

**ISSUES OF PUPIL MOTIVATION FOR LANGUAGE
LEARNING IN YEAR 7**

by

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Abstract

This thesis presents a study of the motivation of UK school pupils to learn a modern foreign language. The study involved 345 year 7 pupils learning either French or German in a large inner-city school based in an urban area in central England.

Anecdotal evidence and personal experience suggested a widespread decrease in motivation for modern language learning during the course of year 7. The purpose of the study was to seek evidence substantiating or refuting the hypothesis of a motivational dip and to investigate factors that might affect any perceived changes in motivation.

The research design was inspired by elements of the Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA), particularly the idea of attractors and repellers. This study attempted to incorporate elements of DSA through the design of two questionnaires, which were used to collect the data in the autumn of 2007 and spring/summer 2008.

The data were analysed employing both quantitative and qualitative methodology and the findings suggested that there was indeed evidence of a motivational dip occurring within the time span under investigation. Contrary to discussions in the literature and wider society the drop in motivation could not be explained through the impact of individual factors, such as the teacher, nor did any combination of factors seem to suggest predictable outcomes.

However, the findings did appear to confirm characteristics of a complex dynamic system present in the construct of motivation as suggested by DSA and provided evidence that particular factors may act as strong attractors and repellers. Further to this, the importance for motivation of feelings of belonging and emotional well-being in the classroom situation was strongly implied in the pupils' responses, suggesting that current teacher training strategies and educational policies may need to be re-focused if this is confirmed in future research.

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Contents

	page
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1. Rationale for the study	1
1.2. The nature and scope of the study	2
1.3. Outline of the thesis	3
Chapter 2: Motivations for language learning	5
2.1. Historical overview: Three decades of motivation research	5
2.1.1. The social psychological approach	5
2.1.2. The turn to a cognitive-situated approach	9
2.1.3. The emergence of the process-oriented approach	16
2.1.4. The shift towards a Dynamic Systems Approach	21
2.1.5. Conclusion	32
2.2. Key studies	33
2.3. Conclusion: Conceptualisation of motivation in this study and selection of motivational factors to be considered in its design	54
Chapter 3: Research methodology and the specific research methods employed	57
3.1. Methodological approaches in motivation research	57
3.1.1. The quantitative approach	57
3.1.2. The qualitative approach	62
3.1.3. The mixed-method approach	64
3.1.4. The Dynamic Systems Approach	67
3.1.5. Conclusion	71
3.2. The design of the study	72
3.2.1. The research problem	72
3.2.2. The aims of the research	73
3.2.3. Rationale for the selection of methods	73
3.2.4. The overall design of the study: The survey format	75

3.2.5. Selection of instruments	76
3.2.5.1. The questionnaire	76
3.2.5.2. Follow-up interviews	79
3.2.6. Adaptation of existing methodology to meet the research aims	80
3.2.6.1. The double-snapshot design	81
3.3. The context of the study	82
3.4. Gaining access	83
3.5. Ethical considerations	85
3.5.1. General ethical considerations	85
3.5.2. Ethical considerations within the school context	91
3.6. The sample of students	96
3.7. Questionnaire design	98
3.7.1. The purpose of the questionnaire	98
3.7.2. Selection of appropriate types of questions	99
3.7.2.1. Rationale for addressing the various motivational factors found in the literature	100
3.7.2.2. Types of questions used to generate quantifiable data	101
(i) <i>Fixed-alternative items</i>	101
(ii) <i>Rating scales</i>	103
3.7.2.3. Types of questions used to reflect specific aspects of the Dynamic Systems Approach	105
3.7.2.4. Types of questions used to generate qualitative data	110
3.7.3. Exhaustiveness and comprehensiveness of questionnaire questions	112
3.7.4. The wording of the questions	113
3.7.5. Avoiding assumptions through neutral-answer options	114
3.7.5.1. Use of neutral-answer options in fixed-alternative items	115
3.7.5.2. Use of neutral-answer options in rating scales	116
3.7.5.3. Use of neutral-answer options in ranking questions	116
3.7.5.4. Use of neutral-answer options in open-ended questions	117
3.7.6. Sequencing of questions and placement of sensitive questions	117
3.7.6.1. Sequencing of questions in phase one	120

3.7.6.2. Sequencing of questions in phase two	122
3.7.7. The layout of the questionnaire	124
3.7.7.1. Providing room for free expression	125
3.7.8. Clarity of instructions	126
3.7.9. Piloting the questionnaire	127
3.8. Data gathering	129
3.8.1. Avoiding reactivity effects	129
3.8.2. Dropout rates	130
3.8.3. Timing of data-gathering periods	132
3.8.4. Standardisation of data-gathering procedures	132
3.8.5. Tailoring instruments	133
3.8.6. Factors concerning the researcher	134
3.9. Data preparation and analysis	134
3.9.1. Preparation of questionnaire data	135
Chapter 4: Data analysis and findings	137
4.1. Quantitative analysis	137
4.1.1. Evidence of a dip in motivation	139
4.1.1.1. Trends in rating scales raw data	139
(i) <i>Extreme views</i>	142
(ii) <i>Moderate views</i>	144
(iii) <i>Combined positive and negative views</i>	145
(iv) <i>'Middle value' responses</i>	147
4.1.1.2. Trends in rating scales comparable data	148
4.1.1.3. Conclusion	149
4.1.2. Extent of movement in responses	150
4.1.2.1. Consistent responses	151
(i) <i>Consistency in extreme and moderate views</i>	152
(ii) <i>Consistency in combined positives and negatives</i>	153
4.1.2.2. Upscale and downscale moves	154
(i) <i>Any upscale and downscale moves</i>	155

(ii) <i>Upscale and downscale moves discounting moves into 'middle value'</i>	156
(iii) <i>Moves into 'middle value'</i>	158
4.1.2.3. Conclusion	159
4.1.3. Impact of specific sub-samples on trends	159
4.1.3.1. Trends in gender-specific raw data	160
4.1.3.2. Trends in gender-specific comparable data	162
4.1.3.3. Conclusion	164
4.1.3.4. Trends in language-specific raw data	164
4.1.3.5. Trends in language-specific comparable data	166
4.1.3.6. Conclusion	168
4.1.3.7. Trends in teaching groups raw data	169
4.1.3.8. Trends in teaching groups comparable data	173
4.1.3.9. Conclusion	174
4.1.4. Summary of findings so far	174
4.1.5. Impact of selected factors on group cultures	175
4.1.5.1. Impact of factors in isolation	176
(i) <i>The teacher</i>	176
(ii) <i>The language learnt</i>	177
(iii) <i>The ability set</i>	179
4.1.5.2. Impact of factors in combination	180
(i) <i>Teacher and language learnt</i>	180
(ii) <i>Teacher and ability set</i>	181
(iii) <i>Language learnt and ability set</i>	183
4.1.5.3. Conclusion	184
4.1.6. Impact of ranking of factors on group cultures	185
4.1.6.1. Ranking of factors in selected groups raw data	188
(i) <i>Group 1 – more positive</i>	188
(ii) <i>Group 2 – match with trend</i>	191
(iii) <i>Group 3 – more negative</i>	193
4.1.6.2. Conclusion	196
4.1.6.3. Ranking of factors in overall raw data	201

4.1.6.4. Conclusion	204
4.1.6.5. Ranking of factors in selected groups: comparable data	206
(i) <i>Group 1 – more positive</i>	206
(ii) <i>Group 2 – match with trend</i>	207
(iii) <i>Group 3 – more negative</i>	209
4.1.6.6. Ranking of factors in overall comparable data	210
4.1.6.7. Conclusion	211
4.1.6.8. Elements of the Dynamic Systems Approach reflected in the findings	211
4.1.7. Use of ‘voice’ in ranking questions	212
4.1.7.1. Use of ‘voice’ in overall data	214
4.1.7.2. Use of ‘voice’ in gender sub-samples	215
4.1.7.3. Use of ‘voice’ in ability sub-samples	215
4.1.7.4. Use of ‘voice’ in language sub-samples	216
4.1.7.5. Conclusion	217
4.1.7.6. Themes within expressions of ‘voice’	218
(i) <i>Positive themes</i>	220
(ii) <i>Negative themes</i>	221
(iii) <i>Emergence of themes per phase of survey</i>	222
4.1.7.7. Conclusion	225
4.1.7.8. Expressions of ‘voice’ in selected teaching groups	226
(i) <i>Group 1 – more positive</i>	226
(ii) <i>Group 2 – match with trend</i>	228
(iii) <i>Group 3 – more negative</i>	231
4.1.7.9. Conclusion	234
4.2. Qualitative analysis	234
4.2.1. Themes in open-ended questions	235
4.2.1.1. Group 1 – more positive	236
4.2.1.2. Group 2 – match with trend	237
4.2.1.3. Group 3 – more negative	238
4.2.1.4. Groups compared	239
4.2.2. Pupil profiles	243

4.2.2.1. Group 1 – more positive	245
(i) <i>Social dynamics – friends (Amy, Chloe)</i>	245
(ii) <i>Social dynamics – poor behaviour (Hannah, Emily)</i>	248
(iii) <i>Polarisation – activities (Adam, Megan)</i>	251
(iv) <i>Polarisation – teacher (Daniel, Shannon)</i>	253
(v) <i>Learning experience (Jessica, Melissa)</i>	256
(vi) <i>Summary</i>	258
4.2.2.2. Group 2 – match with trend	259
(i) <i>Social dynamics – friends (Andrew, Tanya)</i>	259
(ii) <i>Polarisation – activities (Sarah, Luke)</i>	262
(iii) <i>Polarisation – teacher (Victoria, Tiffany)</i>	264
(iv) <i>Lack of relevance outside school (John, Bradley)</i>	267
(v) <i>Negativity from phase one (Zoe, Carl)</i>	270
(vi) <i>Summary</i>	272
4.2.2.3. Group 3 – more negative	273
(i) <i>Social dynamics – friends (Chelsea, Emma)</i>	274
(ii) <i>Polarisation – activities (Sophia, Lucy)</i>	276
(iii) <i>Polarisation – teacher (Lydia, Christopher)</i>	279
(iv) <i>Enjoyment (Aidan, Sabrina)</i>	282
(v) <i>Practical use – career and visits (Tina, Sonya)</i>	285
(vi) <i>Summary</i>	288
4.2.2.4. Conclusion	288
4.3. Choices made with regard to interview data	289

Chapter 5: Discussion and conclusion	291
5.1. Research question one	291
5.1.1. Evidence of a dip in motivation	291
5.1.1.1. Merits and challenges of the double-snapshot design	292
5.1.1.2. Variations in sub-samples	293
5.1.2. Attributions	295
5.1.3. Combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches	297
5.2. Research question two	299

5.2.1. Impact of selected factors	299
5.2.1.1. The teacher	300
5.2.1.2. Progress and activities	302
5.2.1.3. The rewards and sanctions system	305
5.2.1.4. The social dynamics of the classroom	306
5.2.1.5. Lack of curricular choices	309
5.2.2. Principles of the Dynamic Systems Approach reflected in this study	312
5.2.2.1. Application of a simplified longitudinal approach	313
5.2.2.2. Attractors and repellers	314
5.2.2.3. The complexity of the system	317
5.3. Conclusion and implications for educational policy and practice	321
5.4. Contributions to the field	323
5.5. Directions for future research	323
Appendices	325
Appendix 1: Research design	325
Appendix 2: Quantitative analysis	350
Appendix 3: Qualitative analysis	375
References	397

List of tables

	page
Table 1: Number of participants in phase one and two	141
Table 2.1.: Combined positives and negatives (extreme and moderate) in phase one raw data	145
Table 2.2.: Combined positives and negatives (extreme and moderate) in phase two raw data	145
Table 3.1.: Combined positives and negatives (extreme and moderate) in phase one comparable data	148
Table 3.2.: Combined positives and negatives (extreme and moderate) in phase two comparable data	148
Table 4: Number of participants reporting consistent opinions per Likert category	152
Table 5: Number of participants reporting consistent opinions in combined positives and negatives	153
Table 6: Upscale and downscale moves	155
Table 7: Types and frequencies of upscale and downscale moves	157
Table 8: No. of upscale and downscale moves into middle value	158
Table 9.1.: Girls - combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data	162
Table 9.2.: Girls - combined positives and negatives in phase two comparable data	162
Table 10.1.: Boys - combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data	163
Table 10.2.: Boys - combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data	163
Table 11.1: Language sub-samples – French – combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data	166
Table 11.2.: Language sub-samples – French – combined positives and negatives in phase two comparable data	166
Table 12.1.: Language sub-samples – German – combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data	167

Table 12.2.:	Language sub-samples – German – combined positives and negatives in phase two comparable data	167
Table 13:	‘OTHER’ contributions in overall data	213
Table 14:	Positive themes in order of frequency	220
Table 15:	Negative themes in order of frequency	221
Table 16:	Emergence and frequency of positive themes per phase	223
Table 17:	Emergence and frequency of negative themes per phase	223
Table 18:	Group 1 – pupils’ own contributions in phase one and two based on raw data	226
Table 19:	Group 2 – pupils’ own contributions in phase one and two based on raw data	229
Table 20:	Group 3 – pupils’ own contributions in phase one and two based on raw data	232
Table 21:	List of open-ended questions used in phase one and phase two	235
Table 22:	Themes in open-ended questions	240
Chart 1:	Group 1 (E-GM1) – more positive – combined positives and negatives based on raw data	169
Chart 2:	Group 2 (A-GM1) – match with trend – combined positives and negatives based on raw data	171
Chart 3:	Group 3 (C-GM3) – more negative - combined positives and negatives based on raw data	172
Chart 4:	Group 1 (E-GM1) – more positive – ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data	189
Chart 5:	Group 2 (A-GM1) – match with trend – ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data	192
Chart 6:	Group 3 – (C-GM3) – more negative - ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data	194
Chart 7:	Overall raw data – ranking and relative weighting of factors	202
Chart 8:	Group 1 (E-GM1) – more positive – ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data and comparable data	207
Chart 9:	Group 2 (A-GM1) – match with trend – ranking and relative	

	weighting of factors in raw data and comparable data	208
Chart 10:	Group 3 (C-GM3) – more negative – ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data and comparable data	209
Chart 11:	Overall data – ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data and comparable data	210
Figure 1:	Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per teacher	177
Figure 2:	Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per language	178
Figure 3:	Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per ability set	179
Figure 4:	Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per teacher and language	181
Figure 5:	Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per teacher and ability set	182
Figure 6:	Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per language and ability set	183

Abbreviations

A-Level	General Certificate of Education Advanced Level
AMTB	Attitude Motivation Test Battery
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DSA	Dynamic Systems Approach
DST	Dynamic Systems Theory
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
GSCE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
IDs	Individual differences
L2	Second language
LLMQ	Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire
MFL	Modern Foreign Languages
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TL	Target language

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Rationale for the study

My experience as a teacher of Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) at a large comprehensive school in an urban area in central England suggested that large numbers of year 7 pupils started the year being very enthusiastic about learning a foreign language, but soon appeared to lose much of their enthusiasm. Some pupils even appeared to develop a profound disaffection with the subject.

If this was so, it was indicating a worrying trend, which I felt needed exploring from both [...] a professional point of view as well as a personal one; from a professional point of view because of the potential implications for the teaching and learning of MFL and from a personal point of view to investigate whether the pupils' loss of interest was potentially linked to my style of teaching.

In addition to that, recent UK-based studies exploring motivation to learn a foreign language indicated the possibility of an even wider context, by suggesting high opt-out rates and falling numbers of GCSE, A-Level and university candidates (e.g. Fisher, 2001; Graham, 2004; QCA report, 2006)

The study was therefore guided by two research aims, namely: (1) To investigate the possible occurrence of a motivational dip in the course of year 7. (2) To identify factors that appeared to motivate initially and may have contributed to any drop in motivation.

1.2. The nature and scope of the study

Recent motivational research in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) suggests that the construct of motivation shares characteristics of complex dynamic systems, notably the work of Zoltán Dörnyei, whose call for motivation research to incorporate the Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA) (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Dörnyei, 2011) was a major inspiration for this study.

The study was designed as a self-funded PhD research project involving only myself as the main researcher. Due to the practical constraints entailed in this approach I decided that a single-site case study was the most appropriate overall format for the study.

In order to minimise potential bias introduced to the project through my personal involvement I decided not to take part in the study as an active classroom teacher. I am very grateful for the school giving me the opportunity to carry out my project while remaining a member of staff by employing me as a teaching assistant in the languages department for the duration of the project. This role gave me the opportunity to collect data from the perspective of a quasi-outsider, while at the same time I was able to maintain a working relationship with the pupils. The fact that I was able to work in this unique position throughout the entire length of the project facilitated many aspects of the practical conduct of the project.

Despite the single-site case study format, the project shared elements of a large-scale study, in a sense that it included the entire year 7 cohort and thus involved what may be considered the whole population relevant to the topic of my research.

Bearing in mind the question of whether a dip in motivation occurs in the course of year 7, and if so, when, a two-part approach appeared to be the most appropriate design for the study. That is, I decided to follow the same group of pupils throughout the academic year, during which time they took part in two data collection periods in October 2007 and in July 2008, by completing questionnaires at both points in time. In a later stage I carried out targeted interviews with particular individuals displaying characteristic motivational patterns in the questionnaires.

After consideration of the existing literature it appeared that following a large group of school children at this stage of their education with the aim of tracking any changes in their motivation might constitute a contribution to the field of school-based L2 motivation research.

1.3. Outline of the thesis

This thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter two is a summary of the developments in the field of L2 motivation research in the past three decades, leading to a discussion of the Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA) and its potential impact on research in this field. I also consider key studies in the particular context of my study. Chapter three is an outline of the methodological decisions I made in designing this study with a

discussion of the ethical considerations involved in carrying out the study within its specific school-based context. Chapter four presents the different stages of data analysis undertaken, involving both [...] quantitative statistical methodology and qualitative profiling of individual cases. At each stage I summarise the findings and provide details of how these led me on to further inquiry. Finally in chapter five I discuss the findings with reference to the research questions and their potential wider implications for my own teaching practice and that of others.

Chapter 2: Motivations for language learning

The purpose of this chapter is to delineate the research context for my study and show how it is grounded in existing motivation research. With this in mind I first provide a historical overview of the past three decades of motivation research and then consider key studies in the specific context of the present study.

2.1. Historical overview: three decades of motivation research

The following historical overview is a summary of the developments in the field of L2 motivation research in the past three decades.

2.1.1. The social psychological approach

Gardner's concept of 'orientation', based on initial findings in Gardner and Lambert (1972) and further developed by Gardner a few years later (Gardner, 1985), has been a major influence on motivation research in foreign language learning in the last three decades. In its original form the concept distinguished between instrumentally and integratively motivated (or oriented) learners, whereby instrumentally orientated learners were thought to be motivated by the usefulness of learning the foreign language, for example for their career or education, while integratively orientated learners were derived their motivation to learn the language from their desire to be in some way accepted by (or integrated in) the foreign language community. The analytical approach applied by Gardner and his associates was factor analysis (a

reductionist statistical procedure which aims to link clusters of factors to one underlying factor). Data was mainly collected via questionnaires. Continued refinement of the questionnaires used, ultimately led to the development of a standardised version of questionnaire, the 'Attitude Motivation Test Battery' (AMTB).

Following the orientation model, Clément [...] (1980) theorised that motivation in Modern Foreign Languages, as opposed to other school subjects, included a personality dimension, which required the learners to want to adopt an L2 persona, different from their own (cited from Macaro, 2003: 92-93).

Subsequently Gardner expanded the orientation model in response to new directions within educational and motivational research, which increasingly questioned the possibility of describing and explaining phenomena in education with reductionist methods alone, such as the Process Model of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001), which suggests that motivational processes in the classroom are complex and cannot be captured through the exploration of isolated motivational variables. The expanded orientation model included a dynamic dimension, but retained integrative motivation as a central element. The dynamic dimension comprised interactions of a number of variables on different levels, such as external influences, individual differences and the acquisition context (Gardner, 1985; Coleman *et al.*, 2007).

The Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 1985) may be considered [...] the most influential theory of motivation research until the beginning of the 1990s (Dörnyei and

Ushioda, 2011: 40). Its overall socio-psychological approach was reflected in a number of related motivational theories that were developed alongside the Gardnerian model. The following concepts contributed to this phase of motivational research.

The concept of linguistic self-confidence, as suggested by Clément (Clément *et al.*, 1977; Clément, 1980, 1986), is a socially defined construct. Its importance as a motivational factor is determined by the ‘quality’ and ‘quantity’ of contact between language groups in multi-ethnic contexts. Clément later extended this model to situations where direct contact usually does not happen (e.g. the classroom context), arguing that ‘quality’ and ‘quantity’ of indirect contact were important motivational factors (Clément *et al.*, 1994).

