Secondly, the notes and recordings were contrasted at a later stage to recheck interpretations. Table 7.9 presents a description of the 9 profiles and a summary of their responses to the four main topics of the interviews: students’ learning history, reasons behind their current engagement with English, influence and opinions of parents, friends and significant others on their L2 learning, and future plans regarding English. The broad scope of the interviews also allowed the participants to expand on any other aspect they felt relevant. The interview data is discussed in the following section.

#### **Table 13.9 Pre-MFQ interview: participant profiles**

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*Interviewee A* is a 20 year-old female student of English Studies in the University of Murcia. She grew up in the countryside outside Murcia where she had some British neighbours, and she feels that her interest in English was fostered by this fact. She claims that although she chose English Studies to improve her English, her communicative skills will not be fully developed during her Degree and considers that she will wait until she finishes to really improve her speaking skills. She feels that the family didn’t encourage or support her desire to learn English but have gradually accepted her wishes. She feels supported in her desire to learn the language by her boyfriend and his mother who own a private language academy. Although in second year of the English Studies degree, she was still preparing to take B1 certification exam.

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*Interviewee B* is a 24 year-old, male student of English Studies who had initially started a computing degree but, thanks to the advice of a friend, changed to the Degree English Studies as claimed he had always had a natural talent for English. However, in his studies he indicated that he hated English language lessons and grammar, as he could not remember rules and did not feel he could learn English by rules. His long term goal was to do research in English literature. He did not feel at all pressurised to learn English by his parents, but chose it of his own free will, although they support his wishes. He feels his friends started to realise the importance of English as an international language after student trips to Belgium and Italy, but they were not making much effort to actually learn. In his view, their current efforts were only directed at obtaining an English language certification in order to be eligible to teach in bilingual schools in their future profession but that they were not interested in actually developing communicative competence.

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*Interviewee C* is a female 20 year-old student of English Studies. She seems very intrinsically motivated. She loved English at school and felt she was always good at it. Her mother has always thought education very important and sent her to the UK in Summer as a child to learn English even though she herself has no knowledge of the language. She intends to live for a time in Amsterdam as her boyfriend's professional interest is there; he also speaks very good English. She sees English as a very international language and wouldn't like to live in the UK, although she loves the British accent. She is proud of her Spanish open and affectionate character and wouldn't renounce her Spanish identity. She sees herself doing a doctorate in English and constantly improving through meeting people and speaking English.

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*Interviewee D* is a 22 year-old male student of 3<sup>rd</sup> year of the Nursing Degree at the Catholic University who had obtained a high mark in the university Erasmus placement exams. His self proclaimed passion for English started as a child through lessons in a private language school where the experience with a very demanding teacher was very positive. His parents have always considered English extremely important and his uncle, and role model, had is gone far in his business profession thanks to his proficiency in English. He admires the British as an elegant, educated culture and, without renouncing his nationality, would like to adopt those values. He sees himself using English in his profession and has plans to go to Finland as an Erasmus student. He feels his peers do not really make an effort to learn English, despite admitting that it is important to learn the language; they invest in English language courses promising achievement in a short time.

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*Interviewee E* is a 23 year-old male student of 4<sup>th</sup> year Translation Studies. He chose this line of study, not to become a professional translator, but to learn English. He also studies Arabic and Italian but is losing interest in Arabic because he doesn't see his progress and doesn't have time to study as much as he would like. He emphasized that understanding English perfectly has always been a goal and a challenge since primary school. He wants to work in the US teaching Spanish, which he feels comes from his international outlook and desire to travel. His parents think

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English is very important and have always supported his decisions. He feels that university students talk a lot about learning English but don't actually do much about it and if they do go abroad, it's because they feel forced to learn English but not really enjoying the experience. He sees himself using English professionally, while teaching Spanish and socially, in the US and with international friends.

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*Interviewee F*, a 22 year-old male student in who originally started to study English Studies but found the subjects had a heavy theoretical bent and changed to Translation Studies with the hope of communicating more in the language. His father, who also speaks English, had sent him to private lessons when he was young and strongly encouraged him to learn English. He had had contact with British ex-pats through his work at a veterinary clinic, which he obtained thanks to his English. He claims he was more interested in real communication than formal learning. He had spent time in Ireland to improve his English and, although found it very difficult to understand English at first, he felt he gradually improved. He considers himself a natural language learner at English but not other languages. He studies French but finds it much more difficult. His aim is to be able to speak without having to think and hesitate so much. He doesn't have a clear idea of his future profession and finds it difficult to describe himself in detail in a future situation, but thinks he might like to teach Spanish as a foreign language. He would like to spend some time abroad in an English speaking country. His friends don't study English and some of them even say they hate English because of the negative experience of school learning. He feels that people improve their impression of English as a communicative tool by spending time in an English speaking culture.

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*Interviewee G* is a 20 year-old female, student of Tourism at the Catholic University. Her main reason for choosing to study Tourism was to travel. Her parents sent her to EFL lessons when she was a child, and she continued her studies at the Spanish state run Official School of Languages, and at university. Her mother studies English and her father works with English in his profession, and they have always encouraged her to learn languages and travel. She has had a variety of teachers but thinks that at secondary school, teachers are less able to instil in students that English is a communicative tool. She likes to set herself difficult challenges with English and goes abroad (Canada, UK) alone in order to avoid speaking Spanish with friends. She rates her listening skills as better than her speaking skills and claims that her shyness makes her a nervous speaker. She thinks it's important to travel and get to know other cultures and would live for a time in an English speaking country, probably the UK. Her goal is to dream in English because she thinks that this would mean that she was fluent. She is afraid of not being able to reach that level. She feels that she is a more interesting or intelligent person when she speaks English. She finds it strange to hear Spanish people speaking English and feels that the Spanish always feel a sense of ridicule when speaking foreign languages and admire people who can become fluent in languages. In the longer term, she sees herself in the future in Europe somewhere travelling and talking everyday English socially with friends and understanding jokes in English



*Interviewee H* is a 25 year-old female student of the Nursing Degree at the Catholic University. She doesn't feel she is a natural language learner, but has to study hard to progress. She realized when she was in secondary school, thanks to a number of school trips abroad, that English would be an important skill for the future. She was quite good at the subject at school and claims she had very good teachers who were quite strict in making students learn vocabulary and grammatical structures. Her objective is to be able to understand spoken English well. She is planning to go to Finland with an Erasmus grant because she believes she can also improve her English there. She believes that other students don't learn languages and only wish to work in their local province and that this will limit their chances for work. She feels that Spanish in the south of the country are very ethnocentric and closed to learning other languages and cultures, and blames a lot of this on the educational system. She is largely an autonomous learner but regrets that she can't practice her speaking skills without another interlocutor. Her parents are in favour of her learning English and support her decision to spend time abroad.

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*Interviewee I* is a 23 year-old female student of 4<sup>th</sup> year Translation Studies. As a very young child she had a British *au pair* at home and feels that this means she has always been motivated to learn English. She had very good teachers at private lessons and was good at the subject, but feels that English at school is very repetitive and not conducive to learning. She spent time in abroad and this motivated her to improve on her return to learn as she found it difficult to understand people there. Her parents always sent her to schools that offered extra English lessons and at home she speaks English to her smaller brothers and sisters. She describes herself as very intrinsically motivated. She reads and listens to the radio in English every day in an attempt to improve. She loves the British culture and sees them as very determined, serious people. She would love to live in the UK for a time. She feels that her Degree studies do not help with communicative skills and claims that students must work on that aspect themselves in order to progress.

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### *Interview analysis*

In the qualitative phase interviews the participants (Table 7.9) were invited to discuss various aspects of their experiences and beliefs relating to the motivational variables to feature in the MFQ. As anticipated, the tenets of the L2 MSS did indeed come to light in students' responses. Firstly and importantly regarding the *ideal self* construct, all these students were able to elaborate on visions of their future English-using selves in their social and professional lives, although the degree of specificity of those visions did vary among the interviewees. This fact provided support for the *ideal self* as conceptualised by Dörnyei (2005; 2009) as a variable with potential for differing degrees of specificity.

Also clear from the interviews was variation in parental encouragement, justifying its inclusion in the MFQ. All the informants reported that parents supported decisions to persist in their language learning ambitions, and proactive encouragement varied greatly from non-existent, as in the case of interviewee A, to becoming quite strong in the cases of interviewees C, D, G and I. Naturally, parental influence can be perceived in the cases of the participants who had received private tuition in English, were sent to study programs abroad as children or, as in the case of one interviewee, was cared for by an English au-pair at home as a child.

Regarding other social influences and engagement in learning English, the interviewees expressed a sense of responsibility to learn English for various reasons, e.g. the advantages for work and travel or the need for English to gain knowledge about the world. Some of those interviewed expressed interest in interacting with non-native L2 speakers, giving the perception that a more international outlook on English as a *lingua franca* could be a relevant concept in Spain.

Regarding peer support in learning English, one curious aspect that emerged from the interviews was that the participants appeared to be unique among their friends in achieving certain communicative competence in English as none of them could specify having friends who shared their passion and engagement in efforts to learn the language. Any comments regarding friends tended to reflect their procrastination in learning English, and the interviewees' attributions for these attitudes in their friends varied from negative learning histories to lack of perception of the language as a communicative tool. Three of the eight interviewees opine that their friends only pay verbal tribute to the need for English for better work opportunities, given that their efforts to learn are not actually genuine. Some reference was also made to what could be considered an ethnocentric attitude among peers in interviewee H who claims that, in her view, Spanish people in the south of Spain tend to demonstrate a closed mindedness regarding foreign cultures and languages. As a result, the scales of targeting the influence of significant others — the ought self — and *Ethnocentrism* seemed justified as variables for the MFQ.

The above interviews facilitated an initial qualitative confirmation of the existence of a future L2 self vision along with sufficient evidence to confirm the inclusion of many of the various motivational variables pre-selected for the MFQ. Some cultural differences were

apparent that meant that adjustments were required for the wording of some items. To give an example, one particular linguistic change was introduced with reference to family and significant others. When referring to encouragement or pressure from these sources to learn English. The Asian studies had used the term 'respect' e.g. *Studying English is important to me because the people I respect think that I should do it* (Taguchi et al., 2009, p. 92). However, the term 'respect' had not come up repeatedly in any of the interviews; instead the more emotive terms of 'love' or 'caring about' were more frequent when referring to family members and their influence on L2 learning. Therefore, this item was changed to *Studying English is important because the people I care about think it's important*.

All in all the interviews facilitated the understanding that the newer concepts of envisaging a future *ideal L2 self* and a sense of obligation to learn through the *ought self* seemed relevant to his population. A further advantage of the qualitative interview phase was the interaction on the MFQ concepts in Spanish, therefore providing an understanding of the translation process required.

#### **7.4 MFQ Scales: item selection and translation**

In this section, the MFQ motivational variables selected; the choice and/or adaptations of the composite items for each, and the translation procedure of the MFQ are explained. Regarding the criterion measure of motivated behaviour, the criteria established by Ryan — Intended Learning Effort — has been selected for use in this Spanish study and this scale is explained first. To follow and so as to facilitate understanding of the structure of the questionnaire, the motivational variables or scales that are discussed have been classified according to: a) self related variables; b) attitudinal variables; c) goal-related variables and d) affective factors.

##### *Criterion measures for motivated behaviour*

INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT: one of the criteria established in Ryan (2005) as a measure of motivated behaviour against which to examine the various L2 motivation variables was a scale entitled INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT, which was composed of items targeting participants' current and future intentions to engage in English language learning. The scale measures future intentions given that the essence of the *ideal self* as a future L2 vision or guide

necessitates a dimension of future motivated behaviour against which to gauge learners' capacity to envisage their L2 using selves. The items used in Ryan's MFQ were not culture specific and so did not require adaptations for use in the Spanish study. Ryan's (2005) second criterion measure, Willingness to Communicate (MacIntyre, 2007) was not chosen for use in the Spanish study as its tenets were very specific to Ryan's RQs (2008, 2009).

#### *Self related L2 MSS factors*

The IDEAL L2 SELF: this scale, targeting the essence of the L2 MSS, and its composite items designed by Ryan (2005) was selected for use in the Spanish MFQ and no adaptations to the composite items were required. These were not culture specific as they made reference to future visions of using the L2 professionally and socially without pinpointing specific aspects of a specific culture.

The OUGHT L2 SELF scale: this scale was chosen from Taguchi et al. (2009) for use in Spain as a more precise measure of potential OUGHT SELF influences than Ryan's *Mileu* scale. However, the items required some adaptations due to the wording such as the example described in the qualitative interview data analysis (Section 7.4.1). Aside from the items referring to family and significant other selected from Taguchi and colleagues' scale, two further items were included (see Appendix II for the English version of the final MFQ) to reflect the influence that friends might have on L2 learning and one item to target the need to certify a level of English owing to future professional requirements.

ATTITUDES TO L2 LEARNING. In all previous MFQs, the Learning Experience cornerstone of the L2 MSS was measured by a scale that made reference to intrinsic enjoyment of English lessons concomitant with the surveys at either secondary school or university. In Spain, we had no guarantee that the participants would be taking English lessons at the time of the MFQ survey. Therefore, it was esteemed that beliefs and attitudes to learning English in formal learning contexts across the sample could only be effectively gauged through a focus on past learning experiences of primary or secondary school. In addition, RQ3 includes the aim of exploring the hypothesis that past learning experiences at secondary school would have been negative in terms of achieving communicative competence. In line with this reasoning, some items were changed to refer to enjoyment of past learning, and impressions of the contextual elements that could influence this, i.e. teachers. Other items maintained reference to current attitudes to learning without specifying a particular context.

*Attitudinal factors*

CULTURAL INTEREST is a scale originally used in Dörnyei's Hungarian studies (e.g. see Dörnyei and Csizér, 2006) that contains items that refer to indirect contact with the L2 through cultural elements, such as music, media and books. Ryan's original scale items were applicable to Spain, although, given that this indirect contact through media could imply interest in the cultural products generated both by UK and USA (TV shows, films, literature, etc), both cultures were referred to in the composite items.

INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (L2). In order to examine all aspects possibly related to the learning experience dimension of the L2 MSS construct in isolation to gain a better picture of influential factors, it was decided to maintain a separate scale to measure an attraction for the language itself. Ryan (2005) had designed a scale to measure a liking of foreign languages in general; nonetheless, it was felt that this would diverge from the overall focus of the Spanish study on motivation to learn English. Therefore, the items included in the scale in Spain targeted an attraction for the English language and its sound and structure as a concept separate to classroom learning attitudes.

ETHNOCENTRISM: complementing attitudes to L2 or non-specific communities, it was also considered pertinent to examine potential ethnocentric attitudes, as those items targeting thoughts on Spain and participants' sense of national identity and any conflict between this and language learning beliefs could provide perspectives on the participants' beliefs on their own national identity to contrast with their L2 community or international outlook.

The scale of FEAR OF ASSIMILATION initially did not seem to bear so much relevance in Spain as it was made up of three items taken from Dörnyei and colleagues Hungarian studies and adapted very specifically by Ryan (2005) to examine aspects he felt pertinent to his study context, i.e. seeing English as a threat to the Japanese language and culture. This scale was maintained for the pilot study phase in Spain as an experimental complement to ethnocentrism. However, for reasons that will become clear in the pilot study results analysis, it was not included in the main study.

*Goal related factors*

INTEGRATIVENESS: given the debate currently surrounding the ability of the newly devised L2 MSS construct to provide greater explanatory power for L2 motivation than integrativeness, for the Spanish study it was considered essential to maintain a scale which would facilitate a thorough exploration of this construct in the sample. Items were included that referred to differing intensities of attraction to or potential relationships with most references being made to the UK, given its closer geographical proximity to Spain, in an attempt to encompass weaker and stronger forms of integrativeness. However, one item did make reference to the USA to allow for opinions on this potentially relevant L2 culture.

INTERNATIONAL POSTURE: the 'International Empathy' and 'International Contact' scales in Ryan (2005) were both created based on Yashima's (2000; 2002) 'International Posture' construct discussed in Chapter Four. It was considered pertinent to cluster the items as one scale aimed at gaining an overall view of participants' impressions regarding non-native global community and the use of English as a *lingua franca* within a more globalised non-specific community. Items that made reference to attitudes to cultures other than these two main English speaking communities were thus created for the MFQ, and, as a concept not previously studied in a Spanish context, these were highlighted for examination in the pre-MFQ interviews so as to qualitatively explore participants' views on a potential L2 profile of International Posture. The items Ryan had used to target travel orientations were included in the INTERNATIONAL POSTURE scale, as the utilitarian value of English as a *lingua franca* appeared to fit with the overall concept of a global view of the language disconnected from traditional cultural ties.

INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION and INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION: The dual focus on instrumentality in Taguchi and colleagues' studies (2009) was also chosen for the Spanish MFQ as an in-depth measure of possible approach-avoidance motives in the sample. Taguchi and colleagues had found interesting insights regarding the correlations between the approach-avoidance perspective and the *ought* and *ideal* selves, as we saw in Chapter Four. Given that the role of the *ought self* in language learning is a core question for the Spanish study (i.e. RQ2), it was very relevant to ensure that any dimension that could lend understanding to its role would be included. However, the Asian study was conducted with learners involved in situated formal learning experiences at school and university at the time

of the study, therefore Taguchi and colleagues created composite items targeting potential avoidance of negative situations in those learning contexts such as failing exams, the embarrassment of bad grades, and possible retribution for failure from the family. Many of the university students that make up the Spanish sample are not offered an English subject as part of their degree and, although they may be engaged in learning elsewhere, e.g. in private language schools, it was felt that items referring to possible failure in exams would not be pertinent for many. Some statements were therefore reworded to reflect potential failure at a professional and personal level and one item targeted on the risk of being seen as less educated without certain achievement in English.

### *Affective factors*

SELF CONFIDENCE: as a measure of learners' beliefs in their ability to master the L2, a sense of self-efficacy is directly relevant to the self construct and was included in the MFQ for Spain. However, it was considered that the items used by Ryan (2005) were expressed in a negative fashion, e.g. *I worry that others will laugh at my English*, and these appeared to overlap in meaning with items contained in the ANXIETY scale. For the Spanish study, three of the five items were adapted to express the same concept as the original but in a more positive manner, e.g. *if I make an effort I will be able to learn the language*.

LANGUAGE USE ANXIETY: the items included in the Anxiety scale in Ryan (2005) were not culture specific as they referred to feelings of nervousness in formal and informal communicative situations. However, Items that referred to classroom use in the present tense were adapted to the past tense to refer to classroom experiences at secondary school, given that we had no guarantee that all participants would be engaged in L2 study at the time of the survey. One item was reworded slightly to reflect a widely used Spanish expression — *sentido del ridículo* (sense of ridicule), and one that had come up in the pre-MFQ interviews, when discussing the embarrassment of speaking in a foreign language in public -

PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT: as a potential variable in learners' attitudes to learning the L2, family influence is a concept originally examined by Gardner and colleagues in their initial studies on L2 motivation, and one that has featured in all of the studies on the L2 MSS, given the relevance of the opinions and influence of family members on one's motivation to learn. There is some overlap, however, in the items included in Ryan's (2005) with items included

in the OUGHT SELF scale, which also examines the L2 specific expectations of significant others. However, given the lack of consensus in the literature as to the exact nature of the OUGHT SELF and its potential external sources, it was felt relevant for the Spanish study to maintain a scale directly targeting close family influence on L2 motivation (Brady, 2014). The items previously used were applicable in their original form to the Spanish culture, and did not require rewording, thus were retained for piloting. One item was added to explore whether parents had sent participants to language lessons as children as this would be a potentially tangible way of viewing actual proactive involvement in learning English as opposed to moral or emotional support for their children learning English. Table 7.10 presents a summary of the MFQ scales selected for the pilot study phase and number of composite items in each.

**Table 13.10 Scales used in the piloting phase of the MFQ in Spain**

<b>CRITERION MEASURE</b>	
0.	INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT: 6 items targeting students' past and present learning activities and their intention to continue study or spend time abroad to improve their English.
<b>SELF RELATED FACTORS</b>	
1.	IDEAL SELF: 6 items aimed at participants' emotional involvement with the L2 and visions of themselves using English in the future.
2.	OUGHT SELF: 4 items targeting the pressure students feel to learn from society, parents, and significant others.
3.	ATTITUDES TO LEARNING ENGLISH: 6 items on past and present classroom learning experiences.
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>	
4.	CULTURAL INTEREST: 3 items targeting the extent to which student watched TV, read, or listened to music in the L2
5.	INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE: 3 items targeting students' opinions on the language itself e.g. structure and sound.
<b>GOAL RELATED FACTORS</b>	
6.	INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION: 5 items covering a range of disadvantages to not succeeding in English.



7. INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION: 5 items covering a range of pragmatic advantages to acquiring English
8. INTEGRATIVENESS: 8 items (used in the original Hungarian study) targeting students' interest in engagement with in UK/US people and their culture.
9. INTERNATIONAL POSTURE: 6 items on views of using English in contexts unrelated to specific native speaker communities.
10. ETHNOCENTRISM: 6 items on participants' impressions on Spanish culture and its language in comparison to other cultures.
11. FEAR OF ASSIMILATION: 3 items on the potential threat that English might pose to Spanish culture and language.

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**AFFECTIVE FACTORS**

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12. LANGUAGE USE ANXIETY: 5 items on emotional aspects of using English in the classroom or in public.
  13. LINGUISTIC SELF CONFIDENCE: 5 items on ease of learning and using opportunities to speak English.
  14. PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT: 4 items directed at the influence of parents on learning history and current efforts to learn
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### *Scale rating*

Dörnyei (2010) encourages researchers to vary the expression of the items in a lengthy questionnaire such as this one in statement and question form. This was attempted for the pilot study. However the format of the optical reading sheets used made the variation in scale response type difficult to format and confusing for the participants. For the main study, all the items were expressed as statements and participants were required to mark their responses on a six-point Likert rating from 0 (completely disagree) to 5 (absolutely agree).

### *Translation procedure*

The questionnaire items were translated into Spanish by the author of this thesis and two Spanish Translators and three Spanish colleagues revised the translation to check for potential errors. One native English translator was asked to back translate the items so as to ensure that there was no loss of meaning. One of the aims of the piloting phase was to check participants' interpretations of the items which would put the translation to the test (see Appendix III for the Spanish version of the MFQ).

*Personal and Educational data*

The printed version of the questionnaire contained a personal data section (see Appendix IV) inserted prior to the MFQ items. Aside from an identification number comprising 6 digits of the participants' Spanish 8 digit ID, so as to be able to identify individual questionnaires, this section contained 6 items aimed at gathering information on personal and educational data:

- i) gender
- ii) age
- iii) university (State or Private)
- iii) university degree
- iv) year of study
- v) a self report of English language proficiency
- vi) the number of months spent in an English speaking country

With regard to the self report of proficiency in English, the introductory section to the questionnaire itself (Appendix IV) offered several approximate equivalents to the CEFRL levels for each level for students to be able to rate their perceived L2 level. These ranged from estimates of levels achieved in their secondary school education to the certifications of levels offered at Spain's *Escuela Oficial de Idiomas*. It is important to bear in mind that the self assessment of proficiency reported does not refer specifically to any of the four skills but is an overall consideration of level of English.

## **7.5 Pilot study administration and analysis**

The following steps were taken for administration of the pilot study:

The MFQ items were printed on optical marking sheets facilitating optical data entry to create the database of responses (Appendix V). All the questionnaires were administered by the author of this thesis study during the lectures of the colleagues who had given permission. Students were informed that the survey was about attitudes to learning English and were advised that participation was on a voluntary basis. Only one student declined to

take part. All participants were of Spanish nationality as any exchange students were asked to refrain from filling in the questionnaire. The questionnaires took approximately 25-35 minutes to complete.

So as to confirm that items were not causing evident confusion in interpretations, once they had completed the questionnaire, the participants were asked to comment on any statements they felt had been confusing or ambiguous. However, there were no comments of note, which implied that no particular item appeared to present obvious problems due to translation or difficulty of interpretation.

## **7.6 Pilot study analysis and results**

The main objective of the pilot study analysis was to ensure that the scales and their composite items were internally consistent. The reliability or internal consistency of a scale refers to the extent to which the composite items of the scale are consistent in measuring the underlying construct (Pallant, 2001) and one of the most commonly used statistical measurements of this is Cronbach's (1951) alpha coefficient. The recommended reliability figure of a scale is  $\alpha = .70$ , with figures below this indicating that the interpretations of the items by participants in a study may not be as consistent as they should or that the items are not measuring the same concepts. The calculation of a scale's reliability, however, can be sensitive to the number of items that make up the scale; Pallant (2001) suggests that a scale containing fewer than ten items can often have a lower Cronbach value, e.g. .5. A further measurement that can be applied and reported to complement the Cronbach value is the inter-item correlation figure also calculated through the Cronbach measurement. This figure, which Briggs and Cheek (1986) recommend should be between .2 and .4, tells us to what extent the items are measuring what they were intended to measure.

A total of 13 cases were eliminated from the pilot study dataset owing to errors in data entry or irregular patterns of responses, leaving a final total of 124 cases for pilot study analysis. After the initial data cleaning and analysis and correction of entry errors, missing responses were calculated using the mean of the series. The number of missing responses was under 1% so it is assumed there were no systematic missing values (Pallant, 2001). This fact in itself is positive in a pilot study as it shows that none of the items were initially

causing extreme confusion or asking for sensitive information as, if this were the case, we would expect a more consistent pattern in unrated items or missing data.

The scales were then analysed through the Cronbach reliability analysis function of SPSS. The general expectation was that, as the scales had been used in previous studies, the reliability would be acceptable (i.e.  $\alpha > 0.70$ ). However, as many of the items had been used in a very different cultural context, some new items had been created, and items had been translated from English to Spanish, the possibility did exist that reliability could be negatively affected by these factors. To follow, I shall discuss reliability of the scales obtained through the Cronbach alpha and the decisions taken for the main study MFQ.

**Table 13.11 Cronbach alpha internal consistency of the pilot study scale items**

MFQ SCALE	Pilot study	Ryan (2008) <sup>11</sup>
<b>CRITERION MEASURE</b>		
INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	0.76	0,86
<b>SELF RELATED FACTORS</b>		
IDEAL SELF	0.84	0,85
OUGHT SELF	0.55	.....
ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	0.73	0.88
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>		
Interest in L2	0.88	...
CULTURAL INTEREST	0,79	0.79
FEAR OF ASSIMILATION	0.59	0.67
ETHNOCENTRICITY	0.63	0.63
<b>GOAL-RELATED FACTORS</b>		
INTEGRATIVENESS	0.78	0.58
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	0.74	0.74
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	0.73	...
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	0.75	...
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>		
ANXIETY	0.84	0.81
SELF CONFIDENCE	0.74	0.57
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	0.67	0.79

<sup>11</sup> In the analysis of the final MFQ, the internal consistency of scales are also contrasted with those obtained in the three studies reported in Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009).

As we can see from the data in Table 7.11, twelve of the scales show acceptable internal consistency at approximately  $> .70$ , and, significantly, among these, we find the scale considered core to the L2 MSS construct — the IDEAL SELF scale — at  $\alpha = .84$ . This means the scale is suitable for use in the main MFQ and will not undergo any further adjustments. The same follows for the other 9 scales that have a Cronbach of  $> 0.70$ . The newly developed scale of INTERNATIONAL POSTURE has also obtained a very acceptable alpha value and requires no further adjustments.

Aside from the scale of PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT, which, at  $\alpha = .67$ , although low, can be considered sufficiently reliable for use in the main study, a total of 3 scales did not obtain the desired internal consistency of  $\alpha = .70$ . Among those was the OUGHT SELF scale targeting another of the core concepts of Dörnyei's theory. The remaining two scales — FEAR OF ASSIMILATION AND ETHNOCENTRISM — had been specifically designed for use in Ryan's study in Japan (a) and their inclusion for Spain was from an experimental point of view rather than a previously established theoretical or empirical rationale. It was decided that the scale of FEAR OF ASSIMILATION was not to be included in the main scale as it was felt this had perhaps been pertinent to the Japanese study but had not arisen as an issue in Spain in the pre-questionnaire interviews. This fact coupled with the low Cronbach alpha left little justification for its use in the main study.

The scale of ETHNOCENTRICITY obtained an alpha of  $.63$ , which, although not as strong as desired could be considered eligible for inclusion in the MFQ. Examination of the inter-item correlation of individual items did not uncover any evident problematic statements. Based on the fact that, during the pre-MFQ interviews, some reference had been made to ethnocentric attitudes in the university student population in Murcia, the scale was maintained for the main MFQ.

The OUGHT SELF scale has one of the lowest reliability figures at  $\alpha = .55$  and this is disconcerting given that in the original studies, for all the researchers, the OUGHT SELF scale had very acceptable reliability (Japan (b) -  $\alpha = .76$ ; China -  $\alpha = .78$ ; Iran -  $\alpha = .75$ ). Low internal consistency in a scale tells us that the items are somehow causing confusion and perhaps different interpretations among the participants due to their phrasing, or that there is some degree of ambiguity regarding the core concept we are attempting to tap into through the statements. The 4 items used for the scale in Spain were checked again to see if deleting one

or more items would improve the scale's reliability; (see Appendix VI for Cronbach item deletion analysis). However, no single item deletion returned a higher figure. Inter-item correlation analysis (see Appendix VII) did show some low values between items targeting the influence of friends and significant others; nonetheless, these concepts are central to the *ought self* theory and elimination did not seem viable at this point of the study. It was considered the scale's four items were perhaps not sufficient to gain reliability in such a complex psychological construct so far not fully understood in L2 motivation Western contexts, (e.g. Csizér & Lukács, 2010). Therefore it was decided to include 2 items in the scale reflecting the local pressure to certify English and one further item on peer pressure to learn English. The resulting 7 item scale was employed in the main study MFQ.