Giles and Byrne’s Intergroup Model (Giles and Byrne, 1982) examined the conditions under which members of language minority groups are most likely to acquire native-like proficiency in the language spoken by the majority group in a given setting. Referring to Tajfel’s concept of social identity (Tajfel, 1978), the authors constructed their model around the concepts of ‘in-group identification’, ‘ethnolinguistic vitality’ and ‘in-group boundaries’ [...]. They found that weak in-group identification (not strongly identifying with a community with a prominent linguistic marker), quiescent interethnic comparisons (absence of an inferiority complex towards the dominant language community), low in-group vitality (the own ethnic group does not have a high social status, is not too numerous, etc.), soft in-group boundaries (mobility between in-group and out-group is easy) and existing identification with other social categories (the individual defines themselves as a member of a professional, political, etc. community

as well as an ethnic one) contributed to acquiring native-like levels of proficiency. That is, they could be regarded as motivating factors to learn the L2.

Schumann's (1978, 1986) examination of multi-ethnic settings led to the concept of Acculturation Theory. The concept focused on the process of acculturation of the individual into the target language group. Key terms in the formulation of the theory were 'social distance' and 'psychological distance'. Linked to these terms Schumann identified a number of social and individual factors which hindered the process of acquiring the L2. These were, for example patterns of dominance, low levels of integration between the language groups, culture shock, etc.

Throughout the 1990s Clément and Noels carried out further motivation research linked to the socio-psychological concepts of acculturation, ethno-linguistic identity and L2 acquisition in multi-cultural settings, creating a Situated Identity Theory (Clément and Noels, 1992; Noels *et al.*, 1996; Clément *et al.* 2001). Early in the 1990s motivation research had begun to go beyond considering the large-scale impact of social psychological factors, adopting a more situation-specific perspective. Situated Identity Theory, as developed by Clément and Noels, reflected this paradigm shift in motivational research, inasmuch as it acknowledged the possibility that perceptions of identity may depend on the interaction of complex situational factors on a smaller scale, such as perceptions of the relative minority or majority status of the speaker in a given communication situation. Situated Identity Theory therefore re-defined ethno-linguistic identity as dependent on situation and context.

2.1.2. The turn to a cognitive-situated approach

In the late 1980s and early 1990s the socio-psychological approach to motivational research was increasingly viewed critically by a number of prominent researchers in the field, which eventually led to a paradigm shift in motivational research (see Crookes and Schmidt, 1991). The main points of criticism that led to the shift in perspective applied by motivation research were (1) that new research conducted under the social psychological approach did not seem to be able to go beyond the original Gardnerian concept (2) that motivation research needed to acknowledge the shift in focus in mainstream motivational psychology towards cognitive approaches and (3) that the perspective applied by the social psychological approach was too broad (as it was concerned with language communities as a whole) and could not account for practical language learning contexts, such as the classroom context.

This criticism led to a shift in perspective within motivation research towards a more cognitive-situated approach [...], which sought expansion and integration rather than falsification or rejection of the existing theoretical framework. This approach was reflected in a number of influential publications:

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) brought together the main advances in L2 motivational and mainstream psychological research and distinguished between various levels within L2 motivation. Based on John Keller's (1983) education-oriented theory of motivation and instructional design Crookes and Schmidt developed a motivation framework comprising four components: (1) Interest (linked to intrinsic motivation), (2) relevance

(operates at the macro level as well as the micro level. At macro level relevance is linked with ‘instrumentality’), (3) expectancy (at macro level linked with ‘self-confidence’ and ‘self-efficacy’, at the micro level linked with ‘perceived task difficulty’, ‘effort’, ‘teacher’ and ‘familiarity with task type’) and (4) satisfaction (a combination of extrinsic rewards, such as praise, and intrinsic rewards, such as enjoyment).

Oxford and Shearin (1994) (among others) argued that concepts that had emerged in various areas of mainstream motivational psychology needed to be taken into account in the development of L2 motivation models. Among these were (1) need theories (personal needs, job satisfaction needs, need for achievement), (2) expectancy-value theories (expectancy of success, confidence; perceived value or usefulness of the task), (3) equity theories (perceptions of benefits of task completion), (4) reinforcement theories (perceptions of rewards gained through task completion), (5) social cognition theories (perceptions of outcomes of task completion for others; self-regulation; self-efficacy), (6) achievement goal theory (the influence of personal goals, intrinsic motivation; achieving desirable goals and avoiding undesirable ones), (7) Piaget’s cognitive developmental theory (development of a learner’s cognitive functions through interaction with their physical and social environments) and (8) Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory (knowledge originates in the social context).

Dörnyei’s (1994) Three-Level Framework of L2 Motivation attempted to reconcile the various lines of research and to bring them together into a comprehensive construct. By distinguishing between three distinct levels of motivation, which acted independently on

the overall level of motivation which a learner of an L2 may experience, Dörnyei's model enabled previous theories to coexist with the more recent advances in research in motivational psychology.

The three levels were (1) the language level, (2) the learner level and (3) the learning situation level. The first two levels, the language level and the learner level were mainly dependent on the Gardnerian model and its subsequent amendments, including Dörnyei's own contributions (Dörnyei, 1990), while the third level, the learning situation level, reflected the increased importance seen in the social aspects of learning. Accordingly, Dörnyei allocated integrative and instrumental motivational sub-systems on the language level, where aspects of the L2, such as the L2 culture and community, influenced motivation. On the learner level, motivation was influenced by learner specific characteristics, such as language use anxiety, perceived L2 competence, causal attributions and self-efficacy. On the third level, Dörnyei's model contained learning situation-specific motivational factors, specific to the individual classroom setting. Dörnyei divided the learning situation level further into (1) course-specific motivational components, such as syllabus, teaching materials, teaching method and learning tasks (following the four motivational conditions interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction or outcome, as developed by Keller (1983) and Crookes and Schmidt (1991), (2) teacher-specific motivational components (personality, behaviour, teaching style) and (3) group-specific motivational components (group dynamics).

Williams and Burden (1997) offered an alternative comprehensive model of L2 motivation. Taking a social constructivist perspective on motivation (the individual's

motivation is subject to contextual influences, such as culture, social situation and significant other people), the authors distinguished between various learner-internal and learner-external factors.

The model included the following learner-internal factors: (1) intrinsic interest of activity (curiosity, challenge), (2) perceived value of activity (personal relevance, anticipated value of outcomes, intrinsic value attributed to the activity), (3) sense of agency (locus of causality, locus of control, ability to set goals), (4) mastery (feeling of competence, self-efficacy), (5) self-concept (strengths and weaknesses, success and failure, self-worth, 'learned helplessness'), (6) attitudes (to language learning, to L2, to L2 community and culture), (7) other affective states (confidence, anxiety, fear), (8) developmental age and stage and (9) gender and the following learner-external factors: (a) significant others (parents, teachers, peers), (b) the nature of interaction with significant others (learning experiences, feedback, rewards, praise, punishments, sanctions), (c) the learning environment (comfort, resources, time of day, size of class, class and school ethos), and (d) the broader context (wider family, local education system, conflicting interests, cultural norms, societal expectations and attitudes).

The cognitive-situated approach was characterised by the following key areas of enquiry, which were pursued particularly as a consequence of the new directions in L2 motivational research:

'Attribution Theory', as conceived by Bernard Weiner (1986, 1992), assumes that individuals make causal attributions about past successes and failures, which affects

their future behaviour in similar situations. Successes and failures in the classroom setting may be attributed to (1) ability, (2) effort, (3) task difficulty, (4) luck, (5) mood, (6) family background and (7) help or hindrance from others (see Graham, 1994). The theory further assumes that an individual's future behaviour with regard to a given learning situation will depend on the kind of attributions made in a similar learning situation in the past, i.e. whether the individual attributed their success or failure to uncontrollable factors, such as (lack of) ability, or controllable factors, such as (lack of) effort, for example (Dörnyei, 2003a:8).

Skehan (1989), Julkunen (1989) and Dörnyei (1990) drew attention to Attribution Theory in the L2 motivation context. Subsequently, two influential L2 motivational frameworks developed, Dörnyei's Three-Level Framework of L2 Motivation (1994) and Williams and Burden's social constructivist model (1997). Both acknowledged the importance of causal attribution in L2 motivation, i.e. in Dörnyei's three-level framework, causal attribution operated at the learner level and in Williams and Burden's model, attribution appeared in the form of the learner-internal factors of self-concept and sense of agency.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) point out that there is not much research on attributional processes in L2 motivation, although the importance of Attribution Theory is widely recognised. They see one of the main reasons for this in the fact that L2 motivation research tends to apply quantitative methods, which may not be suited to examine the complex effects of attributions. An example of a small-scale qualitative study on causal attributional processes is Williams and Burden (1999). The study found that the younger

children involved in the study (10- to 12-year olds) attributed their success or failure to fewer factors than the older ones, thus indicating that age may be an important factor. Another study, Ushioda (1996a, 1998), indicated that learners who attributed their L2 success to personal ability and failure to temporary factors, were more likely to maintain an overall positive attitude to language learning. See also Williams, *et al.* (2001).

Deci and Ryan's (1985) understanding of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) presented an alternative to the traditional dichotomy of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in mainstream educational psychology, by placing extrinsic motivation onto a continuum of external control and internal regulation (self-determination), where extrinsic goals which have become fully internalised by the individual eventually resemble the individual's intrinsic goals.

Both Dörnyei (1994) and Williams and Burden (1997) included intrinsic motives in their frameworks of L2 motivation (for Dörnyei interest in the course is an important factor at the learning situation level, and Williams and Burden name intrinsic interest as one of the internal factors in their framework; see above). This reflected the widespread recognition of the importance of intrinsic motivation within the field of L2 motivational research (e.g. Brown, 1981, 1990).

Noels developed the self-determination perspective on L2 motivation further (Noels, 2001, 2003, 2009, Noels *et al.* 1999, 2000, 2001), by offering a theoretical framework for relating established L2 motivational concepts, such as integrative and instrumental orientation to the self-determination continuum (Dörnyei, 2003a: 8). Noels suggested,

for example, that external extrinsic motivation corresponded closely to instrumental orientation, whereas other types of orientations, such as knowledge, travel and friendship (based on Clément and Kruidenier, 1983), appeared to be more associated with self-determination and intrinsic motivation.

Autonomy Theory: The concept of ‘learner autonomy’ in language education (Holec, 1981) is linked to the idea of ‘self-regulation’ (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 2001) and particularly ‘self-regulated learning’ in mainstream psychological research (Dinsmore *et al.*, 2008).

Dickinson (1995) explored the theoretical overlap between autonomy and motivation, especially engaging with cognitive theories of motivation (e.g. intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Attribution Theory). He suggested that motivation and metacognitive strategies were key components in enabling learner autonomy (Dickinson, 1995: 173-174). Other scholars theorised that the autonomous learning process involved an affective dimension (attributed to motivation) as well as a metacognitive dimension (active engagement with one’s knowledge and skills) and that the two were closely related (Ushioda, 1996b; Littlewood, 1996). Okada, *et al.* (1996) found further evidence for a close relationship between the use of metacognitive strategies and motivation.

Task motivation: Julkunen (1989, 2001) carried out a series of studies focusing on task-related issues in the L2 motivation context. On the basis of the distinct concepts of ‘trait-motivation’ (general motivational orientation) and ‘state motivation’ (situation-specific motivation) (adapted from Boekaerts’ (1988) educational psychology model),

Julkunen created an L2 motivational model which explored the interactions between situation- and task-specific motivation, general motivational orientation (instrumental, integrative and cognitive; Gardner, 1985; Laine 1978) and attributional processes (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 59; Julkunen, 2001: 30-31.).

Commenting on Julkunen's model, Dörnyei (2002) suggested a more complex model of task motivation. His main criticism was that the dichotomy of trait motivation and state motivation suggested a too static conception of motivation. Dörnyei defined task motivation in terms as a composite dynamic interaction of contextual influences, learner-internal factors and the intrinsic properties of the task, which varied at different stages of being engaged with the task, thus drawing attention to the dynamic dimension of motivation as a process over time.

2.1.3. The emergence of the process-oriented approach

Williams and Burden (1997) was one of the earliest studies in the L2 motivational field to adopt a process-oriented view on motivation. The authors defined motivation as a process over time which develops in stages along a continuum. They identified three stages on the motivational continuum, which they described as 'reasons for doing something', 'deciding to do something' and 'sustaining the effort' or 'persisting'. The authors then went on to argue that there were two main categories of events on the motivation continuum, those that 'initiate' motivation and those that 'sustain' motivation. This approach can be seen as closely linked to the motivational dichotomy between 'intention formation' (or 'choice motivation') and 'intention motivation' (or

executive motivation’) in mainstream psychology (Heckhausen, 1991; Heckhausen and Heckhausen, 2008).

Ushioda (1994, 1996a), among others, argued that alongside the development of the process-oriented perspective on L2 motivation, qualitative research approaches needed to be given more importance, as quantitative methods (as predominantly applied in the Gardnerian tradition) were not suited for the exploration and representation of the dynamic nature of motivational processes.

Ushioda (1998) constructed her theoretical framework for the study of motivation around the notion of ‘inter-individual’ as well as ‘intra-individual’ variations in motivation over time. According to Ushioda’s framework, sustained motivation has two possible dimensions, (1) positive (past) learning experiences and (2) future goals. She argued that the sustained motivation that a learner experiences is subject to different degrees of influence from these two dimensions, which varies from individual to individual and crucially also within an individual at different stages of the learning experience. That is, a learner who is mainly motivated by past learning experiences at a point in time A, may be mainly influenced by future goal-directed thinking at a point in time B.

Ushioda further theorised that the goal-orientation dimension of motivation only takes shape over time, as learners are developing greater clarity about their future goals and this therefore represents a later stage of the motivational thinking process. According to Ushioda, a learner’s motivational thinking thus has the capacity to evolve over time.

Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation attempted to unify various lines of research into a non-reductionist and comprehensive model of L2 motivation. The model contained two main dimensions, which were thought to run through the entire time span of the motivational process, thereby continuously interacting and informing each other. (1) The first of these dimensions, the 'action sequence' represented a behavioural process in which initial wishes and hopes are transformed into goals, intentions, action and, ideally, the accomplishment of the goals. As a final step of the action sequence an evaluation of the process was thought to take place. (2) The second dimension, the 'motivational influences', included the necessary energy and motivational sources that were believed to be driving the action sequence.

According to the authors, the interaction of 'action sequence' and 'motivational influences' over time, was divided into three main phases, partly following Heckhausen and Kuhl's (1985) Action Control Theory. The first of these, the pre-actional phase, corresponded roughly to what Heckhausen and Kuhl referred to as 'choice motivation'. Within this phase Dörnyei and Ottó distinguished between three sub-processes: (1) goal setting, (2) intention formation and (3) the initiation of intention enactment. Among the motivational influences most likely to occur in the pre-actional phase, they listed various goal properties (e.g. relevance), values associated with the learning process, outcomes and consequences, attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers, anticipation of success, learner beliefs and strategies, support or constraints due to the learning environment.

Within Dörnyei and Ottó's model, motivation in the second phase, the actional phase, was derived from the action itself, a process, which Heckhausen and Kuhl referred to as 'executive motivation'. According to Dörnyei and Ottó three sub-processes are taking place in the actional phase: (1) subtask generation and implementation. In this process, action plans are broken down into manageable units and short-term goals are set. (2) A complex and ongoing appraisal process, in which the learner is seen as monitoring and evaluating their progress towards the learning goal. (3) The application of various action control mechanisms or self-regulatory strategies. The authors believed that the most likely motivational influences in this phase are the perceived quality of the learning experience, sense of autonomy, social influences, such as teachers, peers, parents, classroom reward and goal structures and knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies.

According to Dörnyei and Ottó, the third phase, the post-actional phase, contained two main sub-processes, namely (1) the evaluation of the accomplished action outcome, and (2) the formation of future action plans based on the accomplished action outcome. The authors believed that in the course of these processes causal attributions are formed. They named the following motivational influences as the most likely ones to occur in this phase: attributional factors, self-concept beliefs, external feedback and achievement grades.

The approach of researching motivation as a process and experience over time led to the pursuit of the following lines of enquiry, which may be seen as characteristic of this phase:

‘The longitudinal survey study’: The aim of most longitudinal survey studies is to identify global (general) changes in motivation within a group of learners, as they progressed through a course of study. Some studies also focused on students in different year groups or at different stages of their learning, i.e. they were repeated cross-sectional rather than true longitudinal studies. Typically, studies of this kind made use of questionnaire-style instruments. Examples are: Tachibana *et al.* (1996), Chambers (1999), Inbar *et al.* (2001), Williams *et al.* (2002) and Gardner *et al.* (2004). One of the most extensive studies to apply this method has been Dörnyei *et al.* (2006) (see also Dörnyei and Clément, 2001; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002). As Dörnyei and Ushioda point out, it seems that most of these studies fairly consistently found that levels of motivation were declining, as the learners progressed through their course of studies.

Some of these studies were cross-sectional rather than longitudinal studies (e.g. Williams and Burden, 1999), i.e. they did not involve the same group of students at an earlier and a later point in time, but rather focused on students of different age groups at the same point in time. It therefore appeared questionable whether it could be concluded that levels of motivation had changed as time progressed.

A developing area of process-oriented L2 motivational research is that of applying biographical and autobiographical methods to investigate an individual’s motivational patterns retrospectively over extended periods of their lives (e.g. Lim, 2002). Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005) identified a number of key transformational episodes which affected L2 motivation in a group of 25 learners of English. According to their findings

key transformational episodes may be incidents such as leaving school, entering the world of work or visiting an English-speaking country.

Another developing area of process-oriented L2 motivational research is concerned with motivational self-regulation. Motivational self-regulation is an implicit key element of Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation and has also emerged as a factor through an increased research interest in learner autonomy and learner strategy use. According to Ushioda (1998, 2001) examples of strategies of motivational self-regulation are positive attribution patterns, autonomous target setting, positive self-talk and engaging in an L2 activity the learners find intrinsically motivating. More recently Ushioda (2003) has added that the degree to which a learner is able to self-regulate their motivation, e.g. to overcome or avoid maladaptive belief systems, may depend on their self-awareness as agents in constructing their own motivational thinking.

2.1.4. The shift towards a Dynamic Systems Approach

Commenting on his own work, Dörnyei (2005; 2009b) suggested that the Process Model of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998) had been built on three major misconceptions. (1) The model describes a single learning process (or actional process) which has a clearly defined beginning and end. Dörnyei (2005) acknowledged, however, that in a real life classroom situation it is impossible to determine when an individual learning situation might start and end. He also assumed that within the classroom a number of learning situations might occur simultaneously, overlapping or interacting with each other. (2) The model describes an isolated learning situation and

does not allow for interference from other actional processes that the learner may be engaged in at the same time (another learning process, or various personal and social goals) (Dörnyei, 2005). (3) The model describes an actional sequence which is informed by the linear cause-effect relationship of its components. In view of the explanatory potential of the complex dynamic systems perspective, as adopted in the field of applied linguistics (Ellis and Larsen-Freeman, 2006; de Bot *et al.* 2007; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008a; van Geert, 2008), Dörnyei (2009b) realised, however, that the overall linear nature of the model was not able to do justice to the dynamic and complex nature of motivation.

Dörnyei's move away from the traditional linear cause-effect conceptualisation of motivation represented in the earlier models happened within the context of a movement in the wider field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), sometimes referred to as the 'social turn' (Block, 2003), which suggests that language learning should not be mainly regarded as a cognitive psycholinguistic process, but as a socioculturally and sociohistorically situated process (Seidlhofer, 2003; Zuengler and Miller, 2006; Lafford, 2007; also: Norton, 2000).

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 75-77) summarise the main points of criticism of the traditional linear approaches to researching motivation that characterise the socio-dynamic phase as follows: (1) The reductionist nature of the traditional linear approaches to researching motivation, e.g. aiming to establish cause-effect relationships between a limited number of factors or an individual factor and the outcome, cannot account for the complex interactions of internal, situational and temporal factors that

may influence motivation. (2) The psychometric approach to representing the language learners as idealised types of learners (the intrinsically motivated learner, the extrinsically motivated learner, etc.) is not suited to reflect the unique individuality, agency, intentionality and reflexive capacities of human beings. (3) L2 motivational research tends to treat context as a static background variable. Mainstream motivational psychology is abandoning this view in favour of a dynamic integrated view of motivation, self and context. That is, motivation and context are defined by a mutually constitutive relationship, which the learners are shaping through their actions and responses.

A recent large-scale repeat cross-sectional study of language learning motivation in Hungary, conducted by Dörnyei *et al.* (2006), raised further questions with regard to the theoretical approach to research in language learning motivation. (1) One of the findings of the survey indicated that the students' interest in learning foreign languages was decreasing, with the exception of a growing (instrumentally motivated) interest in learning English. Dörnyei suggested that motivation to learn English as a foreign language, due to its role in today's globalised world, was likely to be qualitatively different from other foreign languages, as speaking English was increasingly viewed as a basic educational skill, similar to literacy or numeracy. He further suggested that research may need to follow a two-tier approach to analysing L2 motivation, depending on whether or not Global English is the target language. (2) Global English does not have a specific geographically defined community of speakers. Dörnyei suggested that traditional L2 motivational concepts, such as integrativeness and attitudes to the target

language speakers and their culture may start to lose meaning as a result and would need to be re-evaluated.

Three new conceptual approaches incorporate a socio-dynamic perspective, the person-in-context relational view, the L2 Motivational Self System and the complex dynamic systems perspective.

The person-in-context relational view (Ushioda, 2009) is concerned with the dynamic system of complex, unpredictable, non-linear and unique relations among the relevant features within a motivational process. Since the nature of these relations is unique to every person and context, motivation cannot be defined as a quantifiable variable under the relational perspective, but rather ‘as emergent from relations between human intentionality and the social world’ (Sealey and Carter, 2004: 206).

Building on these ideas Ushioda (2009) has proposed a relational perspective on L2 motivation which seeks to explore the interactions between motivation, self and context. In contrast to the traditional focus on abstract language learners or abstract language learner characteristics, Ushioda’s approach highlights in particular the complex individuality of the language learners. She argues that for anyone learning a language, being a language learner is likely to be only one aspect of his or her social identity or conception of the self. She maintains that various other identities may have an influence on the motivational process at different points in time (such as nationality, profession, etc.).

A key challenge for the relational approach is to develop a practical analytical tool which is capable of capturing the complex 'person(s) in context(s)' perspective, which the approach is taking. That is, among other things, research needs to provide a practical definition of what constitutes a person's context.

Ushioda (2009) herself suggests a focus on the micro-analysis of interactional data within teacher-student talk, i.e. to examine motivation as it evolves and emerges through the developing discourse (see also Mc Groarty, 1998; Richards, 2006). Other scholars suggest an approach applied in conversational analysis, which defines 'context' as explicitly oriented to or invoked in the interaction. According to the analytical approach taken in conversational analysis, context and identity are thus produced in the place and time of the interaction, are developing throughout the interaction and are subject to change at any moment in the interaction (Duranti and Goodwin, 1992; Heritage, 2005; see also Preston, 2009).

The L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005) suggested a comprehensive synthesis of [...] L2 motivational research and mainstream psychological research. It was mainly influenced by the ongoing criticism of the traditional Gardnerian concepts of integrativeness and integrative motivation within the L2 motivational field and developments in mainstream psychological research of the self, where links between theories of the self and motivation theories were being made.

Markus and Nurius (1986) proposed the concept of possible selves to describe how the self regulates behaviour by setting goals and expectations. The concept of possible

selves was concerned with how people conceptualise their unrealised potential. Because of the forward-pointing directionality of the concept, the authors considered possible selves to act as future 'self-guides'. With a particular focus on academic achievement, Higgins (1987, 1998) subsequently distinguished between two kinds of possible selves, the 'ideal self' and the 'ought self'. The 'ideal self' represented the attributes that a learner ideally would like to possess in the future while the 'ought self' referred to the attributes the learner thinks they ought to possess, as a result of the involvement of someone else (for a discussion of the possible limitations of distinguishing between 'ideal self' and 'ought self', see Boyatzis and Akrivou, 2006). Higgins (1987, 1996) further theorised that the discrepancy between the future 'ideal self' or 'ought self' (or 'self-guides') and the current actual self-generated motivation, as it created the desire to reduce the gap between the different personal states (Self-Discrepancy Theory).

Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System consisted of three components: (1) The ideal L2 self: Following Markus and Nurius (1986) and their concepts of possible selves and future 'self-guides' and Higgins's (1987, 1998) concept of the 'ideal self', motivation to learn the L2 is derived from the wish to reduce the discrepancy between the actual L2 self and the ideal L2 self (see also Hoyle and Sherrill, 2006). Dörnyei subsumed the traditional Gardnerian conceptions of integrative and internalised instrumental motivation (promotion of positive outcomes rather than prevention of negative ones; Higgins, 1987, 1998) under the ideal L2 self component. (2) The ought-to L2 self: This dimension corresponded to Higgins's 'ought-self'. As suggested by Higgins, motivation was mainly derived from the wish to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes. Dörnyei expected less internalised or more extrinsic

instrumental motives (prevention of negative outcomes, rather than promotion of positive ones; see above) to fall into this category. An example, according to Dörnyei, would be social pressure coming from the learner's environment. The third component of Dörnyei's model, (3) the L2 learning experience, acknowledged the impact of situated factors on motivation that the wave of L2 motivational research in the 1990s had introduced. According to Dörnyei examples of factors shaping the L2 learning experience were the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group and the experience of success.

A number of recent quantitative studies have been conducted to test and validate the L2 Motivational Self System: Csizér and Kormos (2009), MacIntyre *et al.* (2009b), Ryan (2009b), Taguchi *et al.* (2009), Asker (2012). These studies confirmed Dörnyei's conceptualisations of ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self and thus lent support to the theory.

The Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA) as promoted by Dörnyei (2009b) and others is inspired by Complexity Theory and more specifically Dynamic Systems Theory (DST). Dörnyei argues that a situated and process-oriented perspective on motivation inevitably leads to a dynamic conception of motivation that integrates the various factors to do with the learner, the learning task and the learning environment.

The complex dynamic systems perspective conceptualises motivation by extending the traditional framework of individual differences (IDs). IDs are conceived to be personal traits which mark a person as a distinct and unique human being. The traditional

approach to research into IDs has mainly focused on identifying the traits which were assumed to be shared by all human beings and on which people differ by degree. As such, IDs have been thought of as individual deviations from a normative blueprint (Dörnyei, 2005).

Dörnyei (2009b) argues that the traditional conception of IDs is an idealised conception which needs to be revised for two main reasons: (1) Applying a process-oriented perspective on SLA, Dörnyei argues that IDs cannot be regarded as permanent character traits that distinguish one person from another, but rather need to be conceived as being subject to temporal and contextual variations. (2) Most human attributes need to be classified as multicomponential higher order mental characteristics. That is, they are made up of the dynamic interaction of their components (Kosslyn and Smith, 2000). For example, motivational factors may be considered as 'hybrid' attributes, as they may involve cognitive and emotional elements. This further undermines the notion of singular character traits or attributes, as found in traditional research into IDs.

The dynamic systems perspective on L2 motivation, as suggested by Dörnyei (2009b) extends the traditional conception of IDs in the following way. Firstly, Dörnyei postulates a tripartite framework of learner characteristics, which assumes that motivation, cognition and affect (emotion) are phenomenologically distinguishable. Secondly, he argues that, although motivation, cognition and affect may be seen as primary organising principles of learner characteristics, the complex Dynamic Systems Approach requires them to be viewed as dynamic sub-systems which have continuous

and complex interaction with each other and cannot exist in isolation from each other (see also: Dörnyei, 2010).

In terms of conceptualising motivation, it therefore does not seem useful to attempt to isolate individual motivational factors (motives) and to study these in isolation. Instead Dörnyei suggests pursuing higher order ‘motivational conglomerates’, which typically include cognitive and affective factors and which act as a whole.

Motivation research applying a dynamic systems perspective seeks to identify so-called attractors and attractor states, as well as attractor conglomerates. That is, patterns of one or more elements to which the system is attracted, in other words individual motivational factors or clusters of these which emerge as stable elements within the complex system. Motivational factors in this sense may be regarded as attractors, i.e. positive factors, or repellers, i.e. negative factors (see Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 247).

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 93-98) consider four examples of situated motivational conglomerates, as suggested by the dynamic systems perspective:

‘Interest’ is a category in many traditional approaches to the definition of motivation. Gardner’s (1985) integrative motivation construct, for example, contains the ‘interest in foreign languages’ dimension. It is also found in expectancy-value theories, where it is acknowledged in the ‘intrinsic/interest value’ category, which represents the anticipated enjoyment of engaging in the activity (Eccles, 2009) and in Self-Determination Theory, which recognises intrinsic interest as a key component. Intrinsic interest in this sense

denotes the inherent satisfaction and enjoyment of a behaviour (La Guardia, 2009). Going beyond the motivational dimension of the term ‘interest’, Hidi and Renninger (2006) define interest as an interaction between a person and a particular content, which is subject to change over time, and recognise both affective and cognitive components within it, which are separate but interact with each other. In a more recent study, Renninger (2009) suggests that ‘interest’ in the sense of ‘interest for content over time’ depends on feelings as well as stored knowledge, thus being ‘both a cognitive and affective motivational variable’ (Renninger, 2009: 206). It thus seems that interest represents a complex motivational conglomerate in line with the assumptions made by the dynamic systems perspective.

Motivational flow: Following Csikszentmihalyi’s (1990) original concept, ‘flow’ can be defined as a ‘heightened level of motivated task engagement’, in which the participants in a particular task are fully absorbed by it, to a degree that they may lose self-consciousness or track of time (e.g. playing a computer game). Egbert (2003) characterises the conditions under which flow may occur in SLA as follows: (1) There is a perceived balance of task challenge and participant skills during the task. That is, the task is perceived as challenging and achievable at the same time. (2) The task offers opportunities for intense concentration and there are clear task goals. (3) The participants find the task intrinsically interesting. (4) The participants perceive a sense of control over task process and outcomes. In this sense, the concept of ‘flow’ may be seen as a motivational conglomerate, containing motivational and affective components, experienced as the enjoyment of an intrinsically motivating task, but also as containing cognitive components in the shape of appraisal of the challenge, self-appraisal of the

level of the individual's skill and sense of control over the task, as well as clarity about the task goals.

Motivational task processing: Dörnyei (2003a) proposed a model to describe the dynamics within the motivational processes involved in student performance on learning tasks, which comprised three interrelated mechanisms, task execution, task appraisal and action control. In Dörnyei's model, task appraisal is an ongoing process in which the learner evaluates the input received from the environment regarding task execution, i.e. to what extent actual performance on the task matches or deviates from the predicted or hoped-for performance, as well as whether or not alternative actions may have an effect on performance and what kind of effect. Action control is a self-regulatory mechanism which directs learning-specific actions, informed through task appraisal, in order to facilitate task execution. Dörnyei's (2003a) task processing model thus assumes a circular relationship between the three components which was supported through the findings of a more recent study (Dörnyei and Tseng, 2009). The task processing model may serve as a way of capturing a motivational conglomerate, as motivation to do well in a learning task seems to depend to a great extent on the cognitive appraisal component within the circular model.

Future self-guides: Following Markus' (2006) original conception of future self-guides and possible selves, these may have a strong motivational capacity, as well as containing a cognitive and emotional dimension. MacIntyre *et al.* (2009a) also recognise a cognitive and an affective component within the concept of possible selves. They argue that the motivational element of the concept is informed through the

cognitive and affective dimensions. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 97) suggest that the learners' cognitive self-appraisal of their capabilities may be a necessary prerequisite for future self-guides to act as a motivational instrument. They conclude that future self-guides need to consist of a 'package', containing future visions, appropriate emotions towards these visions and a variety of appropriate plans and self-regulatory strategies. The concept of future self-guides may therefore be called the ultimate motivational conglomerate.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 98-99) propose that all learner attributes form different motivational conglomerates, based on the three main dimensions: motivation, cognition and affect. Explanatory power therefore depends on capturing the precise combination of these ingredients in a given situation. The authors further argue that there appears to be an intuitive element in defining and finding effective combinations of motivation, cognition and affect, as is demonstrated in the terms 'interest' and 'flow', for example. It may be, they conclude, that effective motivation-cognition-affect combinations are perceivable by specialists and non-specialists alike, which may inform research methodology so that careful qualitative exploration of language learners' self-reports can provide more definitive answers.

2.1.5. Conclusion

It was my intention to design the present study within the context of the most recent advances in motivation research. For this reason I decided that it needed to reflect some of the central ideas of the Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA).

Dörnyei (2011:5f) recognises that operationalising DSA in practical research may require making methodological compromises. He suggests that meaningful research into dynamic systems (such as classroom environments) may need to focus on the predictable areas of the system and he names three research strategies that may be suitable to research dynamic systems. These are: (1) researching strong attractors, (2) researching typical attractor conglomerates, (3) researching typical dynamic outcome patterns by means of Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling (RQM), i.e. asking why system behaviour resulted in particular outcome options.

Following Dörnyei's proposals above it appeared possible to transfer tenets and principles of the Dynamic Systems Approach into a less complex study which would employ a carefully designed questionnaire producing quantitative as well as qualitative data (see Abbuhl and Mackey, 2008:104). Within such a design commonly researched motivational factors could be interpreted as attractors and repellers and a longitudinal element could be introduced into the research by conducting two rounds of data collection.

2.2. Key studies

In this section I critically evaluate key studies in the context of my study by exploring the main characteristics attributed to the concept of motivation in these studies as well as the approach chosen to investigate motivation. I also consider how my study could make a contribution to the field by examining methodological gaps not addressed by the key studies. On the basis of this I develop the parameters used to investigate motivation

in the context of my own study, by extracting commonly used factors from the literature.

I selected key studies by matching at least two of the following criteria: (1) Studies based in the UK secondary school context. (2) Studies involving the participants at an early stage of their learning experience and also at a later stage, i.e. studies employing a methodological approach that allowed for comparisons at two points in time and involved language learning beginners (with a focus on 11- to 16-year-old school children). (3) Studies not focusing on specific backgrounds, such as gender, etc., e.g. Harris (1998), Jones and Jones (2001) and Maubach and Morgan (2001).

(1) Williams and Burden (1999) examined the effects of the learners' perceptions of success and failure (Attribution Theory) in MFL on the motivation of a group of 10- to 14-year old pupils.

Their findings suggested that significant changes may take place as the children progress through the different year groups and that the older pupils (year 9 and 10) measured their failure or success in MFL much more against their marks and test results than the younger ones. The older pupils also mentioned factors such as distractions through peer pressure and other social interactions with parents and teachers, for example, to have had an impact on their motivation in their lessons. The finding that the older pupils made different attributions was based on cross-sectional data from different year groups. The study suggested that attributions and perceptions of peer pressure may be important factors having a potential influence on motivation. In planning my study

from a dynamic perspective it seemed that working with the same group of pupils at two different points in time might produce richer data.

(2) Fisher (2001) investigated reasons for pupils not choosing to continue with Modern Foreign Languages at option stage (at the time of the study MFL was a compulsory subject in KS3 and KS4).

The study involved 117 GCSE pupils who were entered for higher papers in MFL, Sixth Form students (year 12) who had chosen to continue with languages, as well as some who had chosen not to continue with the subject, and language teachers at three comprehensive schools in the UK.

The study followed the Gardnerian conceptualisation of motivation, based around the concepts of 'integrative' and 'instrumental' orientations. Data was mainly collected through questionnaires containing Likert scale statements and open-ended questions. A smaller number of interviews, followed up by focus group interviews, were carried out with Sixth Form students.

The findings included that MFL was not perceived as negative, but that other subjects are perceived as more attractive or more enjoyable. Also, the skills of the teacher were appreciated by the majority of pupils. Where pupils chose to continue with the subject there seemed to be an awareness of the usefulness of the subject with regard to career. Where pupils chose not to continue with languages, the perceived difficulty of the subject was an important factor. A large proportion of the pupils who had achieved

good results at GCSE but still chose not to continue with languages answered that despite their good exam results they did not feel confident about their ability in MFL. This happened although there was an apparent awareness among the pupils that further qualifications in MFL would give them an advantage in their future careers. The pupils also reported that the subject was unattractive because of the repetitiveness of the lessons. It seemed that the teacher was not perceived as an important motivational factor, whereas the syllabus and methodology of MFL were identified as the most important demotivating factors.

The study foregrounded the following additional factors: (1) Like or dislike of the subject; (2) comparison with other subjects; (3) the role of the teacher; (4) potential relevance of career opportunities; (5) perceived level of confidence (Attribution Theory); (6) perceived attractiveness of the lesson content (syllabus) and (7) perceived attractiveness of the teaching methods (activities).

However, from this study it appeared that a mainly cross-sectional approach cannot provide insights into potential changes in motivation over time. Also, the approach chosen in the study did not fully explore the process-oriented and dynamic nature of motivation. It seemed that these two points could be approached through a study design that would follow the same group of participants as they progress through their language education, starting data collection as early on as possible, i.e. in year 7.

(3) Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) examined changes in attitude and motivation towards MFL learning among 13/14-year-old Hungarian school children. The study compared large-scale survey data collected in 1993 and 1999.

The findings suggested that attitude and motivation towards learning the five different languages that are taught in Hungarian secondary schools (English, German, French, Italian, Russian) can be described with the help of a set of five attitudinal and motivational dimensions: (1) Integrativeness, (2) instrumentality, (3) direct contact with L2 speakers, (4) cultural interest or indirect contact and (5) vitality of the L2 community. There were two further dimensions which were not linked to a specific language. These were: (6) Milieu (i.e. school, friends, parents) and (7) linguistic self-confidence. These dimensions were initially developed out of the 1993 data (Dörnyei and Clément, 2001) and verified through the later data set (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002).

The study adopted a comprehensive situated and process-oriented view on motivation, which incorporated the Gardnerian conceptualisation, in line with Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation (see above section 2.1.3.). Moreover, the study followed a repeated cross-sectional design, represented in two separate data collection periods. At both points in time the same questionnaire was used to enable the authors to draw conclusions based on comparing the two data sets.

The results indicated that all five languages were appraised through the same mental framework by the Hungarian children, that there was a clear rank-order within the five languages at both stages of the survey, and that although the rank-order of the languages

remained nearly identical in phase two, only English was perceived as positively as before in the second phase, while overall enthusiasm for the other four languages had decreased. The authors concluded that motivation to learn Global English was qualitatively different from the motivation to learn any of the other languages. While the repeated cross-sectional design of the study may have enabled long-term comparisons, the data was inevitably obtained from two different groups of participants.

A research design involving the same group of participants therefore seemed to be a favourable choice. The finding of a motivational dip with regard to four of the five languages under investigation suggested a potential overlap with the anticipated results of my study.

The study also suggested that perceptions of the wider practical use of learning a language (in addition to career), such as for trips abroad, was an additional factor with potential relevance in the context of my study.

(4) Williams *et al.* (2002) dealt with perceptions of motivational issues in MFL among 228 UK secondary school children in year 7, year 8 and year 9 in three schools in the South West of England.

The authors conceptualised motivation according to a matrix of external and internal factors, which was developed for the purposes of the study. The factors were derived from various sources in the motivational and educational psychology literature. The concept of motivation underlying the study reflected the traditional Gardnerian

approach, as well as the situated approach and concepts such as motivational self-regulation (agency), attitudes, and identity were acknowledged. The research questions were concerned with the general level of motivation in MFL among UK school children and more specifically motivational differences among them based on gender, age, levels of proficiency and the language learnt.

The main instrument used in the study, the 'Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire' (LLMQ), was based on Gardner's AMTB (1985) and other instruments found in the literature. The questions related to sixteen motivational factors, which fell into four categories, namely attitude measurement (enjoyment, desire to speak the language, importance of the language, integrative orientation, intrinsic motivation), identity (perceived success, perceived ability), agency (effort, result of effort vs. learned helplessness, internal locus, awareness of strategies, metacognitive awareness, metacognitive strategies) and external factors (the teacher, the parents, the teaching group).

One focal area of the study was concerned with feelings of agency. Williams *et al.* referred to a theoretical conception of agency which comprised autonomy, self-efficacy, Attribution Theory, locus of control, flow or goal theory and metacognition. The six factors in the questionnaire that measured agency corresponded with these. The questionnaire was followed up by interviews with 24 of the participating pupils, to clarify questions emerging from the questionnaire data. Through this design the study combined quantitative and qualitative methodology.

The main findings suggested that overall motivation to learn a language decreased with age, that girls reported higher levels of motivation than boys, that pupils were more motivated to learn German than French (especially the boys) and that pupils who were perceived to be at the highest level of proficiency tended to enjoy the subject more and were found to be more intrinsically motivated than those who were perceived to be at lowest level. Furthermore, the interview data from both boys and girls indicated that French was considered to be a feminine language, and that boys were perceived to avoid any work that was considered tedious.

The study applied a cross-sectional approach and the finding that overall motivation decreased over the first three years at secondary school was based on pupils from different year groups. The following additional factors appeared relevant for my study: (1) Perceptions of the teaching group; (2) gender differences; (3) ability level; and (4) language learnt. It appeared that my study could make a contribution to the field by following the same group of participants over an extended period of time and provide more valid evidence for a potential motivational dip. It further appeared that the mixed-method approach to data collection and analysis applied in the study was potentially suitable in the context of my study as it appeared to allow for triangulation and verification of the findings.