## **7.7 Main MFQ administration and data analysis procedures**

### *7.7.1 MFQ Administration*

The piloted version of the MFQ was administered to the 529 main study participants (see Section 7.2.3 of this chapter) over the months of April, May and October, 2013. As with the pilot study, the author of this thesis carried out the administration personally during university lectures and the same procedure was followed for all the study groups involved.

### *7.7.2 Data preparation*

In order to establish the validity of the final version of the MFQ compiled for this study in Spain, the MFQ questionnaires were optically scanned and entered into SPSS 17. Data cleaning was carried out as for the pilot study (see section 7.4 in this chapter). The following main steps were taken with the dataset:

- Ten cases were eliminated because of incomplete questionnaires and unusual patterns in responses (e.g. all zeros), leaving the final number of cases for analysis at 519.
- Responses were examined for systematic missing values. These were below 1% of the total responses as was the case in the pilot study, and were not considered detrimental to the analysis. Missing values were not replaced.

- All Items were labelled and coded for SPSS analysis and negatively worded items were reverse coded.
- The Cronbach alpha internal consistency was calculated for each of the scales and contrasted with those used in the four previous studies by Ryan (2009), and Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009).
- The mean of the scale was calculated for all subsequent analyses. Although much statistical analysis on multi-item scales is carried out using the scale total, it was decided to use the mean in this study for ease of interpretation.

### 7.7.3 Scale reliability for the whole sample

Once the data was considered apt for analysis, the Cronbach alpha measure of internal consistency value of each of the multi-item scales was calculated and the results compared these with the alphas obtained in the studies carried out in Japan (a) by Ryan (2008) and Japan (b), China and Iran by Taguchi et al. (2009). These results are shown in Table 7.12 below:

**Table 13.12 Cronbach alpha internal consistency of main study MFQ scales in contrast with previous studies**

SCALE	Spain	Japan (a)	Japan (b)	China	Iran
INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	<b>.79</b>	.86	.83	.75	.79
<b>SELF RELATED FATORS</b>					
IDEAL SELF	<b>.83</b>	.85	.89	.73	.79
OUGHT SELF	<b>.57</b>	...	.76	.78	.75
ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	<b>.81</b>	.88	.90	.81	.82
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>					
INTEREST IN THE L2	<b>.82</b>	...	...	...	...
L2 CULTURAL INTEREST	<b>.70</b>	.77	.77	.67	.76
ETHNOCENTRICITY	<b>.37</b>	.63	...	....	...
<b>GOAL RELATED FACTORS</b>					
INTEGRATIVENESS	<b>.81</b>	.58	.64	.63	.56
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	<b>.74</b>	...**	...	...	...
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	<b>.68</b>	...	.82	.78	.67
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	<b>.76</b>	...	.73	.74	.81
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>					
ANXIETY	<b>.86</b>	.81	...	...	...
SELF CONFIDENCE	<b>.74</b>	.57	...	...	...

PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	<b>.63</b>	.79*	.83	.70	.69
<b>MULTIPLE SCALES</b>	<b>.88</b>				

From the comparison of the scale reliability across the cultures so far examined under the lens of the L2 MSS, we can confirm that the multiple scales have achieved an overall value of  $\alpha = .88$  and the majority of the MFQ scales have a similarly acceptable level of internal consistency at  $\alpha = \geq .70$ , among those, the criterion measure scale of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT and the core concept of the L2 MSS, the IDEAL SELF. This fact suggests that the rewording and translation of the items after the piloting phase was acceptable and that the composite items of most scales were coherent with the scales' objectives. Nonetheless, some differences can be observed in the contrast of the alpha values with those of previous studies and the more notable of these shall be discussed briefly:

#### *Integrativeness*

The scale of INTEGRATIVENESS has obtained a much higher level of internal consistency in the Spanish study than in the previous Asian studies, which may bear relation to do with the fact that the studies in the Asian cultures examined the integrative motive using the USA as the target L2 community, whereas, in the Spanish study, the items in the integrativeness scale focused on potential interest in UK people and culture, with only one item making reference to the USA. This decision was made based on the geographical proximity of the UK to Spain along with its traditionally significant presence in English language teaching classrooms as the target L2 culture. The studies carried out in Asian contexts targeted opinions on the USA as the L2 culture — a much larger and intra-culturally diverse nation, which could perhaps be expected to generate greater variation in interpretations especially regarding notions of identity with its inhabitants and integration with its culture(s). Another consideration on this aspect also is that both Spain and the UK to an extent are nations in one continent and European community; this could also incite more consistent interpretations of affinity than Asian nations with the US thanks to the greater divide between their very distinct cultural backgrounds.

#### *Interest in the L2*



In the scale of INTEREST IN THE L2, in the case of the Spanish study, the specified L2 is the English language, and is technically not comparable with Ryan's scale targeting interest in foreign languages in general. Nonetheless, the alpha value obtained in this scale for Spain is quite acceptable. Three other scales, CULTURAL INTEREST and ANXIETY maintain a similar strength of internal consistency across the three groups examined, again suggesting that the interpretations of the composite items show little variation across cultures. It is curious that the ANXIETY scale is one of the most robust within the attitudinal factors and, in Spain, even higher than its equivalent in Japan. Given the acceptable alpha values obtained, these scales require no further exploration and can be used in subsequent analyses.

### *International Posture*

The scale of INTERNATIONAL POSTURE has obtained a strong level of internal consistency at  $\alpha = 0.74$ , which is a good result for a newly designed scale. Ryan had two scales targeting what he called 'international empathy', with an alpha of 0.74, similar to the alpha obtained in Spain, and 'international contact' –  $\alpha = 0.87$ . As explained in Chapter Five, the decision was made to create one scale for the Spanish study using the title of Yashima's (2000; 2002) concept of openness to other cultures, which appears to have been interpreted by the participants as was intended.

The two scales designed specifically for the Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) studies, INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION and INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION, have also obtained somewhat similar alpha ratings across the cultures, with INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION slightly lower at  $\alpha = .68$  in Spain, as was the case with the Iranian scale in Papi's study. Examination of the composite items did not reveal any problematic item that could be removed and so improve its internal consistency. Although, not ideal, the alpha is still considered acceptable for use as part of the measurement instrument.

### *Self Confidence*

The scale of SELF CONFIDENCE has obtained a much higher level of internal consistency than its equivalent in Japan. In describing the design of the MFQ, it was mentioned that Ryan had included items in this scale which appeared to overlap with items included in the scale of ANXIETY and therefore the items for the Spanish scale were expressed more positively in terms of perceptions of capability to learn the L2. The high level of reliability indicates that

these have been interpreted consistently in the sample and can be used as a measure of the participants' beliefs in this regard.

### *Parental Encouragement*

The scale of PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT shows a moderate level of internal consistency which borders acceptability at  $\alpha = .63$ . This figure is much lower than that obtained in the previous studies. A possible explanation for this is the age difference of the participants in the studies carried out in Asia. The higher internal consistency ratings obtained in previous studies by Ryan (2008) and Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) could be due to the lower age groups of secondary school participants in the samples studied given that parents most likely are a more consistent influence in adolescence (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a). University students may show greater variation in the perceived influence of their parents on the educational choices they make. An additional explanation could be that put forward by Taguchi and colleagues in their 2009 study in that in the Asian countries they studied, parents' wishes are highly respected and to ignore the desires of significant senior family members can bring dishonour to a family, indeed, (the phenomenon was so strong in one study that the term *Chinese imperative* was coined (see Chapter Four). In a western culture such as Spain, it would not be expected that family impositions would feature so strongly. The scale used in Spain, however, is considered valid for use in the analyses of the sample and no further discussion is relevant until the actual role that parents might play in the L2 learning motivation of this sample becomes clearer.

### The OUGHT SELF

The OUGHT SELF scale is a scale that did not initially reach an acceptable level of internal consistency, as had occurred in the pilot study. In order to examine the relationship between the composite scale items more closely, the next step was to conduct a statistical procedure within the techniques available under Factor Analysis known as Principal Components Analysis (PCA).

PCA is an exploratory technique commonly used to establish the suitability of a cluster of items to measure a particular construct, and offers various approaches depending on the purpose of the researcher. In the case of scales or items that present ambiguity in

what they are intended to measure, this technique can identify related concepts by establishing latent variables or distinct underlying constructs within a scale.

The PCA analysis of the original OUGHT SELF scale with Varimax rotation (see Table 7.13) was run given that the Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value for validity of the scale for analysis was .67, just above the required 0.60 recommended for this type of statistical analysis (Pallant, 2007), and the value for Bartlett's test of sphericity on the sample reached the required significance at .000. The subsequent PCA extraction values and Varimax rotation (see Table 7.13) determined that two main components were being interpreted within the scale and not one, as was intended. A second factor emerged in the analysis comprising two items referring to the influence that friends might have on one's intentions to engage in learning English.

**Table 13.13 Principal components matrix of the ought self multi-item scale**

Ought Self scale items	Component	
	1	2
I want to learn English because the people around me consider it important	,681	,223
If it weren't for my loved ones I wouldn't learn English	,505	,218
Actually, I feel obliged to learn English, it is not my desire	,776	-,275
My family think I should make more effort at English	,660	-,111
I only need English for the official B2 certification to teach	,740	-,183
My friends have a positive influence on my desire to learn English	,053	,865
All my friends talk about the importance of learning English	,143	,802

*2 components extracted.*

In essence this means that the scale applied to this sample measured a sense of obligation deriving from parents, educational demands and/or other external sources, and does not involve the influence of friends as this appears to be a separate type of influence. The required alpha of .70 for the OUGHT SELF scale was reached only on eliminating the two items related to the opinions of friends on L2 learning. It should also be pointed out that the

items referring to a sense of obligation as an external imposition were negatively expressed and those referring to friends were positively expressed. However, the negative items had been reversed coded during the data preparation process referred to earlier in this chapter and this was not an influence in the factor analysis.

### *Ethnocentricity*

The scale that has obtained a lower rating on internal consistency in comparison to their equivalents used in the four previous studies is that entitled ETHNOCENTRICITY. With regard to the election to use this scale in the MFQ, it was mentioned while discussing the methods in the study in Chapter Five that this variable, which targets conceptions of a sense of national identity, was included in an exploratory fashion given its potential to offer further insight into participants' Spanish identity in contrast with attitudes to L2 and other international communities. The alpha obtained in the pilot study ( $\alpha = ,63$ ) did encourage its inclusion in the main study, although, in the analysis for the main study, manipulation of the composite items through elimination did not improve the scale. Therefore, given the unacceptably low internal consistency among the items, it was finally decided to eliminate the scale from any further analysis.

Once the overall internal consistency of the MFQ subscales had been established as satisfactory, it was necessary to examine the reliability of the scales across the subgroups to determine if interpretations of items varied according to the academic status established for the division of the sample.

#### *7.7.4 Scale reliability across academic subgroups*

In accordance with the RQs established, the sample was divided into three subgroups according to their involvement or potential involvement with English: the English Major group, the Education group, and the Other Studies group. The results for the internal consistency of the MFQ scales in each subgroup can be seen in Table 7.14 below.

**Table 13.14 Cronbach alpha internal consistency of MFQ scales across academic subgroups**

<b>SCALE</b>	<b>WHOLE SAMPLE</b>	<b>ENGLISH MAJOR (N=172)</b>	<b>EDUCATION (N=174)</b>	<b>OTHER STUDIES (N=173)</b>
<b>INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT</b>	.79	.73	.79	.74
<b>SELF RELATED FACTORS</b>				
IDEAL SELF	.81	.52	.82	.79
OUGHT SELF	.70	.55	.69	.64
ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	.81	.78	.81	.82
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>				
INTEREST IN L2	.75	.64	.83	.80
L2 CULTURAL INTEREST	.70	.56	.70	.62
<b>GOAL RELATED FACTORS</b>				
INTEGRATIVENESS	.80	.66	.81	.82
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	.72	.59	.73	.76
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	.68	.60	.58	.75
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	.76	.79	.68	.79
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>				
SELF CONFIDENCE	<b>.74</b>	<b>.53</b>	<b>.73</b>	<b>.73</b>
ANXIETY	.86	.88	.85	.84
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	.63	.59	.74	.59

As we observed in the previous section, the overall alpha rating is acceptable for 13 of the multi-item scales, although differences are observable in the alpha rating within the different categories. The first fact of note is that is the English Major group present a lower level of consistency in the interpretation of the questionnaire items, which was quite unexpected. It is the Other Studies group, considered much less involved with English, at least in their university studies, who are interpreting the items more consistently. Of particular note is the much lower alpha rating of the IDEAL SELF scale among the English Major group at  $\alpha = .52$  in comparison to the  $\alpha = .82$  in the Education group and  $\alpha = .79$  in the Other Studies group. It had been anticipated that the English Major group would show more consistent understandings of the IDEAL SELF concept, whereas the opposite seems to be occurring. However, something similar did occur in Ryan's (2008) study and it could be the case the reasons for this are similar in the two cultures. Ryan conjectured that the English Major students are heavily involved in the many different aspects of the language and its culture in their everyday studies and could, as a result, show more awareness of the

complexities of learning the English language and coming into contact with speakers of the L2 and their different cultural backgrounds. This more intense engagement seems to imply that these participants have more complex and varied interpretations of the different variables being explored in the MFQ. In order to explore this lower consistency in more detail the distribution pattern of responses to the scales were contrasted across the groups through box plots. (See Appendix VIII)

The exploration of the sample's response pattern to the IDEAL SELF scale revealed that the lower alpha value could be due to the presence of outliers in the ratings with the English Major group. Outliers are considered ratings in a Likert scale that diverge greatly from the general pattern of responses and are calculated in terms of distance from the mean of the scale (Pallant, 2007). It was observed in the IDEAL SELF scale in the English Major Group that the mode, the number on the Likert scale rated most frequently was 5, the highest option on the rating scale, (*Mean* = 4.48, *Median* = 4.6). These figures are extremely high and leave the scale very negatively skewed. This means that the respondents who chose to rate all or some of the scale items at the lower end of the likert scale — e.g. between 0 and 3 — would be considered in statistical analysis as either outliers or extreme outliers, which are affecting the normal distribution of the scale. In contrast, the distribution of the ratings in the two remaining subgroups is relatively normal (Appendix VII). Closer inspection of the data revealed approximately 40 outliers within the rating of this scale in the English Major group (total *N*= 173). Although Pallant (2007) indicates that some researchers recommend removing outliers in the case that errors have been made in entering data or sampling, in this case, after careful rechecking for potential data entry mistakes, these extreme ratings were considered genuine reflections of the participants' true opinions, thus the decision was made to not interfere with the data by eliminating extreme cases. Tabachnick & Fidell (1996) also indicate outliers can indeed serve to provide insights into theoretical aspects of a study, and this is an aspect that would be particularly pertinent to this empirical study, which aims to gain insight into university students' psychological make-up regarding L2 attitudes, beliefs and choices they intend to make in efforts to learn the second language. Should there be certain ambiguity among the attitudinal variables within the sample, given the overall purpose of the study, it is important that this ambiguity be considered and explored in search of potential insights to be gained through the underlying pattern of responses.

As some of the participants in the pre MFQ interview procedure were students of English and Translation and Interpretation Studies at the University of Murcia, it was felt that some insight could be gained from going back to the preliminary qualitative interviews discussed in the methodology section in search of clues as to the unusual pattern of responses. It was found that, for instance, one participant in the interviews referred to the fact that the content of the English Studies Degree did not meet his expectations in terms of actually developing communicative competence in the language, and another also discussed the fact that the Degree does not focus on teaching English to the extent she had thought before enrolment, but was much more oriented towards a deeper knowledge of the culture and its literary works through the medium of English. There was a certain sense of disenchantment in these students, who had embarked on these university courses mistakenly believing they could acquire the language. We must also remember that L2 motivation has its ups and downs and perhaps these learners were at a motivational low for other reasons at the time of the survey. This 'frustration' could lead students in a similar position to rate certain aspects of L2 motivation quite negatively. Given the size of the English Major group ( $N=172$ ), the extreme outliers were not considered detrimental to the statistical analyses to be carried out, as SPSS offers the option of running non-parametric analyses with samples that have an abnormal distribution in responses.

## **7.8 Data analyses procedures for analysis of RQs**

Chapter Eight reports the results obtained in statistical analysis of the participants' responses to the MFQ scales. The results are described in terms of the following data analysis procedures (DAPs), which have been established in accordance with the RQs posed in Chapter Six.

Prior to conducting the analyses required in order to make decisions on the most suitable techniques to apply for analysis, the first step was to assess whether the scales were valid for a parametric analysis. Parametric techniques are only effective if certain assumptions about the data are met (Pallant, 2007), e.g. the data is normally distributed. In the case that results are skewed at one or other end of the scale, analysis should be carried out by non-parametric means, which are tolerant of skewed data (Cantos, 2013). The distribution of the MFQ scales was analysed through the SPSS function of normality tests.

The distribution of each scale through normality plots and Kolmogorov-Smirnov significance values were checked for all the scales along with the Levene's test of homogeneity of variance (Appendix IX). The MFQ data was confirmed to show abnormal distribution in the English Major Group in the scales of the IDEAL SELF, as we have seen, and INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT. Given this abnormal distribution, the research objectives in the following Chapter that deal with analysis of the above mentioned scales shall be dealt with using the various non-parametric techniques that SPSS offers to examine the data more closely. As the attitudinal, goal-related and affective L2 motivational scales do show normal distribution across the subgroups and have therefore proven valid for parametric techniques, the corresponding technique applied to comply with each DAP shall be outlined in its respective section in Chapter Eight.

Table 7.15 outlines the main DAPs to be followed in order to respond to the RQs established in Chapter Six.

**Table 13.15 Data analysis procedures for main study**

RESEARCH QUESTIONS (RQs)	DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES (DAPs)
<p><b>RQ1:</b> From the perspective of the L2 MSS, do students who have chosen English as a major line of study at university show a strong <i>Ideal Self</i> profile in their L2 motivation in contrast to those who chose studies largely unrelated to English?</p> <p><b>RQ2:</b> From the perspective of the L2 MSS, do students in studies related to education at university show a strong <i>ought self</i> profile in their L2 motivation in contrast to those involved in studies unrelated to education?</p> <p><b>RQ3:</b> As measured by the L2 MSS, what role do previous L2 learning experiences play in the current L2 motivational make-up</p>	<p><b>DAP1:</b> Means and correlations are calculated of the three core concepts IDEAL, OUGHT SELF scales with the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT. Means are contrasted across the three subgroups by means of non-parametric Kruskal Wallis and Mann-Whitney U test Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)</p>



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of the sample?

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**RQ4:** As measured by the L2 MSS, what role do attitudinal, goal related and affective motivational variables play in the motivational make-up of the sample?

**DAP2:** The means of ATTITUDINAL, GOAL-RELATED and AFFECTIVE variables are calculated and contrasted across subgroups. The correlations of the motivational variables with the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT are calculated and contrasted across the three subgroups by means of ANOVA tests. The ATTITUDINAL, GOAL-RELATED and AFFECTIVE variables are then correlated with the three core concepts of the L2MSS to ascertain the strength of their relationship with each concept.

**RQ5:** As measured by the L2 MSS, does the motivational make-up of the sample differ according to variables of a) achievement in the language, and b) gender?

**DAP3:** Participants are grouped according to self report of proficiency in English and means and correlations of L2 MSS and motivational variables are calculated for this distribution. The data is contrasted by means of T test and ANOVA contrast procedures.

**DAP4:** Participants are grouped according to gender and means and correlations are calculated for this distribution. Data is the contrasted across the new grouping by means of T test and ANOVA contrast procedures

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## 7.9 Chapter summary

In this chapter, we have outlined the personal and educational profiles for the participants of the quantitative and qualitative stages of the empirical study. The design, translation and piloting of the main quantitative instrument – a Motivational Factors Questionnaire (MFQ) has been detailed. The results of the design and analysis of the final validated version of the Spanish MFQ can be summarised as follows:

The MFQ scales were checked for internal consistency of the composite items through the statistical technique of Cronbach's alpha reliability measure and contrasting the

results with the alpha's obtained in previous studies on the L2 MSS. The scale of Ethnocentricity was eliminated from further analysis due to the low alpha obtained. This, coupled with the fact that elimination of composite items did not improve the internal consistency value confirmed the decision to discontinue with the scale as a motivational variable. The OUGHT SELF scale, as had occurred in the pilot study, did not initially reach the required alpha value, although, PC analysis encouraged the elimination of two items regarding friends which improved the scale's reliability to an acceptable value. Thirteen scales in total were considered apt for use as composite variables of the MFQ and valid for subsequent analyses thanks to robust values of internal consistency, which compared favourably with those used in previous studies.

The MFQ scales were also examined for alpha values across the three subgroups established in the sample population to answer the research questions. In the Education group, the alpha obtained lowered in contrast to that of the overall sample in the scale of INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION, and in the Other Studies group, PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT and L2 CULTURAL INTEREST were slightly lower in internal consistency than in the remaining groups. The extremely low values obtained in the English Major group led to the conjecture that a higher involvement with the English language and culture in their degree studies was leading this group to more varied and complex interpretations of the MFQ scale items. This in turn was causing abnormal distributions in the scales related to the L2 MSS construct and, thus, outliers were affecting the internal consistency value.

# Chapter 14 . QUANTITATIVE STUDY RESULTS

## 8.0 Introduction

This chapter details the results of the study in terms of the four Data Analysis Procedures (DAPs) outlined in the previous chapter, which in turn have been designed to provide answers to the research questions (RQs) that have guided the study. These have been included in each section so as to guide remind the reader of the question posed. The chapter is structured according to each DAP outlined in Chapter Seven.

## 8.1 The L2 motivational self system

### 8.1.1 The IDEAL SELF

DAP1 involves an examination of relationship between the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT and the IDEAL SELF in the subgroups of the sample. The initial hypothesis was that an IDEAL SELF profile would be stronger in the groups that had chosen English as a line of study in their university degree.

For this objective, Kruskal-Wallis, the non-parametric counterpart of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) between groups, analysis was applied. The mean, median and significance data relating to INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT is presented in Table 8.1 and the data on the IDEAL SELF scale in 8.2.

RQ1. DO STUDENTS WHO HAVE CHOSEN ENGLISH AS A MAJOR LINE OF STUDY AT UNIVERSITY SHOW A STRONG IDEAL SELF PROFILE IN THEIR L2 MOTIVATION IN CONTRAST TO THOSE WHO CHOSE STUDIES LARGELY UNRELATED TO ENGLISH?

**Table 14.1 Kruskal-Wallis contrast of Intended Learning Effort across academic subgroups**

	INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT					
	Scale mean (SD)	Median	Ranked mean	Chi-Square	df	sig
ENGLISH MAJOR	<b>4.37 (.575)</b>	4.5	351.67			
EDUCATION	<b>3.69 (.990)</b>	4.0	235.73	105.620	2	<b>.000</b>
OTHER STUDIES	<b>3.50 (.839)</b>	3.6	191.93			
WHOLE SAMPLE	<b>3.85 (.898)</b>					

**Table 14.2** Kruskal-Wallis contrast of the Ideal Self across academic subgroups

	IDEAL SELF					
	Scale mean (SD)	Median	Ranked mean	Chi-Square	df	sig
ENGLISH MAJOR	<b>4.49 (.576)</b>	4.6	364.15			
EDUCATION	<b>3.28 (1.24)</b>	3.6	198.13	128.446	2	<b>.000</b>
OTHER STUDIES	<b>3.47 (1.11)</b>	3.6	216.76			
WHOLE SAMPLE	<b>3.75 (1.14)</b>					

The first observation of note is that the English Major group, as anticipated, obtained a significantly higher mean and median in both INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT and the IDEAL SELF. This supports our initial prediction that those who have chosen English as a major part of their future careers would have a stronger IDEAL SELF profile regarding the efforts they intend to make in the future in continuing their English learning, as well as stronger visions of using the language in their future professional and social life. The data also shows that both the Education and the Other Studies group scored on the positive side of the six point Likert scale at above 3.0 meaning that intentions to learn English and visions of using the L2 in the future are relevant factors among these participants. The Education group scored higher in the INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT scale than in the IDEAL SELF perhaps reflecting recognition of the need for English in their future professions as well as less detailed visions of themselves as future L2 users. A Mann-Whitney U test was carried out to test whether the differences between the Education and Other Studies subgroups are significant. Table 8.3 presents the results.

**Table 14.3 Mann-Whitney contrast of Intended Learning Effort and Ideal Self between Education and Other Studies subgroups**

	INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT			IDEAL SELF		
	Ranked mean	z-approx	Sig.	Ranked mean	z-approx	Sig.
EDUCATION	186.73	-2.554	<b>.011*</b>	166.90	-1.136	<b>.256</b>
OTHER STUDIES	159.35			179.07		

The data obtained from the Mann-Whitney analysis shows that there was a significant difference in the means for INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT with the Education group rating their intentions to learn higher than the Other Studies group. However, for the IDEAL SELF, these two groups did not present notable differences. The means obtained in the responses, considering the six point Likert rating of *completely disagree* as 0 to *absolutely agree* at 5, were on the higher more positive end of the scale (between 3.5 and 3.69) indicating that intentions to learn or improve English are relatively high on the agenda for both these cohorts, although the data suggests that in the Education group there is a minimally stronger level of intention to engage or persist in learning the language. This would perhaps suggest that the L2 requirements for those intending to teach are being recognised to some extent, and are related to their future intentions. However, although the difference obtained has acquired statistical significance, the actual difference in the means is rather small and should not be taken as a strong distinguishing feature of this subgroup.

The means for the IDEAL SELF profile were also between 3.2 (Education) and 3.5 (Other Studies), indicating that visions of using the L2 in future professional and social contexts are also rated somewhat positively in both groups. Despite the fact that Education students who obtain positions in the next few years will most likely be required to use English in both pre-primary and primary bilingual education, as opposed to a more randomised chance of a requisite to use English professionally for the Other Studies group, this difference was not apparent through the data obtained on the IDEAL SELF Scale, with the cohorts presenting non-significant differences in this vein.

To follow, the second cornerstone of the tripartite L2 MSS system, the OUGHT SELF, is analysed. This scale, targeting externally sourced impositions to learn the language, was

hypothesised in this study to be a stronger motivational variable in the Education group. DAP 2 was established to ascertain the empirical evidence to test the hypothesis.

### 8.1.2 The OUGHT SELF scale

Non-parametric procedures were implemented to contrast the means obtained in the OUGHT SELF scale across the sample (DAP1). Table 8.4 presents the results.

**Table 14.4 Kruskal-Wallis contrast of the Ought Self across the academic subgroups**

	OUGHT SELF			Chi-Square	df	sig
	Mean (SD)	Median	Ranked mean			
ENGLISH MAJOR	.804 (.707)	0.7	<b>167.81</b>			
EDUCATION	1.79 (1.10)	1.8	<b>309.27</b>	99.424	2	<b>.000</b>
OTHER STUDIES	1.70 (.948)	1.7	<b>303.74</b>			
WHOLE SAMPLE	1.43 (1.03)					

RQ2. DO STUDENTS IN STUDIES RELATED TO EDUCATION AT UNIVERSITY SHOW A STRONG OUGHT SELF PROFILE IN THEIR L2 MOTIVATION IN CONTRAST TO THOSE INVOLVED IN STUDIES UNRELATED TO EDUCATION?

Notably, the data on the participants' response to the OUGHT SELF dimension of Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System did not produce the expected results. Based on the theoretical assumption that the obligations that transcend through the opinions and beliefs of significant others and societal obligations (in this Spanish study posed as educational requisites), it was anticipated that the Education group would show a significantly higher level of recognition of the obligations associated with learning English, thanks to the requisites they face educationally and professionally. It was not expected that the mean would be on the negative side of the scale (between 1 — *somewhat disagree* and 2 — *disagree*).

Although the mean for Education was slightly greater than in the Other Studies group, the difference between the Education and Other Studies was not significant ( $z = .656$

and  $p = .512$ ), meaning that the significant difference we see in Table 8.4 distinguishes the English Studies group as the only cohort with a significantly distinct attitude to a sense of external obligation to learn English. This group rated external influences extremely low on the 0 to 5 Likert scale (.804) indicating a strong denial of feeling encouraged or pressurised by significant others to learn the language.

At a later stage of the results detailed in this chapter, we shall be revisiting the role of this variable with regards to its relationship with the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT in order to analyse its relationship with the participants' future language learning plans.

### 8.1.3 The L2 Learning Experience

The scale of ATTITUDES TO LEARNING is the measure of the third pillar of the L2 MSS theory, The *Learning Experience*. As discussed in Chapter Four, the experiential dimension of Dörnyei's theory had been somewhat neglected empirically and theoretically in favour of the *ideal - ought self* paradigm. Therefore, it was felt that this dimension should be given a strong role in the analysis of the construct in this study. Table 8.6 presents the results of the Kruskal-Wallis contrast of the means obtained across the sample for attitudes to learning.

RQ3. WHAT ROLE HAVE PREVIOUS LEARNING EXPERIENCES PLAYED IN THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL MAKE UP OF THE SAMPLE?

**Table 14.5 Kruskal-Wallis contrast of Attitude to Learning across academic subgroups**

	ATTITUDE TO LEARNING			Chi-Square	df	sig
	Scale mean (SD)	median	Ranked mean			
ENGLISH MAJOR	3.20 (.997)	3.5	<b>297,40</b>			
OTHER STUDIES	2.86 (1.07)	2.6	<b>263.13</b>	28.701	2	.000
EDUCATION	2.57 (1.06)	2.8	<b>212.23</b>			
WHOLE SAMPLE	2.93 (1.09)					

This preliminary analysis shows us that regarding general ATTITUDES TO LEARNING, the overall rating for the sample did not quite reach the positive side of the scale with a mean of 2.9 (just below the *somewhat agree* point). The English Major group presented the highest rating of the three (3.20), with the Education group rating their learning experiences most negatively of the three subgroups (2.6). Although it is not surprising that those who chose to continue to study English at university place a more positive value on their language learning experiences at secondary school, it was not expected that Education would be the group with a significantly lower rating of the same or similar experiences. The difference between the groups is significant ( $p < .000$ ), indicating that there may be a relationship between beliefs about learning English and the line of study chosen at university. A more in-depth analysis of the scale was thus required to determine the nature of the differentiation.

The learning experience, as conceptualised by Dörnyei (2005), refers very broadly to engagement in informal and formal L2 learning without specifying temporal dimensions and, accordingly, the composite items making up the scales used in previous studies made reference to enjoyment of learning at different levels of education concomitant to the studies. However, language learning experiences have different temporal dimensions, as well as diverse contexts, e.g. formal versus informal learning, or supported tuition versus autonomous learning. Therefore the mean obtained is difficult to interpret as regards which experience and/or perspectives the participants in this study are referring to. In order to distinguish attitudes to past learning from current experiences and so examine the temporal aspect of learning experiences more in depth, it was decided at this point, to separate items making up the single ATTITUDE TO LEARNING scale in order to distinguish the ratings for past and present temporal dimensions. The scale containing items only referring to past experience at secondary school was labelled ATTITUDES TO PAST L2 LEARNING ( $\alpha = .78$ ), and the scale containing three items that only made reference to learning experiences in present tense CURRENT ATTITUDES TO L2 LEARNING<sup>12</sup> scale ( $\alpha = .73$ ). Table 8.6 presents the contrast of mean scores obtained in this new variable across the three subgroups.

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<sup>12</sup> The scale has not been labelled ATTITUDES TO CURRENT LEARNING as we cannot ascertain from the data whether students are actually involved in learning English at the time of the study. Therefore we can only discern that the *attitudes* are concomitant to the study, not the learning experience itself.



**Table 14.6 Kruskal-Wallis contrast of means of Current Attitude to Learning across academic subgroups**

	Scale mean (SD)	CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING			DF	sig
		Median	Ranked mean	Chi square		
ENGLISH MAJOR	4.32 (.521)	4.4	362.38			
EDUCATION	3.36 (.997)	3.5	205.66	139.496	2	.000
OTHER STUDIES	3.33 (.906)	3.3	194.17			
WHOLE SAMPLE	3.67 (.950)					

As we can see from the data in Table 8.6, the means of CURRENT ATTITUDES TO LEARNING were much higher than the overall attitudes to L2 learning observed in Table 8.5. As was the case in the data on overall attitudes to learning English, the English Major group presented the most positive rating in the current attitudes scale, although, in this case with the much more positive mean. The Education group and the Other studies group were more balanced in terms of their attitudes to learning English at the time of the study and no significant difference can be observed between the two cohorts ( $z = -.600$ ,  $p = .548$ ). To facilitate a view of the differences in the temporal dimensions of attitudes, Table 8.7 shows the means for the previous overall attitudes scale and those of its new counterpart along with the significance rating obtained in the non-parametric contrast of means (Friedman Test).

**Table 14.7 Scale means and Friedman Test contrast for Attitudes to past L2 Learning and Current Attitudes to L2 Learning**

	ATTITUDES TO PAST L2 LEARNING	CURRENT L2 LEARNING ATTITUDES	CHI-SQUARE	SIG
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)		
ENGLISH MAJOR	2.67 (1.35)	4,32 (.521)	105.418	.000
EDUCATION	1.99 (1.36)	3,36 (.997)	74.907	.000
OTHER STUDIES	2.43 (1.31)	3,33 (.906)	56.529	.000
WHOLE SAMPLE	2.37 (1.37)	3.67 (1.07)	233.061	.000

A significant difference was found between the ratings of ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING in contrast to CURRENT ATTITUDES TO LEARNING across all three groups in this study leading us to the

conclusion that all three groups of participants are reflecting a strong degree of negativity towards their English education at secondary level and that, whatever the type of engagement in learning concurrent to the study, if any, attitudes are much more positive.

In order to test the relationship between attitudes to past learning and current learning attitudes, and given normal distribution in the sample, the parametric Pearson's correlation test was conducted. Table 8.8 presents the results:

Table 14.8 Pearson's correlation coefficient attitudes to past learning with current attitudes to learning

ACADEMIC SUBGROUPS	Correlation
ENGLISH MAJOR	.338**
EDUCATION	.405**
OTHER STUDIES	.621**
WHOLE SAMPLE	.412**

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

For the interpretation of correlation coefficients, Cohen's (1988) guidelines (cited in Pallant, 2007) are followed:  $< .29$  = small;  $< .49$  = medium;  $< .50$  = large. The coefficient for the whole sample (Table 8.8) is of moderate strength for the past and present ATTITUDES TO LEARNING indicating that there is a relationship between the two. Notably, there were significant differences between the academic subgroups in the relationship perceived between past experiences and current attitudes to learning. The English Major group showed a much weaker connection between their somewhat nondescript past experiences and positive current learning attitudes. This may indicate that current learning within the English Major studies is seen very differently from learning at secondary education. The Education group showed a stronger connection between past and current learning and it is the Other Studies cohort which manifested an extremely strong relationship between both dimensions of attitudes to learning, meaning that for this group past experiences still appear to be very relevant to their current attitudes.

The next step is the analysis of the relationship between the three core concepts of the L2 MSS analysed in contrast with motivated behaviour, measured in the MFQ through the scale of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT. Table 8.9 presents the data.

**Table 14.9 Spearman's Rho correlations of L2 MSS core concepts with Intended Learning Effort**

L2 MSS SCALES	Correlations with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT			
	Whole sample	English Major	Education	Other Studies
IDEAL SELF	.71**	.47**	.77**	.67**
OUGHT SELF	-.26**	-.12*	-.37**	-.29**
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING <sup>13</sup>	.62**	.50**	.69**	.67**
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	.29**	.26**	.16**	.42**

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

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

From the data shown in Table 8.9, we can confirm that the strongest relationship was patent across the three groups between the IDEAL SELF and INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT, confirming that the ideal L2 self is a strong motivating factor for these participants. The coefficients in all three cohorts between CURRENT ATTITUDES TO LEARNING and INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT are again strong but with slightly more disparity among the subgroups. Regarding the relationship between the OUGHT SELF and intended future efforts, there was an unexpected inverse relationship. This means that, although the correlation coefficients do not inform as to a causal relationship between variables, in this case it would appear that the stronger the sense of imposed obligation, as measured by the OUGHT SELF scale in this study, the lower the intentions to make concerted efforts in the future to learn English. This inverse connection has not been made in previous studies and will require reflection in order to understand its implications.

In contrasting the results across the subgroups, we find that the most notable differences occurred in the Education group with higher correlations in the IDEAL SELF and CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING along with a higher negative value attributed to the relationship

<sup>13</sup> For all subsequent analyses, the newly devised scale of *current attitudes to learning* and *attitudes to past learning* replace the previous single scale entitled *attitudes to learning*.

of the OUGHT SELF with intentions to learn. This higher value of the inverse relationship of the OUGHT SELF may lend some strength to the hypothesis (RQ2) that the OUGHT SELF would be a stronger force in the Education group although, it was not expected that the relationship would be negative.

The dual dimensions of the L2 learning experiences showed very different strengths in the relationship with future efforts, with ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING rated from barely moderate to weak. The strongest linear relationship between the two variables was noted in the Other Studies group, which may be due to a lack of engagement with English as a foreign language concomitant to the study to help mitigate these beliefs about learning.

#### **8.1.4 Summary of results on the L2 MSS variables**

Through an analysis of the means obtained across the subgroups of the three cornerstones of the L2 MSS, we have been able to establish that the IDEAL SELF — visions of using English as a L2 in future professional and social contexts — appears to be a very relevant and significant concept across the sample. The English Major group, as hypothesized, showed a more salient IDEAL SELF than the other two groups studied, suggesting that their IDEAL SELF visions are stronger and more detailed than those of the other two subgroups. The OUGHT SELF, on the other hand, did not produce the expected results either in the Education group as hypothesised, or in the sample as a whole. It was not expected that participants would rate external obligations so low on the scale, indicating that externally sourced impositions are not being recognised by any of the three groups.

For RQ3, the learning experience dimension of the L2 MSS construct has been analysed from the view of past learning experience in contrast with current attitudes to learning and a significant difference was found in the appreciation of each dimension of learning experience in the sample with current attitudes significantly higher in means than attitudes to past learning experiences for all three academic sub-groups. The disparity in the correlation coefficients observed between the two learning dimensions across the subgroups also suggests that the academic grouping is somehow related to the way learners perceive past learning experiences. This in-depth analysis of the LEARNING EXPERIENCE in this

study and cultural context have left certain questions to be explored in subsequent discussion as is the case with the OUGHT SELF dimension of the construct.

We have so far examined the three core pillars of the L2 MSS across the sample and established the influence of these on intentions to learn in the future. Dörnyei describes the selves and the learning dimension as the three principal attractor basins forming a broad framework which can encompass the many individual difference L2 motivational variables established in the literature. In this study it still remains to be determined how the various socio-psychological, attitudinal, cognitive and emotional variables fit into the L2 self system of the informants of the study, and this is the objective of the following sections.

## 8.2 The roles of attitudinal, goal-orientation, and affective L2 motivational variables in the sample

### 8.2.1 Whole sample analysis

DAP2 required an analysis of the means obtained in the attitudinal, goal related and affective variables included in the MFQ as well as an examination of the correlations between these variables and the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT. The statistical analyses of the L2 motivational variables reported in this section employed parametric techniques given that the scales under these classifications offered a more normal distribution across the samples than the self related variables we discussed in the previous section. The means of the scales are first calculated for the whole sample and then compared across the subgroups of the sample through the parametric techniques of one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and, as significant differences were found between groups, Turkey's *post hoc* test were run to detect which groups differed. The results for the whole sample are presented in Table 8.10.

RQ4: AS MEASURED BY THE L2 MSS, WHAT ROLE DO ATTITUDINAL, GOAL RELATED AND AFFECTIVE MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES PLAY IN THE MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP OF THE SAMPLE?

**Table 14.10 Means and standard deviations of MFQ attitudinal, goal-orientation, and affective factors for the whole sample**

<b>MFQ SCALES</b>	<b>Whole Sample (N = 519)</b>	
	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT</b>	3.85	.898
<b>L2 MSS SCALES</b>		
IDEAL SELF	3.75	1.14
OUGHT SELF	1.43	1.03
CURRENT ATTITUDES TO LEARNING	3.67	1.07
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>		
<b>ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING</b>	2.37	1.37
CULTURAL INTEREST	3.33	1.26
INTEREST IN THE L2	3.81	.958
<b>GOAL-ORIENTATION FACTORS</b>		
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	3.84	.803
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	3.71	1.01
INTEGRATIVENESS	3.0	.928
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	3.74	.779
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>		
SELF CONFIDENCE	3.48	1.02
ANXIETY	2.78	1.32
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	3.10	1.34

Taking an overall view of the data on the various motivational variables before contrasting means across the subgroups, we can see that, for the whole sample, the attitudinal scale of INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE was the second most highly rated concept, with CULTURAL INTEREST or engagement with media products from the L2 culture valued just on the positive side of the Likert rating, and failing to equate with the more positive values assigned to many other variables. This is an indication that, although there may be an attraction for English as a language, engagement with its cultural products is not generally high. It is the orientation variable of INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION that obtained the highest mean value indicating that the population sampled are recognising the positive outcomes of

learning English as slightly more valuable than the negative avoidance dimension of INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION. INTERNATIONAL POSTURE, a more novel dimension within the more traditional goal-related factors was also recognised overall as a positive motivational factor, whereas, for the sample as a whole, INTEGRATIVENESS had one of the lowest means and just reached the threshold of a positive value on the six point Likert rating at 3.0. The influence of parents in the language learning sphere was also rated somewhat positively, although the third lowest rating of all the L2 motivational variables.

In the variables associated with the affective dimension of L2 learning, SELF CONFIDENCE was rated relatively positively, which was not the case with ANXIETY in using the language, the only variable of the set valued on the negative side of the scale, but also the one with the greater variation in responses as indicated by the higher standard deviation. This affective variable has been the object of much research in classroom learning in Spain, as L2 learning anxiety is generally considered high in situated classroom learning, as well as detrimental to progress in L2 achievement. Therefore, it was expected that the apprehension associated with using the foreign language would achieve a higher rating in the university population studied, which has not been the case.

### 8.2.2 Contrast of attitudinal, goal-orientation, and affective L2 motivational variables across subgroups

The data was contrasted across the academic subgroups to establish whether significant differences existed within the sample as to the role of the different variables. Table 8.11 presents the means of the MFQ motivational variables in each subgroup.

**Table 14.11 ANOVA contrast for attitudinal, goal-orientation and affective variables across academic subgroups**

		ENGLISH MAJOR		EDUCATION		OTHER STUDIES		F	Effect size	<sup>1</sup> Sequence size
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
<b>INTENDED EFFORT</b>	<b>LEARNING</b>	4.37	.575	3.69	.990	3.50	.839	-	-	-
CULTURAL INTEREST		4.14	.83	2.92	1.30	2.91	1.20	65.296*	.20	1/2,3
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE		4.34	.569	3.60	1.03	3.50	.979	45.385*	.15	1/2,3

<b>GOAL-ORIENTATION FACTORS</b>									
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	4.09	.676	3.66	.806	3.78	.862	13.374*	.05	1/3,2
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	4.08	.859	3.54	.996	3.51	1.06	18.646*	.06	1/2,3
INTEGRATIVENESS	3.49	.638	2.80	.958	2.89	.987	31.492*	.11	1/3,2
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	3.72	.412	3.25	.612	3.34	.586	34.390*	.14	1/3,2
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>									
SELF CONFIDENCE	4.08	.644	3.20	1.02	3.15	1.07	53.517*	.17	1/2,3
ANXIETY	3.04	1.37	2.56	1.26	2.73	1.28	5.998*	.02	1/3,2
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	3.17	1.34	2.97	1.42	3.17	1.26	1.216	.00	1,3,2

\*the mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

<sup>1</sup> *Post hoc* SNK comparison. Numbers refer to the academic groups: 1= English Major, 2=Education, 3= Other Studies and are presented with the highest mean value coming first.

From the data in Table 8.11, we can see marked differences in the means for the English Major group in all of the scales except in the scale of PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT. The English Major group rated the variables of INTEREST IN THE LANGUAGE and CULTURAL INTEREST highest in their evaluation of the motivational variables and there was a significant difference and effect size between this cohort's appraisals of these factors in contrast to the other two academic subgroups. The greatest difference could be observed in the contrast of CULTURAL INTEREST between the English Major group and the subgroups in studies unrelated to English. It would appear that watching TV series and/or reading in the L2 are not a salient activities in those less engaged with English at university. Overall, in the two non English major groups the means are barely on the positive side of the Likert scale, which would seem to reflect a non-committal type of attitude in general in the different variables across the two groups. There were practically no differences of note between the Education group and the Other Studies group indicating that the educational requirements for those intending to enter the teaching profession are not affecting motivation as measured by the MFQ in a significant fashion.

Of particular note, with a size effect of .02 (2%), is the lack of variation across the three groups in the scale of ANXIETY as it had been anticipated that this variable would show lower scores in the English Major group given their higher involvement with English and



higher overall L2 proficiency. It is unexpected that these students actually scored higher on the ANXIETY scale given a) a higher overall level of competency, and b) an everyday involvement in working with the language.

The scale of SELF CONFIDENCE referring to participants' beliefs in their ability to learn the language had a higher rating in general than that of ANXIETY, and the highest mean was to be found in the English Major group as would be expected from students who consistently use the language in their third level studies. Nonetheless, the means were relatively high (3.2 and 3.15) in the Education and Other Studies groups indicating that there is an overall positive tendency in perceptions of ability to learn.

The scales of INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION and PREVENTION were rated highly across the three groups although, yet again, the values are somewhat higher in the English Major group, although the effect size was small (5% and 6% respectively). This dichotomy established by Taguchi et al. (2009) for their studies in Japan (b), China and Iran, while also more significant in the English Major group, did not show significant differences between promotion and prevention dimensions. This would suggest that the approach and avoidance dimensions of instrumentality work in a balanced fashion. Even the group who have chosen to pursue studies in English are showing a higher recognition of the need to show skills in the language in order to avoid certain pitfalls such as not getting a desired job or failing to attain other desired ends.

The final figure of note was the higher rating across all the groups, including the English Major group, on the scale of INTERNATIONAL POSTURE in contrast to INTEGRATIVENESS, with a difference in the means assigned to these variables of between .60, .74 and .70 points respectively across the groups on the Likert scale. It has already been argued in the theoretical background of this study that the concept of INTEGRATIVENESS as Gardner conceived it, does not appear to be a comprehensive predictor of motivated behaviour in certain contexts, hence the attempt of the L2 MSS to offer a broader and deeper self based psychological construct from which to measure learners' desires and efforts to acquire the language. The data showing the IDEAL SELF as the most highly rated variable in the participants' perceptions, as we saw in the first section of this chapter, confirms Dörnyei's L2 self guide theory. However, what could perhaps be considered complementary to the

reassessment of the strength of INTEGRATIVENESS as a motivational variable is the higher ratings given to the INTERNATIONAL POSTURE scale, which in the tradition of L2 motivational studies, has not been given a place in the motivation debate until very recently. Let us remember that the INTERNATIONAL POSTURE scale contains items regarding the use of English with non native speakers and eliminates any reference to a desire to become part of a specific L2 community. We have yet to establish the strength of this rating with regards to future intentions to learn, so shall reserve debate until this data is revealed.

### 8.2.3 Section summary

DAP2 required a contrast of the means obtained in the attitudinal, goal related and affective variables included in the MFQ. The English Major group rated all the different variables higher than the two other participant groups and no significant differences were found between the Education and Other Studies groups who rated most of the variables somewhat positively. The English Major group situated the CULTURAL INTEREST scale highest in their ratings, followed by INTEREST IN THE LANGUAGE. The INSTRUMENTALITY dichotomy for this group was strongly valued as was the variable of SELF CONFIDENCE. INTERNATIONAL POSTURE was relatively high and the two scales rated lowest for this group were those of ANXIETY and PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT. In the remaining two subgroups, the differences in means were not significant and means were higher on the scales of INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION and PREVENTION as well as in INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. SELF CONFIDENCE and INTERNATIONAL POSTURE followed as relatively positive considerations in their motivational make-up. However, the variables rated lowest by the non-English Major cohorts are those of ANXIETY and PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT, as was the case with the English Major group. For these less L2 focused groups, CULTURAL INTEREST also featured among the lowest rated scales.

Having discussed the means obtained in the variables across the subgroups, the next step concerned a deeper exploration of the strength of the relationship between these variables and the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT.

### 8.3 Correlations of L2 motivational variables with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT and the L2 MSS

Table 8.12 presents the correlations of all the MFQ variables with the criterion measure. The values expressed for the self related concepts are Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient and those expressed for the remaining L2 motivation variables are Pearson's, as the latter scales show a normal distribution across the sample.

**Table 14.12 Correlations of L2 motivational variables with Intended Learning Effort across subgroups**

Correlations with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT				
	WHOLE SAMPLE	ENGLISH MAJOR	EDUCATION	OTHER STUDIES
<b>SELF RELATED FACTORS (SPEARMAN'S)</b>				
IDEAL SELF	.71**	.47**	.77**	.67**
OUGHT SELF	-.26**	-.12*	-.37**	-.29**
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING <sup>14</sup>	.62**	.50**	.69**	.67**
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS (PEARSON'S)</b>				
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	.36**	.32**	.27**	.49**
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	.71**	.53**	.71**	.67**
CULTURAL INTEREST	.55**	.32	.47	.46
<b>GOAL-ORIENTATION FACTORS (PEARSON'S)</b>				
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	.57**	.43**	.53**	.66**
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	.54**	.40**	.50**	.55**
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	.48**	.39**	.60**	.52**
INTEGRATIVENESS	.63**	.51	.64	.62
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS (PEARSON'S)</b>				
SELF CONFIDENCE	.59**	.38**	.57**	.51**
ANXIETY	.14**	-.18*	-.04	-.11
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	.21**	.18*	.32**	.14

\* P < 0.05; \*\* P < 0.01

<sup>14</sup> For all subsequent analyses, the separate scales of CURRENT ATTITUDES TO LEARNING and ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING replace the previous single scale entitled ATTITUDES TO LEARNING.

The first most obvious fact of note in Table 8.12 is that the correlation values were lower in almost all the scales in the English Major group, with the Education and Other Studies groups differing somewhat in the order of strength of the different relationships in the variables affecting their intentions to learn. We recall here that a correlation coefficient only tells us if there is a parallel relationship between the variables and that we are not able to confirm a causal effect through this data. With regard to the lower values obtained in the English Major Group, it may be the case, as occurred with the lower Cronbach rating of the scales for this group, that a deeper involvement with English as a major part of their studies causes a wider disparity in interpretations of the items in each scale. The most notable differences occurred in the Education group with higher correlations in the IDEAL SELF and INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, and also a higher value attributed to both PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT and the inverse relationship of the OUGHT SELF. This higher value of the inverse strength of the OUGHT SELF may lend some strength to the hypothesis that the OUGHT SELF would be a stronger force in the Education group although, as mentioned in the previous section, it was not expected that the relationship would be negative.

The data situating INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE as having a very close relationship with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT across all subgroups would seem to need further attention as is the case with the similarly close relationship with INTEGRATIVENESS. The scale in Spain entitled INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE actually measures a more precise view of liking features of the language itself along with a sense of curiosity to know more about the structure of the language in contrast to merging this attraction with aspects of formal or informal learning enjoyment. Thus it appears that what is correlating strongly with intentions to learn is actually an enjoyment of the language itself and a generally positive ATTITUDE TO LEARNING but without taking into account the influence of past experiences in formal learning.

So as to visualize more clearly the differences in the strength of correlations across the subgroups, Table 8.13 presents the variables in order of strength with the criterion measure in each subgroup.

**Table 14.13** Order of variables as correlated with INTENDED EFFORT in each subgroup

ENGLISH MAJOR	EDUCATION	OTHER STUDIES
IDEAL SELF	IDEAL SELF	IDEAL SELF
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING
ATTITUDE TO L2 COMMUNITY	CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING/CULTURE	ATTITUDE TO L2 COMMUNITY	INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	ATTITUDE TO L2 COMMUNITY
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	SELF CONFIDENCE	INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	INTERNATIONAL POSTURE
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	SELF CONFIDENCE
SELF CONFIDENCE	OUGHT SELF	ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING
ANXIETY	PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	OUGHT SELF
OUGHT SELF	ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	ANXIETY	ANXIETY

The pattern of correlations across the subgroups was rather similar across all three groups of participants situating the attitudinal variables of INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING, and INTEGRATIVENESS or a positive attitude to the L2 community immediately after the IDEAL SELF.

It is the Other Studies group who placed the approach dimension of INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION higher on the list of correlations followed immediately by the avoidance side of the dichotomy — INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION. After these we find INTERNATIONAL POSTURE and SELF CONFIDENCE. The Education group showed a slightly stronger correlation with SELF CONFIDENCE and INTERNATIONAL POSTURE than the other two subgroups, as they situate these even higher than both the approach and avoidance dimensions of INSTRUMENTALITY. The fact that the Other Studies group to show a stronger connection between their intentions to learn and the extrinsic instrumental motives was again unexpected given that it is the

Education group who will be eventually be required to provide L2 certification in order to teach should they finally choose to embark on this professional career. However, the Other Studies group may of course face opportunities and demands to show competence in English on the labour market and it seems, from the strong correlation with the instrumentality dichotomy, that this group is more aware of that fact in contrast to the Education group.

SELF CONFIDENCE was strongly correlated with future L2 learning plans across the three groups with Education rating this individual attribute as more intensely related to intentions to learn. The correlation of this variable for the English Studies group was relatively lower in comparison to the other motivational variables again indicating that a higher involvement with the language does not, as would be expected, augment feelings of security in the participants' ability in using the language. The actual scale of ANXIETY, however, showed a very weak correlation with intentions to learn across the three subgroups, and the lowest value was to be found in the Education group. From the data we see that language use ANXIETY, as a non-situated conception of L2 use apprehension in this study, does not appear to be a salient influential factor on future intentions to learn in any of the academic subgroups.

### **8.3.1 Analysis of interplay between L2 motivational variables and L2 MSS concepts**

As the core concepts of the L2 MSS are theorised as attractor basins for other motivational influences, RQ4 also requires an analysis of the relationship between the attitudinal, goal-orientation and affective motivational variables with the three pillars of the IDEAL L2 SELF, the OUGHT SELF and the LEARNING EXPERIENCE. Table 8.14 presents the data.

**Table 14.14 Correlation of motivational variables with L2 MSS**

	IDEAL SELF	CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	OUGHT SELF	INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT
INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	,76**	,72**	-,41**	1
<b>L2 MSS FACTORS</b>				
IDEAL SELF	1	,75**	-,45**	,76**
OUGHT SELF	-,45**	-,63**	1	-,41**
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	,75**	1	-,63**	,72**
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>				
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	,40**	,48**	-,31**	,36**
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	,73**	,81**	-,59**	,71**
CULTURAL INTEREST	,58**	,82**	-,50**	,56**
<b>GOAL – ORIENTATION FACTORS</b>				
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	,64**	,43**	-,09*	,57**
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	,60**	,35**	-,07	,54**
INTEGRATIVENESS	,69**	,67**	-,30**	,63**
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	,57**	,59**	-,35**	,48**
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	,20**	,12**	,05	,21**
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>				
SELF CONFIDENCE	,63**	,75**	-,58**	,59**
ANXIETY	,19**	,27**	-,36**	,14**

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)

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

Some notable patterns can be observed in the correlation coefficients reported in Table 8.14, as to the relationships or clustering of the different categories of motivational variables with the three pillars of the L2 MSS. The correlation data with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT is included for comparative purposes, showing that the correlations of L2 motivation variables were stronger with the IDEAL SELF than INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT in all cases except the variable of PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT, which did not show a relationship of note with any of three L2 self concepts. The stronger connection with the IDEAL L2 SELF provided yet further confirmation of the fact that the generation of future visions as a language using self may

constitute a strong mediating force between the motivational variables (attitudes, goals and affective factors) and the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT. Taking the highest correlation figure (in bold) for each variable across the three L2 MSS constructs, we can see that ATTITUDE TO LEARNING, INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, the INSTRUMENTALITY dichotomy and INTEGRATIVE orientation or positive attitudes towards the L2 community were more highly related to the IDEAL SELF, whereas, it was the attitudinal learning variables and, by a minimal margin, INTERNATIONAL POSTURE, as well as SELF CONFIDENCE that showed greater affinity with the learning experience dimension of the L2 MSS. ANXIETY also featured in as strongest in this experiential domain, although the strength of this variable was, again, quite weak across the three L2 self scales. PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT also failed to reach a moderate coefficient with any of the L2 MSS self concepts, although its value was slightly higher in connection with the IDEAL SELF.

The OUGHT SELF, as measured in this Spanish study, shows a negative relationship with most of the motivational variables, with the inverse connection strongest in the scale of CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING and the other experiential factor of SELF CONFIDENCE. This fact appears to relate the negative OUGHT SELF more to beliefs about learning and ability to learn in this sample as a whole. This seems to imply that either external obligation affects beliefs about ability to learn and enjoyment of the learning process or vice versa — the more one feels obliged to learn, the less capable one feels of doing so. In a similar fashion we could interpret that the more positive the ATTITUDE TO LEARNING and the stronger the feeling of capability to learn, the lower the feeling of a sense of external pressure to learn.

### **8.3.2 Contrast of attitudinal, goal-orientation and affective variables across subgroups**

Table 8.15 below presents the correlations obtained across the three academic subgroups. As occurred with the whole group analysis, the patterns of affinity to the three L2 MSS pillars were similar across the three academic groups. Of note was the scale of INTEREST IN THE LANGUAGE which was highly correlated with the two self guides (IDEAL:  $r = .73$ ), although, in the case of the OUGHT SELF ( $r = -.59$ ) there was still an inverse relationship indicating that the higher the sense of external obligation, the lower the regard for English as a language. A



strong correlation was also observed for this variable with the LEARNING EXPERIENCE ( $r = .73$ ) and INTENDED EFFORT ( $r = .71$ ).

The ATTITUDINAL variables correlated highest with the LEARNING EXPERIENCE dimension of the L2 MSS, in particular the variable of CULTURAL INTEREST. However, INTEREST IN THE LANGUAGE also showed a strong relationship with the IDEAL SELF especially in the non English Major cohorts. Of the goal-related scales, it was INTEGRATIVENESS and INTERNATIONAL POSTURE that were associated with both the IDEAL SELF and the LEARNING EXPERIENCE suggesting that these variables are relevant to both learning contexts and future use of English as a L2 socially or professionally.

The INSTRUMENTALITY dichotomy, on the other hand, showed a stronger affiliation with the IDEAL SELF than with the LEARNING EXPERIENCE. Although this difference was not so salient in the Other Studies group, there may be an indication here that the benefits of English language competence for professional or educational pragmatic gains do not feature heavily in classroom interaction or L2 engagement.

On final note, the scales of PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT and ANXIETY again show the lowest correlation coefficients of all the L2 motivation scales across the academic subgroups with the L2 MSS concepts. However, there is one notable development in the overall positive relationship between the OUGHT SELF and PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT across the subgroups. We see a weak to moderate positive correlation between a sense of imposition and family support in the English Major Group suggesting that parents do exert some influence on the sense of responsibility of students in studies related to the L2. On the other hand, in the Education group, the stronger positive relationship is between PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT and the IDEAL SELF suggesting that family influence is related to positive future visions of using the L2 rather than current pressure to learn. Although also positive, the correlations in the Other Studies group for PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT and the L2 MSS pillars are somewhat weaker.