(5) Graham (2004) explored perceptions of learning French among year 11, 12 and 13 (age 16-19) students and the influence these perceptions may have had on their motivation to persist with language study.

The survey involved nearly 600 students in ten educational institutions in the South of England. 28 of the students were invited to take part in follow-up interviews, to explore themes that emerged from their questionnaire responses. Conceptually the study was based in the cognitive-situated tradition and more specifically utilised the construct of 'self-efficacy' (Bandura, 1977), and related concepts found in Attribution Theory (Weiner, 1986a). Graham defined self-efficacy as the perceived ability or inability to meet the demands of the subject.

The findings suggested that pupils' attributions of success or failure in language learning, may have a great impact on forming attitudes towards the subject. The author distinguished between two attributional styles, the 'adaptive' (or positive attributional) and the 'maladaptive style'. In the 'adaptive style', success is frequently attributed to a perceived high ability in the subject by the students. In the 'maladaptive style', the students attribute their perceived failure in languages learning to a lack of ability. The 'adaptive style' in this sense is seen to be related to the forming of positive motivational patterns in the students, while the 'maladaptive style' is seen to be related to demotivation. In its most extreme form demotivation related to negative attributions can be equated with 'learned helplessness', i.e. a state in which any effort is seen as pointless by the pupils and success is perceived as impossible. Graham found that pupils tended to link their success or failure to a notion of natural ability in the subject, although some of the older students (year 13) also made attributions to their own effort and the appropriateness of the learning strategies they had applied.

The following concepts emerged from the study as to why pupils chose not to continue with languages: (1) The lack of enjoyment of the subject, (2) the degree of difficulty of the subject, (3) the perception that languages was of no use for career plans and (4) the feeling of not being good at it. Graham suggested that most of these could be related to attributions of ability present among the pupils. The author concluded that there seemed to be a low level of metacognition among the pupils, especially the ones who perceived themselves as low ability learners in the subject. The author also found that ‘trying hard’ was often associated with ‘low ability’, which hindered the success of effort attribution strategies. Where these were applied successfully, however, they were able to turn failure situations into problem-solving situations.

Graham therefore recommended that issues of self-efficacy and positive attributions need to be paid more attention to, in order to maintain pupils’ motivation to learn languages. The study investigated a very specific aspect of motivation, namely the possible influence on motivational processes of levels of self-efficacy, strategy use (metacognition) and attributions. The findings provided some evidence that low levels of self-efficacy, a lack of strategy use and negative attributions may have a negative impact on the students’ motivation.

The following additional factors emerged as relevant for the present study: (1) perceptions of the level of difficulty and (2) perceptions of achievement and progress.

Comparisons between year groups were made on the basis of cross-sectional data. As mentioned above, it appeared that an even higher degree of validity could be achieved

by involving the same group of participants. Furthermore, all findings were based on the participants' perceptions of one particular language. Including at least one other language would have allowed some insight into whether or not different languages may be perceived differently.

(6) The 2006 QCA report (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority) involved year 9 pupils from six schools in the Greater London area between November 2005 and March 2006 as part of the QCA's review of the KS3 curriculum.

The schools were chosen because of their earlier involvement in work on the Framework for Teaching Modern Foreign Languages Years 7, 8 and 9 (DfES, 2003). The pupils were first asked to fill in a questionnaire, which was then followed up by interviews with some of the pupils in order to explore the issues raised by the questionnaire in more detail. The questionnaire was designed to collect quantitative data as well as qualitative data. The main objectives of the study were to explore the pupils' views about language learning at KS3, to investigate whether they found languages more or less demanding and enjoyable as compared with other subjects and to consider how their experiences in KS3 may have affected their option choices at the end of year 9. The key research questions were: (1) What did the pupils enjoy about language learning and what did they not enjoy, (2) how could the KS3 experience have been improved, (3) what did the pupils think it meant to make progress in languages, (4) what were their reasons for either continuing or giving up languages at KS4, (5) what influenced their choice and (6) what were their general views about learning a foreign language. The questionnaire contained items which suggested the following influences

from motivation research: Intrinsic and extrinsic motives, instrumental value of languages, situated classroom-oriented issues, and self-efficacy.

The main findings were: (1) The pupils thought that language learning was not as enjoyable as they would have liked. They liked active and interactive lessons and enjoyed learning about the target language (TL) cultures. They disliked teacher-led lessons, as well as copying from the book. (2) The authors of the report judged the pupils' understanding of how to progress in languages as quite good. (3) The pupils reported that a positive decision to continue with languages may have been influenced by the perceived importance of the language in future life, their own positive estimation of their ability in the subject, enjoyment of the language, liking teachers and their friends opting to continue. Reasons for dropping languages included the perceived level of difficulty of the subject compared with other subjects, lack of enjoyment, dislike of the teacher and their friends choosing different options.

An additional factor with potential relevance to the present study that emerged from the QCA study was the perceived influence exerted by friendship.

The survey adopted a wide angle, implicitly drawing on a number of theoretical approaches to L2 motivation. In line with the intended research aims, the survey produced data, about factors that had positive and negative effects on their views of language learning. A snapshot design, as applied in this study, i.e. to collect large-scale data from a large group of individuals or an entire cohort in a one-off round of data collection, appeared to be a practically feasible approach for my own research given the

constraints on the present study, however, I decided to attempt to capture the dynamic nature of motivation through a repeated snapshot research design.

(7) Coleman *et al.* (2007) used a variation of Gardner's (1985) AMTB to conduct an extensive motivational survey among UK school children at Key Stage 3 between November 2005 and February 2006.

The survey involved more than 10,000 pupils in 39 schools. The authors state that the study was not designed to test a particular motivation construct or model, but rather to capture the main components of motivation as developed out of an extensive literature review. However, the choice of instrument suggests that the study was conceptually mainly based in the Gardnerian tradition. The questionnaire questions related to the following concepts: (1) Effort, (2) academic achievement, (3) integrative orientation and (4) instrumental orientation. After re-categorisation of the data during analysis the authors expanded the concept of motivation by a fifth component, namely (5) perceived language aptitude (self-efficacy).

The study was designed to address the following research questions: (1) Whether there is a correlation between motivation and year of study, (2) between motivation and gender and (3) between motivation and type of school environment. Research question three suggested that the study was conceptually open to explore the situatedness of motivation.

The findings were that there was significant correlation between motivation and year group, motivation and gender, and motivation and type of school. The authors came to the conclusion that overall motivation in languages dropped significantly between year 7 and year 8. A further decline in motivation was recognisable between year 8 and year 9. The data appeared to confirm that there were fundamental gender differences in L2 motivation in a way that girls showed and maintained a higher level of motivation in the subject. Also, there was evidence that girls rated themselves higher than boys in terms of effort spent in language learning and perceived language aptitude. There seemed to be further significant differences between the genders with regard to the application of cognitive strategies to maximise the effort spent on learning the L2, i.e. the girls appeared to be more aware of effort maximisation strategies than boys. The results for 'perceived language aptitude' and 'effort maximisation' were unexpected, as the literature points towards boys commonly scoring higher on these variables. The overall L2 motivation measures were significantly higher for specialist schools (Specialist Languages Colleges and the Asset Languages Pilot Centres) compared with the measures for non-specialist schools. This pointed towards a direct link between the motivation of the individual pupils and the nature of their school environment. Also, there was some evidence that a supportive school environment (as in the specialist schools) may have a positive influence on perceived language aptitude and the rate of decline in extrinsic orientation.

With regard to the theoretical construct of motivation that emerged from their study Coleman *et al.* (2007) noted that it was made up of five elements: (1) Instrumental

orientation, (2) integrative orientation, (3) achievement orientation, (4) effort and (5) perceived language aptitude.

The study suggested that factors related to the situatedness of motivation, especially perceptions of supportive or unsupportive learning environments might be additional factors relevant to the design of the present study. As my study was planned as a single-site project I took the view that these concepts might be explored on a smaller scale, i.e. at class level and by making comparisons with the wider school context.

The analysis rested on a large amount of data obtained from a very large sample. However, the finding that levels of motivation dropped as the pupils progressed through KS3 was based on cross-sectional data. That is, it was not based on the same group of individuals. Also, all findings were derived from quantitative statistical analysis only. Coleman *et al.* (2007) did not provide any information about the pupils' motivation with regard to different foreign languages, because the majority of participants overlooked the section in the questionnaire where the language they studied was to be indicated.

(8) Kuhlmeier, *et al.* (1996) carried out a large-scale two-part survey among 14-year old Dutch school children in the first year of learning German as their second foreign language (after English).

The study was designed to investigate the relationship between attitudes, motivation, achievement and teaching methods, in particular the proposed causal relationship between attitudes and achievement and its directionality, i.e. whether attitudes

influenced achievement or whether achievement had an influence on attitudes. Two rounds of data collection were carried out, at the beginning and at the end of the school year. In each of the two rounds of data collection both achievement tests and attitude scales questionnaires were used.

The conceptualisation of motivation in the study was based on the Gardnerian constructs of integrative and instrumental orientation. To measure the pupils' attitudes the questionnaires asked them to comment on their levels of enjoyment, perseverance and anxiety in the subject. Some of the questionnaire items referred to the pupils' attitudes towards the course materials and the teacher, thus reflecting influences of a situated view of motivation on the research design.

Based on previous research carried out by the authors, they hypothesised that attitudes and achievement were to be considered as relatively independent constructs at the beginning of the school year and that the two constructs were only beginning to mutually influence each other as the school year progressed. In the context of the Dutch school they therefore expected that the relationship between attitudes and achievement would be stronger at the end of the year and that pupils doing well in the beginning of the year would display positive attitudes towards language learning at the end of the year. However, contrary to expectations the findings indicated that (1) positive attitudes appeared to be linked to high achievement at both points in time, i.e. the two concepts appeared to be linked regardless of the amount of time of exposure to learning the language. (2) The pupils' achievements in the beginning of the year did not seem to have an effect on the pupils' attitudes at the end of the year.

The comparative literature has also drawn attention to the influence of cultural differences on motivation in L2 learning across Europe, e.g. Convery *et al.* (1997), Chambers (2000), Dörnyei, Nyilasi and Clément (1996). Despite this, many of the aspects of the study by Kuhlmeier *et al.* (1996) seemed transferable to my own project. An important parallel was in the study's target group, i.e. school children in the early stages of acquiring a new language. The Dutch study was concerned with quantifiable achievement.

This study in the Netherlands suggested that perceptions of achievement or lack of achievement in MFL could be additional factors with potential relevance for my study. It seemed possible that an individual's perceptions of their achievement may also impact on their motivation. It also seemed that the scope of the investigation could be extended by a negative dimension, i.e. the effects of negative achievements and negative attitudes.

(9) Csizér and Lucács (2009) carried out a study involving 237 16- and 17-year-old Hungarian school children learning English and German as foreign languages in school.

All children taking part in the survey learnt both languages, with some learning English as their second language (L2) and German as their third (L3), and some learning German as L2 and English as L3. The authors placed their study mainly within the framework of Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005) and one of their main findings was that the 'Ideal Self' was confirmed as the most important component in predicting motivation in this case. However, the study produced some more complex

results with regard to the order of the foreign languages learnt. It appeared that attitudes towards learning foreign languages remained positive throughout if English was acquired as the L2 and German as the L3. Where this was not the case, it appeared that attitudes to either language did not follow a consistent pattern and could not be explained with Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System alone. That is, irregular patterns of negative attitudes developed towards either English or German or both languages.

In order to explain these variations, Csizér and Lucács turned to Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) and, more specifically, Dörnyei's reinterpretation of the motivational self-system under the DST paradigm. In his revised model, Dörnyei interpreted the three main dimensions of the original L2 Motivational Self System ('ideal self', 'ought-to self' and 'L2 learning experience') in terms of 'attractor' and 'repeller' states (Dörnyei, 2009b), i.e. they will act as positively motivating influences if they are perceived as positive attractors. Csizér and Lucács suggested that in their study ideal selves did indeed act as attractors, if English was learnt as the L2 and German as the L3. However, where German was learnt as the L2 and English as the L3, the ideal selves attributed to the different languages were acting as both attractors and repellers, so that they may have cancelled each other out.

The setting and target population in this case were different from the parameters chosen in my study and the fact that the study involved Hungarian school children was likely to be a significant variable (see for example Dörnyei's considerations about Global English, mentioned above in section 2.1.4.). Csizér and Lucács examined the differences between different languages learnt simultaneously at a given point in time,

while my study was to be concerned with changes in motivation over time. Although the study did not suggest new factors it provided a precedent of how DSA could be incorporated in classroom-based research. The idea of addressing the impact of motivational factors through the concept of attractors and repellers was of relevance to my study.

(10) Yanguas (2011) explored dynamic processes in task motivation, as part of a larger longitudinal study of US American Spanish heritage speakers' motivation with regard to the Spanish course they were taking.

The approach to task motivation chosen in the study was based on Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation and was designed to offer an inclusive approach to recent motivational conceptualisations, by incorporating cognitive, situated, process-oriented and student-centred elements. The participants were asked to complete a semi-guided writing task and their responses to the task were recorded through think-aloud protocols. The study sought to answer two main research questions, namely whether there was any evidence for internal motivational processes (generating subtasks, appraisal, action control processes) during the so-called actional phase (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998); and whether there was any evidence for motivational evolution during engagement with the task. These were answered in the following way: (1) Appraisal and action control processes did take place in the actional phase, and (2) the dynamic nature of motivation (in relation to a task) was confirmed, as motivational fluctuations did occur.

The study differed in setting and focus area from my study and the particular focus of the study did not imply the exploration of external factors impacting on motivational processes. It did, however, produce evidence for the dynamic nature of motivation. While one of the aims I was formulating for my study was exploring the dynamics of motivation it appeared that the practical constraints of large-scale classroom research required a different methodological approach.

(11) Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) explored the effectiveness of motivational strategies applied by teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in a secondary school in Japan.

The study involved 190 students and five teachers. Students and teachers were asked to self-report repeatedly over a two-month period on the degree to which they felt motivated and the degree of implementation of motivational strategies respectively. For this purpose a list of 15 motivational strategies was developed out of a more comprehensive review of motivational strategies found in Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) and Dörnyei (2001). Data were collected from nine classes across two year groups (grades 8 and 9) and results globalised across the range of participants. The authors acknowledged the dynamic nature of motivation, following Dörnyei (2001) and Nakata (2003), and the study accommodated situated (classroom observation) as well as a process-oriented (repeated periods of data collection) elements of recent conceptualisations of motivation.

The study's main findings were as follows: (1) The teachers interpreted and used the strategies in different ways. (2) A significant correlation between the students' reported motivation and specific motivational strategies was only found for two of the strategies, i.e. frequent informal assessments and the visibility of teacher's own enthusiasm for TL culture. (3) It appeared that the success of motivational strategies varied according to the levels of proficiency of the students.

The main focus of the study was on the measurement of the effectiveness of a number of specific motivational classroom strategies through comparison of data about the frequency of strategy use and the students' reported motivation. The strategies were presented as motivational factors (e.g. the teacher). This was an anticipated methodological overlap with the present study.

The study also drew attention to the following additional factors: (1) The impact of feedback on progress, (2) the perceived absence of a practical use of the language learnt and (3) having or not having a choice of the language learnt.

2.3. Conclusion: Conceptualisation of motivation in this study and selection of motivational factors to be considered in its design

The following motivational factors emerged from my review of the literature: (1) attributions, (2) peer pressure, (3) like or dislike of the subject (enjoyment), (4) comparisons with other subjects, (5) the teacher, (6) relevance for career, (7) teaching materials, (8) teaching methods (activities), (9) relevance for other practical applications (e.g. visits), (10) group dynamics (e.g. behaviour), (11) gender, (12) ability, (13) language learnt, (14) perceived level of difficulty, (15) achievement (feeling of making progress), (16) friends, (17) learning environment, (18) curricular choices, and (19) the impact of rewards and sanctions on motivation.

Conceptually the factors ‘relevance for career’ and ‘relevance for other practical applications’, such as visits abroad, can be linked to the notion of instrumental orientation, as formulated in Gardner’s early theories (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985). The factors ‘perceived level of difficulty’, ‘ability’, ‘enjoyment’ (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991), ‘teaching materials’, ‘teaching methods’, ‘teacher’, ‘friends’, ‘peer pressure’, ‘group dynamics’ (Dörnyei, 1994), ‘attributions’, ‘gender’, ‘language learnt’, ‘impact of rewards and sanctions’, ‘learning environment’ (Williams and Burden, 1997), ‘achievement’ (Dörnyei, 2005), curricular choices’ and ‘comparisons with other subjects’ originate from the various re-interpretations and extensions of the construct of motivation outlined in section 2.1. These re-interpretations and extensions were undertaken to reflect influences from mainstream psychology on the field of L2 motivational research.

Most L2 motivational theories developed in the past three decades had attempted to incorporate newer insights into previous conceptual frameworks, often locating the various factors at different levels, e.g. by distinguishing between ‘learner internal’ and ‘learner external’ factors (Williams and Burden, 1997). While the Dynamic Systems Approach to L2 motivational research, as proposed by Dörnyei (2009b) can be located within this tradition it appears to encourage a more flexible interpretation of motivational factors, speaking of higher-order ‘motivation conglomerates’, which combine cognitive and affective elements, acting as ‘wholes’ (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 92). This suggests that distinctions between individual motivational factors may be interpreted as less rigid than in previous conceptions under a Dynamic Systems perspective on L2 motivation.

As indicated above in section 2.1.5., it was my intention to reflect aspects of the Dynamic Systems Approach in this study. Among the more recent conceptualisations of motivation discussed in connection with a Dynamic Systems perspective it appeared that Dörnyei’s (2005) L2 Motivational Self System might be a particularly appropriate choice in the context of my study for the following reasons: (1) My study would involve adolescents in the context of compulsory education and I suspected that young people in this situation would be likely to be seeking a sense of self and trying out different ‘selves’. This assumption was further supported by the experiences I had in moving to the role teaching assistant, working with small groups, after teaching full classes for several years prior to starting the research, which suggested that some pupils reacted very differently in different learning situations. (2) The L2 Motivational Self System, as proposed by Dörnyei (2005), aimed to provide a comprehensive conceptualisation of

motivation, by synthesising past research in the L2 motivational field and psychological theories of the self. It appeared that such a conceptualisation of motivation would allow me to investigate a range of motivational factors and to explore whether these could be identified as potential attractors or repellers within a broad Dynamic Systems Approach framework.

Chapter 3: Research methodology and the specific research methods employed

3.1. Methodological approaches in motivation research

The purpose of this section is to explore the methods that are commonly used in L2 motivational research in order to develop an approach suitable for investigating my own research questions within my own context.

3.1.1. The quantitative approach

The primary idea of quantitative L2 motivation research is to describe the behaviour of large numbers of individuals or populations. This is usually done by means of sampling, i.e. by investigating a representative smaller portion of that population. Data are usually obtained through large-scale questionnaire surveys, traditionally carried out at a single point in time. The questionnaire data are processed through descriptive (e.g. frequencies, means, percentages) and inferential statistical analyses (e.g. correlation or factor analysis) in order to establish relationships between the different motivational variables that are tested.

Quantitative research has been carried out in the L2 motivational field since its very beginnings (e.g. by Gardner and Lambert, 1959). Two recent examples of quantitative motivation research studies are Dörnyei *et al.* (2006) and Coleman *et al.* (2007).

The long tradition of quantitative research in the L2 motivational field has led to the development of a number of well-established and standardised research instruments, for example Robert Gardner's Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner and Smythe, 1981). Researchers commonly draw on these established instruments to develop new variations that suit their particular purposes (e.g. the computerised mini-AMTB; Tennant and Gardner, 2004).

Typically the results of one investigation are compared with the results of a different data set to put them into perspective, for example the scores for a different sample or a different language.

In the following I outline four different quantitative research designs that, according to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 217-236), are particularly common in motivational research. These are mainly based on different statistical procedures of questionnaire data processing.

(1) Correlation analysis is used in research that seeks to establish the relationships between variables. In order to do this, the variables are identified within the data and then correlation coefficients are calculated between two variables. A high coefficient means that there is a strong relationship, a negative coefficient means that the variables affect each other inversely (a strong relationship in the negative spectrum), a low coefficient or a value around zero means that there is no correlation between the variables. Correlation analysis can conclude that two factors are interrelated, but it

cannot determine cause and effect relationships. Two examples of recent studies using correlation analysis are: Dörnyei and Kormos (2006) and Bernaus and Gardner (2008).

(2) Factor analysis is a mathematical procedure in the course of which a large data set is reduced to a minimal amount of different variables that structurally underlie the data set. The variables or dimensions that are found in this process (the factors or components) are represented in a factor matrix (a computer generated table). The mathematical operation also produces correlation values for the extracted factors and the original contents of the data set they are derived from. That is, factor analysis is a correlation-based technique, which has two aims: (1) Extend the correlation model from two variables to multi-variable level by using the factor matrix (i.e. including all the variables) and (2) make a large and complex data set accessible for statistical analysis. As it is a correlation analysis based method it cannot determine the causal relationships between any of the interrelated factors.

Studies which use factor analysis as their main analytical tool are aiming to explore possible patterns within the factor matrix further, by looking for common themes and interrelationships within the factors.

The technique was used by Gardner and Lambert (1959) and led them to arrive at the notion of integrative orientation. Examples of more recent studies using factor analysis as their main analytical tool are Chen *et al.* (2005) and Falout *et al.* (2009).

(3) Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a computer-based statistical method which attempts to combine correlation analysis with aspects of the traditional experimental research design by extending the correlation analysis approach by an element of causation. Studies which utilise SEM as a statistical tool aim to validate or refute a hypothesised theoretical model. That is, at the point when SEM is applied, the hypothesised theoretical model, central variables and directionality of the causal relationships within the variables are already in place. By means of structural equation modelling the validity of the model can then be tested. The process results in various measures which give an indication how well the proposed model fits the data.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:226) point out the following limiting characteristics of the technique: (1) SEM is not primarily an exploratory technique, but rather a confirmatory one. (2) The technique does not identify causation, it only indicates if a particular theoretical model which comprises proposed cause and effect relationships is conceivable. (3) If SEM suggests that the proposed model fits the data, it is still conceivable that many other models might do the same. (4) SEM cannot test dynamically evolving relationships among motivational factors. If a complex Dynamic Systems Approach to understanding motivation is adopted, SEM might falsely suggest over-simplified causal relationships among the variables that are being investigated. The following are examples of recent studies which have used structural equation modelling: Taguchi *et al.* (2009) and Tseng and Schmitt (2008).

(4) An experimental research design is chosen if the aim of the study is to investigate causal relationships between variables. In motivation research an experimental design

typically involves two groups of individuals or participants. During the experiment some kind of intervention (for example a particular instructional technique) is carried out in one of the two groups, the so-called experimental group, but not in the other, the so-called control group. The participants of both groups are then tested on a specific pre-defined measure and the test results of the two groups are compared. If there is any significant difference between the test results of the two groups, it can be hypothesised that this difference was caused by the intervention, or the absence of it.

The biggest methodological challenge for the experimental research design is to ensure that the experimental group and the control group are as comparable as possible in all their features, except for one variable, namely the intervention. One way of dealing with this problem is to randomly assign participants to the one or the other group (randomisation) (Cook and Campbell, 1979). The size of the sample can also increase the reliability of the results. The larger the two groups, the greater the statistical power of the results.

A more common method is the quasi-experimental design. In the quasi-experimental design differences between the two groups are tolerated. This is often considered to be more practical in the educational context. The inter-group differences need to be acknowledged methodologically, however, by determining what they are and by statistically adjusting the results (for example through analysis of covariance). Examples of recent studies making use of experimental research designs are Donitsa-Schmidt *et al.* (2004) and Wu (2003).

3.1.2. The qualitative approach

Qualitative L2 motivational research is concerned with motivational processes within individuals rather than populations. A very common qualitative method used in motivation research is the interview (Richards, 2003). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 236-40) distinguish between four types of interview methods that are frequently used in qualitative motivation research:

(1) A structured interview is conducted by asking the participants a series of pre-planned questions. It is important that each participant is being asked exactly the same questions. Likewise all other accompanying circumstances of the interview should be as similar as possible for each participant in order to maximise comparability across the participants. The structured interview makes use of open-ended questions. This is the qualitative feature that distinguishes structured interviews from verbalised questionnaires (interview-based survey questionnaire) (Robson, 2002:270).

The main advantage of the technique is the high degree of comparability within the data and the main disadvantage the limited richness of the participant-specific responses.

(2) Semi-structured interviews also involve a set of pre-planned questions, but in contrast to the structured approach the pre-planned questions merely serve as guiding questions. While the interview roughly follows the pre-planned schedule (interview guide), the format is open-ended. Participants giving further explanations or touching on completely new aspects of the central issue are desired effects in semi-structured

interviews. That is, the semi-structured interview aims to illuminate the main dimensions of the researched issue, which are known or hypothesised, particularly from the individual participants' point of view. The process may also lead to the main dimensions of the issue having to be reconsidered.

(3) In unstructured interviews pre-planned questions are kept to a minimum. There is commonly a limited number of opening questions, but the overall intention of unstructured interviews is to invite as much unpredictable input from the interviewees as possible. In other words the unstructured interview format aims to maximise participant control and to minimise researcher interference. The unstructured interview technique produces highly personalised participant accounts and may be particularly appropriate when the aim is to elicit new factors (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 289-290).

(4) Focus group interviews are open-ended small-group discussions. The discussion is conducted as group brainstorming. Group brainstorming involves a process of collecting and evaluating responses within the group of participants. The data emerge from the interaction of the participants, rather than from the interaction with the interviewer. The interviewer takes part in the discussion and selects the topic of the discussion (focus), but assumes a secondary role (moderator, facilitator). In some cases the participants in a focus group interview may be selected from a bigger group beforehand on the basis of particular characteristics that they have displayed.

Focus group interviews can reveal new aspects of the central issue. The group brainstorming feature of the technique acts as an evaluative instrument in this process (Robson, 2002: 284-286).

Ushioda (2001), Bolster (2009) and Kubanyiova (2009) are examples of recently published motivation studies utilising a qualitative approach. A particular strength of qualitative studies is that they can reveal individual complexities. Kubanyiova (2009), for example explored the interaction between contextual conditions and possible selves in the context of teacher motivation.

Other kinds of qualitative research designs in motivation research are, for example, case studies, open-ended self-report surveys, diary studies and introspective methods.

3.1.3. The mixed-method approach

The mixed method approach aims to combine the quantitative and the qualitative approach within the same study. A mixed method motivation study therefore usually involves the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. The main challenge for the mixed method approach is to successfully integrate the two methodologies.

Sandelowski (2003) names two potential benefits of combining the quantitative and qualitative research traditions. These are that the mixed method approach is capable of delivering a more complete understanding of the central issue, and that the quantitative

and qualitative data sets can be used for purposes of triangulation, thus increasing the validity of the findings.

According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 241) the mixed method approach is highly suitable in L2 motivation research due to the method's potential to deliver a more comprehensive understanding of the complexity of motivational processes.

The mixed method approach is widely used in motivation research and a large number of different research designs have been tried and tested. These include:

Questionnaire survey with follow-up interview: Carrying out qualitative follow-up interviews subsequent to the statistical analysis of the questionnaire data may help to clarify unexpected results. Two main variations of this technique have been used in motivation research. These are: (1) Studies in which individuals or groups of respondents are used to explain or illustrate the general patterns that have emerged from the data (e.g. Lyons, 2009). It is not uncommon for studies of this type to include qualitative open-ended questions at the questionnaire stage in order to enable triangulation at various levels (e.g. Lamb, 2004). (2) Studies in which survey participants are used to reflect on their own survey responses retrospectively in open-ended-style interviews (retrospective interview) (e.g. Gass and Mackey, 2000; Egbert, 2003).

Questionnaire survey with preceding interview: Small-scale qualitative exploratory interviews are frequently used to aid questionnaire design. Conducting pre-

questionnaire interviews (focus group or one-to-one) can serve a number of purposes in questionnaire design, such as creating an item pool, identifying the variables that underlie the issue, or narrowing down a set of variables to a specific focus area. Pre-questionnaire interviewing can increase the internal validity of a study (e.g. Tseng *et al.*, 2006).

Interview study with follow-up questionnaire: In cases where small-scale qualitative interviews produce new insights into an issue that are suspected to exist in a wider context, a larger-scale questionnaire survey can help to either overcome or confirm the non-representative nature of the qualitative element of the study, by testing the generalisability of the findings in a wider population.

Interview study with preceding questionnaire: Questionnaire surveys can be used as a sampling tool. The questionnaire can support the systematic selection of participants for the subsequent qualitative interviewing (purposive sampling). This is particularly useful in qualitative inquiries which apply a very specific focus, that is which target individuals with certain traits.

The observational study: Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) point out that motivation itself is unobservable, unlike motivated behaviour, which can be observed. L2 motivational studies that rely on observation as a data collection tool therefore require a second data collection method in order to be able to interpret the observational data. This can be either questionnaire data or interview data. Recent L2 motivation studies applying observational methods are Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) and Preston (2009).

Further examples of recent mixed-method motivation studies are Li (2006) and Ryan (2009a).

3.1.4. The Dynamic Systems Approach

The theoretical conceptualisation of motivation within a complex dynamic systems framework is a process currently unfolding. As a consequence only a few authors have discussed specific methodological approaches to measuring motivation within this new framework, e.g. Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008b) and Dörnyei and Tseng (2009).

Among the authors having contributed to the discussion about possible methodological approaches there seems to be agreement that the dynamic systems perspective requires changes in most aspects of research, such as theory, hypothesis, data, analysis, etc. Byrne (2002), for example, argues that the complex Dynamic Systems Approach may be incompatible with the traditional statistical methods and the notion of causality.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) outline specific areas of inquiry in motivational research under the Dynamic Systems Approach that they suggest need to be prioritised in the search for suitable research methodologies, namely attractors, context and qualitative system modelling.

(1) In Dynamic Systems Theory attractors or attractor states are conceived as stabilising forces in fluctuating dynamic systems. A dynamic system that contains strong attractors is predictable. A dynamic system that contains no attractors is in a state of flow and

system behaviour is random. In between these two extremes, dynamic systems may contain any number of attractors with various degrees of impact on system behaviour. A dynamic system may also be influenced by attractors changing their degree of impact.

In the L2 motivational context, the various motivational factors, such as goals, incentives, talent or interest, etc. are thought of as attractors. It is therefore essential for motivation research to be able to identify attractors and attractor states. Dörnyei (2009b: 210-211) points out that motivational factors interpreted as attractors are not conceived to interact with actions in a linear way, but instead are subject to various multidirectional influences from environmental and temporal factors. They can therefore not be identified through traditional reductionist methods. An example of a recent motivation study that uses attractors and repellers is Csizér and Lukács (2009).

The notion that attractors can exert influence on system behaviour with varying degrees of impact over time seemed to be a powerful explanatory tool which could potentially help explain outcomes of my own study. Dynamic Systems Theory suggests that strong attractors (attractor states) may have a similar effect on system behaviour as variables in the traditional sense, a strong attractor simply being just one of the various states an attractor may occur in. Also, the state attractors are in, may or may not change at any time. Attractors can only be captured by a tool that can identify them and continuously plot their development over time, i.e. some kind of longitudinal approach.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:248-249) and Menard (2002) agree that a longitudinal research approach is the single most suitable methodology to research dynamic systems

in the social sciences. There are a number of different longitudinal approaches. However, not all of them may be capable of capturing the particular characteristics of attractors. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggest that longitudinal inquiry may happen at micro-level, i.e. by exploring the moment-to-moment processes of motivation-in-context to identify attractors and plot attractor behaviour within a given time span. An example of a study applying this particular technique is Preston (2009).

From this it appeared that my study could make a contribution to the field of motivation research by further exploring longitudinal techniques. As I was planning to investigate a potential motivational dip which appeared to develop over an extended period of time and for reasons of practicality, exploration at micro level did not appear feasible. However, it seemed that a repeated snapshot design could be an adaptation that would allow for the practical constraints in my study. Such a design might be suited to follow up potential changes in perceptions of attractors at different times of the academic year.

(2) Dynamic Systems Theory assumes that dynamic systems and their contexts constantly interact with each other. System behaviour within dynamic systems therefore cannot be explained by investigating the internal processes within the system in isolation.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) argue that L2 motivation research methodology therefore needs to be able to achieve two aims, namely to measure the complex ongoing interaction between environmental and learner factors, and to measure the emerging changes in both the learner and the environment which result out of their interaction.

This is in contradiction to the definition of context as a learner-independent background variable in individual difference (ID) research (see Ushioda, 2009).

It seemed plausible that such reciprocal interaction between pupils and environment might result in cultures of demotivation in some classes. It appeared possible that evidence for this might be obtained through qualitative profiling of individuals (see chapter 4, section 4.2.2.; chapter 5, sections 5.1.2. and 5.2.2.).

(3) In DST, system modelling is the operational tool that is used to calculate how the entire system behaves. It is a mathematical procedure which takes the different components of the theory into account.

Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008a) suggest that dynamic systems in the social sciences may be described through a process of qualitative system modelling. Their model removes the mathematical operations and operates along a sequence of descriptive instructions. These include five steps, namely to identify the different components of the system (attractors, repellers, environment), to identify the time scales and levels of social and human organisation on which the system operates, to describe the relations between and among components, to describe how system and context adapt to each other, and to describe the dynamics of the system, i.e. the changes in the components and in relationships among the components over time. A recent motivation study that applies a Dynamic Systems Approach is MacIntyre and Legatto (2011). The study captured dynamic fluctuations in the participants' willingness to communicate

(WTC), which could not have been recorded using traditional means such as a summary score for trait-like WTC.

3.1.5. Conclusion

From this it appeared that a mixed-method approach might be the most appropriate method to investigate L2 motivation issues. A mixed-method design would allow me to investigate large-scale trends within the target population and to triangulate the outcomes through qualitative profiling and interviewing on a smaller scale.

The literature, notably Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), suggests that elements of the Dynamic Systems Approach could be incorporated in an overall mixed-method research design. It appeared that some of their ideas could be transferred into the design of my study, such as focussing on attractors and attractor states. A simplified longitudinal element to explore the dynamics of the system could be introduced through a repeated snapshot design, i.e. through gathering data at two different points in time (see section 3.2.6.1.).

From this I concluded that a combination of the mixed-method approach with elements of the Dynamic Systems Approach might produce data suitable to answer my research questions, namely whether there was evidence for the occurrence of a motivational dip and which factors might impact on motivation.

The following is an account of the methodological choices I made to reflect these ideas in the design of my study.

3.2. The design of the study

In this section I give a step-by-step account of the design process of the study, by (1) identifying the main research problem, (2) explaining how the research aims were developed from the original thematic interest, (3) demonstrating the fundamental guiding principle applied in the search for suitable research methods and considering the particular implications of this study for the choice of methods, (4) considering the key methods which are available and commonly used in educational research of this kind and how they addressed the particular demands of the study and (5) how they needed to be modified for the purposes of the study.

3.2.1. The research problem

As outlined in chapter 1, my interest to investigate the attitudes of the year 7 pupils at my school towards language learning developed out of reflection on my own teaching practice. Each year the pupils I taught appeared to initially enjoy language learning, but to become increasingly disaffected as the year progressed. My observations were backed up by informal accounts of similar experiences given by some of my colleagues in the school's languages department, which indicated that what I observed in my classes was possibly part of a wider issue.

The school had an intake of approximately 350 pupils in year 7 every year. This indicated the possibility of a motivational dip affecting a considerable number of first year language learners.

My review of recent UK-based motivation studies in the L2 school context (see above, chapter 2, section 2.2.) indicated the possibility of an even wider context, by suggesting high opt-out rates and falling number of GCSE, A-Level and university candidates (Fisher, 2001; Graham, 2004; QCA report, 2006). It appeared that if there was evidence that motivation in language learning was lost as early as in the course of year 7 this study could make a contribution to this field of research and potentially add to the discussion of how to move forward.

3.2.2. The aims of the research

From this I developed the following aims for my study: (1) To investigate the possible occurrence of a motivational dip in the course of the first year. (2) To identify factors that appeared to motivate initially and may have contributed to any drop in motivation.

3.2.3. Rationale for the selection of methods

The choice of methodology was guided by two basic principles: (1) The methods needed to meet the desired outcomes suggested by the research aims as closely as possible (fitness for purpose). (2) The methods needed to be compatible with the practical limitations of the project (see Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 73; Borg, 2006: 185-186).

On the basis of these principles I developed the following methodological criteria out of the discussion and choices made in section 3.1. and the research aims as cited above.

(1) The methods would need to deliver large-scale quantitative data to investigate whether or not there was a motivational dip. This offered the possibility to fall back on well-established quantitative research practices (the standard tool for this type of inquiry is the quantitative questionnaire).

(2) Furthermore, I decided to attempt to reflect aspects of the Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA) in my choice of methodology, as it offered some concepts that appeared to promise a high level of explanatory power in the context of the study. These were the idea of attractors and repellers or attractor and repeller states, which appeared to link in with the concept of motivational factors and the idea of a dynamic development of motivation over time.

Under DSA longitudinal qualitative interviewing is considered to be an ideally suited methodology (see above, section 3.1.4.). However, it appeared that longitudinal interviewing was not a practical methodology for this study for the following reasons:

(1) In designing this study I did not intend to replicate or create a Dynamic Systems study. The aim was rather to reflect some aspects of the theory that appeared suitable to explore the specific context of this study. (2) The aims of the study rather suggested a focus on large-scale quantitative data. (3) The project was self-funded and needed to be designed to be manageable for an individual researcher. It appeared that longitudinal interviewing on the scale that was required to meet the aims of the study was not a

feasible option. (4) Longitudinal interviewing on the required scale was likely to cause considerable disruption to the everyday operations of the school or the learning of the potential individual participants.

For these reasons an alternative method needed to be devised that reflected the main characteristics of DSA and that delivered qualitative data to supplement the quantitative data with richer details about the factors involved.

I decided to address these challenges through the design of a survey that would gather both quantitative and qualitative data in two snapshot data collection rounds. The following is a discussion of how this design fits into and was developed out of established methodological approaches in motivation research.

3.2.4. The overall design of the study: the survey format

Based on the criteria developed above I decided to adopt a survey format for the main part of the study. This decision was made for the following reasons:

The research aims in this study belonged to a descriptive research tradition (as opposed to, for example, an experimental research tradition). That is, they aimed at describing existing conditions, namely the perceived levels of motivation of the participants, which would allow for some comparison between the two points in time, the factors that they felt contributed to high levels of motivation in this case and the factors that appeared to contribute to a potential dip in motivation.

Descriptive research methods are widely used in educational research and the most frequently used format of descriptive research is the survey (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 169, 171; Robson, 2002: 234; Baker, 2008: 55-68).

3.2.5. Selection of instruments

There are a number of established survey formats which are used in educational research. Out of these the application of a large-scale questionnaire in combination with semi-structured interviews appeared to be the most appropriate choice of instruments for my study (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 171).

3.2.5.1. The questionnaire

My choice of the questionnaire as the main instrument in my study was informed by the following considerations:

The questionnaire is the standard large-scale instrument used in surveys and is therefore a well-established tool (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 78; Robson, 2002: 227).

Morrison (1993) provides a list of the main characteristics of the survey (questionnaire) format. I compared these with the requirements of my study as follows; the high degree of agreement between the requirements of the study and the features of the survey design suggested a high level of fitness for purpose.

(1) The survey (questionnaire) produces large amounts of data in a single sitting and is therefore economical and efficient. This was important to me for the practical reason of meeting the study's objective, i.e. to gather as much data as possible from as many participants as possible in a single sitting, as well as the ethical reason of causing as little disruption to the running of the researched organisation (the school) as possible (see section 3.5.2.). (2) The survey is capable of gathering quantitative and qualitative data from large numbers of people. In the case of my study I intended to involve the whole cohort of year 7 pupils from one school (almost 350 individuals) to search for trends. (3) Surveys generate numerical data which can be analysed statistically and produce straightforward answers, which can then be explored in a later stage within the same study through triangulation with other methods, such as interviews or open-ended questionnaire responses. (4) The survey produces descriptive and explanatory information. (5) The survey is capable of gathering data about key factors and variables and allows the derivation of frequencies. As my second research question suggested, it was essential for my study that the data gathering instrument was capable of capturing information about potentially motivating and demotivating factors (see above, chapter 2, section 2.3.). (6) The survey gathers standardised information, i.e. uses the same questions for all participants and minimises the impact of contextual factors. My study aimed to explore possible trends within a large set of data. It was therefore important that all participants were given the same questions, while minimising outside influences or bias through, for example, the person of the researcher (as it might exist in an interview). (7) Surveys can be used to explore relationships, e.g. between gender and score. My second research question aimed at identifying possible factors that might contribute to any observed trend. Exploring different factors in combination would be

an important analytical tool. (8) Survey data support or refute hypotheses about the target population. My first research question was based on the hypothesis that a motivational dip occurred in a cohort of pupils in the course of the investigated time period. It appeared that the survey design was the appropriate tool to test this hypothesis. (9) The commonly used design process of piloting and revising the instrument before the main data collection period increases the accuracy and reliability of the method. (10) The survey makes generalisations about and observes patterns of response in the target population and given factors or variables. Research question one aimed at observing a possible trend within the perceptions of the year 7 cohort of the school about their motivation and research question two aimed at gathering data that would allow an insight into whether generalisations about motivational factors could be made. That is, both research questions implied an amount of generalisation, which I believed the survey format would be suited to deliver. (11) The questionnaire delivers a high degree of reliability compared to other methods (e.g. interviews). The fact that it is anonymous contributes to this, as respondents are more likely to engage with the research frankly and honestly when they know that their responses cannot be traced back to them.