Table 14.15 Correlations of L2 motivational variables with L2 MSS across academic subgroup

	English Major			Education			Other Studies		
	IDEAL SELF	ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	OUGHT SELF	IDEAL SELF	ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	OUGHT SELF	IDEAL SELF	ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	OUGHT SELF
<b>INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT</b>	<b>.47**</b>	<b>.50**</b>	<b>-.12</b>	<b>.77**</b>	<b>.69**</b>	<b>-.37**</b>	<b>.70**</b>	<b>.67**</b>	<b>-.29**</b>
<b>L2 MSS FACTORS</b>									
OUGHT SELF	-.21**	-.30**	1.	-.34**	-.62**	1	-.37**	-.50**	1
IDEAL SELF	1	.52**	-.21**	1	.68**	-.34**	1	.73**	-.37**
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	.52**	1	-.30**	.68**	1	-.62**	.73**	1	-.50**
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>									
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	.04	<b>.28**</b>	-.08	.35**	<b>.40**</b>	-.31**	.51**	<b>.62**</b>	-.31**
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	.36**	<b>.71**</b>	-.23**	.71**	<b>.82**</b>	<b>-.59**</b>	.73**	<b>.80**</b>	-.51**
CULTURAL INTEREST	.29**	<b>.68**</b>	-.18*	.45**	<b>.80**</b>	<b>-.52**</b>	.53**	.77**	-.30**
<b>GOAL-ORIENTATION FACTORS</b>									
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	<b>.50**</b>	.29**	.14	.65**	.33**	.03	<b>.69**</b>	.52**	-.13
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	<b>.42**</b>	.19*	.07	.56**	.19*	.10	<b>.66**</b>	.38**	-.07
INTEGRATIVENESS	.32**	<b>.39**</b>	.12	<b>.69**</b>	<b>.69**</b>	-.32**	<b>.69**</b>	.62**	-.16*
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	<b>.40**</b>	.30**	-.08	.52**	<b>.60**</b>	-.35**	.50**	<b>.53**</b>	-.24**
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	.18*	.11	<b>.26**</b>	<b>.30**</b>	.22**	-.03	<b>.15</b>	.04	.10
<b>EMOTIONAL FACTORS</b>									
SELF CONFIDENCE	.38**	<b>.52**</b>	-.23**	.57**	<b>.69**</b>	<b>-.59**</b>	.59**	<b>.73**</b>	-.48**
ANXIETY	.22**	<b>.25**</b>	-.24**	.08	.19*	<b>-.39**</b>	.18*	.29**	<b>-.35**</b>

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

### 8.3.3 Section summary

RO4 involved an examination of the correlations of the MFQ variables with the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT across the three academically distributed cohorts. The data showed that the pattern of correlations across the subgroups was somewhat similar with regard to the stronger influences of the IDEAL SELF, INTEREST IN THE LANGUAGE and CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING. As was the case in previous contrasts among these groups, significant differences in the strength of the variables with future intentions to learn were notable only in the English Major group who situate ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING as more relevant to their future learning plans. Slight variations were found in the order of the attitudinal variables across the groups with one main difference in the stronger position of INTERNATIONAL POSTURE for the Education group and for INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION in the Other Studies group. The PREVENTION dimension of the instrumentality dichotomy stands in a central position among the variables. For all three groups the variables of ANXIETY and PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT and the OUGHT SELF were placed as the weakest of influential variables, and the OUGHT SELF proved a weakly negative correlation in all groups except Education, where its negative strength with future plans to learn reached moderate levels.

## 8.4 Contrast of motivational variables by Perceived Proficiency

DAP3 involved an exploration of the L2 MSS and related motivational variables under alternative groupings in relation to the self reports of proficiency in English (see Chapter Six for the relevant distribution of perceived proficiency across academic subgroups).

RQ5A. DOES THE MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP OF THE SAMPLE VARY ACCORDING TO PERCEPTIONS OF ACHIEVEMENT IN THE LANGUAGE?

Table 8.16 presents the means obtained in each proficiency level reported by the sample from No English to a C1 level of proficiency. The data in Table 8.16 presents some interesting insights into the perceptions of the different variables across this distribution of the sample.

On the one hand, there was a consistent pattern in the ranking of the variables in proportion to the proficiency the participants feel they possess as the means increase gradually in proportion to perceived achievement. However, taking the scale of future intentions to learn as a starting point for our analysis of the information in Table 8.16, it seems that future plans to engage in learning or improving the language actually increased in proportion to perceptions of achievement. If motivated behaviour equates with future intentions then higher achievers in this sample can be taken as the more highly motivated cohort. The data thus suggest that the lower the current level of achievement the lower the commitment to engage in learning in the future.

The C1 group, understood as the most motivated cohort, rated INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT, the IDEAL SELF, CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING, and SELF CONFIDENCE among the highest scoring factors with INTERNATIONAL POSTURE, ATTITUDES TO THE L2 COMMUNITY and the INSTRUMENTALITY dichotomy rated as a close second as a cluster.

Table 14.16 Contrast of means across English language proficiency subgroup

	No English (N=8)		A1 (N =29)		A2 (N= 123)		B1 (N= 114)		B2 (N= 145)		C1 (N= 77)		Eta <sup>2</sup>
	Mean	SD	Mean	DS	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	<b>2,28</b>	1,00	<b>3,23</b>	,95	<b>3,26</b>	,85	<b>3,91</b>	,80	<b>4,31</b>	,63	<b>4,33</b>	,66	.27
<b>L2 MSS FACTORS</b>													
IDEAL SELF	<b>1,85</b>	1,35	<b>2,98</b>	1,27	<b>3,01</b>	1,18	<b>3,75</b>	1,00	<b>4,30</b>	,78	<b>4,52</b>	,59	.28
OUGHT SELF	<b>2,43</b>	1,01	<b>2,23</b>	1,00	<b>2,02</b>	,98	<b>1,43</b>	,92	<b>,99</b>	,80	<b>,71</b>	,65	.26
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	<b>2,28</b>	1,16	<b>2,82</b>	,84	<b>3,06</b>	,95	<b>3,64</b>	,77	<b>4,22</b>	,57	<b>4,38</b>	,50	.35
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>													
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	<b>1,84</b>	1,49	<b>2,10</b>	,88	<b>2,70</b>	1,08	<b>3,02</b>	1,01	<b>3,13</b>	,98	<b>3,19</b>	1,06	.07
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	<b>2,36</b>	1,09	<b>2,99</b>	1,02	<b>3,27</b>	1,03	<b>3,86</b>	,77	<b>4,31</b>	,61	<b>4,34</b>	,55	.27
CULTURAL INTEREST	<b>2,00</b>	1,69	2,37	<b>1,04</b>	<b>2,64</b>	1,21	<b>3,16</b>	1,16	<b>3,91</b>	,942	<b>4,31</b>	<b>,72</b>	.29
<b>GOAL-ORIENTATION FACTORS</b>													
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	<b>2,75</b>	1,02	<b>3,72</b>	1,09	<b>3,35</b>	,99	<b>3,73</b>	1,02	<b>3,90</b>	,95	<b>4,08</b>	,86	.05
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	<b>2,71</b>	,83	<b>3,68</b>	,96	<b>3,61</b>	,80	<b>3,92</b>	,76	<b>4,02</b>	,76	<b>4,05</b>	,67	.06
INTEGRATIVENESS	<b>2,10</b>	1,67	<b>3,12</b>	1,08	<b>3,23</b>	1,09	<b>3,51</b>	1,02	<b>4,01</b>	,75	<b>4,12</b>	,66	.14
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	<b>2,86</b>	,75	<b>3,34</b>	,82	<b>3,51</b>	,80	<b>3,70</b>	,76	<b>3,95</b>	,66	<b>4,18</b>	,59	.11
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>													
ANXIETY	<b>3,18</b>	1,57	<b>1,96</b>	1,12	<b>2,26</b>	1,15	<b>2,76</b>	1,27	<b>3,09</b>	1,32	<b>3,49</b>	1,29	.12
SELF CONFIDENCE	<b>2,13</b>	1,30	<b>2,19</b>	1,05	<b>2,85</b>	,95	<b>3,58</b>	,75	<b>3,97</b>	,65	<b>4,31</b>	,59	.38
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	<b>2,42</b>	1,42	<b>2,54</b>	1,37	<b>2,93</b>	1,27	<b>3,31</b>	1,28	<b>3,24</b>	1,31	<b>3,12</b>	1,4	.02

PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT and ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING were not rated negatively, nonetheless, at 3.12 and 3.19 the scoring appears to reflect a somewhat non-committal attitude as to the importance of these factors in their L2 learning beliefs and attitudes. The OUGHT SELF was rated extremely low in this group indicating that the more proficient users do not sense any imposition to learn the language from external sources, or, that the sense of duty has already been integrated into their self system and forms part of the IDEAL SELF.

The priorities in rankings of the motivational variables was quite similar across the six sub-groups, with the only differences of note observed in the lower levels of A1 and No English rating INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION slightly higher than its counterpart of INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION. The OUGHT SELF was also assigned a higher rating in the lower proficiency groups indicating that the sense of imposition from external sources may intensify in proportion to lack of achievement in the L2.

The size effect was quite large for most of the variables indicating that there is moderate to strong variability in the influence of the different factors examined across the sample. The only variables that did not appear to cause great differences among the cohorts are the INSTRUMENTALITY scales, implying that the pragmatic benefits of learning English are recognised across the board regardless of current proficiency, and PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT, reiterating the nondescript role of the family in the language learning domain. ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING, was also rated in a more uniform fashion across all the proficiency subgroups. The motivational variables causing the highest degree of variation across the proficiency groups at 38% was a) the SELF CONFIDENCE scale and b) CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING, the second most significant distinguishing variable, reaching 35% of the variation observed. The IDEAL SELF was found to be responsible for 28% of variation across the subgroups according to level indicating the ability or desire to generate visions of future L2 using selves does vary according to perceptions of achievement.

## 8.5 Correlations of attitudinal, goal-orientation and affective variables across proficiency groups

The correlations were calculated and contrasted across the proficiency groups although, given the lower number of participants in the No English and A1 groups, these were not included in the analysis.

As there were differences in the group sizes, the non-parametric contrast of correlations Spearman's Rho was employed for the analysis. Table 8.17 shows the non-parametric correlations obtained for the variables not only with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT, but also with the IDEAL SELF. This has been done in an effort to explore the mediating effect of the IDEAL SELF more closely.

**Table 14.17 Spearman's Rho correlations of motivational variables with intended learning effort and the ideal self by perceived proficiency**

	A2 (N =123)		B1 (N=114)		B2 (n= 145)		C1 (N=77)	
	ILE	IDS	ILE	IDS	ILE	IDS	ILE	IDS
INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	1.0	.65**	1.0	.64**	1.0	.45**	1.0	.48**
<b>L2 MSS VARIABLES</b>								
IDEAL SELF	.65**	1.0	.64**	1.0	.45**	1.0	.48**	1.0
OUGHT SELF	-.30**	-.36**	-.09	-.17	-.27**	-.25**	.12	-.18
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	.62**	.61**	.60**	.63**	.51**	.50**	.49**	.52**
<b>ATTITUDINAL VARIABLES</b>								
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	.48**	.47**	-.06	.17	.12	.13	.31**	.00
CULTURAL INTEREST	.34**	.43**	.43**	.49**	.27**	.29**	.22	.21
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	.69**	.63**	.56**	.59**	.45**	.43**	.43**	.40**
<b>GOAL-RELATED VARIABLES</b>								
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	.45**	.64**	.56**	.65**	.31**	.37**	.41**	.48**
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	.52**	.67**	.49**	.58**	.39**	.51**	.56**	.48**
INTEGRATIVENESS	.56**	.65**	.65**	.73**	.49**	.50**	.41**	.34**
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	.39**	.54**	.34**	.51**	.28**	.30**	.23*	.41**

AFFECTIVE VARIABLES								
ANXIETY								
SELF CONFIDENCE								
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT								

\*\*Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

\*Correlations are significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)

Of note in the information obtained is the fact that across most of the variables the highest correlations were obtained with the IDEAL SELF than with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT. One unexpected finding was that the correlation for the IDEAL SELF with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT decreased with the increase in L2 achievement with the A1 group rating the highest figure at  $r = .65$  and the C1 group, the lowest at  $r = .48$ . This is an unexpected result as it was assumed that the higher the proficiency the clearer the visions of using the language in the future, and the stronger the link between these visions and intentions to continue improving the L2. The means obtained in these same variables, discussed in the previous section, were relatively positive, although no strong commitment was detected in the lower proficiency groups. Despite this fact, it seems to be the case that the visionary ideal is more strongly associated with future commitment to learn in the lower proficiency participants.

In a similar vein, INTEREST IN THE LANGUAGE actually decreased in the strength of its relationship with INTENDED EFFORT, although it still maintained an important position in the order of the correlation values. Interestingly, in the C1 group, INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION obtained the strongest relationship ( $r = .56$ ), with intentions to learn in contrast with other variables, and its only close competitors were the variables of CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING, SELF CONFIDENCE and the IDEAL SELF. INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION showed a stronger relationship with the criterion measure only in the B2 proficiency group, which was, again, unexpected, given that they also would have reached an acceptable level of proficiency perhaps to be able to meet educational and professional requisites. Nevertheless, it is also possible that this group are more aware of their position as being able to avoid the negative consequences of a lack of competence in English. Across the other proficiency levels it was INSTRUMENTALITY



PROMOTION that proved to have the slightly stronger relationship with intentions to learn. INTERNATIONAL POSTURE appears to influence INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT only moderately across all the proficiency levels, although its relationship was still more intense than that of PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT, which, along with ANXIETY, had the weaker relationship with both INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT and the IDEAL SELF.

An interesting pattern emerged again in the correlations of the different variables with both INTENDED EFFORT and the IDEAL SELF. The scales of SELF CONFIDENCE, AND INTEREST IN THE LANGUAGE showed a stronger affiliation with the LEARNING EXPERIENCE, as had occurred with the academic choice groups previously analysed, whereas, both dimensions of INSTRUMENTALITY as well as INTERNATIONAL POSTURE correlated more highly with the IDEAL SELF. This data reiterates the notion mentioned in Section 8.3.1, as indicative of the possible lack of emphasis on these goal-orientations in classroom learning.

## 8.6 Gender differences in the sample

DAP4 enabled us to further explore potential variation in the motivational makeup of the sample under the sub-grouping of gender. The motivational variables were compared and contrasted across male and female groupings by means of a T-test, as shown in Table 8.18.

RQ5B DOES THE  
MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP  
OF THE SIMPLE VARY  
ACCORDING TO GENDER

**Table 14.18 Contrast of means for motivational variables between males and females**

	Male (N- 154)		Female N – (337)		t	df	Eta <sup>2</sup>
	M	(SD)	M	(SD)			
<b>INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT</b>	<b>3.60</b>	.97	<b>3.97</b>	.85	-4.08**	264.42	.03
<b>SELF RELATED FACTORS</b>							
IDEAL SELF	<b>3.56</b>	1.15	<b>3.84</b>	1.15	-2.47*	497.00	.01
OUGHT SELF	<b>1.61</b>	.96	<b>1.35</b>	1.05	2.70*	324.08	.01
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	<b>3.44</b>	.90	<b>3.80</b>	.93	-3.99**	300.78	.03
<b>ATTITUDINAL FACTORS</b>							
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	<b>2.82</b>	.97	<b>2.92</b>	.89	-.973	292.46	.02
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	<b>2.80</b>	1.08	<b>2.95</b>	1.06	-2.13	497.00	.00
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	<b>3.54</b>	.93	<b>3.94</b>	.94	-4.43**	497.00	.04
CULTURAL INTEREST	<b>3.20</b>	1.22	<b>3.42</b>	1.26	-1.28	306.97	.07
<b>GOAL RELATED FACTORS</b>							
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	<b>3.53</b>	1.04	<b>3.80</b>	1.00	-2.74*	286.61	.01
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	<b>3.71</b>	.84	<b>3.91</b>	.79	-2.42*	280.96	.01
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	<b>3.69</b>	.81	<b>3.79</b>	.75	-1.30	278.49	.00
INTEGRATIVENESS	<b>2.94</b>	.97	<b>3.13</b>	.91	-2.02	278.32	.09
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>							
SELF CONFIDENCE	<b>3.42</b>	.92	<b>3.52</b>	1.06	-1.08	337.65	.00
ANXIETY	<b>3.09</b>	1.17	<b>2.63</b>	1.37	3.86**	342.79	.02
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	<b>3.06</b>	1.36	<b>3.12</b>	1.33	-.45	497.00	.00

\*\*correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

\*Correlations are significant at the 0.05 level (two tailed)

Equal variances are not assumed

Significant differences were only apparent in four of the motivational variables: the criterion measure of INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT, CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING and CULTURAL INTEREST and INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, males scored significantly lower on the scale. There was an average mean difference of .50 between males and females indicating somewhat lower levels of enjoyment of the language and engagement with the cultural products of the English language in the male population. Given this slightly lower appreciation of English, the fact that intentions to learn were also slightly weaker would appear to make sense as a liking for the language and an enjoyment of learning correlated highly with future intentions, as we saw in the previous section. ANXIETY, AND the OUGHT SELF, as we can see in Table 8.18, were the only motivational variables of the entire MFQ rated higher by the male cohort indicating that apprehension of using the language to communicate as well as the feelings of imposition from external sources are relevant to this cohort to a slightly greater extent than the female population. However, the effect size does indicate that the variation produced by this variable is quite weak. Although males consistently rated very slightly lower on all of the remaining scales, no significant variation is noted between males and females in the remaining variables as far as the mean score in the motivational variables is concerned. The next step was to establish the correlations of the variables with the criterion measure and the IDEAL SELF. Table 8.19 presents the data.

**Table 14.19 Spearman's Rho correlations of motivational variables with intended learning effort and ideal self by gender**

	MALE (n=155)		FEMALE (N =339)	
	INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	IDEAL SELF	INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	IDEAL SELF
INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	.1.0	.73**	1.0	.68**
<b>SELF RELATED FACTORS</b>				
IDEAL SELF	.73**	1	.75**	1
OUGHT SELF	-.33**	-.37**	-.41**	-.41**
CURRENT ATTITUDE T O LEARNING	.65**	.73**	.72**	.72**
<b>ATITTUDINAL FACTORS</b>				
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	.36**	.29**	.29**	.29**
INTEREST IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE	.60**	.74**	.63**	.62**

CULTURAL INTEREST	.45**	.52**	.55**	.58**
<b>GOAL RELATED FACTORS</b>				
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	.60**	.65**	.43**	.53**
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	.64**	.69**	.45**	.55**
INTEGRATIVENESS	.63**	.57**	.62**	.58**
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	.48**	.64**	.38**	.48**
<b>AFFECTIVE FACTORS</b>				
SELF CONFIDENCE	.47**	.57**	.77**	.65**
ANXIETY	.07*	.09	.28**	.30**
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	.16	.13	.29**	.23**

\*\*correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

\*Correlations are significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)

As we can see in Table 8.19, correlations were overall moderate to high for all the variables explored. We saw in previous sections of this chapter that PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT, ATTITUDES TO PAST LEARNING and ANXIETY were also the variables less associated with either intentions to learn or future L2 using visions across the male/female subgroups, although females did seem to perceive PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT as slightly more related to their future L2 learning intentions and self guides as well as manifesting a much stronger association between LANGUAGE USE ANXIETY and the two core concepts of the L2 MSS. In the male subgroup there were slightly higher affiliations with the IDEAL L2 SELF in the variables of CURRENT ATTITUDES TO LEARNING, L2 CULTURAL INTEREST and INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, which contrasted unusually with the data so far associating these variables with the LEARNING EXPERIENCE for all other subgroupings. For the males, the INSTRUMENTALITY dichotomy showed have greater significance in its relationship with INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT and the IDEAL SELF. As regards the associations of the different variables with either intended effort or ideal self guides, the females showed a more balanced outlook with even relationships with both L2 MSS variables. INTEGRATIVENESS for males showed a higher relationship with intentions to learn than a future L2 self guide, again reinforcing the proposal made earlier in this chapter that the attraction towards an English speaking community is more related to an instrumental learning goal than to a desire to integrate with that community.

The female subgroup did show quite a significant difference in their affiliations with intentions to learn, the IDEAL SELF and SELF CONFIDENCE. At  $r = .77$  compared to the males  $r = .45$ , a sense of ability to learn or acquire English is clearly very relevant to both future plans and L2 using visions making this motivational variable a distinguishing feature in females.

## 8.7 Section summary

RQ5A & RQ5B required a contrast of the MFQ means and correlations across subgroups of proficiency in English as perceived by the participants, and gender. It was mentioned in the methodology chapter that a self assessment of individuals' language level was felt to be relevant in a study which examines psychological aspects of motivation as the ability one perceives will be more closely related to self beliefs in related areas than an objective measure. Unexpectedly, it is this distribution that has enabled a clearer pattern to emerge in the means obtained in the attitudinal, goal-related and affective L2 motivational variables across the sample, as well as a clearer view of the correlations of the variables with a) INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT, and b) with the IDEAL SELF.

Basing the main results on the larger proficiency sub-groups, from A2 to C1 (average  $N = 112$ ), there was a noticeable gradual increase in means across almost all the variables examined in accordance with the increase in the proficiency level reported. This suggests that motivation, as measured in this sample, is directly related to perceived proficiency. The variables that did not vary significantly across the levels, measured according to effect size, are those of PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT (2.4% of variance) and the INSTRUMENTALITY dichotomy (promotion, 5% and prevention, 6.5%). The variables that caused greater variation across the groups were SELF CONFIDENCE (38.6%) and CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING (35.8%). INTENDED EFFORT and the IDEAL SELF were responsible for 27% and 28% of the variance respectively indicating that the Ideal L2 Self can be confirmed as a significant motivational mediator that most likely increases in specificity and detail in proportion with perceived levels of achievement, and this in turn mediates between L2 motivational variables and future plans to engage with the L2.

The gender subgrouping showed moderate variation with males rating stronger associations between goal-related variables of instrumentality in both its dimensions, international posture and their visions as future L2 users. Females showed a more balanced distribution of variables in affiliation with both *INTENDED EFFORT* and *THE IDEAL L2 SELF*, and more moderate ratings in attitudinal and goal related variables. Nonetheless, females could be distinguished from their male counterparts in the variables of *PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT*, which showed moderate associations with future L2 learning paths and in their extreme affiliation of *SELF CONFIDENCE* with both intended efforts and L2 future self guides.

## 8.8 Chapter summary

In this chapter we have presented the quantitative data required to respond to RQs 1 to 5. The three cornerstones of the L2 MSS construct have been explored along with the other goal related, attitudinal, and affective motivational variables included in the study. All variables were explored under three different subgroupings: academic choice, perceived proficiency and gender. With regard to the *IDEAL L2 SELF*, we have been able to confirm a stronger rating in the English Major group in contrast to the two non-English Major groups. The *OUGHT L2 SELF* has shown an unexpected negative relationship with most motivational variables and this negative relationship is stronger in the Education group. The *LEARNING EXPERIENCE* paradigm of the L2 MSS has been analysed from two distinct temporal perspectives — past and present — and interesting differences have been found in the ratings of each dimension across all the academic subgroups. Goal related variables have been found to be relevant across all the different subgroups examined indicating that *INSTRUMENTALITY*, in both its dimensions; and *INTERNATIONAL POSTURE* all had a role to play in the motivational dynamics of the sample analysed regardless of academic choice or perceived proficiency. *INTEGRATIVENESS* or attitudes to a specific target language community could also be considered a relevant motivational variable and will be revisited in the discussion in Chapter Nine with regard to its possible significance as instrumental in

the language learning process, as opposed to an ultimate aim of integration with a given L2 society. With regard to affective variables, SELF CONFIDENCE has proved a significant variable with regards to intentions to learn, especially as seen across the perceived proficiency subgroups. LANGUAGE USE ANXIETY, on the other hand, did not emerge as a significant factor in the L2 motivation of this sample. A further variable that was not salient for these participants was that of PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT.

Before we discuss the main findings of the quantitative phase of the study in Chapter Ten, we turn to the qualitative findings of the post\_MFQ interview phase of the study.

## Chapter 15 . QUALITATIVE INSIGHTS INTO THE OUGHT L2 SELF

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Legitimate peripheral participation" provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artefacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. A person's intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a socio-cultural practice. This social process, includes, indeed it subsumes, the learning of knowledgeable skills.

(Lave and Wenger 1991, p. 29)

### 9.0 Introduction

In line with the mixed methods — qual - QUAN – qual — design of the empirical study, this chapter presents the interview qualitative insights in an attempt to complement the quantitative analysis shedding light on some of the lacunas that have inevitably remained after an examination of the quantitative data. The intentions of this phase of the study are guided by Ushioda's (2001, p. 96) claim that "motivation may be defined not in terms of observable and measurable activity, but rather in terms of what patterns of thinking and beliefs underlie such activity and shape students' engagement in the learning process".

At the start of the empirical study we had hypothesised that the English foreign language requisite for teaching professionals indicated that an *ought self* as perceived through important people in our lives would be detectable within the Education Group and, although the quantitative evidence suggests that an *ought self* may be more easily detected through the concept of instrumentality prevention, the numerical data still seems quite cold and difficult to interpret — in Ushioda's words "abstract bundles of variables" (Ushioda, 2011, p. 12). Taking the view that the educational imposition must surely be perceived as an obligation by some students, the interviews were designed to target students' perceptions of this sense of obligation and its sources.

The L2MSS theoretical backdrop for the qualitative data analysis was complemented by the post-structuralist view on learner identity as seen from a view of



imagined communities (see Chapter Four). More specifically, Lave and Wenger's (1991) Situated Learning Theory, employed by Lamb (2009) in his qualitative analysis of L2 motivation (Chapter Five) was drawn on as an insightful way of contemplating how a newcomer to a professional community negotiates his or her path to gaining the skills and knowledge required for a comprehensive sense of professional identity and legitimate status as a candidate for integration into a community. The process of adapting and negotiating identity in order to enter a particular profession posits that learning occurs in relation to 'communities of practice' – moving from an initial peripheral participation to fuller participation through engagement in community activities, interaction with members and gradual alignment of their skills and sense of identity with more experienced members of the community. The interaction with other members of the professional community also facilitates access to and sharing of resources which, in turn, enriches the capital that the individual requires to progress towards becoming a fully fledged member.

In this qualitative analysis we looked at two individual's status as newcomers to a teaching profession and their stance as legitimate peripheral candidates (Lave and Wenger, 1991) for entry to what was initially for them the teaching community, but which has now converted to a bilingual teaching community. Lamb (2009) describes the *ideal* and *ought* selves as being distinct self-regulatory systems and that their impact on behaviour is mediated by the relevance of a particular context to the *ideals* being aspired to. For those teacher trainees in education studies aspiring to become practicing classroom instructors who had not anticipated using a second language in their practice, readjusting those visions may not be an easy task. The intention thus in analyzing the interviews in this qualitative phase of the study is to examine how two teacher trainees are adjusting their sense of professional identity and future possible or *ideal* teaching selves to accommodate this new compulsory condition of L2 using teaching selves, with particular emphasis on their perceptions of the sources of this external obligation.

## 9.1. Interviews

### 9.1.1 Interviewee recruitment

The main criterion for the selection of interview candidates was based on the specific objective of identifying perceptions of societal and *milieu* related sources of obligation to learn English. Therefore the cohort selected from which to recruit interview candidates was the Education Group — teacher training degree students. We anticipated that they would be in a position to provide insights into any sense of obligation felt as a result of the governmental proviso for a certification of English language competence as well as support from significant others in their lives. A secondary consideration was to select candidates with differing degrees of competence in English in order to facilitate a contrast of perspectives on the linguistic proviso based on EFL competence concomitant to the study.

The number of participants for the qualitative study was limited to two, a decision that we considered was compatible with the nature of qualitative research: “describing the aspects that make up an idiosyncratic experience rather than determining the most likely, or mean experience within a group” (Dörnyei, 2011, p. 126). Rather than looking at our qualitative study in terms of ‘validity’, ours is a ‘deep understanding’ approach (Walcott, 1993, in Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2013, p. 313) Two interviews would allow for a contrast of individual perspectives on the matter of interpretations of external pressure or support to learn and certify English and also allow a rich in-depth exploration from the angle of Uhsioda’s (2009) *person-in-context* relational perspective of exploring the “complexity and idiosyncrasy of a person’s motivational response to particular events and experiences in their lives” (2009, p. 219). It is important to point out that saturation—attempting to reach a point where all possible perspectives have been registered or as defined by Glaser and Strauss (1967) — when the collection of new data does not shed any further light on the issue under investigation — was not the objective of this qualitative study. The overall objective was a tentative initial exploration of an ambiguous theoretical phenomenon — the *ought self* — in two individuals who might present different

stances on what was considered in this study a valid instance of external imposition to learn a language.

The two interviewees selected from the final shortlist were:

a) Elena: a 24 year-old second-year student of pre-primary education in the state university with a self-reported A2 level of EFL proficiency.

b) Andrés: a 32 year-old third year, primary education teacher trainee, with a specialisation branch in EFL teaching, at the private university. Andrés reported a B1+ level of EFL proficiency.

As one final consideration for recruitment, both interviewees were acquaintances of the researcher and interviewer: Elena was the daughter of a work colleague in the administration section of the Modern Language Department at the private university, and Andrés was as an intern student in the same department. This was a conscious decision given that, as the researcher is also a lecturer, an effort was made to avoid any social desirability responding (Dörnyei, 2011) that may have come as a result of interviewing students who would see the researcher as biased, or a threat more than an ally. It was felt that some degree of acquaintance would facilitate open communication on personal beliefs and behaviour regarding EFL learning and the governmental imposition for English. The interviewees themselves were not acquainted and were interviewed on separate occasions.

### **9.1.2 Interview structure, execution and analysis**

The interview structure was based on three main criteria: a) obtaining background information on each interviewee regarding their English language learning and their choice of university degree, b) gaining insight into their opinions on the legislation for certification of English competence to teach, and c) understanding how significant others in the interviewees lives might support the language learning process). The interviews, conducted by the author of this study, were semi-structured, incorporating diverse items targeting the three main aims, but also allowing the participants to expand on areas they felt relevant or that had not been anticipated. Both interviewees were previously informed that the interviews were part of a Ph.D

study and that the information would be confidential and anonymous. Both participants also consented to have the interviews recorded.

In a further attempt to reduce any feeling of intimidation or teacher-student contrast for the interviewees, the interviews were carried out in a relaxed atmosphere in a cafeteria at the private university as opposed to an office or classroom setting. The purpose and ethical considerations were repeated to the participants at the start of the interviews.

To analyse the interviews, notes were taken immediately after finalising to record any non-verbal gestures and emotional overtones that would not be available in the subsequent transcription of the recordings. These post-interview notes also included immediate impressions on students' responses to avail of the benefits of memory so as to later contrast these with the more reflective analysis carried out with the transcriptions. At a later stage, the interviews were fully transcribed and theme coded by the researcher according to the research objectives, i.e. terms and synonyms that implied pressure or support in learning. The initial "in vivo" codings (Dörnyei, 2011, p. 251) were highlighted in the transcribed text and these were contrasted with those of two work colleagues as a mode of external code checking (Lynch, 2003, cited in Dörnyei, 2011).

## **9.2 Interview analysis**

### **9.2 Elena**

Elena is a second year student of Pre-Primary Education at the State University and she was contacted for interview through a member of her family working at the Private University. She had completed the MFQ with her class group a few months previously and accepted the invitation to expand on the subject in person. Elena does not have any certification for a foreign language competence at the time of the interview and much of the discussion revolves around the need to certify a B1 level of English in order to teach.

After an initial explanation of the purpose of the interview and some ice breakers about Elena's studies at university, we turned to Elena's thoughts on the

government's imposition to certify English language competence. Elena demonstrates a certain reactance to the topic.

(1)

I see it as a business (a money racket), people want to make money. I see that it's important to demand it (English) in my degree .... it's in teaching, but I also see other things just as important – like first aid, for instance, and nobody talks about that. I also think that if it's a requirement for us, then it should be a requirement for those who are working, they've been earning for some years, but they (the Educational authorities) target the new ones, like us. ... and, that's...that's not fair.

Looking at Elena's discourse from the view of a community of practice of bilingual teaching, she appears quite defensive in her view of the imposition. In referring to those who are already working, she implies that students are 'new' to the community and suggests that it is the practicing or in-service teachers who should have to first deal with this 'constraint' in her eyes –the 'old-timers', as Lave and Wenger (1991) would call the more experienced within a field of practice. As deterrents to being able to access a peripheral position on the community Elena appears to have two main arguments: cost, and her other educational priorities. On the one hand, her reference to the 'money making racket' seems to indicate a degree of indignation at the fact that this will be a drain on financial resources and that others are benefitting from this unwelcome proposition. On the other, she is currently taking an extra-curricular course on first aid, which she sees as an important skill as a future pre-primary teacher but one that does not appear equally significant for the community of practice. The latter is a prime example of how Elena has assessed the skills that may be required of her within the future teaching profession and has established short term goals to improve her professional skill set beyond her curricular activities in order to further strengthen her legitimacy for entry to the teaching community. English however, had not formed part of her plans and therefore, she sees the proviso as unjust.

In order to examine Elena's position and feelings as regards her current language skills we talked about her past experiences in learning English. She started

learning English at primary school, but does not feel that her level is proportionate to the years of lessons she received. Elena blames the methodology employed in her earlier learning, claiming that her teachers preferred to “teach verbs and vocabulary” instead of oral skills.

(2)

They explained to us (in class) that orange is written *or – an - je* (She pronounces the syllables as in Spanish) and then they say “it’s pronounced like this” *orAnge*”, and that’s it.

Elena is not satisfied with her level of English and this also leads her to question the role of the educational system in English teaching at school:

(3)

For a person that’s had English since I was 6 or 7, my English isn’t really good – not after 12 years. Something is wrong in the system. It’s not normal, I see people like myself at 20, that have been learning a foreign language since they were 6, and they can’t speak.... Something’s wrong.

Her observation that others of her age are equally disadvantaged in oral skills in English appears to lead her to blame the system other than herself or her own particular learning abilities. We also see support here for the quantitative data suggesting that past *learning experiences* were somewhat negative for the sample in terms of achievement and teaching methodology. More recent *learning experiences* in her degree do not seem to have improved her opinion on teaching methodology as she has not perceived a meaningful contribution of the lessons to her language skills:

(4)

..and ...well, I had an English subject in first year of my Degree and we did the same grammar as in secondary school, so, what’s that? A...another year lost? And we had a language assistant, they divided us into two smaller class groups .. and she would put us in pairs and ask us to talk to each other about a particular topic. Of course, once we were in pairs, we talked in Spanish.. about whatever we had done at the weekend. We did the exercises from the book and the teacher corrected them in class.

The ‘another year lost’ again reflects Elena’s desire to acquire the knowledge that makes her eligible for participation in the teaching practice community but that she feels the educational system has not contributed to:

(5)

It’s not right ...they say ‘off you go and learn English on your own account’ but ..if at primary, secondary.... and here, at university, they don’t teach me.....something’s not working. And, now, all of a sudden, they go ... ‘mandatory requirement!’ .. just like that.

There is a sense of indignation that the same educational system having failed in its own responsibility to develop her communicative competence has now turned the onus on Elena to achieve a level of English without support of any type.

The mandatory L2 requirement for teachers actually started to come into force from 2009 with many schools starting to offer bilingual education, and the different autonomous communities progressively established local policies regarding implementation of the new system. Nonetheless, Elena in 2014 was in second year of her pre-primary training studies and did not seem to fully understand the objectives of the policy. This became patent through her questions on the implications of the proviso. For instance, when discussing her opinions on teaching methodology she suddenly interrupts her own line of thought:

(6)

E: “So ... if they want us to have English, is it because they’re going to get rid of the English ‘specialists’? ...and .... the specialisation branch of English in primary?”

By *especialistas* (specialists) Elena is referring to English language primary teachers who are trained to teach the EFL subject. She wonders what will happen to these specialist teachers who, currently also provide support in schools in bilingual teaching if general area, primary teachers are to use English in their lessons. From the view of communities of practice, this questioning is also a part of Elena’s attempt to work out both her professional role and that of the ‘expert’ members of the community she will join. Her confusion signifies that the norms and professional practices of the bilingual teaching community are not clear to her. In an attempt to

find out what information she has been offered as a student, the conversation centres on the information offered at her university:

(7)

No, nobody has explained anything, in my university no one has come into class to say “it’s mandatory for you to have English at a B1 level to teach”, no one, no one. It’s word of mouth...one says ‘we do’, another one says ‘we do .. but we don’t’. People know they won’t get a job without a level of English but thanks to word of mouth. They know they may not get a job, but they don’t know *why* they need a B1.....there’s a huge lack of information.

Elena, therefore, sees that there is no rationale being offered to herself or her peers in the teacher trainee community in order to justify a new proviso in her professional qualifications. Nonetheless, from her words we see that the negative consequences of not obtaining the necessary skills are indeed being acknowledged among her peer group. Her explanation of circumstances as she sees them reflects the possibility that her peers may set out on an avoidance path in EFL learning – e.g. “people know they won’t get a job”, as opposed to a promotion focused view along the lines of, “they know they need to develop good language skills in order to be good teachers”

The above discourse is insightful both from the point of view of preparing oneself for a specific professional community and from the point of view of the *ought-ideal L2 self* construct. In both cases knowledge of the practices of the target community are essential to be able to plan and execute short-term and distal learning goals and acquire procedural knowledge both to become legitimate candidates for inclusion in the community and, in line with the premises of an *ideal self* as a motivational force, to construct a vision of oneself as a possible valid member of that community. In this case a future possible or ideal bilingual teaching self. As it stands, Elena’s questioning the *why* of the demand suggests difficulty in positioning herself with regard to understanding the bilingual education objectives, as she cannot figure out what exactly the proviso entails for her as a teacher. Her confusion also implies that Elena cannot understand the relevance of English for her future profession. From the point of view of an *ought self*, there appears to be no sense of obligation or necessity to learn English from her educational institution or teachers.



The next question centres on how her classmates are facing the situation of obtaining certification:

(8)

In my class people know they have to work to get a B1, they know.... and they're enrolling in language schools or thinking about enrolling in language schools, even if it's at some stage of the future. Though... some people are trying to put it off ....well... . I think it's because of a lack of motivation.... a lack of motivation from seeing that we have subjects in English and we come out of them the same ....

Two dimensions are worth highlighting in this extract of the interview. On the one hand Elena perceives that some of her peers are acknowledging that a plan of action is necessary; one that will require effort, and some are putting plans into action or contemplating future action, while others perhaps procrastinate. On the other, Elena also appears to be relating low motivation with lack of progress in L2 achievement in the English subject in her studies. In other words, the particular language subject she is referring to has not satisfied her expectations as regards her L2 skill development and has not contributed to her acquiring status as a legitimate member of her future professional community or her future L2 self; this she sees as unhelpful as regards L2 motivation. She elaborates on her peers' plans to certify their English.

(9)

There are two types of reactions. Some say 'It's not a problem, we'll get our degree and then ... well if we don't get hired, we'll get the certificate'. Or the other type of person in second year that says 'I'm going to get the certification now and then I have it'... Maybe they'll have forgotten their English by fourth year but they say 'at least I have it' So they are the two most common types 'I'll sort it out in third or fourth year, when I have time' or 'I'll do it now so I have it'

Although we cannot make conjectures about the rationale behind Elena's peers' plans to acquire an L2 qualification or whether future intentions are subject to perceptions of time, effort, ability or a combination of all, we can perceive that there is a strong consensus within the peer group in that action must be taken. In some cases it is more immediate, and in others reserved for a future date, perhaps more convenient

to the individual in question and for reasons we can only imagine– as they may be due to constraints in any number of variables, e.g. time, finance, ability, etc.

The next stage of the interview deals with Elena’s own plans to certify her English.

(10)

...yes, I’m going to the language school at the university next year,...next year.... I *have* to. If it were up to me I’d do it more slowly, more relaxed .. but I have to, I have to get a certification right now.

An *ought self* has emerged in Elena’s rationale for her plans, i.e. “I have to”, emphasised also by a clear indication that she would like to be able to do things differently. There is a sense of urgency in her words. However, she adds:

(11)

I also see that there’s a difference between Cambridge exams and the Official School of Languages They say the Cambridge certificate won’t do, only the Official School ..... a teacher told me that.

Here, Elena makes reference to confusion about which language school certification will be considered valid for accreditation purposes. It was indeed a fact at the time of the study (May, 2014) that no official announcement had been made on which certification would be valid for sitting state exams to obtain a teaching profession. This lack of consensus on behalf of the educational authorities as to what EFL qualifications would be accepted to work in a private or semi-private school or for enrolment on Master degree programmes is another source of confusion for candidates for the teaching profession.

With regard to seeing herself in the future as an L2 user, Elena, throughout her discourse, does show glimpses of a developing L2 teaching self in her references to what she has experienced as a classroom learner as shown in the following excerpt.

(12)

E: And this year I have the subject of English for pre-primary education. And that subject is taught in Spanish. The teacher made the mistake of asking us how we wanted the class, in English or Spanish, and everyone said Spanish....but we do the practice for the morning assembly in English.... and practice a lot how to talk to the children ... we repeat a lot and the teacher corrects us ...that’s good..... Yeah, it is good, we do a lot of practice for the pre

primary classroom, she (the teacher) shows us how to talk to the children ...  
Yeah, it's good.

Elena sees that practical skills are being offered to her and can situate this learning as relevant to the development of her future teaching skill set. This observation is in stark contrast to her previous comments on repetitive grammar teaching, exercises and feigning dialogue on topics, which she does not feel contributed to her developing L2 self. Her work placement experience of the professional community has brought further development in her thinking as we can see in (13):

(13)

Ah, and another thing.... I've been doing work placement and ..... the specialist (the English teacher) doesn't know how to deal with pre-primary children. In my two work placements and the summer school, the teachers that came in just put videos on for the children ..... it's English hour and they put on '*one little monkey jumping on the bed*' and that's it and they're like that. (Elena crosses her arms). I think a person with a lower level of English and a good methodology would teach the class much better.

As a student of pre-primary teaching Elena is developing her conceptual and procedural knowledge on her future profession and can see that the 'expert' of the language teaching community does not follow the practices and norms she perceives as essential within the profession and that she is striving towards attaining. There is a glimpse of a possible L2 teaching self in her judgment implying that as an efficient professional she would do things differently. Despite her admitted lack of English skills, she opines that SLA methodology is more than providing input for the class. She also indirectly makes a stand for her own professional eligibility in that with a lower level she could actually teach more effectively.

Aside from her observations on teaching EFL, so far in the interview there have been few indications of an *ideal L2 self* in Elena's discourse. To turn the conversation towards her aspirations in that regard, I reminded her of the questionnaire statement about seeing oneself in the future working with English and that a lot of the participants had seemed to mark this ability relatively high. However, I also explained

that one girl had confessed to me just after completing the questionnaire that she had felt a compulsion to rank her agreement with the statement high because she was an education student and *should* be able to see herself using English in the classroom; despite the fact that she was incapable of actually conjuring up the vision. Elena took a different view on the reasons for this. She stated:

(14)

E: ...obligation? mmmm ... or because she'd like to be able to see herself ... That's what you do.... I really love teaching children so I put a five there.....but...with my level of English .... I can't.... but I really want to ... so I went for the five..... That's what we do .... I think.... So when you give us those questions....'Can you see yourself working in English with children?' .. you think.... 'wow, how lovely that would be ... in there teaching English ' ....so you mark it high ....but there's no way that I could right now..... but I'd love to see myself.

I. So it's like a fantasy?

E: yeah, exactly, even if people haven't a level or write 'hello' with a J - or aren't learning English now, they will say they can see that, because it's what they want to see.. yeah, because they really want to ....' English is really important' .....' with English there's so much work'....'and with English' .....of course....of course I see myself.

Here, we see that Elena is the second participant in the study to confess to marking the *ideal self* statement high in the Likert scale in the quantitative study MFQ, not because it is true to fact — a genuine ability to generate a vision — but because she has a huge desire to reach the point where she *is* able to generate a vision. It appears that her perceptions of her low level of English impedes a detailed image of herself interacting in English in a classroom, which suggests that the creation of visions is grounded in an awareness of one's abilities. However, this insight highlights the insistence of the proponents of the powerful motivational function of the imagination on a) the availability of an elaborate and vivid future image and b) the plausibility of actually possessing the skills or talents to enable a dream to become a reality. As Dörnyei (2009a, p. 19) puts it “possible selves are only effective insofar as the individual does indeed perceive them as possible.” Elena's exclamation — ‘wow...how lovely that would be’ appears to suggest that a detailed, elaborate vivid image of

herself is still a distant dream thanks to her perception of a lack of L2 knowledge. This qualitative insight takes us back to the idea that the *ideal self* works on a continuum starting with a dream or a fantasy and gradually becoming more detailed and vivid as the individual acquires the necessary skills and a sense of competence.

In the following excerpt we talk about Elena's perception of competent English speakers around her and any role model she might have regarding language skills.

(15)

I: Do you know anyone that you admire for their ability to learn languages?

E: In my class?

I: In class, among friends, people in other degrees ... I mean.. in your surroundings how many people do you know who have an acceptable level of spoken English?

E: acceptable... (she laughs) in my surroundings .... my mother and that's about it.

I: But you probably know quite a few people..

E: Yeah, my old friends.... classmates .... friends that study other stuff .... Yes... I have a really good friend who has spent time in Dublin and .. her sister who spent a year doing secondary in California ....of course.. the sister's level is unbelievable .... I say ...pff.. after two years away, she has a better level than me after 12 years studying ... .. it's the oral that fails in Spain ... they teach the grammar.. they teach the vocabulary... they teach you everything... what they don't teach you is how to sit in front of a person and speak.. that should be the first thing they teach and help us get rid of the embarrassment ... the way they teach ...correcting you all the time..makes you feel more embarrassed as you go on ... you're afraid to make a mistake.. you're afraid they'll say 'Gosh what bad pronunciation you have' .. and as the years go on.. the sense of ridicule gets worse.. and you think 'I don't want to speak in public in another language.

Elena, as an outgoing university student, seems to have a large circle of friends and acquaintances, yet she found it hard to bring to mind two people with admirable oral skills in English. Her mother is taking English lessons, and while this may be indicative of some degree of family support, the fact that she did not continue to speak of her mother's influence may suggest that she does not perceive direct relevance to

her particular situation in her family circle. Elena attributes her friend's admirable oral skills to time spent abroad and she is quick to return to the deficiencies of L2 teaching methodology in her own defence of her lack of L2 oral competence. Should this friend be her only reference for 'good' oral skills, there appears to be little support in Elena's immediate social and educational spheres to indicate that learning can indeed occur without spending time in an English speaking country. With this lack of role models in the student community, there is danger that Elena may be under the impression that few resources are available to her to acquire good oral skills herself. No *ought self* appears to emerge from her references to friends and although, she admires their language skills in the two instances given, she does not elaborate further on any sense of support or encouragement from other members of her groups of friends. This fact supports the elimination of two items referring to external encouragement to learn from friends in the scale used to measure the *ought self* in the quantitative study.

### 9.2.1 Summary of Elena's interview analysis

Once finalised the analysis of the interview, we conclude that Elena has made her own decision to initiate action to comply with a skill that, in her view, is not being fully provided for in her university education implying that an *ought self* is a significant drive behind her actions. It has not been possible in this interview to tie this sense of obligation to a particular person, peer group or entity, beyond educational legislation and the considerations of classmates. In the following chapter, we contrast this qualitative evidence with the quantitative results. Regarding an *ideal self*, although Elena does not appear to have a detailed or explicit *ideal L2 self*, owing to her current lack of linguistic skills in English, she does appear to have an Ideal teaching self and one could conjecture that this professionally driven *ideal self* may constitute the positive promotion focused support that Elena will require to sustain her L2 motivation. However, in terms of integration into a bilingual teaching community, there is a clear perception of a lack of social, financial and educational support in Elena's current environment and should this not change, execution of her language learning plans may be hindered. Significantly in this vein, Kim (2009c), who also discusses her interviewees' attitudes from a post-structuralist viewpoint, posits that without the support of community and its related rules and division of labour, it is difficult for a L2

learner to develop a “positive, competent, and promotion based future L2 self-image” (p. 291). Should this support not be available, Kim claims that learners will default to a prevention-focused *ought self*. Implicit in this argument is that a default *ought self* as the prime driver of behaviour, devoid of the support of an idealised image or various other supportive motivational variables, will prove a much weaker force that may not sustain the drive through the many motivational lows that learners are bound to encounter. At the time of the interview, Elena had spoken of plans to start English lessons the following year and prepare for a B1 qualification. So out of curiosity to know if she had actually put those plans into action, I contacted Elena in December 2014. She indicated that her plans were still in the future and that she had not actually taken any steps towards joining a class. Noticing Elena as less intense about English than during her interview, incidentally, I enquired about her classmates’ L2 learning endeavours now that they were all third year students, and Elena explained that talk in her class of English language learning had dwindled greatly given that they did not have an English subject in the third year of the degree. This fact brings to the fore the concept of an aim or objective supported by social cueing (Oyserman et al., 2006) — maintaining an aim available and activated within the working memory. Despite the fact that these students will be required to certify English (or another foreign language) in order to teach, English does not feature as a subject in their studies after second year. This would appear to indicate a lack of institutional support behind the government provisos for bilingual teaching. Inevitably, students will prioritise the subjects they are studying in a certain year, meaning that maintaining the need to develop language skills may easily take a back seat in their agendas. We cannot know now what event if any may re-spark these students’ interest in learning English and trigger autonomous action, although, the evidence suggests that conditions as they stand are not optimal for Elena and her classmates to put their plans into action.

We now turn to the second interviewee, Andrés and his particular view on the educational requisite for language competence.

### 9.3 Andrés

Andrés is a third year student of the Primary Education Degree at the private university, although slightly older than his classmates at 34. Teacher training is his second degree as his first line of studies was in a completely different area of Environmental studies. He had been a student of mine in the specialisation branch of English within his degree, meaning that he will be qualified to teach EFL as a primary school subject and not only a bilingual subject. I was aware that his oral English was quite good — he was among the best of his classmates — and he was planning to obtain a B2 certification during the following academic year. His interview was held in June, 2014, once the academic year had finalised, so as to avoid any misperception of my intentions or influence of the procedure on course assessment. Andrés had completed the quantitative study questionnaire about six months before the interview so was aware of the nature of the study.

The semi-structured interview followed the same overall pattern as that held with Elena in an attempt to delve into Andrés' views on the educational linguistic requirement and his perceptions of his ability to comply with this as well as his position as a legitimate peripheral candidate for integration in to the bilingual teaching community. However, as Andrés' stance is quite different to that of Elena as regards, for instance, his language learning history (he does not go into the same detail as Elena in this area), there are essential differences in the interview analysis structures.

I started by asking Andrés about his own English learning:

(1)

A: I've always found it easy, I've got some problems, but.... yeah, it's been easy for me.

I: So, can you see yourself teaching .. using English in a classroom.

A: Yes... of course.... yes.

Although we do not go into detail at this point on an explicit vision of himself as a teacher, Andrés is very unhesitant in his reply, almost surprised at the obvious question, giving the impression that he has no doubt as to an ability to see himself in



language teaching classroom. At a later stage of the interview he refers to some extra-curricular lessons in EFL that he teaches to 6 to 12 year-olds in the evenings and how his experiences makes him reflect on his future profession.

(2)

it's strange, some things come up that I know I used to know...vocabulary and stuff... and my mind goes blank and ... I think.. wow .. but I used to know that... and you're afraid .... you think... I have to be prepared to go into a classroom ...

A further glimpse into Andrés' Ideal L2 (teaching) self is evident in this desire to appear competent in an EFL classroom and the fear of not attaining this objective in front of a class or not being able to provide a good model of English for the children perhaps driving, in part, his desire to improve his English. The use of 'I have to' in the above extract appears more related to his *ideal self* than derived from an external source indicating an inner sense of responsibility to improve his English. In contrast to Elena's 'I have to get a B1 now", there seems to be an underlying tone of a desire to be an effective language teacher as opposed to an obligation to produce a certification. This notion is further reinforced when we turn to the perception of his peers on the L2 proviso.

(3)

I: So how do you see that it's a mandatory requirement now on behalf of the educational authorities? How are people taking it?

A: I see that that's stupid ... to think like that.. it shouldn't be seen as an imposition by the government ... it should be an imposition for yourself ... you're going to teach English so you have to have a knowledge of English.

I. So do you think that people feel that sense of responsibility ... as internalised?

A: No, not at all... people see the language as necessary...they understand that ...they know that ...but they see it as a demand from the market not a personal necessity... it's external.

Andrés' views appear mildly condescending in contrast to Elena's more empathising tone when she speaks of her peers. He seems to clearly distinguish his full endorsement of the linguistic proviso from the external imposition he perceives in his peers' attitudes. Even at this early stage of the interview Andrés also appears more

knowledgeable, more informed than Elena about the specifics of the mandatory qualification. In terms of legitimate peripheral status he seems to have a more advanced awareness of the mechanisms required for L2 accreditation in the teaching community.

(4)

I: And do you think that people see that it will be hard to work without English?

A: Yes, they do... people know that ..and the other day.. some news came out from the Education board that the only thing that is valid is the (official) School of Languages..... to teach English ..... to teach other subjects... to be a bilingual teacher .... teaching another subject in English it's ok to have a Cambridge or ..... ehmmm there's another one too ... I don't know...Trinity maybe..

I: Ah, really?

A: Yes, I see it as stupidity... it's the same...whether I teach English or teach another subject ...I need an excellent level of English to be a teacher ....I almost see it as more important to have a good level as a bilingual teacher than as an English language teacher.. ... because you're supposed to talk all the time in English ...I see it as it's silly.... emm... me personally.

Andrés has a clearly internalised sense of responsibility as a future language teacher and appears to have a much firmer stance than Elena with regard to the skills required for integration into the community of language teachers. He is derisive of any differentiation between the communicative competence required to teach English as a foreign language and that required for teaching content and language integrated learning (CLIL). He does not believe that the linguistic policy should differentiate the two. In his preparation for entry to the target teaching community, he has clearly reflected on the qualifications and procedures that will make him a valid member of the community. Despite Andrés' clearly different stance to that of Elena as a more capable and knowledgeable peripheral newcomer, the financial drain in language learning also comes up in Andrés' discourse. However he seems to accept that this is part and parcel of progress to his desired Ideal teaching self. His FL competence is quite high so he will have to pay for the official exam registration to obtain the certification, but not for lessons to prepare for the exam. He does not dwell on this fact, but turns the conversation to his derision of the logistics of the accreditation procedure:

(5)

A: “I see it as a money making racket – in the Official Schools of Languages (EOIs)...but it’s an unintelligent policy. ‘If I make you go to the Official School of Languages, but I don’t provide more staff, I don’t provide more places. ... so they’re creating a bottle neck..and then there’s another problem, in the EOI they only provide up to a B2 ...right?

I: well, yes, some EOIs have requested permission to teach up to C1 but only a few<sup>15</sup>

Both interviewees have coincided in using the expression *negocio* a business or a money maker’ to refer to the procedures for foreign language qualifications in the teaching profession. The repetition of the derisive *negocio* could suggest the case that this view of the legislation is common among the university student population. However, the tone of Andrés’ argument does not appear as defensive as Elena’s. While he is disapproving - seeing the move on the part of the Ministry of Education as badly planned in order to cope with the multitude of students that may enrol either for lessons in the EOI or to sit language exams — Andrés actually believes the imposition is not strict enough:

(6)

They should demand more, I don’t think that it’s right that any teacher of any speciality can get a B2 and is considered qualified to teach English ...it should be a C1... minimum.

Andrés implies that his ideal of an English teaching professional involves a highly competent language user and there is a further implication in his conjecture that he himself feels both willing and able to reach a C1 level of English. In Situated Learning Theory, we are told that a community of practice engages people in mutual sense-making – about the enterprise they’re engaged in, about their respective forms of participation in the enterprise (Eckert, 2006) and Andrés appears to be very involved in this ‘sense-making’. He is not only informed as to the procedures in place for certification but, clearly judgmental on the nature and significance of the L2 requirements perhaps due to his own stronger English abilities and his high ideals

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<sup>15</sup> Since this interview in June, 2014, the EOIs have announced intentions to raise the maximum qualification they offer to a C1.

about ELF and bilingual teaching standards. He seems to situate himself as having a solid stake in his legitimacy as a peripheral participant in the teaching community.

Curious as to the sources of Andrés' knowledge on L2 qualifications — he does not ask any questions as Elena had done — we then discuss how he has informed himself on the different procedures and requirements. The following exchange makes it clear that Andrés is proactive in seeking information:

(7)

I: Some people seem confused about what is required exactly .. so how do you know all this?

A: There's a blog called (...) ... by a guy who's an intern.

I: So you get information from there?

A: Of course." .. and the news ...

I: .. And.. do you think other students do the same?

A: No... not at all.

A: I also know that any private or semi-private school right now will ask for a B2..... Even if you're a PT (pedagogical therapist) and you're not going to teach...ever... you have to have a B2."

Through his online research, Andrés is making a concerted effort to consult with 'experts' or old-timers in his target community to align his knowledge with those involved in the teaching profession. In terms of the L2 MSS theory on an effective *ideal self*, he has put procedures in place, not only to consolidate his L2 skills, but also to know what is expected of him as a teacher. In the lack of a physical community of old timers that he could participate in, he has taken advantage of the possibility of engaging with the community through the resource of blogs and, undoubtedly, other forms of technology and news media. Andrés seems to transmit that learning about norms and practices with fully fledged members of the teaching community also distinguishes him from the other newcomers to the L2 or bilingual teaching community. For newcomers, in the words of Lave and Wenger (1991 pp. 108-9), "the purpose is not to learn *from* talk as a substitute for legitimate peripheral participation; it is *to* learn to talk as a key to legitimate peripheral participation, and Andrés shows his efforts in this vein.

From the discussion so far, Andrés appears to have internalised an *ought L2 self* and gives no indication that he feels a sense of external imposition. I was interested to know how he felt this had come about. I asked him about his parent's role in his sense of responsibility:

(8)

A: "My parents! ...well..your family surroundings are important ..but ... they don't have any language... they only have basic education.. that's all they had.

I: But do you feel they brought you up to be responsible?

A: There's no doubt that your family environment influences that ...and your personal life .. all your experiences ... if you've left the university and started to work... like me...I've been working for thirteen years ... that gives you a degree of responsibility to .... you know ..

I: Ah, I see, is that a question of maturity?

A: Yes .. you work... then you get married... a house ...a car .. and you spend a lot of money to get another degree ... you can't risk it .... You can't mess around.

In the above exchange, Andrés, while attributing some relevance to his family's contribution to his development as a person, does not go into detail and quickly changes the track of the explanation to his life experiences. He is quick to attribute the process of internalising a sense of duty to the various stages of work and marriage to his *ought self* development. Incidentally, in the two interviews, neither of the participants dwell on their family's role on their language learning, and any attempts on my part to return the question of family are resisted by the interviewees switching the conversation back to themselves, suggesting that while general personal support may exist in the family circle, there does not appear to be a significantly proactive role on behalf of the family in the two interviewees' L2 learning attitudes and beliefs or on their chosen professions.

We discuss Andres' perceptions of his classmates and peers' attitudes to the linguistic proviso:

(9)

I: So, what do you think your classmates ... people around are doing to get a certification? Are they learning?