In choosing the survey format I was aware of the potential constraints on the method. These include that respondents may interpret questions differently, may be dishonest or exaggerate. Also, opt-out is an easier option for the respondents than in situations of direct contact with the researcher, etc. (e.g. see Dörnyei, 2003: 33; Scott, 2007: 149).

3.2.5.2. Follow-up interviews

I decided to follow up the questionnaire stage with an interview stage to allow for triangulation. This is common practice in educational research (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 171; Gall *et al.*, 2007: 228-229). According to Robson (2002: 271) following up a quantitative study, such as a survey study, with qualitative research interviews is one of the instances in which a research interview is most appropriate.

It appeared that a small number of interviews might be sufficient for purposes of triangulation, unless inconsistencies would appear, as the questionnaire was going to be designed to deliver the majority of the quantitative as well as qualitative data in order to reflect DSA (see above, section 3.2.3.).

The following features of follow-up interviews suggested fitness for purpose of the method in the context of my study: (1) Interviews can be used to validate particular measures obtained through the questionnaire (triangulation). Robson (2002) suggests interviewing participants with typical score patterns on a rating measure (or extreme score patterns) in order to compare their accounts with their ratings on the measure. (2) Interviews may help to clarify and illustrate the meaning of (unexpected) findings (Robson, 2002: 271)

The semi-structured interview (or: interview guide approach) appeared to be an appropriate choice of interview style in the context of my study, because it combines the benefits of a qualitative method with the benefits of a high degree of researcher control,

i.e. it would allow me to prepare draft questions beforehand while making it possible to adapt interview focus, question order and wording, etc. if necessary (Cohen *et al.* 2005: 271; Robson, 2002: 270-271; King, 1994: 16-17).

While the inclusion of semi-structured interviews proved to be a useful tool for triangulating the findings obtained through the analysis of the questionnaire data, I decided later on in the process against a formal analysis of the interview data, as the qualitative data obtained in the questionnaires appeared to fulfil adequately the functions of qualitative data in my mixed method design, without needing to include the interview data (for a discussion of this decision see chapter 5, section 5.1.3.).

3.2.6. Adaptation of existing methodology to meet the research aims

In the following I describe the adaptations to existing research methodology made in this study in order to meet the specific aims of the research. This process was guided by the following basic considerations:

My research questions aimed at a time-related process (a development that potentially occurred over time). This suggested some kind of longitudinal research design. Since I did not know at what point during the academic year a potential drop in motivation might occur, it appeared that the whole time span needed to be covered and that the same group of individuals needed to be involved at each point in order to allow for comparisons.

As mentioned above in chapter 2, Dörnyei and others (e.g. Ushioda, 2009) promote a Dynamic Systems Approach to motivation research, which I aimed to reflect in my study. Methodologically DSA may be best realised through a true longitudinal research design, which allows for dynamic processes to be observed as they happen. For this reason some motivation research aims to realise the Dynamic Systems Approach on a micro-scale, by observing the development of motivational patterns from one moment to the other (e.g. Preston, 2009).

I decided not replicate this approach, as my research focus was not primarily to explore the dynamics of the construct of motivation as an object of research. My research questions suggested a large-scale view on the phenomenon and a large-scale true longitudinal design did not appear to be practically feasible. The real life setting of the project meant that intensive contact with such a large number of participants would only be possible on two separate occasions. This represented assuming a macro-perspective.

3.2.6.1. The double-snapshot design

The idea taken forward into the design process was that principles of the Dynamic Systems Approach could be reflected in a less complex study (i.e. without large-scale longitudinal interviewing), given the possibility to carefully design a questionnaire that would produce quantitative as well as qualitative data in one data collection snapshot (on the possibility of analysing questionnaires data quantitatively as well as qualitatively see Abbuhl and Mackey (2008): 104) and to repeat the process at a later point in time with the same group of participants in order to include a simplified

longitudinal element. I believed that this approach would cause minimal disruption to the everyday operations of the school as well as generate the kind of data that were required to address the research aims while keeping the workload for the researcher on a manageable level. Interviews on a smaller scale could then be used to triangulate the questionnaire data. The overall survey format suggested by the large-scale focus of the project using questionnaires and interviews would be a compromise.

Dörnyei (2011: 2-5) recognises that operationalising the Dynamic Systems Approach in practical research may require making methodological compromises. He suggests that meaningful research into dynamic systems (such as classroom environments) may need to focus on the predictable areas of the system and names three research strategies that may be suitable to research dynamic systems. These are researching strong attractors, typical attractor conglomerates and typical dynamic outcome patterns by means of Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling (RQM), i.e. asking why system behaviour resulted in particular outcome options.

Details about how far the design of the questionnaire reflected these ideas are set out below in section 3.7.

3.3. The context of the study

The decision to apply a mixed-method approach including a longitudinal element implied that I needed to maintain intensive contact with the participants throughout the

year, in order to be able to collect data through questionnaires and subsequent small-scale interviewing.

This raised the question of whether my dual role within the project, as the researcher as well as a member of the teaching staff of the school, might distort the results of the investigation. It was likely that interference might originate from two possible sources, namely my own perspective on the project as a classroom teacher and the pupils' perception of my role as a classroom teacher (see BERA Ethical Guidelines (2011); action researchers, like teacher-researchers, must consider the impact of their dual role on students and colleagues, § 12: 5).

I decided that in order to minimise such interference it would be preferable to assume the role of an outside observer as much as possible. It occurred to me that the role of a teaching assistant might offer a convenient compromise between maintaining intensive contact with the participants while allowing an outside perspective as much as possible at the same time.

The school kindly accepted my wish to change roles within the school and the department in September 2006 and offered me a new contract as a teaching assistant.

3.4. Gaining access

According to the BERA Ethical Guidelines (2011) the school, as the institution granting access to the proposed participants and facilities, may be considered as a sponsor (or

host, facilitator) of the research (§ 32: 8). I approached school leadership with the request to carry out the project in the school and with the details of the planned research activities in September 2006. Access was granted verbally through the school's deputy head of staffing on behalf of the head teacher.

I was assured that it was not necessary to obtain consent from the children's parents, but that their taking part in the project was covered by school policy. I therefore did not send out consent forms to the parents of the children taking part in the study.

After having been granted access by school leadership, I approached the head of the modern languages department who agreed to the project being carried out. I informed the head of department about the details of the planned investigation in the process. I obtained permission to collect data during lesson times. Access was again granted verbally.

I gave all class teachers the opportunity to deny access to their teaching groups during advance meetings as well as on the day, but none of the teachers made use of this. In some cases data collection was postponed in order to avoid disruption to the normal running of the school. Where appropriate convenient timings were discussed and respected (all access was granted verbally).

As per school policy I did not send out consent forms to pupils and parents. However, I gave every pupil the opportunity to opt out and provided alternative activities for those choosing to do so. Although I was given access to the pupils during normal school

session times, I regarded it as a priority to cause minimal disruption to the operation of the school and the education of the children.

Once permissions and arrangements for access were in place, I followed university procedures by submitting details to the University of Birmingham Ethics Committee for approval to conduct the study which was then granted.

3.5. Ethical considerations

In this section I consider the ethical implications of my study and the actions I took in order to meet the guidelines in place. I first consider ethical issues within the wider context of research in the social sciences as deemed applicable in this case and then the particular school-based context of this study.

3.5.1. General ethical considerations

In conducting this research project I followed the ethical guidelines for educational research as suggested by the ‘British Educational Research Association’ (BERA) and the Code of Practice of the ‘British Association for Applied Linguistics’ (BAAL), as well as guidelines and advice published in the social science research literature (e.g. Cohen *et al.*, 2005; Robson, 2002).

The majority of the data in this study were obtained through questionnaires. With regard to ethical considerations involved in questionnaire-based research, Cohen *et al.* (2005)

provide the following principles: (1) Participation in the survey is voluntary and relies on the participants' informed consent. That is, the participants have the right to opt out or withdraw from the questionnaire as a whole or in part at any time and need to be informed about this right (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 245-246; BERA, 2011, § 15: 6; BAAL, 2006, § 2.2: 4, § 2.8: 6). Also, informed consent must be obtained prior to the participants' involvement in the study (BERA, 2011, § 10: 5).

I addressed this point through the design of the data collection process. That is, the data collection process consisted of two parts, a verbal introduction and the actual questionnaire. For the verbal introduction I prepared a short talk for each of the two data collection rounds, which I repeated to each of the groups of students before giving them the questionnaire. In the talk I informed them about the aims of the research and their right to withdraw from the questionnaire as a whole or partially (for a full transcript see appendix 1, tables 1.8. and 1.9.). In order to assure consistent application of this process, I administered all questionnaires personally. The class teachers' consent was obtained verbally in the process of negotiating access to their classes.

(2) The respondents' anonymity and the confidentiality of their responses must be guaranteed (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 245-246; see also BERA, 2011, § 25: 7; BAAL, 2006, § 2.4: 4).

I addressed this point by asking the students in the introductory talk not to write their names on the questionnaires. All questionnaires were number coded against class registers, so that I was able to identify individuals. Being able to identify individuals

was essential to the comparative snapshot aspect of the research design, which relied on the possibility to match individual responses in order to produce individual answer profiles, track movements between classes which might affect group cultures and select individuals for interviewing to supplement the quantitative with qualitative data for purposes of triangulation. The codes as well as the questionnaires were exclusively handled by myself so that access through third parties was excluded.

(3) The questionnaire itself must avoid bias, i.e. its design must not promote the researcher's underlying agenda and respondents must be enabled to answer without any other outside influences (Cohen *et al.* 2005: 245-246).

I addressed this point by following the guidance and step-by-step advice on questionnaire design given in the research design literature (e.g. Cohen *et al.*, 2005; Robson, 2002). Throughout the design process of the questionnaire I sought further advice and guidance from my university supervisors. I presented the proposed questionnaire wording and layout to school leadership. I also piloted the questionnaire with a group of year 10 students and invited their comments (the pilot questionnaire can be found in appendix 1, table 1.5.).

(4) Methodological rigour with regard to the validity and reliability of the questionnaire needs to be assured. Cohen *et al.* (2005: 245-246) argue that the respondents have a right to expect that the research they take part in is methodologically sound. The BERA ethical guidelines (2011) demand that the researcher must employ methods that are fit for the purpose of the research and that they need to communicate (to the sponsor of the

research; here: the school) the degree to which inferences drawn from their findings are reliable, valid and generalisable, why the methodology that was employed was chosen, what alternative methods there were and why these were ruled out (BERA, 2011, §§ 37 and 38: 9; BAAL, 2006, § 6.1: 13).

I addressed this point through careful design and piloting of the questionnaire. In the design process comments and guidance were sought from relevant professionals. Methodological decisions, question wording and contents were presented to and discussed with my university supervisors and school management on a regular basis and changes and adaptations were made accordingly (see below, section 3.7. for a step-by-step account of the design process).

In accordance with the terminology applied in the BERA guidelines (2011) the participants who took part in my study can be defined as ‘active subjects’, i.e. individuals taking part in a survey (§ 8: 5). The guidelines contain the following additional points relevant to the context of my study:

(1) The participants should be treated fairly and without prejudice with regard to age (pupil voice), gender, race, ethnicity, class and faith (ibid. § 9: 5; also BAAL, 2006, § 2.1: 4).

I addressed this point through the design of the questionnaire and choice of questions, which did not ask the students to give information about their personal backgrounds (other than gender which is a factor commonly considered in educational research). I

also addressed this point through sampling, i.e. by aiming to involve the entire Year 7 cohort of the school in the project. Furthermore, I anonymised all questionnaires for data analysis. Information about ethnic and financial backgrounds (e.g. data about number of free school meals) was not collected. However, the decision not to collect social class information meant that the issue of social class bias in the learning of languages could not be pursued.

(2) The participants need to understand why their participation is necessary, how the data will be used and how and to whom the findings will be reported (BERA, 2011, § 11: 5).

I addressed this point through the design of the data collection process. In the introductory talk that preceded each application of the questionnaire I informed the students of the potential benefits of their taking part in the survey. I mentioned that participation in the study gave them the opportunity to have their say about matters regarding their education and that future generations of pupils learning languages may benefit from their contributions (beneficence). In preparing and delivering the introductory talk I took great care to balance effects of encouraging participation and not setting up unrealistic expectations of change. The students were also told that the research was conducted under the supervision of the University of Birmingham and that procedures ensuring adherence to relevant ethical guidelines were in place.

(3) The researcher must comply with the legal requirements in relation to the storage and use of personal data as set out by the Data Protection Act (1998) and ensure that such data are kept securely (BERA, 2011, §§ 26 and 28: 7-8; BAAL, 2006, § 2.4: 4-5)

I addressed this point by taking all reasonable care to make sure that no third parties had access to the completed questionnaires or the class registers including the students' codes. All printed matter was removed from the site as soon as possible after data collection. Electronically stored data were kept on the researcher's private computer, which was password protected and kept up-to-date with protective software to prevent hacking. Also, no sensitive personal data were collected.

(4) It is considered good practice to debrief the participants at the conclusion of the research and to inform them about the results (BERA, 2011, § 31: 8; BAAL, 2006, § 2.6: 5). The findings should be published and communicated in a clear, straightforward language (BERA, 2011, §§ 50 and 51: 10; BAAL, 2006, § 8.3: 15).

I addressed this point by planning to produce hand-outs after completion of the project summarising the outcomes of the study and to distribute these to staff and school senior management, as well as to send letters to pupils and staff who have left in the interim.

(5) As part of the responsibilities of the researcher to the community of educational researchers and in order to protect the integrity and reputation of educational research they need to ensure that the research they undertake is conducted to the highest standards. Specifically they must avoid bringing educational research into disrepute by

falsifying, sensationalising or distorting evidence or findings. They need to make their data and methods open to reasonable external scrutiny (subject to protecting confidentiality and anonymity) and respect all methodologies and related methods by contributing to the community spirit of critical analysis and constructive criticism (BERA, 2006, §§ 44, 46 and 47: 9-10; BAAL, 2006, §§ 5.2 and 5.3: 12).

I addressed this point by demonstrating how carefully decisions were made in every aspect of the planning, design and execution of the project, including the treatment and analysis of the data (see below, chapter 4).

3.5.2. Ethical considerations within the school context

The study took place within the context of compulsory education and involved a large number of 11-12 year-old children. This particular context raised the following ethical considerations in my view:

(1) On the topic of involving school children in educational research, the BERA guidelines (2011, § 16: 6), quoting articles 3 and 12 of the ‘United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child’, state that children should be granted the right to express their views freely in all matters affecting them. As the research was carried out in a classroom setting, I felt that particular emphasis on the pupils’ right to opt-out or withdraw from the survey was required, as the questionnaires were filled in during lesson time within the pupils’ normal classrooms and within their teachers’ presence. In this particular setting it was possible that the pupils interpreted the activity as part of a

normal lesson which may not have offered adequate possibility to express their views freely or to opt out (BAAL, 2006, § 2.8: 6-7).

I addressed this point through the design of the data collection procedure. In the introductory talk preceding the questionnaire I told the students that participating in the survey was an opportunity to have their say about educational matters affecting them. In the talk I also informed them of the ethical and legal procedures that were in place to protect them and the data generated by them and made a particular point of emphasising that they should not regard me as a member of staff of the school in this situation, but rather as an outside observer, in order to encourage them as much as possible to report their honest and frank opinions in the questionnaires. In order to promote the idea of a non-teaching situation, none of the normal class teachers were involved in distributing or collecting the questionnaires.

Furthermore, I took great care in the preparation and delivery of the introductory talk to communicate to the students that participation in the survey was not compulsory. In order to make opting out a realistic option in the classroom context, I designed the questionnaires to have a blank page for making drawings, etc. while those who did not opt out were filling in the questionnaire.

(2) I felt that under the circumstances particular attention was also required with regard to guaranteeing the pupils' anonymity and the confidentiality of their comments. Possible challenges to guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality were given in the confined space in which the research was conducted (the classrooms and staff room of

the school's languages department), in pupils and staff perceiving me as a member of staff of the school and in the ongoing professional relationship between the pupils and their teachers after the completion of the survey and the possible publication of its results (BERA, 2011, § 25: 7; BAAL, 2006, § 2.8: 6-7).

I addressed this point by anonymising the questionnaires and data records. Moreover, none of the coded class registers (print-outs of class registers with each student's code number) were left unattended at any time in order to ensure that the coding remained obscure to any third parties. Also, completed questionnaires as well as all other printed materials were removed from the school building at the earliest possible time after use. None of the regular teaching staff was involved in any phase of administering the questionnaires. All completed questionnaires were handled by myself exclusively at all times.

In the introductory talk preceding the questionnaire I emphasised that I was conducting the research under the supervision of the University of Birmingham and not as a member of staff of the school. I explained to the students that the survey was conducted under British educational research ethical guidelines which guaranteed their anonymity and confidentiality. In doing so I was aware that perceptions of my affiliation with the school were a potential obstacle to obtaining completely frank and honest responses and that this effect was outside my control. However, during data analysis I did not feel that the students exercised undue caution in their responses; nor did any member of staff approach me to enquire about specific information.

Any effects on the relationship between students and teaching staff involved in the study as a result of a possible publication of the findings were treated as highly unlikely, as all data relating to students and teachers were anonymised and the students would have left the school at the point in time when any possibility of publication presented itself.

Commitment to guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality required particular attention in the carrying out of the follow-up interviews. Participation in the interviews was entirely voluntary. All pupils were asked to indicate on their questionnaires whether or not they were happy to take part in a follow-up interview by ticking relevant boxes. Pupils who had indicated that they would like to be interviewed were then selected according to particular answer patterns in their questionnaire responses and given a further chance to opt out before commencement of the interview.

In order to enable access to the pupils the interviews needed to be carried out during normal school session times. At the same time it was necessary to minimise the disruption to the operation of the school and the children's education. As a consequence, the interviews needed to be conducted during times when languages lesson were taught and within the rooms available to the languages department. This meant that it was possible that the interviews might be disturbed or their content be overheard by third parties, due to the close geographical proximity of the rooms occupied by the different rooms within the department.

I addressed this point by conducting the interviews in the staff room of the languages department at times when all teachers were timetabled to teach. As in the case of the questionnaires, recordings and transcripts of the interviews were anonymised. In order to cause minimal disruption to the normal operations of the school I conducted the interviews outside the end of year exams period.

(3) With regard to sensitive data, i.e. data obtained through the questionnaires affecting, for example, the well-being of the child or their relationship with the teacher, the BERA guidelines (2011) state that researchers must ensure that they themselves comply with the legal requirements in relation to working with school children. This also includes safeguarding issues (§ 19: 7). The guidelines also suggest that the decision to override the agreement on confidentiality and anonymity must be taken only after careful and thorough deliberation and that the researcher is advised to keep records of their decisions and the reasoning behind the decisions (ibid. § 30: 8; BAAL, 2006, § 2.8: 6-7).

I addressed this point by discussing all cases which I felt uncertain about with my university supervisors. For example, there was a suggestion of bullying in one of the questionnaires. I raised this in the supervision meeting on 18 June 2008. The decision was made to discuss the matter with the student before taking any further action. Discussion revealed that the child did not wish the matter to be followed up.

(4) Furthermore, as the investigation was about the pupils' motivation within specific lessons, it dealt with a potentially sensitive issue for the teaching staff involved. The

study was designed to offer the pupils a voice without giving the teachers a voice (BAAL, 2006, § 2.7: 6).

I addressed this by informing the teaching staff and senior management involved that all data were anonymised for data analysis. Furthermore I gave the teaching staff the opportunity to deny access to all or some of their teaching groups. In order to make teacher opt-out a more realistic possibility I made clear to them that any such denial of access would be treated anonymously. However, none of the teachers opted for this contingency (In a few cases access was postponed).

(5) The BERA guidelines (2011, § 21: 7) also state that the researcher must recognise the potential bureaucratic impact of the research on the running of the researched organisation.

I addressed this by aiming to disrupt as little as possible the normal operations of the school or the education of the children taking part in the study. This impacted on data collection periods, when, e.g. timetabled exams were given priority over the completion of questionnaires.

3.6. The sample of students

As outlined above in chapter 1, section 1.2., and chapter 3, section 3.2.1., the study would ideally involve all year 7 pupils of the school's 2007 cohort, as my research questions aimed at identifying trends within this population.