A: Well.. because they're seeing it as an external demand and they're thinking .. 'pff.. right.. well, if I have to ..then I will' ... reluctantly... but they want the certification ... a piece of paper ... but they're not doing anything really ...

The emphasis that Andrés perceives in his classmates' views is on actual accreditation not on acquisition of the relevant skills. From Andrés' conjectures, he concludes that his peers do not possess intrinsic L2 motivation and 'reluctantly' acquiesce to educational or professional demands. He generalises to the whole class group and fails to single out any peers that might share his intrinsic motivation or possess L2 skills that might match his own. In this sense, it does not seem that he feels part of a supportive learning group in Andrés' immediate surroundings with cohesive attitudes to L2 mastery, which appears to leave him in a rather solitary position within his educational circle.

Regarding Andrés' *ideal L2 self*, we turn to the question the steps he takes to improve his own English and his future plans.

(10)

I: So are you taking classes at the moment or studying yourself?

A: No, not really, my work hours have changed recently, so I haven't time this year. I do teach Spanish to a group of 5 English people, so that's good input for me. I have to explain everything in English... how to conjugate verbs and all that... so that helps me for now.

Although Andrés claims to lack time for English, the fact that he also has a part time teaching job, aside from his degree studies and his own full time job is surprising. His investment in his skills development is impressive. I wonder about his vision of his future:

(11)

I: So, how can you see yourself ... let's say .. in three years' time?

A: Well, I don't know really.. it depends on the state exams next year.. if I pass.. and I get a job.. then I'll make plans to do something else.. I don't want to stop there.... but once I have a salary sorted out.. I might do another post graduate course to keep studying.

Andrés is clearly ambitious, although we cannot guarantee that his plans will work out. His self confidence leads me back to the question of his ability to see himself teaching primary children. Curiously Andres' reply (13) is now more cautious compared to his initial 'of course' at the start of the interview:

(13)

A: mmm, well, I'm not so sure ..I haven't done my work placement yet so I really don't know what that will be like or if I'll be good.

I: but you teach and you have a good level of English

A: yes, but it's a different level of teaching, and the extracurricular lessons are more relaxed, not regulated teaching, I don't know ... I'll have to see. Maybe I won't be so good in that age group at that level.

Andrés' caution shows that he does not automatically extrapolate his current teaching experiences to the constraints of a formal primary classroom, which give the impression that he is a reflexive person who also takes lack of relevant experience into account. In contrast to Elena's more confident account of her perceptions of a pre-primary classroom, which she has experienced, Andrés still lacks real world knowledge in this regard. This insight shows a developing ideal L2 teaching self that still resorts to imagination, but in doing so Andrés is aware that there may be aspects he cannot confidently anticipate without real experience that will enable him to assess his suitability or capability in a particular classroom. Andrés, in this sense, appears full aware that he is indeed on the periphery of the bilingual teaching community.

### **9.3.1 Summary of Andrés' interview analysis**

Andrés presents a stark contrast to that of the previous interviewee, Elena as regards his positioning on the periphery of his proposed professional community. He appears more confident in his ability to acquire the skills necessary based on his current competence and also appears to have higher standards as regards the requisite for bilingual and English language teachers. By setting his standards high and implying he can comply with these, he is also reaffirming his own legitimacy as a very competitive future participant of the teaching community. In line with the theoretical basis of legitimate peripheral participation, Andrés is proactive in seeking interaction

with old-timers and aligning his knowledge with theirs, to the extent that he allows himself to be judgemental on the governmental proviso and the lack of efficacy in the procedures followed to certify future teachers' FL competence. Andrés' more confident stance is reflected in the structure that the interview takes – Andrés affirms and confirms, whereas Elena had questioned and argued her case, showing a more defensive stance in contrast to Andrés' reasoning attitude.

Despite his different stance as regards his skill set and preparation for entry to the teaching profession, Andrés does present some parallels with Elena. On the one hand, neither of the interviewees embraces the 'imposition' by the Educational authorities as they concur in that the certification system will somehow bring financial gain to the Government. Andrés also presents a similarly lone stance to that of Elena as a language learner or user as he does not give any indication of direct or indirect support from family or friends in his language learning endeavours. This perspective seems to indicate that social and family L2 learning support could be lacking for students in similar positions in the Region. Andrés clearly shows a sense of responsibility, an *ought self* that he appears to have internalised as his responsible attitudes to teaching and L2 standards also form part of his ideal professional and personal self.

#### **9.4 Chapter summary and conclusions**

In this chapter we have analysed interviews with two students of teacher training degrees in order to examine their *ought selves* as regards the L2 proviso in teacher qualifications. We also looked at their reported behaviour and attitudes from the perspective of Situated Learning Theory (Lave and Wenger, 1991) and analysed the responses of the interviewees from their positions as legitimate peripheral participants in a bilingual teaching community. This analysis facilitated a picture of their considerations of eligibility, preparation and struggle for integration to the community. This view also enables us to examine the participants' interactions with peers and expert members of the community as well as the availability and use of any resources to acquire the knowledgeable skill that will serve them in their future profession.



Elena and Andrés have clearly shown different positions regarding the L2 proviso. While both appear to have developing ideal teaching selves and both clearly reflect on their knowledgeable skills base for their future professions, the Ideal L2 teaching self is only apparent in Andrés' discourse and behaviour as he clearly self-regulates his progress towards his ideal L2 teaching self — he autonomously engages with available resources to gain information, and interact with old-timers in the community, and is improving his language skills. His *ought self* appears as fully internalised and enhanced by feelings of competence. Indeed a sense of competence, mastery of the subject matter and intrinsic motivation underlies Andrés' discourse at all times. Elena, on the other hand, confesses to an inability to generate the highly desired L2 teaching vision owing to her current insecurity in her language skills, and she is slightly resentful of the demand on newcomers to the community of a challenge that she feels the 'experts' should also face. This in turn situates her *ought self* as an external imposition to be complied with somewhat unwillingly in the short time frame that she feels she has been given – restricting her freedom of choice as to how she would set about her L2 learning, which, importantly, she feels the educational system has failed to provide for. The proviso also interferes with the priorities she has established to improve her skill set beyond her basic educational qualification bringing to mind Dörnyei (1998) and Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011) concerns for parallel multiplicity or conflicts of priorities at a given time in an individual's learning path. Contrasting Elena and Andrés' attitudes and self regulatory behaviour, which subsumes feelings of (in)competence, it is clear that there are parallels with Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier and Ryan's (1991, p. 327) view on self determination theory in that:

When a behavior is self-determined, the person perceives that the locus of causality is internal to his or her self, whereas when it is controlled, the perceived locus of causality is external to the self. The important point in this distinction is that both self-determined and controlled behaviours are motivated or intentional but their regulatory processes are very different.

In this light, Andrés' behaviour can be seen as strongly self determined with an internal locus of control, whereas Elena presents the opposing picture of external control on her L2 learning and little self regulation of learning behaviour. We cannot

say that Elena would not be intrinsically motivated were she to have available the resources to currently engage in learning English, neither can we predict her future L2 learning path. The snapshot view obtained from Elena's depiction of her situation is one of struggle as she faces a threat to the steady development of her ideal, competent teaching self. Elena's predicament and struggle is reminiscent of that of Pizzolato's disadvantaged students, discussed in Chapter Four (section 4.2.1), who required a constant reappraisal of old and discovery of new conceptual and procedural schemas in struggling to align their sense of identity with the unfamiliar territory they were approaching in their college lives. Just as Pizzolato (2006) was unable to predict whether her sample would eventually win the struggle and reach their somewhat fragile visions, we cannot predict whether Elena will manage to align her ideal teaching self with her more fragile sense of a possible L2 using (and teaching) self.

Elena and Andres' stories bring to light a future consideration for research into learner motivation under the umbrella of the L2 motivational self system in that the dynamics of L2 selves can be supported or hindered by possible or ideal professional selves with the *ought self* in one field and the *ideal self* in another. The view offers support for a deeper consideration of desires and responsibilities in overlapping self domains and the dynamics of interaction between an *ideal L2 self* and other *ideal selves*, in particular, in the case that a more developed professional Ideal teaching self must work in conjunction with a newly constructed and underdeveloped *ideal L2 self*.

# Chapter 16 . DISCUSSION

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## 10.0 Introduction

In this chapter we shall be looking at the significance of the findings detailed in Chapters Eight and Nine regarding attitudes, beliefs and behaviour in L2 learning, both in the cultural context examined and in the broader theoretical and empirical arena of the L2 MSS. The overall aim of applying the L2 MSS to a Spanish population was to draw up a picture of the L2 motivation profiles of university students in the cultural context of Murcia, Spain. This chapter attempts to produce that picture by discussing the findings in terms of the research questions and hypotheses that were outlined in Chapter Six as well as in terms of the contributions that we have made with our methodology and findings to the field of L2 motivation research and practice.

We may recall that the following five specific RQs were posited in Chapter Six to guide the study design and analysis:

RQ1: DO STUDENTS WHO HAVE CHOSEN ENGLISH AS A MAJOR LINE OF STUDY AT UNIVERSITY SHOW A STRONG IDEAL SELF PROFILE IN THEIR L2 MOTIVATION IN CONTRAST TO THOSE WHO CHOOSE STUDIES LARGELY UNRELATED TO ENGLISH?

RQ2: FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE L2 MSS, DO STUDENTS IN STUDIES RELATED TO EDUCATION AT UNIVERSITY SHOW A STRONG OUGHT SELF PROFILE IN THEIR L2 MOTIVATION IN CONTRAST TO THOSE INVOLVED IN STUDIES UNRELATED TO EDUCATION?

RQ3: AS MEASURED BY THE L2 MSS, WHAT ROLE DO LEARNING EXPERIENCES PLAY IN THE CURRENT L2 MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN THE REGION OF MURCIA?

RQ4: AS SEEN THROUGH THE L2 MSS, WHAT ROLE DO THE DIFFERENT ATTITUDINAL, GOAL-RELATED AND AFFECTIVE VARIABLES PLAY IN THE MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP OF THE SAMPLE?

RQ5. AS MEASURED BY THE L2 MSS, DOES THE MOTIVATIONAL MAKE-UP OF THE SAMPLE DIFFER ACCORDING TO VARIABLES OF A) PERCEIVED PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH OR B) GENDER?

In the first section of this chapter, the three specific research questions (RQs 1,2 & 3) and their respective hypotheses targeting the core concepts of the L2 MSS are

discussed individually before taking a broader look at what the findings can tell us about the interplay between the three attractor basins of the *ideal* and *ought selves* as well as the L2 *learning experience* across the sample and their impact on motivated behaviour as measured by future intentions to engage in L2 learning. These findings are also examined in the light of previous L2 MSS studies as well as the wider implications for the theoretical and practical perspectives of the L2 MSS.

The second section will discuss the findings with regard to RQ 4 obtained in the examination of the a) attitudinal b) goal related and c) affective motivational variables examined through the MFQ scales, and the interplay between these and the core concepts of the L2 MSS within and across the sample and as well as with the criterion measures of intended learning effort.

RQ5 explored variation in L2 selves and attitudes according to the variables of perceived language achievement and gender. As many of the findings we discuss in previous sections are also relevant to findings under these two classifications, these shall be mentioned where relevant throughout the chapter. However, the most significant findings for each subdivision shall also be discussed in a separate section.

## **10.1 Contributions to the ideal L2 self dimension of the L2MSS**

The first analysis procedure posed in Chapter Eight aimed at discovering whether an *ideal L2 self* was a strong motivational variable in students who had chosen English as major line of study in their university degrees and it was hypothesised, based on the evidence obtained previous L2 MSS studies (see Dörnyei and Ushioda's 2009 anthology) that this indeed would be the case. The findings obtained from the quantitative study analysis confirmed the hypothesis as the English Major group as a whole emerged as the strongest group in their ability to envisage future professional and social English using selves. The *ideal self* scale also emerged as the variable most highly correlated with the criterion measure of participants' intentions to learn in the future.

The above affirmation contributes to the range of studies examining the L2 self in other cultural contexts. The notion of an *idealised* future L2 using self guide as a

major drive behind motivated behaviour has reached unequivocal status in the empirical literature and indeed, so far in the studies carried out, there appears to be little cultural variation in the actual existence of an explicit ideal foreign language using self as seen by studies in Hungary (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Csisér & Lukács, 2010; Kormos & Csizér, 2008), Saudi Arabia (Al Shehri, 2009), Japan (Ryan, 2008, 2009), Japan, China and Iran (Taguchi et al., 2009), Chile (Kormos et al. 2011), UK (Busse, 2010, 2013), Indonesia (Lamb, 2009), Pakistan (Islam, Lamb & Chambers, 2013), Sweden (Henry, 2009, 2010, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c,). The data obtained in Spain, given the scale's consistently robust relationship with the intentions to learn, also strengthens the claims of the above mentioned researchers, and more recently of You and Dörnyei (2014), that the more intense the involvement with English, the stronger the *ideal self* vision, and the likelihood that explicit, detailed visions are indeed effective.

Related to more local concerns, within the English Major group, it is apparent by the presence of outliers, both the criterion measure as well as in the *ideal L2 self* scale that a small number of students within in the English Studies and Translation and Interpretation degrees do not rate the ability to generate an L2 using vision as high as their classmates, whether related to a lack of ability or desire to see themselves as English users or to a sense of disillusion with the line of study chosen. The qualitative exploratory pre-MFQ interviews did identify certain individuals who appeared disenchanted with their choice of study as they felt their expectations on language learning had not been met (see pre-MFQ participant profiles in Chapter Seven). A consideration is that it is possible that certain individuals were a low point in their L2 motivation at the time of the study for diverse reasons and motivation may have rekindled since the time of the interviews. In this sense, one longitudinal study by Busse (2010, 2013) on the dynamics of the L2 MSS in British students learning German identified a decrease in L2 learning motivation as the language course progressed. The waning enthusiasm in her sample was associated with a decrease in feelings of self efficacy associated with language learning task performance, which, in turn, affected the strength of learners *ideal L2 self* visions. We could speculate, based on this evidence, that within a group of students taking an English Major degree, it is likely

that certain members of that group will question their L2 abilities at certain points in the process in relation to particular L2 tasks. Therefore, it is feasible to expect extreme reactions such as those encountered in this study in a cohort that are heavily engaged in L2 learning on a daily basis. What can be gained from this, theoretically, is that the *ideal self* concept is also useful as a lens to detect motivational lows or indeed demotivation, as an inability or unwillingness to generate a vision may be symptomatic of temporary motivational constraints.

In contrast to the robustness of the *ideal L2 self* in English Major students, the Education group and the Other Studies group showed no significant differences in their significantly lower rating of the *ideal L2 self*. However, even though visions of using the L2 in future professional or social situations are less salient in these groups, who both have some degree of vested interest in L2 competence, it is evident that the concept is relevant to these students and also bears the strongest affiliation to future intentions to learn. It is notable that the *ideal L2 self* shows a stronger relationship with intended effort in the Education group than in the English Majors. This suggests that the Education students are somehow reflecting a more consistent desire to engage in learning perhaps due to the fact that they have been recently posed with a novel educational challenge, making the need to acquire English more salient in their working memories. However, it may also be the case that English Majors are indeed currently investing effort into developing their desired selves, therefore, mitigating the urgency of committing to future plans.

The clearest picture of the ability to generate future L2 visions was seen across the means obtained in the perceived proficiency subgrouping. The correlation data showed stronger relationships between *ideal self* and future effort in the lower A2 and B1 groups, reflecting closer affiliations between *ideal self* visions and future plans to learn for these students. This again makes sense, as it is the lower level achievers who need to work towards improvement. Those who feel they have a satisfactory level of competence may not have a strong need to commit to future effort. Therefore we do not claim that a strong self assessment of proficiency is the stronger determiner of future motivated behaviour. However, the gradual increase in means observed across the A2 to C1 groups confirms a clear proportionate relationship between perceptions

of achievement in English and an ability to conjure up a L2 using self. At this point we must remember that the proficiency reported is not an objective consideration of L2 ability, it is the learners' own *beliefs* about their L2 ability, which may or may not coincide with reality. Ryan (2008, p. 223) points out, "it is the individual's judgements rather than their actual ability that are likely to have a greater impact on motivated behaviour". Our quantitative results lend credence to the view that individual judgements of L2 ability have a strong impact on a capacity to see oneself as a L2 user in the future. The qualitative interview findings also strengthen this conjecture in Elena's case in that she felt unable to conjure up a vision of herself using English in a classroom due to her lack of L2 skills.

The evident close relationship between beliefs about success in L2 learning and the *ideal L2 self* confirmed in this study cannot be contrasted easily with previous L2 MSS findings. None of the Asian studies report similar evidence on this proportionate association between visions of L2 self guides and language achievement. Ryan (2008) does provide some data on perceptions of progress in the language and the L2 self guides, although he does not find a relationship of note. However, Ryan did not report the means obtained in the motivational variables across his proficiency groups making the data between Spain and Japan difficult to compare. Ryan's conclusions are that motivated behaviour is not merely a product of successful learning, which supports the unpredictability of motivation. However, in this study, our data suggests that the ability to generate visions of L2 using selves can be considered a product of beliefs about proficiency. This view is supported by Dörnyei and Chan (2013) and MacIntyre et al., (2009) who also found that *ideal self* guides were equally strong in relation to actual achievement. Theoretically, for the L2 MSS, these findings strengthen Dörnyei's *ideal L2 self* conceptualisation in terms of its close relationship with L2 achievement – real or perceived, a finding also supported in general educational psychology (e.g. Marsh & Craven, 1997; Marsh, Trautwein, U. Köller, O & Baumart, J., 2006) (all in MacIntyre, et al., 2009a) who found a domain-specific self concept a significant predictor of academic achievement.

At a practical level regarding the insights this study offers for considerations in classroom instruction, these findings support Dörnyei and colleagues' (Arnold, 2007,

Chan, 2014; Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013, Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2013; Magid, 2011, 2012) calls for a focus on the L2 selves of language learners in the L2 classroom. More specifically, these authors propose that developing the capacity in learners to generate images and employ the power of the imagination to envisage detailed L2 using selves is a powerful motivator. We have seen in this study that those students more heavily involved with English in their studies or those perceiving higher levels of achievement rate the *ideal L2 self* guide very highly, suggesting that Dörnyei's (2009, p. 15) claim that it is "the experiential element that makes possible selves larger than any combination of goal related constructs" is indeed a valid one. It is in a teacher's power to explore and gain insight into learners' mindsets through their ability to detail a future image. It is also in the teachers' power to enhance learners' capacity to generate attainable and realistic L2 visions. However, we feel it important to reiterate that perceptions of language learning ability, i.e. success in learning, will fuel the capacity to imagine a competent L2 using self. Thus, teachers may also consider ways to work towards a parallel enhancement of learners' self-efficacy beliefs by detecting reasons behind achievement and pointing out when and why L2 learning efforts are successful.

## **10.2 Contributions to the L2 Learning experience dimension of the L2MSS**

RQ3 aimed at discovering the impact of both past and present *learning experiences* on the motivation of the sample and findings under this novel temporal perspective contribute to both L2 MSS theory and, in our local context, practice. Previous quantitative and qualitative research on the L2 *learning experience* dimension of the L2 MSS has examined this concept in participants engaged in L2 learning concomitant to the surveys, and no study has thus far separated attitudes to different L2 learning contexts from a temporal perspective. In this study, the distinction made between current attitudes to learning and attitudes to past *L2 learning experiences* suggests that beliefs differ greatly. In Chapter Two, we offered an overview of classroom learning in secondary education in past decades in Spain as a heavily grammar based subject, non-conducive to oral competence in the language, and it



appears that the evidence obtained supports the hypothesis that learning English in compulsory education was somewhat negative. There is an exception in the English Major students, who see their past experiences at secondary school in a more favourable light than the Education and Other Studies participants, suggesting that those who continued to study English at university had more enjoyable or productive experiences in the past. However, this more motivated cohort also showed a much weaker affiliation between past and current *learning experiences* indicating that there is little association between their learning as a school subject and learning in the English Studies Degree. On the other hand, the Education and Other Studies groups reflect a more disavourable attitude to past learning at school as well as a stronger linear relationship between past and current learning. This suggests that for some reason the two non-Major groups are maintaining the relevance of their adverse attitudes to past *learning experiences*. This is particularly evident in the Other Studies students. The question that this raises is whether the negative attitudes are affecting desires to engage in learning English or a current lack of heavy involvement in English studies is helping sustain certain pessimism about learning. Supporting the idea that positive current attitudes can help overcome past negativity, the data obtained across the perceived proficiency groups also showed that, as perceptions of competence increase, negative attitudes to past learning decrease. This is also an insightful finding for practitioners in suggesting that efforts can be made in instructional settings to uncover attitudes and beliefs developed as a result of antagonistic learning histories that may lead learners' to falsely attribute a lack of achievement to their own capabilities. Such learners would benefit from an understanding that not all L2 teaching is conducive to communicative competence and lead them to see certain learning contexts in a more objective light.

Bearing in mind that this study explored subgroups with varying degrees of involvement in learning English ranging from moderate or weak (Education and Other Studies participants) to intensive (English Majors) to it is notable that the strong relevance of attitudes to current learning in the construction of an *ideal L2 self* vision as well as to future intentions to learn is consistently strong across the three academic cohorts. There is an indication here that the attitudes to learning scale may be tapping

into a deeper attitudinal or psychological factor than actual beliefs about what is happening in L2 classrooms, supporting Ryan's (2008) conjectures in the same vein. If we consider that another variable that appears highly valued across the sample and consistently closely related to the *learning experience* dimension in this study is interest in the English language *per se*, we see that this denotes an *intrinsic* liking for the subject matter. Therefore, current *learning experiences* complemented by favourable attitudes to English as a language appear closely related to a strong L2 *ideal self* concept across the whole sample regardless of past *learning experiences*.

Regarding the relevance of the learning context to the *ideal L2 self* and intentions to learn in the future, the data in Spain indicates that intrinsic enjoyment is highly relevant to the participating university students. This finding is somewhat distinct to that of Csizér and Kormos (2009a), who discovered that immediate *learning experiences* were a stronger influence on motivated behaviour in secondary students than in university students. They concluded that a less developed *ideal L2 self* in the younger learners brought the need for intrinsic enjoyment of learning to the fore, and that the older university students were less concerned about intrinsic classroom enjoyment and more focused on the ultimate aim of L2 achievement. In a similar vein, Magid's (2010) study in China on a university student sample also supports the idea that a strong self concept can override the significance of intrinsic enjoyment. The significance that the participants in Spain afford to learning enjoyment may in fact be a by-product of the above-mentioned negative past *learning experiences*. Again for practice in Spain we suggest that considerations of making learning enjoyable is relevant even for adult learners, particularly in those who do not possess a strong L2 self concept.

A third factor strongly related to the *learning experience* in this study was that of *cultural interest* –engaging with to the cultural products of a foreign culture such as music, television series, and print media — a variable that also featured strongly in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) macro study of Hungarian language learners. This variable comes up in this Spanish study as relevant to the *learning experience*, but much less salient in the construction of future visions in this Spanish sample indicating that cultural products are seen as useful in learning the language more than as part and

parcel of future visions of communicating professionally or socially. Watching television and reading in English also distinguishes the English Major group quite strongly from the Education and Other Studies students, explaining 20% of the variance between these groups and 29% of the variance across the Perceived Competence groups. This data suggests that engaging with cultural media print products is associated with higher involvement in language learning, higher levels of perceived competence and higher degrees of intrinsic enjoyment of learning. This view supports that Kormos & Csizér, (2007) and Csizér and Kormos (2009b, p. 179), who claim that:

The importance of contact through cultural products calls attention to the fact that the mere frequency with which students read, listen to, and watch English language media enhances language learning attitudes. Therefore, students in a foreign language setting should be encouraged to use this opportunity not only because it provides them with input for language learning but also because it contributes to more positive attitudes to the language, its speakers, and their culture.

For the groups less involved with English and lower proficiency groups, however, the weaker levels of engagement with the cultural products of the language may be symptomatic of lower intrinsic enjoyment of the language learning process and lower perceived achievement.

Regarding the relationship between other motivational variables explored in this study and cultural product consumption, a particularly strong correspondence was found with the variable of *self confidence* across the sample, again suggesting that a perception of one's capacity to use authentic cultural materials may be indicative of higher sense of efficacy in learning the language. In this sense, this finding would concur with those of Kormos & Csizér, (2007). The two non-Major participant groups, and the subgroups with lower levels of perceived proficiency do not show a strong tendency to engage with cultural print or media miscellanea and this fact suggests that any current learning efforts are not supported by use of cultural realia. Kormos and Csizér's (2008) study found that *cultural interest* was a significant predictor of motivated behaviour in secondary school children, although, this was less the case in their older cohorts. It is not possible to prove from the study data in Spain whether

using L2 media improves proficiency or whether proficiency encourages cultural engagement and this is an area that deserves both a research and a practical instructional focus in the light of claims (e.g. Csizér & Kormos, 2009b) that authentic cultural media products help familiarise learners with L2 communities, shape attitudes and, in contexts lacking opportunities for contact with L2 speakers, cultural products may be the main source of indirect contact with the L2. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005a, 2005b) also claim that a learner's confidence (or sense of efficacy) in dealing with the L2 will determine her willingness to engage with this type of material. This argument reinforces the previously mentioned relevance of self efficacy and perceived competence in motivated behaviour. In the light of the *ideal L2 self* theory, it is also logical to conjecture that visions of possible L2 selves will also be enriched through interaction with cultural elements deriving from native and non-native English usage contexts.

In answer to Dörnyei's 2009 call for research to untangle the range of influences related to *learning experiences*, we have been able to contribute more detail to the *learning experience* dimension of the L2 MSS through our delimitation of past and current experiences. To date no differentiation has been made in L2 MSS studies between past and present learning attitudes. We feel that distinguishing the two has facilitated an awareness of the fact that learners may face difficulty in overcoming the various effects of negative past *learning experiences* on learners' self related beliefs. However, further study will be required in order to explore the conditions that can help L2 learners achieve this. With regard to variables related to the *learning experience*. We have ascertained a strong relevance of attitudes to the English language itself as well as attitudes to learning, although the latter concept appears to require further conceptual attention given the strong ratings and correlations with intended learning in participants who would seem to have little or weak current involvement in actual learning. Finally, we provide support for the view the use of L2 cultural products is strongly related to achievement.

### 10.3 Contributions to the *ought self* dimension of the L2 MSS

Our quantitative results on the *ought self* dimension of the L2 MSS construct did not initially seem to support the original hypotheses posed in RQ2, that a sense of obligation to learn would be more patent in students who had taken studies related to pre-primary, primary or secondary education thanks to the governmental imposition on teachers to certify their foreign language competence. The scale obtained the lowest rating of all the motivational variables examined across three academic cohorts and an unexpected negative relationship emerged between this external sense of duty and intentions to learn. These figures were again reiterated across the groups of perceived proficiency with only the lower achievers showing some recognition of a sense of imposition. The *ought self* scale employed in the MFQ targets a sense of imposition transcending through parents, family members and/or educational requisites. However, the majority of participants of this study appear to reject the idea that they feel obliged to learn English from these sources.

We should recall here that previous L2 MSS studies carried out in Western cultures have reported difficulties in identifying an *ought L2 self* in their empirical research. For instance, in their 2013 study, Islam and colleagues suggested that the scale had worked in Asian contexts because the items used contained the personal pronouns 'I' and 'me' and thus were interpreted as part of the participants' self concept. Csizér and Kormos (2009a) suggested that the problems of pinning down the *ought* dimension of their cohorts' was due to the level of internalisation of the *ought self* making it difficult to detect the external influences that had been embraced and accepted into the learners' self system. In this Spanish study, the data suggests that identifying the *ought self* may be highly dependent on local contextual factors, i.e. in Spain is the newly introduced requisite for L2 certification for those wishing to embark on a career in primary or secondary level teaching. However, the phrasing of the pertinent scale item meant that this requisite, as a solitary reason for learning English was rejected across the sample. We thus turned to the two other scales that also denoted external influences on pressure or support to learn — *instrumentality prevention* and *parental encouragement* — to explore the issue further.

### 10.3.1 Contributions to the ought L2 self: parental encouragement and instrumentality prevention

The *ought self* dimension of the L2 MSS was specifically explored in Taguchi et al. (2009) in conjunction with an *instrumentality* dichotomy in order to examine the concept from an avoidance perspective. The results showed that while the positive promotional *instrumentality* scale influenced the *ideal L2 self* to a large extent, its prevention focused counterpart had a close relationship with *both* the *Ideal* and *ought self* dimensions. The authors concluded that external obligations, thanks to strong societal incentives to learn English and, in particular parental pressure, had been internalised in the participants' L2 *ideal L2 self* system. In Asian studies, parental influence has been confirmed as a very strong factor in the development of the *ought self* in these cultures, i.e. avoiding letting people down by not achieving competence in English, as we saw, for instance in the coining of the term *The Chinese imperative*. However, a more recent study by You and Dörnyei (2014) on over 10,000 Chinese participants has, however, questioned that the concept of the Chinese Imperative is generalisable to all Chinese learners of English as they were unable to detect strong *ought self* influence across their sample, and found that parental support and *instrumentality prevention* theorised in their study as dimensions of an *ought self* reached significance in the English Major students only.