A total number of 345 pupils were potentially involved in the study, out of these 175 girls and 170 boys. However, through movements on and off school roll the number of pupils on register at both periods of data collection was reduced to 335 (for details on how I dealt with changes in the sample during data analysis, see below, chapter 4, section 4.1.1.). 144 of the pupils potentially involved studied French and 201 German. The uneven numbers were a result of organisational choices made by the school involving the allocation of groups labelled as having special educational needs (SEN) to the different languages through a yearly rota. Also I was unable to collect data from two groups due to timetabled examinations. The pupils were taught in ability sets, numbered 1-4, set 1 indicating the presumed highest ability level (for a list of all classes see appendix 1, table 1.3.).

The follow-up interviews (see above, section 3.2.5.2.) involved a sub-sample of 14 pupils, 8 girls and 6 boys, who I selected on the basis of their questionnaire responses, which suggested interesting themes for the investigation (for details on the selection of interview participants, see below, section 3.8.5.).

Prior to any involvement of the year 7 pupils I piloted the questionnaire with a different year group, namely a group of 59 pupils in year 10, 35 girls and 24 boys (see below, section 3.7.9.).

3.7. Questionnaire design

The questionnaire would be the main data collection tool in this study. The possibility of triangulation would be created by including both quantitative and qualitative (open-ended) sections in the questionnaire itself, and by using small-scale semi-structured follow-up interviews.

For this reason designing the questionnaire carefully was an essential part of this study. The questionnaire design process was guided by the aim to reflect key aspects of the Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA).

The purpose of this section is to provide a detailed account of the design process on the basis of design criteria as provided by the research design literature. All sub-headings in this section follow the questionnaire design guidelines in Cohen *et al.* (2005: 261-262) (Further details can be found in appendix 1, table 1.1.).

3.7.1. The purpose of the questionnaire

It is one of the key concerns in questionnaire design to ensure that the questionnaire produces a valid measure of what it is meant to measure. That is, validity in questionnaire design is ultimately dependent on how closely the design fits the purposes of the research (Borg, 2006: 185-186, Robson, 2002: 241).

In my study, the questionnaire needed to meet the following purposes taking account of the overall design decisions: (1) It needed to reflect the motivational construct chosen in this study. This was achieved by exploring the factors derived from the literature in section 2.3. (2) It needed to be designed to gather large-scale quantitative data, to allow for possible trends to be recognised. (3) It needed to be designed to gather large-scale qualitative data to reflect the qualitative element of the Dynamic Systems Approach (as I was not going to use longitudinal qualitative interviewing as favoured by the original approach). (4) It needed to be designed to comprise two stages, to reflect the longitudinal element of DSA.

3.7.2. Selection of appropriate types of questions

In this section I describe the main features of the types of questions employed in this study, why they appeared to be suitable in the context of the purposes of the questionnaire, and how the selected types of questions were applied or modified to meet the purposes of the questionnaire. This included consideration of how best to reflect the factors identified in section 3.2., i.e. to decide how they could be most appropriately addressed and how much emphasis would be given to each one.

As recommended in the research design literature, I decided to address the issues raised in the questionnaire through different styles of questions, i.e. closed, open-ended, etc., as this would allow for triangulation and increase the reliability of the answers (e.g. Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 261).

3.7.2.1. Rationale for addressing the various motivational factors found in the literature

I applied the following principles in addressing the various motivational factors identified in section 3.2. in the design of the questionnaire: (1) To enhance the validity of the instrument, emphasis needed to be given to factors relating most closely to the purposes of the study and its precise context. In my role as a teacher, and then later as a teaching assistant, I observed that the pupils I worked with reacted very differently to the different learning settings. This suggested a strong impact on the pupils' motivation deriving from the classroom situation and its dynamics. Factors that would help to explore the forming of ideal and ought-to selves within the dynamics of the classroom therefore needed to be given prominence. Factors relating to cognitive aspects, such as attributions with ability and the perceived difficulty of the subject needed to be addressed more subtly. Also, while the latter were important to inform the overall discussion with potential for greater detail, it appeared that they would require much more detailed attention to investigate within themselves. (2) In order to make the questionnaire more engaging, factors needed to be approached in different ways through the selection of a variety of question types, placed in different areas of the questionnaire, where deemed most appropriate. (3) Factors that I considered to be of less immediate relevance to the precise context of my study would need to be subsumed under broader factors or addressed implicitly where possible, in order to keep the overall length of the questionnaire and of each question manageable for the pupils taking part in my study, as recommended in the research design literature (e.g. see Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 252).

In the following I provide details of how the different factors were addressed in the questionnaire through different types of questions. For an overview, the reader may also wish to refer to appendix 1, table 1.4.

3.7.2.2. Types of questions used to generate quantifiable data

(i) Fixed-alternative items

Fixed-alternative items require the respondents to choose from a number of pre-selected answer options (Robson, 2002: 274-275). They are used when the main dimensions of the topic under investigation are known, e.g. if they have been explored through open questioning beforehand. The advantages of this type of question are that they make quantification and analysis of the results easier for the researcher, require minimal effort from the respondent (Gall *et al.*, 2007: 234), and may compel respondents to ‘come off the fence’ on an issue (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 250).

This style of question appeared to be appropriate where large-scale factual data about the pupils needed to be gathered. This was required to enable comparisons with common themes in the motivation research literature (gender, etc.). I decided to use fixed-alternative items in areas where I believed the main dimensions were known or predictable.

The following areas would be explored through fixed-alternative items in the first phase of the questionnaire (types of fixed-alternative items employed are given in brackets):

(1) gender (dichotomous variables, see Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 251), (2) language studied at the school (dichotomous variables). These related directly to the factors ‘gender’ and ‘language learnt’ identified in chapter 2, section 2.3. (3) Prior knowledge of a foreign language (multiple choice), (4) the context in which any previous contact with a foreign language occurred in (multiple choice), and (5) willingness to participate in follow-up interviews (dichotomous variables).

In phase two of the questionnaire two areas would be explored through fixed-alternative items, namely (1) perceptions of the pupils’ enjoyment of language lessons and of school in general, as well as of the enjoyment perceived in their peers as compared with the previous phase (multiple choice) and (2) willingness to participate in follow-up interviews (dichotomous variables).

In areas where the main dimensions appeared to be mostly predictable but where additional answers were possible, I added the answer option ‘OTHER (please give details)’. This applied to the questions about prior knowledge of a foreign language and the context in which any previous contact with a foreign language occurred.

In choosing this type of question I was aware of the limitations of fixed-item scales. As Gall *et al.* (2007: 235) point out, this type of question typically produces specific facts (such as gender), but cannot elicit information about a person’s attitude towards the topic under investigation. However, the questionnaire was designed to collect data about attitudes through the subsequent questions. The purpose of using fixed-item scales would be to collect statistical background data about the participants.

(ii) Rating scales

Rating scales ask the respondents to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement within the parameters of the question (Robson, 2002: 275). They can be used to explore the respondents' attitudes towards the topic under investigation (Gall *et al.*, 2007: 235). The advantages of rating scales are that they generate richer data than fixed-alternative items, generate data which are immediately accessible to most forms of quantitative analysis, i.e. determination of frequencies, correlation, etc. (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 253).

This style of question appeared to be suitable for use in my study because of its capacity to gather richer quantifiable data. Quantifiable data would be needed to establish any occurrence of a motivational dip. In addition to that richer quantitative data supplied by rating scales would provide more detailed information about the relative size of any dip, the circumstances under which it occurred and the factors perceived as more or less relevant by the respondents. It could also aid the production of profiles of individuals and teaching groups, thus allowing for a richer analysis of the data.

The type of rating scale I decided to use was the evaluative semantic differential scale (see Osgood *et al.*, 1957: 299 and 302; see also: Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 253). This type of rating scale offered the following benefits in the context of this study: (1) The problem under investigation could be formulated as a straight-forward question (rather than a statement as in Likert scales), which might be easier for children to understand. (2) This type of rating scale does not contain pre-defined answer categories, so there is a higher degree of flexibility within the responses.

In both versions of the questionnaire I asked the pupils to respond to three questions ‘Do you enjoy your language lessons?’, ‘How much do you think the others in your class enjoy the languages lessons?’ and ‘Do you enjoy going to school?’ by marking a spot on a line between the bipolar opinions ‘very much’ and ‘not at all’, thus indicating which spot on the line most represented what they felt. These questions were designed to address the factors ‘enjoyment’, ‘learning environment’ as well as, implicitly, ‘peer pressure’ and ‘group dynamics’ identified in chapter 2, section 2.3. In phase two, the questions were extended by the word ‘now’ in order to indicate the later point in time, but remained otherwise unaltered (the questionnaires used in phase one and two can be found in appendix 1, tables 1.6. and 1.7.).

The main function of the rating scales would be to obtain measures of the participants perceived like or dislike of language lessons and of school in general in order to be able to compare the two. This was necessary in order to establish whether or not the results simply reflected general attitudes towards school itself. If the two measures paralleled each other there would be no strong case for positing languages as a specific case. If they diverged noticeably this would indicate that languages themselves were an issue. The relatively large number of pupils involved suggested that it would be too complex to ask pupils to rate every subject, so rating school itself would provide a broad overview. Furthermore I would be able to compare possible trends within the self-reported likes and dislikes of language learning to possible trends within the perceived opinions of their peers, in order to explore the potential influence of perceived peer pressure on these trends.

The rating scales would also provide an opportunity for triangulation. I asked the pupils in phase two to indicate how they thought their answers on the scales compared to their answers in the previous phase by choosing from the multiple choice answer options 'more', 'same', 'less', 'not sure' (questions 1, 3 and 5). The data would be used to compare the perceived like or dislike so that perceived and reported strength of like or dislike could then be analysed in conjunction with later questions concerning significant factors.

According to Cohen *et al.* (2005: 254) rating scales may have a number of limitations, namely that there is no assumption of equal intervals between different spots on the line, that respondents may deliberately falsify their responses and that the scale offers limited scope in that the respondents have no opportunity to add categories of their own. Also, there is a tendency towards middle of the road responses and the meaning of marks in the middle of the line may be unclear (undecided, medium like, medium dislike, etc.). I decided that the use of rating scales might not provide exact measurements, but would be appropriate to provide an indication of potential trends. Ambiguities could be explored through triangulation with subsequent questions and in the interviews.

3.7.2.3. Types of questions used to reflect specific aspects of the Dynamic Systems Approach

As mentioned above in section 3.2.6.1. Dörnyei (2011: 2-5) suggests that meaningful research into dynamic systems cannot be comprehensive, but may need to focus on the more predictable areas of the system. Among other options he mentions two research

strategies that might be suited to reflect the Dynamic Systems Approach in real-world research, namely researching strong attractors and typical attractor conglomerates.

A central aim of this study was to seek to implement some of Dörnyei's ideas, and particularly to incorporate the idea of researching attractors and attractor conglomerates in the design of the questionnaire.

I believed that approaching the concepts of strong attractors and attractor conglomerates as described in the Dynamic Systems Approach by means of a quantitative questionnaire, if successful, might represent a methodological contribution to the field that this study could make. I decided that a ranking task might be a suitable tool to investigate strong attractors and attractor conglomerates.

Rank-order items require respondents to identify priorities or preferences within a prescribed list of factors by assigning ranks to the factors in the list. That is, rank-order items provide a measure of the respondents' perceptions of the relative degree of importance of the factors. It is suggested that respondents should not be asked to assign more than five ranks within any one list of factors (see Wilson and McLean, 1994: 26). This can either be achieved by restricting the number of factors in the list to no more than five or by providing a longer list within which no more than five factors may be ranked (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 252).

The rank-order question format appeared to be particularly suitable in this case, as it would enable the respondents to consider groups of factors (rather than two) at a time.

This would have the following benefits: (1) It would allow me to test a list of factors selected from those found in the literature, which best reflected my conceptualisation of year 7 motivation (see chapter 2, section 2.3.). My selection of factors to be included in the ranking question was guided by the following principles: (a) to keep the task manageable for the participants by following recommendations in the research design literature (see e.g. Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 252). (b) To focus, in this question, on areas that I believed would lend themselves most to making recommendations for educational policy. This appeared to be justified as this question would be of central importance within the overall design. In addition to that it appeared that there was some overlap within the factors, e.g. perceptions of ‘difficulty’ appeared to be subsumable under perceptions of ‘progress’, i.e. ‘progress’ may be identified as an important negative factor where the classwork is perceived as either too easy or too challenging. The latter decision was also supported by the more fluent conceptualisation of individual motivational factors under a Dynamic Systems perspective on L2 motivational research (see Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 92). (2) It would provide a measure of the perceived relative importance of factors in comparison with each other in order to identify potential strong attractors and attractor conglomerates. (3) The rank-order question design would also give the respondents the opportunity to evaluate individual factors as being both positive and negative at the same time with potentially varying degrees of positive and negative impact. (4) It appeared that the rank-order question design might be capable of capturing complex perceptions to a degree that would allow analysis under the Dynamic Systems Approach.

I designed the rank-order questions to be used in both phases of the questionnaire. These were questions 9 and 10 in phase one and questions 7 and 8 in phase two (see appendix 1, tables 1.6. and 1.7.). The application of identical questions in both phases would introduce a simplified longitudinal aspect, which would provide an insight into strength and polarity of attractors at different points in time.

In each phase the pupils would be required to put at least three factors from a list of ten into rank-order, according to their perceived motivational impact. I would provide the pupils with two lists, a positively worded one and a negatively worded one. The pupils would be given the opportunity to add factors of their own if they wished to do so and to include these in the ranking. The pupils would be asked to use the following ranks: 'MI' (most important), 'VI' (very important), or 'I' (important).

The ranking task involved the following factors (where factors are added in brackets, these refer to the original list of factors identified in chapter 2, section 2.3. The placement in brackets indicates where these were addressed implicitly by the questionnaire): (1) 'the teacher', (2) 'the importance you attach to the language in terms of career plans' ('curricular choices'), (3) 'the importance you attach to the language for visits abroad' ('relevance for other practical applications', 'curricular choices'), (4) 'the materials and equipment you use', (5) 'the activities you do', (6) 'the behaviour of the other pupils in the class' ('group dynamics'), (7) 'the feeling of making progress' ('perceived level of difficulty'), (8) 'the fact that you enjoy the subject' ('curricular choices'), (9) 'the fact that you have a lot of friends in the class', and (10) 'the level of

satisfaction compared with the rest of the school day' ('comparisons with other subjects').

If successful, this design could be perceived as linking in with the concept of attractors (motivating factors) and repellers (demotivating factors), as formulated in the Dynamic Systems Approach, as the design of the rank-order items allowed individual factors to be recognised as having a positive effect as well as a negative one at the same time. The ranking of the factors and the relative weightings attached to the factors might help identify strong attractors and strong repellers.

In addition to that the rank-order items would also allow for groups of factors, i.e. conglomerates, to be identified and for the relative impact of individual factors within the conglomerates of positive or negative factors to be explored. The idea was to search for typical strong attractor or strong repeller conglomerates in order to identify possible patterns.

The Dynamic Systems Approach assumes that attractors and repellers are subject to various multidirectional influences from environmental and temporal factors and may therefore change in dynamic ways at any moment in time. Also, dynamic systems may contain any number of attractors with various degrees of impact on system behaviour at different points in time. That is, strong attractors or attractor states may only be temporary representations of the various states attractors may occur in. Strong attractors or attractor states are in that respect conceived in a similar way to traditional variables. In order to reflect the particular dynamic aspect of the approach in the design of the

questionnaire I used the rank-order items in identical format in both phases. The intention of this was to add a simplified longitudinal element which might be suitable to explore potential differences within the individual's perceptions of the various factors. The design of the rank-order items also allowed for the same factors to be identified as attractors and repellers simultaneously.

As potential constraints on ranking questions Cohen *et al.* (2005: 252) mention that respondents may not be able to differentiate their responses (i.e. it is too hard to decide on a rank-order), may not feel strongly enough about the issue to decide on a rank-order, may misunderstand the instructions, or may be overwhelmed by too long a list of factors. In designing the question I was aware that some of these constraining factors would be out of my control, but responded to the challenges by allowing for multiple nominations and devising a method to compensate for these in the analysis (see below chapter 4, section 4.1.6.), by including clear instructions, delivered both verbally and in writing (see appendix 1, tables 1.8. and 1.9.), which I tested through piloting the questionnaire, and by keeping the list of factors to a manageable length.

3.7.2.4. Types of questions used to generate qualitative data

The purpose of using open-ended questions in the questionnaires would be to collect richer qualitative data that would aid the production of the pupil profiles in the final part of the analysis (see chapter 4, section 4.2.2.). The data obtained through the open-ended questions would also provide further triangulation. According to Cohen *et al.* (2005:

257) the particular benefit of using open-ended questions is that they may provide data about the respondents' views, perceptions and opinions, including reasons for these.

In phase one I asked the pupils to comment on the perceived importance of learning a foreign language for their everyday lives, the importance of having friends and any suggestions to improve the questionnaire (questions 11-13). In phase two, I added questions about the pupils' emotions in connection with any merits or detentions they may have received in language lessons and the perceived importance of the opinions of the classmates about them being rewarded or sanctioned. In the last question I asked the pupils to make suggestions about questions to ask other classes (questions 9-13; for the exact wording of the questions refer to chapter 4, section 4.2., table 21, or the appendices).

The questions relating to the perceived importance of language learning and having friends addressed factors introduced in the ranking questions. The questions about the rewards and sanctions system were designed to elicit additional information about the potential impact of perceived peer pressure and feedback from other significant others, such as the teacher, i.e. to gather data indicating to what extent perceptions of the role of the rewards and sanctions system within the peer group may have impacted on individuals. 'Impact of rewards and sanctions' and 'peer pressure' were identified as potentially influential factors in chapter 2, section 2.3. I decided to address these factors only in phase two, as I believed that group dynamics needed to settle. Also, I intended to relate group dynamics to a potential motivational dip, which would only emerge in phase two.

3.7.3. Exhaustiveness and comprehensiveness of questionnaire questions

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 261) suggest that the questionnaire needs to explore the topic exhaustively and comprehensively, but should not contain too many questions and that the expected range of answers obtained through the questions needs to be able to answer the research questions.

I addressed this point through careful deliberation of the potential and limitations of each type of question employed, a detailed analysis of the available literature and discussions with my university supervisors, colleagues at school and senior management.

Dörnyei (2003b: 31-32) assumes that it is a key characteristic of a theoretically sound questionnaire design to cover all possible aspects of the initial research problem and that a questionnaire should not be longer than four pages.

In order to address these recommendations I took the following actions: (1) I focused on key studies in similar contexts, i.e. the motivation of pupils towards language learning in the compulsory school sector. This process helped me to identify a manageable, yet exhaustive list of themes to be addressed. Intensive engagement with published research in this field was an essential research design strategy for this aspect of the questionnaire design (see above, chapter 2, section 2.2.). (2) I supplemented and edited this list of themes through discussions with school senior management, colleagues within and from outside school and with my university supervisors. (3) I piloted my questionnaire with

pupils from a similar setting to the targeted group. (3) Finally, I used a variety of questions and types of questions to cover the themes I developed out of this process (see above, previous section).

3.7.4. The wording of the questions

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 261) suggest that the wording of the questions needs to be clear, i.e. to ask for only one thing at a time, to avoid leading questions, to use neutral language and semantically unambiguous questions, to avoid double negatives, etc. While the wording of the questions must be clear, they must remain faithful to the research task at the same time (Robson, 2002: 242).

Dörnyei (2003b: 33) warns that a single word may change response rate and quality of data achieved by the questionnaire. This is due to the different perceptions that the respondents may associate with different words. Scott (2007: 149) refers to this issue by pointing out that any (here particularly: quantitative) analysis of data obtained through the use of a questionnaire may be almost totally meaningless, unless all the respondents understand the questions in the same way and as intended by the researcher.

Dörnyei (2003b, *ibid.*) continues by suggesting the use of multiple-item scales to minimise the threat to validity caused by respondents making different assumptions about the meaning of the questions, i.e. to use a number of differently worded versions of each question. He recommends a number of four to ten items to measure each scale, the scores of which are to be averaged out during data analysis.

Following this advice I used multiple-item scales in all versions of the questionnaires. In order to keep the questionnaire to a manageable length I addressed more than one factor in each questionnaire item. Through employing multiple-item scales I addressed the factor 'enjoyment of the subject' eight times, the factor 'influence of friends' five times and the factor 'usefulness of the subject' four times in different types of questions in the year 10 pilot questionnaire. In the year 7 questionnaires used for the main data collection periods in October 2007 and May 2008, the factors 'enjoyment of the subject', 'influence of friends' and 'usefulness of the subject' were each addressed five times in different types of questions.