Our findings lead us to confirm that *parental encouragement* is not a salient factor for the Spanish sample as a whole. Parental influence on L2 learning was moderately associated with the *ought self* and *instrumentality promotion* in the English Major group, and with the *ideal self* and *instrumentality promotion* in the Education group, but not to a significant level. This suggests that parents are a supportive influence on the more motivated cohort perhaps through proactive pressure to learn, by investing in their children's L2 learning at language schools or extended stays in English speaking countries, whereas in the Education group parents have not exerted pressure to the same extent. The lack of a salient parental influence on the participants in these university students is contrary also to the findings by Csizér and Kormos (2009a, 2009b) in Hungary, and in Kormos et al. (2011) in Chile. These studies uncovered a strong parental influence on both the internalised positive values in their

participants' self systems and concluded in both studies that family values on language learning and awareness of the need for English in order to gain knowledge about the world and progress professionally was a significant factor in encouraging self regulated behaviour. There are clear indications of low levels of parental involvement and influence on L2 attitudes and behaviour in this cohort, which could in itself be a factor in the low levels of recognition of external influences on learning and may have an indirect relationship to lower achievement and motivated behaviour. This consideration is reinforced by Kormos et al. (2011, p. 512)

“...the immediate social environment of students, which is represented by milieu and *parental encouragement*, is a higher order factor, which affects learning goals as well students' attitudes, self-efficacy beliefs and self-concept. Social context and *parental encouragement*, however, do not have a direct link to motivated behavior, as effort and persistence can only be regulated by the learners themselves (Deci and Ryan 1985). For the majority of language learners, and even for young adults, parents, and the family are the mediators of the societal and cultural values and norms.

We surmise, based on the above, that L2 learners who do not receive encouragement or L2 mediation from parents at a disadvantage as regards the transmission of values and advantages of L2 learning as well as support in the L2 learning endeavour. We were also unable to determine an influence of friends or peers in L2 learning. This might be an indication of a general lack of *milieu* support in L2 learning in Spain. This is a concern for L2 motivation in L2 learning in Spain as studies in educational psychology, e.g. Oyserman et al. (2006), posit that an efficacious self guide requires social and family support in order to maintain proximal goals in the working self concept. Therefore, we suggest that a lack of parental and peer support in this sample may make it more difficult for future L2 learners to generate plans and sustain levels of L2 motivation as they are forced into a more autonomous focus on their L2 learning.

In this Spanish study, *instrumentality prevention*, does not correlate highly with the *ought self*, as measured in the MFQ. the *instrumentality prevention* scale targeted potential losses, e.g. a desired job or educational choice without English without mention of the sources of this pressure. The expected strong relationship with the

*ought self*, especially in the Education participants, did not materialise, meaning that the participants are not associating potential losses with the pressure from significant others. We have already seen that parents do not appear to exert pressure to learn across the sample, and in the preparation of the scale for the study, friends were found to bear little relation to a sense of pressure and were eliminated from the scale (see Chapter Seven). The qualitative interviews also failed to pinpoint pressure from identifiable sources other than a professional requisite. Therefore, a consideration of the underlying tenets of the scale is required. As a result of our explorations and findings, we feel that the problem may lie in two domains: a) attempting to restrict sources of pressure to certain individuals or peer groups, such as parents and friends and b) identifying exact sources of higher order societal pressures. The reason for this may be that information about the labour market L2 requirements, the need for L2 skills in future employment, and other potential areas which demand L2 competence, filters through society in a more subtle, covert fashion, i.e., through news media, advertisements for language courses and schools, anecdotes of peers, neighbours and other acquaintances. The variety of sources are difficult to pin down and, perhaps less relevant than the actual consequences of not achieving L2 skills, which is what students are registering. L2 Learners in this study appear to identify more readily with the tangible threats to their professional plans that are reflected in the *instrumentality prevention* scale, without a focus on the *source* of this information, i.e. *if I don't have English I may not get a job* facilitates a depiction of oneself without work, earning, etc. much more easily than *My parents agree that English is very important*. Depending on how important or close a threat is to a person, the *ought* or *feared self* may come into play and complement an *ideal self* in spurring one into action. As opposed to Oriental contexts, where perhaps the role of others is more tangible, it is recommended that in Western contexts external pressures could be examined at a deeper or more abstract societal level.

Our quantitative and qualitative data also suggests that an *ought self* is more easily detectable from the point of view of an avoidance of the pragmatic losses or gains as a result of L2 learning rather than attempting to pinpoint sources of pressure to social or family groups or individuals. We saw that, for instance, *parental*



*encouragement* is not a significant factor in L2 learning motivation in this local setting as is the case in some Asian cultures. However, in this particular context of Murcia, or indeed Spain, and in the same way as occur with national campaigns attempting to curb unhealthy habits or incite responsible citizenship, pressure can be applied through a diversity of 'impersonal' sources, such as print and digital news media; advertisements for language schools and certification exams; classroom interactions; institutional notice boards, etc. If we recall Markus and Nurius (1986) original identification of how possible selves are formed we see that they also considered the role of banal, everyday media messages:

The pool of possible selves derives from the categories made salient by the individual's particular sociocultural and historical context, and from the models, images and symbols provided by the media, and by the individual's immediate social experiences. Possible selves thus have the potential to reveal the inventive and constructive nature of the self but they also reflect the extent to which the individual is socially determined and constrained. (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954)

Pressure from national and regional authorities in this sense can be pervasive even subliminal - the English speaking *ought self* may be 'in the air' so to speak. The prevention and promotion aspects of *instrumentality* thus appear more precise way of determining beliefs as regards pressures to learn.

## **10.4 Contributions to the role of goal related and attitudinal variables**

RQ 4 targeted the role of goal related variables on the L2 Self System of the participants. The goal-related dimensions examined of *integrativeness*, the *instrumentality* dichotomy and *international posture* shall be discussed in this section.

### **10.4.1 The role of integrativeness in the L2 motivation of the sample**

As argued in the theoretical overview on the evolution of L2 motivation theory, Gardner's concept of *integrativeness* has been superseded by the L2 MSS as an overarching explanatory concept for motivated behaviour in L2 learning. However, in line with MacIntyre et al. (2009a) we believe that a theory that was dominant for so

long should not be discarded in a fickle fashion. The specific inclusion of a scale to measure degree of *integrativeness* in the Spanish study facilitated a consideration of the influence of this variable with the L2 MSS core concepts in this particular context. We have been able to confirm, through the lower means obtained, that *integrativeness*, while somewhat relevant for the participants, and in particular for the English Major group, is not as strong as the *ideal L2 self* across the whole sample or the academic sub-groups. Although *integrativeness* as a motivational factor within the goal-orientation tendencies explored in the study is actually the least significant of the four goal related dimensions with regards to intentions to learn, its relationship to the L2 MSS components is quite robust, indicating that interaction with native speakers is indeed related to learners' future visions as L2 users, as well as to their intrinsic enjoyment of L2 learning. *Integrativeness* also shows a close relationship with intentions to learn in the future, which indeed makes sense if we remember that one item in the criterion measure scale targets an intention to spend time in an English speaking country to improve competence in English, which is a popular option for many L2 learners in Spain as we discussed the educational background to this study. Nonetheless, this does not necessarily imply strong identification with the values and mindsets of members of the community. In this sense, a worthwhile consideration for the concept is that what has been called *integrativeness* may actually be interpreted as a form of learning *instrumentality*. In this sense, Lamb (2009) also deliberates on his Sumatran interviewee's instrumental reasons for wanting to spend some time in Western countries "to improve her English". An intensive English language course in an English speaking community such as Britain or Ireland can be considered a fast track alternative to acquiring English as opposed to isolated hours of language school attendance in Spain. Ostensibly, this would traditionally be considered a form of *Integrativeness*. However, as a learning objective spending time among L2 speakers may be considered a form of *learning experience* akin to enrolling on an intensive language course, hence its stronger correlations with the *learning experience* dimension of the L2 MSS in this study.

In the L2 MSS studies to date, *integrativeness* has been examined as a competitor with the concept of the *ideal L2 self* in its ability to explain L2 motivation

(Dörnyei et al., 2006; Ryan, 2008, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). In these studies, once the superiority of the *ideal self* as a predictor of L2 motivation had been confirmed, *integrativeness* received little attention as a motivational variable in conjunction with other goal related orientations. The data in this study suggests that positive attitudes to a specific L2 community are relevant to the make-up of the *ideal self*, as are the instrumental and international orientations we shall discuss in following sections and should not be discarded, which is a danger given that in some studies on the L2 MSS, attitudes to specific L2 communities have not been included as a variable, e.g. Csizér and Kormos (2009a), Kormos et al. (2011). As we have seen in this study, a further dimension that is also worth exploring within this attitudinal variable is its potential as an instrumental factor in L2 learning. It may be the case that the labelling of *integrativeness* should be adapted to L2 community attitudes and orientations in order to reflect its true nature. However, whatever the case, it should not be disregarded at a motivational force.

#### 10.4.2 The role of international posture

Our study constitutes the first study on L2 motivational in Spain targeting the concept of *international posture* as a motivational variable. The results, which coincide with findings in previous L2 MSS studies (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Kormos et al., 2011; Ryan, 2008) indicate that a desire to interact in English at a more widespread global level, and the recognition of the benefits of English for travel and knowledge attainment is a significant motivational variable for L2 learners in Spain. The scale obtained consistently higher means than the *integrativeness* scale across the sample regardless of classification according to academic status, perceived proficiency, or gender. With regard to its relationship with the L2 MSS variables, *international posture* shows close positive relationships with both the *ideal self* and the *learning experience* and is not related to a negative sense of external pressure to learn in this sample. This finding is significant both within the theoretical foundations of L2 motivation and for the practical implications it may imply for the L2 classroom and other learning contexts. Theoretically, the concept of *international posture* proposed by Yashima (see Yashima 2009 for an overview) broadens the scope of L2 interaction and goal orientations to a global arena. The concept allows for considerations of orientations of

*instrumentality*, *integrativeness* and knowledge and friendship orientation within L2 motivation, and to date many L2 MSS studies across different cultures reiterate its relevance e.g. Hungary, (Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Csizér & Kormos, 2009a), Chile (Kormos et al., 2011), Indonesia (Lamb, 2004, 2009), Japan (Ryan, 2008; 2009) and Yashima, (2009). In this study, we have added to the strength of the argument by affirming that the participants in the Spanish sample examined are more interested in English as a global *lingua franca* than to a restricted use of the language with ties to a particular nationality and their L2 self images as successful users of English is positively affected by this view.

As far as we are aware, this is the first Spanish study to explore the relatively novel dimension of *international posture* in a Spanish sample of L2 learners. Traditionally, studies on L2 motivation in Spain have concentrated on integrative/instrumental orientations (e.g. Fuertes-Olivera & Gómez-Martínez, 2004, 2005; Gómez-Martínez, 2000, 2001, 2005; Lasagabaster, 2003; Lorenzo Berquillos, 1997; Madrid, 1999; Saravia & Bernaus, 2008). The findings indicate that the traditional focus on specific L2 culture in the classroom, while relevant to an extent, should also be expanded to allow learners to develop their international orientations and integrate a more dynamic focus on interaction in English with other non natives and in non native settings, thus allowing greater potential for accessible, relevant and self-relevant imagined communities to emerge. By concentrating solely on the native speaker cultural and linguistic background and context we teachers are in danger of impeding this more current, highly significant self related L2 dimension to flourish in our learning-teaching contexts.

### **10.4.3 The roles of instrumentality promotion and prevention**

The data obtained in this study on the prevention dimension of the Instrumentality dichotomy has been discussed previously in this chapter in relation to the *ought self* with which it does not correlate strongly. There is, however, a very relatively strong relationship between the two pragmatic counterparts within the sample studied in Spain. This is contrary to the findings in the Taguchi et al. (2009) study in which the authors confirmed that thanks to the low inter-correlation obtained

that the two were separate constructs. However, the same study noted an unexpected relationship between *instrumentality promotion* and the *ought self* in China and Iran suggesting that societal pressure was looked upon favourably in these nations as necessary for a raised social status and successful employment. As we have seen in later studies, such as You and Dörnyei, (2014), avoiding failure to gain employment or fear of missing a chance to go abroad for work thanks to a lack of L2 competence is a strong factor in learners' motives to learn. In the Spanish study the close relationship between approach-avoidance goals could reflect the close affiliation between a promotional basis for learning and an avoidance path of not wishing to lose out on the desired outcomes. Both *instrumentality* scales associate more strongly with the *ideal self* within the L2 MSS components suggesting that, while *integrativeness* and *international posture* are balanced in their associations with the *learning experience* or intrinsic enjoyment of learning, the pragmatic gains and potential losses that result from higher or lower competence in English are more strongly associated with imagined future L2 using selves. The high ratings in both *instrumentality* scales and the lack of variation in their significance across the entire sample, regardless of academic choice, gender or perceived proficiency, indicates that both approach and avoidance perspectives of *instrumentality* can be interpreted as major factors in intended motivated behaviour of this sample, as well as variables that are highly relevant to L2 future self guides. This being the case, in the light of the strong claims that *ideal selves* must act in harmony with *ought* or *feared selves* in order to direct motivated behaviour (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005, Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Oyserman et al., 2006; You & Dörnyei, 2014) the data would suggest that these conditions are indeed salient in the participants of this study, which is a positive indicator of a disposition to make efforts to learn and that persistence may be sustained by both forces. The lower correlation obtained between the *instrumentality* dichotomy and the *learning experience*, nonetheless, may also be indicative of the fact that the pragmatic benefits of L2 learning, and potential losses should one not achieve a certain level of the language, do not feature heavily in language learning contexts or classrooms. In order to achieve a balance between what is transmitted inside and outside an L2 language classroom, it would be recommended that L2 practitioners also take into consideration the need to explore and nurture learners' orientations in this regard.

## 10.5 Contributions to the role of affective factors

### 10.5.1 The role of *anxiety*

RQ 4 also questioned the role of affective variables of *anxiety* and *self confidence* in the motivational make-up of the sample. The data obtained in this Spanish study situates L2 use *anxiety* as more salient within the English Major group, the group who are more highly involved in using English in their everyday studies as well as within the higher Perceived Proficiency groups. Overall, nonetheless, the means obtained in the *anxiety* scale are also lower than those reported in the literature on Asian populations of English language learners, e.g. (Ryan, 2008), Papi (2010) and Shahbaz and Liu (2012).

The findings are interesting in the light of the widely claimed *sentido del ridículo* — sense of ridicule that is popularly remarked on here in Spain. We had indeed expected to encounter a higher degree of learning use apprehension across the sample, and more so in those with lower levels of achievement in the language. The popular view of *anxiety* as an obstacle to progress in language learning is, contrary to expectations, not apparent in this study. Moreover, an expected moderate to strong negative correlation with attitudes to learning has also not materialised in any of the cohorts examined. Ryan's (2008) examination of the affective variable in Japan also produced evidence that language use *anxiety* was not negatively associated with language learning in the classroom as he had expected. On further qualitative investigation he reached the tentative conclusion that learners accepted *anxiety* as 'part and parcel' of learning and communicating in English and that it was fear of correction or reprisal that affected situated or classroom learning *anxiety* but did not affect actual willingness or desire to communicate to a significant extent. The data in Spain would seem to suggest something similar. The fact that *anxiety* levels rise in accordance with current involvement in English lessons seen in the English Major group associates increased apprehension with increased classroom use. Indeed, many of the participants in Education and Other Studies may not acknowledge the negative effects of L2 use *anxiety* as measured in this study simply through a current lack of use of English in a formal learning situation.

The findings in our study coincide with those of Ryan's (2008) Japan survey, but not with the findings in Papi (2010), who carried out an explicit analysis of the role of *anxiety* within the L2 MSS construct concepts in an Iranian population or those of Shahbaz and Liu (2012), in a Pakistani setting. Papi was able to ascertain a direct relationship between the *ought self* in his sample and *anxiety* in L2 use, concluding that those who felt obliged to learn and so perhaps less intrinsically motivated acknowledged higher levels of *anxiety* than those with a stronger *ideal self*. The important difference is that Papi's sample constituted active learners of English at the time of the study, which is not the case in Spain. Shahbaz and Liu (2012) also found a negative correlation with intended learning effort in students of English. This supports the notion that *anxiety* is relevant to those engaged in formal learning at college or school, and not an immediate concern for those contemplating future learning or envisaging themselves as future L2 users. This idea is positive in itself in that situated classroom *anxiety* does not appear to have repercussions for future L2 commitments. We do not question the highly important role of L2 use apprehension in learning contexts in this study as our data does not specifically explore L2 classroom interaction. We can, however, claim that as regards future intentions to learn, *anxiety* is not a salient factor.

### 10.5.2 The role of self confidence

Finally, RQ4 also targeted the affective variable of *self confidence* and its role in the dynamics of L2 motivation in this sample. The data ascertained the expected higher levels of *self confidence* in the English Major group and the higher proficiency (B1 to C1) cohorts. However, the ratings on perceptions of ability were also quite positive for both the non-Major participant groups, indicating that learners are relatively optimistic about their capacity to learn English. A strong relationship between perceived ability and reported achievement is apparent in the perceived proficiency subgrouping, with *self confidence* explaining the greatest extent of variance (38%) across the A1 to C1 participants. However, correlational data analysis does not enable us to establish whether achievement has improved feelings of *self confidence* or vice versa. The parallel relationship between *self confidence* and intentions to continue learning are strong, although the strongest affiliation for this affective

variable is with the *learning experience* suggesting that feelings of self-efficacy are highly relevant to the learning context.

A further significant finding within the proficiency grouping, evident through the variance caused across the sample, was the very strong parallel association of *Self confidence*, along with intrinsic enjoyment of the *Learning experience* for the higher proficiency groups. All other goal related and affective factors that we have seen in the empirical evidence prove somewhat relevant across the board but do not produce such intense variation. The variable of *self confidence* has formed part of most models of L2 Motivation since the cognitive phase of motivation theory (e.g. Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Williams & Burden, 1997). Nonetheless more recent empirical research, and especially that carried out on the L2 MSS has not revisited the concept in depth. The findings in Spain certainly seem to bear similarities to the traditional argument that a sense of self efficacy determines, to a great extent, the activities individuals will choose to pursue (Schunk & Meece, 2006). This coincides with the findings in Busse (2010, 2013a) who did explore the relationship between intrinsic enjoyment of L2 learning (in British learners of German) and feelings of self efficacy. After a longitudinal study of task-related motivational ebbs and flows over the course of a full academic year (Busse, 2010), she reached the conclusion that “that intrinsic motivation together with self-efficacy beliefs play a role in the internalisation of language learning and the elaboration of students’ *ideal L2 selves*.” (Busse, 2010, p. 262.)

To return to the concept of self efficacy within motivation studies in general psychology, It is worth going back to Schunk and Meece (2006, p. 73) definition:

Self-efficacy is hypothesised to affect individuals’ task choices, effort, persistence, and achievement (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1995). Compared with learners who doubt their capabilities, those who feel self-efficacious about learning or performing a task competently are apt to participate more readily, work harder, persist longer when they encounter difficulties, and achieve at higher levels.

The parallels with the choice, effort and persistence aspects of the definitions of motivation we saw in Chapter Three of the literature review in this thesis are quite



obvious. What could also be added to this definition, given the findings in this study and those of Busse (2010, 2013a) is that feelings of perceived competence are also strongly related to intrinsic enjoyment and an ability to envisage oneself as engaged in relevant activities in the future. This differentiation is also reflected in Kormos et al. (2011) when they say that:

Self-efficacy beliefs express one's views as to whether one is capable of performing a given learning task and are consequently future-oriented; whereas self-concept beliefs are based on past experiences and are broader evaluations of one's general self-worth or esteem. (Kormos et al., 2011, p. 3)

In addition, Busse (2010, p. 264) conjectures that: "... *self-efficacy* beliefs and *intrinsic* motivation may have a say in whether students further elaborate an existing *ideal L2 self*" and that, were this the case, these variables could be relevant to predicting future enactment of intended L2 learning plans. However, our study does not provide evidence to support this suggestion and research of a different nature to ours is required to corroborate this hypothesis.

In Ryan's (2008) Japanese report, the role of *self confidence* in the regulation of efforts to learn was not as strong as expected. Furthermore, in the ability to generate *ideal L2 self* visions, *self confidence* did not appear as a determinant, leading Ryan (2008) to conjecture that *self confidence* is not a major factor in the construction of *ideal self* visions in Japanese learners. Ryan, however, had created a scale that appeared to overlap with that of *anxiety* so for the Spanish study, the scale items were adapted to reflect a more positive view of *self confidence* (see Chapter Seven). The very different results indicate that the adaptations to the scale better reflect learners' assessments of L2 capability.

When considering the relationship between a sense of ability (also termed competence, or self efficacy) and imagination, we must take into account the issue of plausibility; that for an *ideal self* to work as a motivating agent, there must be an awareness of one's capacity to reach that imagined self. The possible selves literature suggests that implausible fantasy will facilitate the actual generation of a vision, however unrealistic that vision may be, and the factor that helps differentiate fantasy from feasible future visions is perceived ability to attain the vision. Therefore, despite

claims to 'see' a future L2 using self, a lack of perception of ability or self efficacy may be an indication that the generated vision is indeed implausible.

## **10.6 L2 motivation in the sample according to gender and perceived proficiency**

Some of the similarities observed in the sample examined according to perceptions of proficiency in English have been referred to in previous sections. Therefore in this section, the most salient observations across the sample solely in regard to the male/female contrast and the beliefs of learners' about their achievements in English and the significance for theory and practice are discussed.

### **10.6.1. Gender differences in the sample**

L2 motivation literature tells us that females are traditionally seen as more motivated language learners (see Henry, 2009 for an overview), claiming that females tend to score higher on many motivational variables indicating a higher aptitude, stronger integrative dispositions and willingness to engage with L2 speakers and more intense levels of persistence in language learning. However, in our data, it is only in perceived self-efficacy that we really see a significant difference between males and females. The stronger correlations across all of the goal-related factors for males appears to transmit the acknowledgement in this cohort that English is important instrumentally for many reasons, despite weaker feelings of intrinsic enjoyment of learning and use of cultural products in the male cohort, as we saw in the mean ratings of these variables, as well as of self efficacy. The null association between *anxiety* and future learning intentions in the male cohort is incongruous as they score higher in the means of this variable than females, yet do not associate L2 use apprehension with future intentions or visions of English using selves to the extent that females do. It is as if males manage to depict a future L2 using self free from L2 related nerves or *anxiety* despite the fact that their current selves can feel apprehensive about using or learning English. This suggests that males may attempt to quell feelings of *anxiety* in their construction of future L2 using visions.

Males appear slightly less intrinsically motivated overall than females in this sample, they acknowledge external imposition in the *ought self* to a slightly stronger extent, and show higher level of apprehension in using English. However the variation across the gender subgroups in these scales is insignificantly low at 3%. In the male/female contrast, although males score slightly higher means on the *anxiety* scale, apprehension of language use does not appear strongly affiliated with their intentions to learn or their visions of themselves as future L2 users. Contrary to males in this sample, females, do show quite a strong association between *anxiety*, the *ideal L2 self* and intended learning effort. This fact again suggests a heightened significance of the connection between engagement with L2 learning and use and feelings of L2 use apprehension in the female cohort, or the fact that females are more open to admitting feelings of apprehension in contemplating L2 use in the future.

The Japanese study by Ryan (2008, 2009) also detected significantly higher levels of motivated behaviour in university females, supporting the general tendency in L2 MSS motivation studies. With regard to the differences generally highlighted in the literature, Henry (2009) indicates that relevant research has confirmed that boys:

do not do as well in foreign language (FL) learning (Burstall, 1975), (Clark and Trafford, 1995), are less accepting of the necessity to learn a foreign language (Powell and Batters, 1985) are more likely to drop FLs (Carr and Pauwels, 2006 and Clark and Trafford, 1995) and, irrespective of the FL studied, demonstrate less overall commitment than girls (Dörnyei et al., 2006). (Henry, 2009, p. 178)

Despite this broad range of support for the weaker aptitude and attitude of males in the language learning arena, our findings in Spain indicate that L2 motivation variability is not strongly attributable to any dimension of gender. Some subtle differences in the different motivational influences on male and female L2 self systems have been observed in this study, and one possible avenue for interpretation is that the females of the sample have not developed L2 learning attitudes and behaviour to the extent that has been reflected in other female language learners in empirical studies, perhaps implying a weaker overall engagement or desire to learn English, and thus displaying attitudes more similar to those of males. If this were the case, we could

surmise that the differential from previous findings may lie in the fact that Spanish females are not as motivated to learn languages as their European or Asian counterparts and thus reflect similar values to less L2 motivated males. This indeed could be a distinguishing feature of Spanish attitudes towards L2 learning but is an area that would require further research.

### 10.6.2 Perceived Proficiency

In the quantitative study, we observed a very obvious pattern of an increase in the means of almost all variables in accordance with learners' beliefs about their success at learning English. The most significant variation across the sample was found in current attitude to learning and *self confidence* with each explaining up to 38% of the variance. Ability to conjure up stronger visions of L2 using selves is also more discernible as beliefs of achievement rise. This very clear incremental pattern suggests that L2 learning motivation as measured through the *ideal L2 self* is indeed related to feelings of self-efficacy and intrinsic enjoyment of learning and the language itself, as Busse (2010, 2013a, 2013b) also found in learners of German in the UK. Lack of variation in the *instrumentality* variables across the Perceived Proficiency groups was evident suggesting that acknowledgement of the pragmatics of L2 competence is more balanced, despite concerns of current L2 achievement. The argument presented previously in favour of a more global outlook on English use in L2 classrooms is reinforced by the steady ratings of *international posture*, which is more relevant than *Integrativeness* in the lower achievement groups. The lowest variation is seen in the variable of *parental encouragement* again strengthening the notion that family support to learn English in Spain is not strong and certainly not emerging as a differentiating factor for the Spanish sample in contrast to empirical evidence from previous L2 motivation literature. L2 use *anxiety* also appears somewhat relevant to all subgroups of language achievement, again solidifying the notion that apprehension is a de facto part of using the language despite higher feelings of self efficacy.

There has been a tendency in L2 MSS motivation empirical literature to examine the dynamics of L2 motivation within and across different cultures from different perspectives, e.g. educational level, age, or an adolescent vs. adult paradigm,

and/or academic study choice. Surprisingly, although studies such as those carried out in Asia have obtained self reports of language proficiency from their samples, the discussions in these papers centre on findings according to variation across academic samples and, where appropriate, cultural backgrounds, but wanes when it comes to looking at degrees of successful fulfilment of learning goals. The Asian studies by Ryan, and Taguchi et al. (2009) make scant reference to the variance in their samples in this vein. More recent studies (Csizér and Kormos, 2009a; Csizér and Lucács 2010; Kormos, et al., 2011) forfeit proficiency beliefs in favour of academic and age and language choice as states or traits from which to observe motivated behaviour. There is no doubt that these different filters employed highlight distinct levels of interplay between variables. However, the clarity of the information according to self reports of efficacy in this study do justify including achievement as a solid criterion measure for motivated behaviour. Nevertheless, the clearly strong relationship between a perceived sense of competence or self-efficacy and the positive motivational variables examined in this population is reminiscent of the chicken and egg dilemma of whether high levels of motivation affect achievement or vice versa (Dörnyei, 1998). What we have gained from the *ideal self* perspective in this study, is evidence that visions of L2 using *ideal selves* are less salient in groups that feel they are not successful language learners, although abilities to generate future self visions appear stronger than actual *self confidence* in abilities to learn and intrinsic enjoyment of the process, indicating that the power of the imagination or possibility may be stronger than plausibility, as seen from a perceived ability angle. Furthermore lower achievers appear to acknowledge a higher sense of imposition from external sources as seen through the *ought self* scale. Our evidence, again, leads us to coincides with Busse (2010, p. 261) in that:

...one may further hypothesise that lower levels of *intrinsic* motivation, i.e. decreasing enjoyment of learning a language, can curb a further elaboration of an existing future L2 self, probably in concert with decreasing *self-efficacy* beliefs... These results may be an important step forward in understanding the gradual internalisation process of language learning into self and identity. (Emphasis in original)

We have thus far discussed the quantitative and qualitative data gathered throughout the two different phases of the empirical study of this thesis. In the following final chapter a short summary of the main conclusions and is provided along with a summary of the insights obtained that may be taken into consideration for theoretical and empirical considerations of the L2 MSS as well as for L2 teaching practice. We also outline some areas that we feel would benefit from further research.

## Chapter 17 . CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY AND PRACTICE

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### **11.0 Introduction**

The exploration of this novel construct within the field of L2 motivation — the L2 Motivational Self System — was initiated with the intentions of examining English Language learning attitudes, beliefs and behaviour against a complex language learning background in Spain. In Chapter Two, we detailed an unproductive past L2 learning history in compulsory education for university students of today, at least as far as oral communicative competence is concerned, which has led to the current national impulse for bilingual education in Spain and we highlighted the predicament of teacher trainees and teaching professionals who are facing the challenge to certify L2 skills in order to continue or enter the teaching profession thanks to the national and regional policies for bilingual education in primary and secondary education. For the first time in this context, the L2 Motivational Self System, along with post-structuralist and person-in-context relational views on learner identity, were employed as quantitative and qualitative viewpoints from which to explore a sample of over 500 Spanish university students' self-related, attitudinal, goal-oriented and affective perspectives on English language learning. The findings of this study have provided insights for L2 motivation theory and teaching practice, although, as is expected with any empirical study, further questions have emerged from these findings that will require future enquiry. Before outlining these, we shall point the main contributions we feel this study has enabled us to offer the field of L2 motivation.

### **11.2 Main contributions to L2 MSS theory and suggestions for future research**

This exploration of L2 motivation through the lens of the L2 motivational Self System in a sample of university students in the micro-contextual Region of Murcia has proved insightful at a theoretical and practical level. Although L2 motivation is gradually becoming recognised as a multidimensional dynamic system that can change and fluctuate, the

## Chapter 11. Conclusions

quantitative and qualitative snapshot of the L2 self systems and beliefs and attitudes in this group of students has brought several motivational dimensions to the fore which can help towards a deeper understanding of L2 motivation in this particular corner of the world. We have found that the *ideal L2 self* is a very relevant psychological construct and surpasses the concept of *integrativeness* as an explanatory framework for L2 learning drives or forces. Nonetheless, our findings have led us to question the difference between a desire to generate a vision and a genuine ability to do so, with the suggestion that L2 competence or self efficacy may underlie the difference between a mental image based on fantasy and imagination, and a plausible, attainable mental projection of a language using self guide. As measured by multi-item scales comprising 5 or 6 item used in this and previous quantitative studies, it is not possible to determine at which point of the fantasy-reality continuum a learner may find him/herself.

Our findings also lead us to suggest that the level of internalisation of extrinsic motives to learn or continue on a learning path, as well as the strength of attributions to other positive motivational variables, will be determined by perceptions of competence. This leads us to suggest that the link between *ideal* and *ought selves* and motivated behaviour may indeed lie in concepts of perceived ability. One interesting line for future enquiry in this sense is the relationship of three components of self determination theory: competence, relatedness and autonomy with the tenets of the *ideal* and *ought selves* as also proposed by Busse (2010, 2013a, 2013b).

Relatedness, in itself, has not been explored as an isolated construct in this study. Nonetheless, both the qualitative and the quantitative data suggest that there may be a lack of relatedness or social support for future L2 learners. This, coupled with negative beliefs about past learning, is not conducive to optimistic predictions about the paths future learners may take. The qualitative data has brought to light that there may exist a lack of social and institutional involvement regarding language learning resources and support for language learning in Spain. Family support is not evident in this context, and although L2 learning support from educational sources has not been explicitly examined in this study, there are indications that students may not perceive institutional support for linguistic demands they face. Oyserman et al. (2006) explain that possible selves in various domains should be made feel congruent to ensure optimal learning conditions as well as facilitating



## Chapter 11. Conclusions

prime positioning of learning objectives and strategies in the working memory. The educational requisites in Spain if unsupported by institutional investment in terms of effective information channels, and development of appropriate teaching-learning resources imply a high reliance on individual willingness and ability to invest time and money into the effort of language learning.

In line with the above observations, the obligation pillar of L2 MSS theory would indeed benefit from a closer look at the dynamics of individual L2 motivation against individual's own idiosyncratic socio-political and educational backgrounds. It may be fruitful for future research to consider, not only the sources of external pressure to learn a language, but also, and perhaps more importantly, how this pressure might be internalised or assimilated into the ideal self system over time and/or as a result of certain life events and choices.

A further dimension of the *ought L2 self* can be gained through the eyes of the actual instigator or source of an ought self — the entity, organisation or individual desiring to transmit their own ideal vision of others. Our qualitative findings suggest that examining how educational authorities and stakeholders transmit their ideas and visions to L2 learners may help towards understanding better if and how those externally imposed ideals can be embraced and internalised and eventually become harmonious with an individual's own ideals.

Regarding the influence of the *learning experience* pillar of the L2 MSS construct. We have also been able to offer a more precise view than that offered to date in L2 MSS theory of the distinct influence of past and present temporal dimensions in *learning experiences*. However, despite some negativity towards past learning, there are indications that an intrinsic liking for the English language and favourable attitudes to more positive current beliefs about learning in this sample can help overcome negative views of past learning. We saw that *instrumentality* in its approach-avoidance dimension is a balanced set of influences in these students, and both are very relevant to the L2 self system of these students. We have pointed out, nonetheless, that both the pragmatic gains in learning as well as the detrimental consequences of non-achievement should receive more attention in formal learning contexts in order to align classroom objectives and orientations with students' personal and professional considerations.

## Chapter 11. Conclusions

With reference to goal-related orientations, our exploration of the concept of *integrativeness* has led us to consider that attitudes to a specific L2 community should not be discarded suddenly in the light of more novel theories, but should be retained in future studies as a potentially relevant motivational variable, although we do hypothesise that, for many English language learners, a desire to live in the L2 community for a time and interact with English speakers may bear more resemblance to an instrumental learning tool than to a desire to actually integrate into an English speaking community in the Gardnerian sense of the term. A further orientation variable — *international posture* — has, nonetheless, also emerged as a highly relevant motivating factor in this study, and one that we feel should also feature in teaching contexts so as to offer a broader spectrum of L2 interaction and identity formation to L2 learners.

The quantitative method traditionally employed in L2 MSS empirical studies enabled us to explore the L2 self in its parallel relationship to other L2 motivational variables. However, it must be reiterated that a possible *ideal L2 self* is actually a complex, dynamic multidimensional system and influenced to different degrees, and at different times, by the integration of attitudinal, goal related and affective variables within the L2 self concept. The view we have obtained in this study is a freeze frame of the different motivational influences converging at one moment in time and over a large sample, which, cannot pay tribute to the individual, dynamic nature of L2 motivation and the effect of the ebbs and flows that naturally occur with the passing of time. The dynamic systems approach that the L2 motivation field is currently turning towards may mean that quantitative linear studies such as this one may become obsolete shortly. However, in defence of the statistical approach followed, that fact we have been able to explore and identify significant L2 variables in an isolated fashion for the first time in a Spanish context also offers a motivational factors framework for future dynamic approach studies aiming to initiate exploration of dynamic interplay between these, and other variables.

The qualitative investigation conducted raises another line for future studies is that of exploring overlaps in social and/or professional selves and the alignment of these with L2 self development. It is unlikely that language learning rarely occurs in isolation from other forms of learning and professional growth. Differing degrees of development in selves coming from different spheres can cause conflict as we saw in Elena's developing ideal

teaching self which may be negatively affected by her confessed difficulty in readjusting the vision to incorporate an L2 teaching self.

### **11.3 Insights from the study for practical considerations and suggestions for future research**

The *learning experience* pillar of the L2 Motivational self system has enabled us to see that past learning experiences have not been positive for many of the sample. It would be hoped that nowadays formal school L2 learning has improved and the structural or non-communication-based methodologies these students may have received has fallen by the wayside. Nevertheless, this cannot be assumed and recommendations for the development of methodologies and techniques, teacher training and classroom conditions that favour the fostering of oral skills and authentic communicative competence in the classroom at any educational level is paramount to nurturing competent language users. Encouraging feelings of competence in learners also can be complemented by making room in formal learning contexts for exploring, nurturing and helping sustain learners' L2 Ideal-ought visions, which has become a novel area for L2 classroom practice, indeed the imagination can be turned into a useful inspirational resource for L2 motivation (e.g. Arnold, Puchta & Rinvolutri, 2007; Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2013), solely from the perspective of having learners anticipate, and thus mentally prepare for, entry to possible social and professional communities of L2 practice. Encouraging learners to speak as themselves with their 'transportable identities' (Ushioda, 2011, p. 20) constitutes not only a recommendation for empirical research, but also for L2 teaching practice.

A second suggestion that teaching practitioners may wish to consider and also tied to the notion of relatedness, is a deeper consideration of the variety of learning orientations that may abound in one classroom with different individuals presenting differing degrees or blends of goal-related motives. We have seen that attitudes to specific L2 communities are related to classroom practice and this implies that teachers do emphasise native English speakers and their culture for different reasons in the L2 learning context. However, our

## Chapter 11. Conclusions

empirical data leads us to recommend that an international view of English as a *lingua franca* be taken into account as a relevant communicative orientation for many L2 learners. A broader more international perspective on English as a communicative tool for many non English speaking cultures, a tool to gain knowledge about the world, and a tool to forge friendships with international peers facilitates a more flexible, less restricted sense of identity for L2 learners. As well as broadening learners' options for imagined communities of practice, a global approach to interaction in English opens the classroom up to a plethora of interactional and inter-cultural situations that may be more inspiring to learners who find difficulty aligning their sense of identity with a specific British or American community and aligning their L2 competence with that of a native speaker. In the same vein textbook design for L2 learning can also benefit from a wealth of material made available by taking a less restricted view on cultural communication in English.

With regard to classroom goals and the need to ensure these are in concert with learner goals, is a recommendation to bring *instrumentality* in both its dimensions to the fore. From our data we suspect that the fact that both approach and avoidance perspectives of instrumental orientation are more closely related to learners' self systems than to the learning situation may imply that these orientations are not part and parcel of classroom practice. As with questions of identity, all stakeholders in the learning situation need to synthesise views on where the learning is actually taking the learners and how. We are told that a balance of approach-avoidance tendencies are beneficial to learners and fostering awareness of the practicalities of success and/or failure in language learning may energise or sustain learning behaviour.

### **11.1 Limitations of the study**

The limitations of this study are numerous, nonetheless, no more extensive or grave than any empirical study attempting to delimit such a complex dynamic phenomenon as L2 motivation to a momentary cross section of a complex learner population. In the first place we do not claim that the data obtained is representative of the university population in

## Chapter 11. Conclusions

Spain. The findings in our study are limited to the students surveyed in the Region of Murcia and not to any regional or national university population. A very different picture may evolve in other areas of Spain and researchers may wish to examine the potential of the L2 MSS in other L2 learner populations around the country.

As regards measurements of motivated behaviour, the criterion measure of intended learning effort, although a standard measurement in the previous Asian studies (Ryan, 2008, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009), as well as more recently published empirical L2 MSS studies (e.g. You & Dörnyei, 2014) given its future orientation, raises questions empirically as to its reliability as a valid measure of motivated behaviour. Only a longitudinal analysis could examine the extent to which L2 learners' promises and intentions do indeed convert into tangible learning goals and whether these efforts towards these are persevered. Therefore, we cannot make any claims as to the veracity of the intentions observed in the population examined.

Given the difficulty in pinning down *ought self* sources in our quantitative study for L2 motivational explorations of individual learners, it was decided to qualitatively explore the *ought self* dimension of the construct in depth solely in two individuals. Although a limited sample, we feel that the two interviews offered worthwhile initial insights into the perceptions of both participants on the *ought self* dimension of the L2 MSS. Nonetheless, a study of such a limited number raises questions as to the potential diversity of ought self influences and resulting attitudes and behaviour in other individuals. It is important to bear in mind that qualitative research is necessarily unrepresentative and attempts to reflect instances of individuals embedded in a complex social, educational and professional network of past, present and future achievements and challenges.

In a similar vein, our focus in this study regarding selves has led to a dichotomous regard of the L2 *ideal-ought* contrast. This is due to the fact that this is, as far as we know, the first study exploring these dual aspects of identity in a Spanish context and an isolated view of each was required in order to establish their actual existence and potential sources. Future research, however, may benefit from a multiple selves perspective taking into account that it is highly likely that a diverse range of social, education and professional selves merge in one individual – in complementary or conflicting ways. In this sense, Taylor (2013), for instance, provides an example of a multidimensional view of the internal/external

## Chapter 11. Conclusions

and imposed/ideal selves' and how these may react very differently in different family-related, social or educational spheres.

Finally, the nature of the statistical data obtained has not facilitated an examination of cause-effect among the motivational variables. The linear relationships discussed do not reflect the dynamic multidimensional nature of L2 motivation as a construct that presents necessarily varied and reciprocal relationships between many cognitive, affective, goal related and self related variables. Nevertheless, we reiterate that this study can be considered from the point of view of a skeletal framework from which to design and construct other cross-sectional, longitudinal, quantitative or qualitative examinations of the complexity of L2 motivational in this or other regions of Spain.

### **11.4 Final thoughts**

In the previous sections we have outlined how we feel this thesis study has contributed to L2 MSS theory and practice. Our fundamental aim throughout the study has been to understand better how L2 learners in Spain are facing the linguistic demands that current society presents from the empathetic viewpoint that their L2 learning histories have not been ideal in terms of developing competent and confident English language users. Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System provided us with a fortuitous lens with which to do so and we do feel that this perspective and facilitated a multidimensional perspective of these learners' attitudes and behaviour. We sincerely hope that this research can be seen as insightful both within Spain and beyond its borders, and, we especially hope that future investigation will continue in this particular context and sincere efforts made to provide current or future L2 learners with effective support and enjoyable, confidence-boosting learning experiences.

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## Appendices

### APPENDIX I

#### Preliminary interview guide (based on Ryan, 2008)

##### Interview Guide

##### **A SELF-EVALUATION**

Do you consider yourself a 'good language learner'? How would you describe your English abilities?

Do you think that you are 'good at languages'?

##### **B LANGUAGE LEARNING EXPERIENCE**

How long have you been learning English? Would you say that you enjoy learning English?

- Can you give reasons? (Why/ Why not?)

Do you think that you are a successful language learner?

- Can you give reasons? (Why/ Why not?)

What has been your most successful/ satisfactory experience while learning English?

What has been your most unsuccessful/ frustrating experience while learning English?

##### **C ATTITUDES TO ENGLISH**

What does English mean to you?

What kind of images does English bring to mind for you? (either positive or negative)

What does it mean to you to be a successful user (speaker) of English?

Many people reply 'I like English' when asked their reasons for learning. What does that phrase mean to you?

##### **D ATTITUDES TO SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH**

Is there a person/ or people who has/ have served as a role model for your language learning?

When you see a group of people who appear to be native speakers of English talking together, how do you feel?

When you see a Spanish person talking to people who appear to be native speakers of English, how do you feel?

When you see a Spanish person talking to people in English to people who do not appear to be native speakers, how do you feel?

##### **E GOALS AND ORIENTATIONS**

Do you think that it is important for all Spanish people to learn English? Can you give reasons? (Why/ Why not?)

Do you think that it is important for YOU to learn/master English? Can you give reasons? (Why/ Why not?)

Do you have clear learning goals?

- Can you explain?

**E OBLIGATIONS AND NEED TO LEARN ENGLISH**

Is it necessary for Spanish people to learn English?

- Can you give reasons? (Why/ Why not?)

Is it necessary for YOU to learn English?

- Can you give reasons? (Why/ Why not?)

If you think that it is necessary to learn English, when did you first think so?

- Can you give reasons?

Have you ever felt any pressure to learn English?

What do other people think about your learning English? What concerns you most about your English ability?

- Can you explain?

**F IDEAL L2 SELF**

Can you imagine a clear situation when you are a successful speaker of English:

- who would you be speaking to?
- where would you be speaking?
- what would you be using English for?

## APPENDIX II

### FINAL MFQ ENGLISH VERSION

#### INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT

---

I am willing to make a great effort at learning English  
I fully intend to spend time abroad to improve my English  
I'm working hard to learn English  
I think I am doing all I can to learn English  
I will likely continue to study English after my degree

#### ANXIETY

---

I would get very nervous speaking to a native speaker  
I always think others will laugh at my English  
If a foreigner asked me for directions in the street I would get quite nervous  
I feel a sense of ridicule when I speak English

#### ATTITUDE TO LEARNING (PAST AND PRESENT)

---

I don't speak English for fear of making mistakes  
Learning English is really interesting  
I loved English lessons at secondary school  
At secondary school I had very good English teachers  
I enjoy English lessons  
I learned a lot of English at secondary school  
My experience in English lessons has always been positive

#### CULTURAL INTEREST

---

I like British and American music  
I like to watch British and American TV series in English  
I read novels, magazines, press, etc. in English  
I like to watch films in English

#### IDEAL SELF

---

I see myself living abroad and communicating in English  
When I think of my professional career I see myself using English at work  
I see myself in a situation where I speak English to international friends  
I dream about being fluent in English  
I can't imagine my future without English

#### INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION

---

If I don't learn English, I can't work at what I want  
Given the economic situation in Spain I will need English to work abroad  
I don't want to fail at learning English because my professional career depends on it

## APPENDICES

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Not to fail at English is important to me to be considered well educated  
To not study English will have a negative impact on my life

### **INSTRUMENTALTY PROMOTION**

---

Learning English is important to me because it will be essential for work  
Learning English is important to me because I can travel internationally  
Learning English is important because I mean to study abroad  
It's important to learn English for a better paid job  
Learning English is important to me because it is a challenge in life  
To know English is important to be considered a well educated person

### **INTEGRATIVENESS/ATTITUDE TO L2 COMMUNITY**

---

I would like to be like a North American  
I would like to be similar to a British person  
I think it is important to know English so as to know more about the culture of its speakers  
I would like to live and work for a long period of time in UK  
I would like to live and work for a long period of time in USA  
I would like about more contact with and know more about the British  
I would like to travel to English speaking countries

### **INTEREST IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

---

I love how English sounds  
I like learning English  
I am very curious about the structure and vocabulary of English  
I would prefer to learn/study another language to English  
Studying English is a waste of time  
Studying English is boring

### **INTERNATIONAL POSTURE**

---

I like to meet people from non English speaking countries  
I want to know English to communicate with non-native speakers  
I want to travel to countries other than English speaking ones  
I like northern European values and customs  
In general I like other cultures  
I like other cultures' values and customs  
I prefer to communicate in English with non natives

### **OUGHT SELF**

---

I want to learn English because the people around me consider it important  
If it weren't for my loved ones I wouldn't learn English  
Actually, I feel obliged to learn English, it is not my desire  
My family think I should make more effort at English  
I need English for the official B2 certification to teach

## APPENDICES

---

My friends have a positive influence on my desire to learn English

All my friends talk about the importance of learning English

### **PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT**

---

My parents have always encouraged me to learn English

My parents have sent me to lessons since I was small

My family think it is important to spend time abroad to consolidate my English

My parents would be equally happy with me if I never reached a command of English

### **SELF CONFIDENCE**

---

Learning English is easy for me

If I make an effort I could reach a command of English

I try to take advantage of chances to communicate in English

English is very difficult for me



### APPENDIX III

#### MFQ SPANISH VERSION

##### **INTENCIÓN DE ESFORZARSE (Criterio de medida)**

---

Estoy dispuesto a esforzarme mucho en el aprendizaje de inglés.  
Tengo intención firme de pasar una temporada en el extranjero para mejorar mi inglés.

Estoy trabajando mucho en aprender inglés.

Creo que estoy haciendo todo lo que pueda para aprender inglés.

Seguramente seguiré estudiando inglés después de la carrera

---

##### **ANSIEDAD**

---

Me pondría muy nervios@ si tuviese que hablar inglés con un nativo.

Creo que los demás se reirían de mi inglés.

Si un extranjero me pidiese indicaciones en la calle, me pondría nervios@.

En clase tenía mucho sentido del ridículo al hablar inglés.

No hablo inglés por miedo a cometer errores.

---

##### **ACTITUD HACÍA EL APRENDIZAJE (PASADO Y PRESENTE)**

---

Aprender inglés es muy interesante.

Me encantaban las clases de inglés en el instituto.

He tenido profesores muy buenos de inglés.

Yo disfruto en una clase de inglés

Aprendí mucho inglés en el instituto

Mi experiencia en clases de inglés siempre ha sido positiva

---

##### **INTERÉS CULTURAL**

---

Me gusta la música británica y americana

Me gusta ver series británicas y americanas en versión original

Leo novelas, revistas y prensa, etc. en inglés

Me gusta ver películas en versión original en inglés

---

##### **EL IDEAL DEL YO**

---

Yo me puedo ver viviendo en el extranjero y desenvolviéndome con la gente en inglés.

Cuando pienso en mi futuro profesional, me veo utilizando el inglés en el trabajo.

Me puedo ver en una situación en cual estoy hablando inglés con amigos internacionales.

Sueño con dominar el inglés.

No me puedo imaginar mi futuro sin inglés

---

### **INSTRUMENTALIDAD PREVENTIVO**

---

Si no aprendo inglés no podré trabajar en lo que quiero.

Dada la situación económica en España necesitaré el inglés para trabajar en el extranjero.

No quiero fracasar con el inglés porque mi futuro profesional depende de ello.

Estudiar inglés es importante para mí porque no quiero que se me considere una persona inculta.

No estudiar inglés tendrá un impacto negativo en mi vida

---

### **INSTRUMENTALIDAD PROMOCIONAL**

---

Aprender inglés es importante para mí porque me será imprescindible para conseguir trabajo.

Aprender inglés es importante para mí porque con ello puedo trabajar a nivel global.

Aprender inglés es importante para mí porque pienso seguir estudiando en el extranjero.

Aprender inglés es importante para mí porque conseguiré un trabajo mejor pagado.

Aprender inglés es importante para mí porque lo considero un reto en la vida.

Saber inglés es importante para que se me considere una persona con buena formación

---

### **INTEGRATIVIDAD (ACTITUD HACÍA LA COMUNIDAD L2)**

---

Me gustaría parecerme a una persona norteamericana

Me gusta parecerme a una persona británica

Creo que es importante saber inglés para saber más de la cultura de sus hablantes

Me gustaría vivir y trabajar una temporada extensa en Reino Unido

Me gustaría vivir y trabajar una temporada extensa en Estados Unidos

Me gustaría tener más contacto con los británicos y saber más sobre ellos

Me gustaría viajar a países de habla inglesa

---

### **INTERÉS EN LA LENGUA INGLESA**

---

Me encanta como suena el inglés.

Me encanta escuchar a la gente hablar inglés.

Tengo mucha curiosidad por la estructura y vocabulario de inglés.

Preferiría estudiar otro idioma que el inglés

Estudiar inglés es una pérdida de tiempo

Estudiar inglés es aburrido

---

### **ORIENTACIÓN INTERNACIONAL**

---

Me gustaría conocer a gente de países no anglófonos

Me gustaría saber inglés para comunicarme con extranjeros no nativos de inglés

Quiero viajar a países distintos de los de habla inglesa

Me gusta los valores y las costumbres de las culturas no europeas

Por lo general me gustan las otras culturas

Me gustan los valores y las costumbres de otras culturas

Prefiero comunicarme en inglés con no nativos

### **EL YO DEÓNTICO**

---

Quiero aprender inglés porque la gente a la que quiero piensa que es importante.

Si no fuese por mis seres queridos no aprendería inglés

En realidad me siento obligado a aprender inglés, no es mi deseo

Mi familia piensa que debería forzarme más con el inglés

Necesito inglés para la certificación para poder ser docente

Mis amigos influyen positivamente en mi afán por el inglés

Todos mis compañeros hablan de la importancia de aprender inglés.

---

### **APOYO FAMILIAR**

---

Mis padres siempre me han animado a que estudie inglés.

Mis padres me enviaron a clases de inglés desde pequeño@.

Mi familia cree que es importante que me vaya a pasar una temporada fuera a aprender inglés.

Mis padres estarían igualmente contentos conmigo si nunca estudiase inglés

---

### **AUTOESTIMA**

---

Tengo facilidad para aprender inglés.

Si me esfuerzo podré dominar de inglés.

Intento aprovechar todo tipo de situaciones para comunicarme en inglés.

El inglés es muy difícil para mí.

---

**APPENDIX IV**

**INTRODUCTORY SECTIONS OF MFQ**

Personal data section of MFQ

PERSONAL DATA

ID

Age

Gender

Degree studies

Year of studies

University (State or Private)

Time spent in an English speaking country

Self report of English proficiency

MFQ rating scale for self report of proficiency

CÓDIGOS NIVEL DE LENGUA INGLESA

(POR FAVOR RELLENE EL CÓDIGO DE SU NIVEL APROXIMADO EN EL LUGAR CORRESPONDIENTE EN LA PRIMERA HOJA DE RESPUESTAS)

Nivel cero de inglés - 0000

Nivel principiante –1º EOI /A1 – 0001

Nivel medio Instituto / A2 / 2º EOI / Trinity 3- 4 - 0002

Nivel 3/ 4º EOI / Nivel alto Instituto / B1 / PET Cambridge / Trinity 5-6 – 0003

Nivel 5º/6º EOI / B2 First Certificate /Trinity 7-8 - 0004

Nivel avanzado: C1 / Advanced / Proficiency Cambridge: 0005

APPENDIX V

Extract of MFQ optical marking sheet

**6 PRIMEROS DIGITOS DNI 03**

0 0 0 0 0 0	<input type="checkbox"/>	0 0	0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
1 1 1 1 1 1	<input type="checkbox"/>	1 1	1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1
2 2 2 2 2 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	2 2	2 2	2 2 2	2 2 2	2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2
3 3 3 3 3 3	<input type="checkbox"/>	3 3	3 3	3 3 3	3 3 3	3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3	3 3 3 3
4 4 4 4 4 4	<input type="checkbox"/>	4 4	4 4	4 4 4	4 4 4	4 4 4 4	4 4 4 4	4 4 4 4
5 5 5 5 5 5	<input type="checkbox"/>	5 5	5 5	5 5 5	5 5 5	5 5 5 5	5 5 5 5	5 5 5 5
6 6 6 6 6 6	<input type="checkbox"/>	6 6	6 6	6 6 6	6 6 6	6 6 6 6	6 6 6 6	6 6 6 6
7 7 7 7 7 7	<input type="checkbox"/>	7 7	7 7	7 7 7	7 7 7	7 7 7 7	7 7 7 7	7 7 7 7
8 8 8 8 8 8	<input type="checkbox"/>	8 8	8 8	8 8 8	8 8 8	8 8 8 8	8 8 8 8	8 8 8 8
9 9 9 9 9 9	<input type="checkbox"/>	9 9	9 9	9 9 9	9 9 9	9 9 9 9	9 9 9 9	9 9 9 9

<b>muy en desacuerdo</b>	<b>en desacuerdo</b>	<b>algo en desacuerdo</b>	<b>algo de acuerdo</b>	<b>de acuerdo</b>	<b>totalmente de acuerdo</b>
<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

Aprender inglés es importante para conseguir un trabajo mejor pagado

Tengo mucha curiosidad por la estructura y el vocabulario del inglés

Con tanto dominio del inglés se corre el riesgo de olvidar la importancia de la cultura española.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Todos mis amigos comentan la importancia de aprender inglés.	Quiero viajar a países distintos de los de habla inglesa	Quiero aprender inglés porque la gente que me rodea piensa que es importante
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Me gustaría viajar a países de habla inglesa.	Quiero saber inglés para comunicarme con extranjeros no nativos del inglés.	Saber inglés es importante para que se me considere una persona con buena formación académica.

**APPENDIX VI**

Cronbach analysis of item statistics for the ought self scale

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I want to learn English because the people around me consider it important	11,73	24,409	,479	,246	,541
If it weren't for my loved ones I wouldn't learn English	12,38	27,760	,338	,150	,591
Actually, I feel obliged to learn English, it is not my desire	12,03	24,548	,420	,418	,560
My family think I should make more effort at English	12,02	25,329	,372	,234	,578
I really only need English for the official B2 certification to teach	12,21	25,595	,423	,356	,562
My friends have a positive influence on my desire to learn English	10,61	29,350	,139	,319	,652
All my friends talk about the importance of learning English	10,00	28,847	,215	,290	,626

**APPENDIX VII**

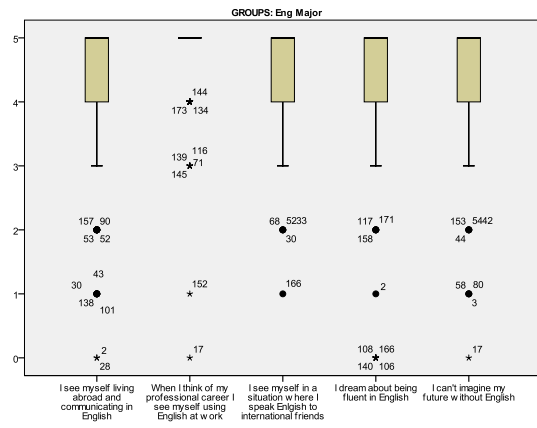
Pilot study Interitem correlation matrix for Ought Self scale

	Significant others in my life think English is important	I want to learn English for my parents' sake	I feel obliged to learn English because of the society I live in.	My friends talk about the importance of English
Significant others in my life think English is important	1.000	<b>.584</b>	<b>.116</b>	<b>.151</b>
I want to learn English for my parents' sake	.584	1.000	<b>.232</b>	<b>.027</b>
I feel obliged to learn English because of the society I live in	.116	<b>.232</b>	1.000	<b>.290</b>
My friends talk about the importance of English	.151	.027	.290	1.000

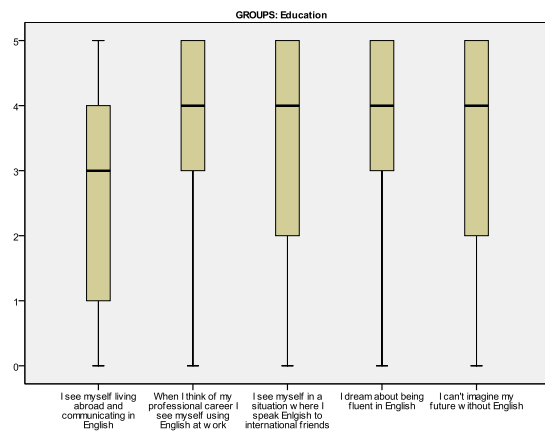
APPENDIX VIII

Stem and leaf plots showing outliers in the *ideal self* scale in the three subgroups

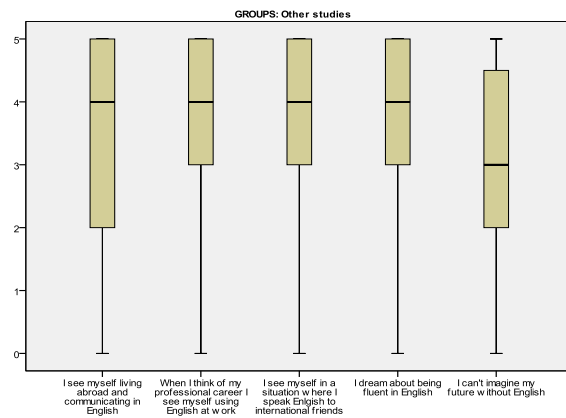
English Major



Education



Other Studies





**APPENDIX IX**

Levene's test of homogeneity of variance for all MFQ subscales

**Test of Homogeneity of Variances**

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
INTENDED LEARNING EFFORT	24,745	2	516	,000
IDEAL SELF	46,014	2	516	,000
OUGHT SELF	22,018	2	516	,000
CURRENT ATTITUDE TO LEARNING	2,736	2	516	,066
ATTITUDE TO PAST LEARNING	,817	2	511	,442
INSTRUMENTALITY PREVENTION	4,994	2	516	,007
INSTRUMENTALITY PROMOTION	4,078	2	516	,017
INTEGRATIVENESS	17,216	2	516	,000
INTERNATIONAL POSTURE	9,033	2	500	,000
PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT	2,147	2	516	,118
SELF CONFIDENCE	17,577	2	516	,000
ANXIETY	1,440	2	516	,238