The overall process of deciding the wording of the questions was guided by discussions with my colleagues at school, school senior management and university supervisors on a number of occasions. I also obtained feedback from a group of pupils through the piloting of the questionnaire. As a result of consulting various groups of key personnel I redrafted my questionnaire several times to ensure that content was repeated frequently in different ways and that the use of language was appropriate for use with the target age group.

3.7.5. Avoiding assumptions through neutral answer options

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 261) recommend not to assume that the participants have an answer or opinion or wish to state their opinions and to include answer options such as 'I don't know' or 'not applicable' (Robson, 2002: 246; Gall *et al.*, 2007: 235). This consideration was particularly relevant for all types of closed questions used in my

study (i.e. the factual multiple choice questions, rating scales and rank-order items) in order to avoid bias introduced through my selection of possible answer options. In the case of the more sensitive open-ended questions it was important to include a neutral answer option in order to avoid pressurising the participants into giving an answer and to allow for opting out.

3.7.5.1. Use of neutral-answer options in fixed-alternative items

I decided that in question 3 in phase one (any previous knowledge of foreign languages) and in questions 1-3 in phase two (inter-phasal comparison of perceptions of own enjoyment of language lessons, perceived enjoyment of others and own enjoyment of school in general) the pupils would be able to choose the answer option 'NOT SURE' (tick box). It appeared possible that the pupils knew words from foreign languages, but would not necessarily be aware of this. Likewise, they would not necessarily be able to make comparisons across the two phases of the survey.

Questions 4 and 5 in phase one required the pupils to indicate in which context they may have learnt words from a foreign language and what language it was. I provided them with a multiple choice list of possible answers. As it was likely that the list I provided them with was not going to be exhaustive, the pupils would be able to choose the answer option 'OTHER (please give details)'.

The questions about gender and the language studied at the school (questions 1 and 2 in phase one) did not require a neutral or 'OTHER' answer option in my judgement (only two foreign languages were taught at the school at the time).

3.7.5.2. Use of neutral-answer options in rating scales

I decided that the semantic differential scales applied in my study (questions 6-8 in phase one and questions 1, 3 and 5 in phase two) did not need to be designed to contain a specific neutral answer option, as this was part of the original question design, i.e. a mark in the middle of the line between the two extreme answer options could be interpreted as a neutral response.

I decided not to give the pupils the option to make alterations to the themes suggested in the rating questions (by inviting comments through the 'OTHER' option), as these represented the three central themes the study was designed to provide measurements for, i.e. own and perceived enjoyment by others of language lessons and own enjoyment of school in general.

3.7.5.3. Use of neutral-answer options in ranking questions

The rank-order items (questions 9 and 10 in phase one and 7 and 8 in phase two) contained lists of ten factors which I had developed out of the literature (see above, section 3.7.3. and chapter 2, section 2.2.). The list of ten factors was not necessarily

exhaustive. The pupils would therefore have the opportunity to extend the list of factors as they felt necessary by opting for the answer option ‘OTHER (please give details)’.

In all cases where this option was available, the pupils were not only made aware of this but invited and encouraged to contribute new ideas, both, verbally (when I administered the questionnaire) and in writing. Furthermore, the questionnaires presented to the pupils included lines to write on. By doing this I intended to invite comments from the pupils.

3.7.5.4. Use of neutral-answer options in open-ended questions

The open-ended questions (i.e. questions 11-13 in phase one and questions 9-13 in phase two) were designed to collect richer and more sensitive data. I felt that it was important that the pupils answered the questions in as much detail as possible, but did not feel pressurised into giving an answer. In the instructions at the top of the last page of the questionnaire which introduced the section containing the open-ended questions I therefore invited the pupils to answer as fully as possible or to indicate that they did not know or did not have an opinion (for the actual wording of the questions see appendix 1, tables 1.6. and 1.7.).

3.7.6. Sequencing of questions and placement of sensitive questions

The sequencing of questions and types of questions in a questionnaire needs to be given careful thought in order to avoid creating a mind-set within the respondents early on in

the questionnaire and to maintain the respondents' interest and co-operation throughout the process of filling in the questionnaire (see Oppenheim, 1992:121; Robson, 2002: 249; Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 257).

The literature suggests the following sequence of questions for the opening, middle and end sections of the questionnaire: (1) Unthreatening factual questions generating nominal data (age, gender, etc.) at the beginning of the questionnaire, (2) followed by closed questions about predefined areas of interest eliciting opinions, attitudes or perceptions about these (such as rating scales or multiple choice items, etc.), and (3) finally open-ended, more sensitive or personal questions, aiming at generating opinions and reasons for the responses given (Robson, 2002: 249; Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 257; Gall *et al.*, 2007: 233).

That is, the common approach to sequencing in questionnaire design is to seek to increase the degree of complexity and sensitivity of the questions as the respondents work through the questionnaire from beginning to end.

Cohen *et al.* (2005) argue that the main challenge in deciding on the sequence of questions is to anticipate the sensitivity of the questions from the point of view of the respondents. In other words there is a logical as well as a psychological dimension to the sequencing of the questions. The researcher therefore needs to take the aims of the questionnaire as well as the situation of the respondents into consideration in the design of the questionnaire (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 257-258).

I decided to order the types of questions used in my questionnaire broadly applying the traditional three-part sequence suggested by the literature (factual questions - closed questions - open-ended questions).

This decision was accompanied by the following considerations: (1) The topic of the investigation, the attitude of secondary school children towards language learning, did not appear to be of a particularly sensitive nature for the individual respondent, as, for example, the majority of questions would be about external influences (such as the teacher, etc.) on the children's motivation. (2) It appeared likely that the main concern in terms of sequencing of questions in this particular case was going to be to maintain the participants' engagement with the questionnaire and that factors such as the possibility of some children having a low attention span needed to be taken into consideration. I believed that this might be best achieved through gradually increasing the degree of engagement with the issues, as suggested by the traditional three-part design.

Although it seemed like a sensible approach to draw respondents gradually into revealing increasingly personal and sensitive information I anticipated that some respondents might give up before providing useful or interesting information. This would raise the question in the data analysis what constituted a 'usable' answer (see chapter 4, section 4.1.1.1.).

I tested and further developed the order of the questions, through piloting the questionnaire with a group of Year 10 pupils and inviting their suggestions, through

inviting suggestions for improvements at the end of the first questionnaire, and through discussions with university supervisors and school staff. The following outlines the sequencing decisions taken for each of the questionnaires.

3.7.6.1. Sequencing of questions in phase one

In the opening section (questions 1-5) I asked the pupils factual data that would be useful to categorise data and triangulate opinions expressed later on in the questionnaire, as well as to explore questions of continuity of experience and pupils openness to languages in general. The data that this section was designed to generate were the pupils' sex, which language they were taught (i.e. French or German), whether or not they knew words or phrases from another foreign language (if known), where they had acquired that language and exactly which language it was.

I decided that the rating scales (questions 6-10) and the rank-order items (questions 9 and 10) would appear on separate pages in the middle section of the questionnaire booklets, as they could be considered as the main items of the questionnaire and required the most consideration and effort to complete. In accordance with this Gall *et al.* (2007: 233) suggest placing sensitive questions at the end of the questionnaire but not the important ones. The rating scales were designed as semantic differential scales and aimed to collect data about the pupils' own enjoyment of their languages lessons, their estimation of their peers' enjoyment of their languages lessons and the pupils' own enjoyment of school in general. I designed the rank-order items to collect data about the relative perceived motivational or de-motivational impact of at least three (out of a list

of ten) predefined factors and any number of their own if they wished to add any. This would allow a rough comparison of perceived motivational levels and some insights into factors deemed important in determining motivational levels.

The final section of the questionnaire was designed to generate qualitative data which would serve the purpose of potentially helping to validate, question or explain responses obtained through the previous questions. I decided to ask the pupils two open-ended questions (questions 11 and 12), requiring them to comment on whether or not they thought that they were learning anything in their languages lessons that might be important in their everyday lives and if so, what, and how important it was for them to have friends in their languages classes. These questions referred back to two factors addressed in the rank-order questions which I assumed to be of particular importance, namely (1) the perceived importance of languages for career or visits and (2) having friends in the class (i.e. being popular), but aimed to approach the issues from more personal point of view.

The last two questions in this section (questions 13 and 14) were intended to inform the second phase questionnaire by asking what improvements could be made to the questionnaire and to gauge willingness to participate in the follow-up interviews respectively.

3.7.6.2. Sequencing of questions in phase two

I omitted any introductory factual questions in the second questionnaire, as the data were already available after completion of the first data collection period – the fact that the questionnaires were coded would allow for tracking individuals across the two data sets – but retained most of the sequence and the types of questions from the first questionnaire. This was suggested by the overall design of the study, which required that direct comparisons between the two data sets could be made. I also hoped that retaining sequence and types of questions would create a sense of continuity on the part of the respondents. This would reduce the impact on the normal running of the school, as less explanation was going to be needed for the second questionnaire.

The three semantic differential rating questions which had featured at the beginning of the middle section of the first questionnaire (see above, previous section) would therefore appear in the opening section of the second questionnaire. I extended the wording of the rating scale questions by the word ‘now’ in order to reflect the time related element of the survey and to make a connection with the first phase questionnaire, but did not make any other changes.

However, I decided to introduce each rating scale with a multiple choice question asking the pupils whether they rated their enjoyment in each of the three categories as increased, unchanged or reduced in comparison to their previous responses. There was also a ‘not sure’ answer option (see above, section 3.7.5.1.). Adding the multiple choice questions to the second questionnaire had the purpose of making the questions and the

topic more easily accessible to the pupils after a longer period of time, as I anticipated that they might have forgotten about the survey. It also created a means to triangulate and test the reliability of their responses to the rating scales. The rating scale questions were questions number 2, 4 and 6 and the multiple choice questions 1, 3 and 5 in the second phase questionnaire accordingly.

As in phase one, I placed the rank-order items (questions 7 and 8) directly after the rating scales on a separate page. The rank-order questions thus made up the middle section of the phase two questionnaire booklet. I made no alterations or adaptations to the rank-order items.

The final section of the questionnaire was again designed to generate qualitative data through open-ended questioning. The first two of the open-ended questions (questions 9 and 10) were identical to the questions asked in phase one and appeared in the same place in the questionnaire. This would allow for comparisons between the two data sets involving not only the quantitative but also the qualitative data.

I included two further open-ended questions in the second questionnaire (questions 11 and 12). Question 11 addressed the issue of the possible impact of having been given merits or detentions by the languages teacher in the past few months and question 12 addressed the perceived importance of possible changes in the estimation of the class members when having been given merits or detentions by the languages teacher. I developed these questions out of the following considerations: (1) The importance assigned to praise and sanctioning methods as a motivational tool in the practical

guidance literature for teachers; at the time highlighted through discussions about alterations in the school's policies. (2) Comments about merits and detentions made in the first phase questionnaire which I noticed when processing the data. (3) The assumption that peer pressure may have some effect on the individual's attitude and motivation, which was inspired by the literature and anecdotal observation.

The last two questions, questions 13 and 14, were designed to inform possible follow-up interviews and indicate possible routes of data analysis. In question 13 I asked the pupils what questions they would ask if they were designing a questionnaire on the same topic for another class. In question 14, I asked the pupils to indicate their willingness to take part in follow-up interviews.

3.7.7. The layout of the questionnaire

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 258) suggest that the questionnaire should have a clear and attractive layout, i.e. it should not have too many pages or questions, but should invite responses, etc. It is also recommended that the questionnaire should look easy to fill in and provide plenty of space for questions and answers (Robson, 2002:249).

I aimed to address this in both versions of the questionnaire by (1) numbering the questions, (2) not overcrowding the pages, i.e. not placing more than six short questions on any one page of the questionnaire and placing longer questions on separate pages, (3) making the layout and presentation of questions as clear and attractive as possible by using text boxes, dotted lines, different character fonts and bold print or italics where

appropriate, (4) by including blank pages at the beginning and end of the questionnaire, designed to make the booklets look shorter and less threatening in terms of bulk, (5) by providing lines to write answers on for all questions as well as boxes to write answers into for questions with an 'OTHER' answer option (recommended by school senior management), and (6) reducing the word count in each question as much as possible while making sure that the full scope of the question was communicated. I addressed this through a process of repeatedly discussing question wording with university supervisors, school staff and piloting the questionnaire.

Although I believed that the first questionnaire had an attractive layout overall, I progressed this further in phase two, when I was able to produce a much more inviting layout in booklet format by using A3 paper, which was folded into a A4-sized booklets.

In the context of this study (i.e. a school-based survey, carried out in lesson time, etc.) I felt that it was not only necessary to use different styles of questions and activities to provide different types of data. I felt that it would also be beneficial to keep pupils interested by frequent changes of activity style, as this was what they were used to in lessons. I hoped that the variety of question types, answer formats and themes would meet both contextual and research suitability (fitness for purpose) demands.

3.7.7.1. Providing room for free expression

I designed the last page of both the first and second phase questionnaire as a blank A4 page. I deliberately included these pages and actively invited the pupils to use them as

non-structured doodling spaces for the following reasons: (1) To provide an incentive to complete the questionnaire. Although these doodling spaces did not serve any direct function in terms of gathering data, it was important in terms of sequencing that they were placed at the end of the booklets, so that pupils who would finish the questions before the other participants could move on to what might be considered a fun activity. (2) To provide an activity for those children who would choose to opt out. The survey was planned to be undertaken during normal lesson time and it was not possible to allow unwilling pupils to leave the room. (3) To secure some kind of engagement with the survey. Even those who would opt out of the main questions might leave some insightful comments in the doodling spaces. (4) To make the booklets look shorter and less threatening.

3.7.8. Clarity of instructions

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 258) suggest that clear instructions about how to answer the questions need to be given (tick boxes, etc.).

I addressed this through careful consideration of wording of instructions and subsequent pre-testing via discussion with university supervisors, school staff and piloting of the questionnaire (see above, section 3.7.4.), a clear and attractive layout, providing and repeating instructions through different channels, i.e. through the printed matter and verbally in the introductory briefing (see above, section 3.5.1.), as well as answering questions during completion of the questionnaire, and ensuring consistency of explanation through administering data collection personally.

3.7.9. Piloting the questionnaire

According to Cohen *et al.* (2005: 260) the main purposes of piloting the questionnaire are to check the clarity of the questions, to provide feedback on the validity of the questionnaire (i.e. whether it does what it was designed for), to provide feedback on the types of questions (i.e. whether they work and to identify potential problems), to provide feedback on the exhaustiveness of the questionnaire, to test the layout, to test how much time it takes to complete the questionnaire, and to test whether or not it is engaging enough (i.e. whether the participants complete the whole questionnaire).

I piloted the questionnaire with 59 year 10 pupils in July 2007 (the pilot questionnaire can be found in appendix 1, table 1.5.). This was the equivalent of two teaching groups, out of which one group studied French and the other group studied German. The groups were chosen for three reasons: (1) I had a good relationship with the pupils through my work with them as language assistant. (2) Not all year 10 groups were available for the pilot due to ongoing exam preparation (avoiding disruption to teaching and learning was a priority; see above section 3.5.2.), but all 59 pilot questionnaires were completed and returned. (3) I felt it was important to pilot the questionnaire with both a German and a French group as the factor 'language' was among the variables I intended to investigate.

The piloting of the questionnaire suggested that question wording was mainly clear, that questions overall produced the kind of data I needed to address my research questions and also appeared to cover the main dimensions of the project.

However, as a result of the process I made the following changes to the final version of the year 7 questionnaire: (1) I revised the design of the 'enjoyment' question from a multiple choice format into a rating scale format. I did this to accommodate a larger variety of question types in order to make the questionnaire more engaging. (2) I reduced the number of open-ended questions from five to three in the first phase year 7 questionnaire in order to allow for more time to complete the most relevant questions and to make the questionnaire look shorter, but increased the number to five again in the second phase in order to be able to address important issues that had emerged from the analysis of the phase one responses.

A potential constraint on the process chosen to pilot the questionnaire was that it involved pupils from different year groups, i.e. the questionnaire was piloted with year 10 pupils while the main data collection would be carried out with year 7 pupils. It was likely that there were different levels of literacy and attention span among the pupils from the different year groups. There were, however, good reasons for this, namely restraints on time, the need to respect the normal operation of the school and the good relationship I had with the year 10 groups. Moreover I could rely on the older pupils to articulate a mature response, which would help me to finalise the questionnaire.

3.8. Data gathering

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 116-117) suggest a list of factors that need to be taken into account at the data gathering stage. In the following I describe how I responded to these points in the data gathering phase in my study in order to minimise threats to validity.

The data were collected between October 2007 and July 2008. Data collection took place in two major data gathering periods, involving questionnaires and small-scale follow-up interviews, preceded by a small-scale pilot survey (the questionnaires used in phase one and phase two, along with the pilot questionnaire and the interview schedule can be found in appendix 1, tables 1.6., 1.7. and 1.10.).

3.8.1. Avoiding reactivity effects

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 156) warn that reactivity effects can be triggered by the presence of the researcher. Participants may also react differently because they know they are taking part in research. Such reactions may include attempts to avoid, impress, direct, deny or influence the researcher. Reactivity effects may be addressed through careful negotiation, the researcher's long-term presence at the site being researched and the careful presentation of the researcher's self. Robson (2002: 172) suggests that reactivity effects cannot be completely avoided but rather need to be met with an awareness of the researcher's potential impact, i.e. researchers need to continually reflect on their impact on the research process.

Following the literature I took the following steps to minimise the impact of reactivity effects: (1) I employed standardised tools, namely the questionnaire, which was carefully designed in terms of wording and layout (see above, section 3.7.), the introductory talk (see above, section 3.5.1.; see appendix 1, tables 1.8. and 1.9. for full transcripts of both versions of the introductory talk) and the semi-structured interview schedule (see above, section 3.8.; see appendix 1, table 1.10. for the interview schedule). (2) I openly presented myself in the dual role of teacher-researcher. Through my role as teaching assistant I was well-known to the participants and I believe generally trusted. In presenting myself in the context of the project I made a point of being bound by a different set of rules as a researcher (see above, section 3.5.). I physically emphasised this point by putting on a sports jacket in front of the pupils when assuming the researcher role.

3.8.2. Dropout rates

High dropout rates are a particular threat to the validity of questionnaire-based research. Robson (2002: 249-250) recommends that in order to secure a good response rate in surveys the layout and appearance of the questionnaire need to be attractive and easy to fill in, the wording of questions and instructions needs to be clear and unambiguous and that it needs to be made obvious to the respondents that their answers will be treated confidentially and anonymously. Also, the survey needs to be tailored to the audience, e.g. through piloting.

As outlined above in sections 3.5. and 3.7. I assured the participants of the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses in the introductory talk and through coding the questionnaires and I created an attractive layout, chose careful wording and tested of the questionnaire through piloting. In addition to these strategies I tried to affect response rates positively by administering the questionnaires personally and by pointing out the prospect of future improvements gained through participation.

None of the 59 year 10 pupils selected for piloting opted out, so that the pilot questionnaire produced a 100% response rate.

The year 7 questionnaires produced response rates of 84.7% in phase one and 93.2% in phase two. Robson (2002: 251) assumes that a response rate of about 90% is necessary in self-completion surveys if biased estimates are to be avoided. Gall *et al.* (2007: 237) recommend re-design of a questionnaire if the response rate is at below 66% in the pilot.

Based on these recommendations it appeared that the response rates achieved by the questionnaires in my study were sufficient for meaningful analysis of the data.

None of the participants invited to take part in the interviews declined or decided to opt out of answering particular questions, so that these produced a 100% response rate.

3.8.3. Timing of data-gathering periods

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 116) suggest that the intervals between separate data gathering periods should not be too long or short. I considered the appropriate timing of data gathering periods to be of high relevance to this project, as this would be a central feature of the double-snapshot design applied in this study. However, as indicated above, in selecting appropriate time slots for data collection it was imperative to me to minimise the disruption to the normal running of the school (see above, section 3.5.). I therefore decided to carry out the data gathering work just before term or half term breaks in order to reduce the impact on the pupils learning, revision and assessment schedule.

The first phase of data collection took place between October and December 2007 and the second phase between May and July 2008. I conducted the follow-up interviews immediately after the completion of phase two, also in July 2008.

3.8.4. Standardisation of data-gathering procedures

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 116) point out that the validity of the research can be increased through standardising the procedures for gathering data and administering tests, thus making the research more easily replicable and increasing the reliability of the findings (see also: Gall *et al.*, 2007:148; Robson, 2002:63).

I standardised data gathering techniques by taking the following steps: (1) By using standardised data gathering tools (see above, sections 3.7. and 3.8.). (2) All data gathering tools were self-administered through the researcher. (3) All data gathering tools were introduced through a well-rehearsed introductory talk which was based on a script (for transcripts of both versions of the introductory talk, see appendix 1, tables 1.8. and 1.9.). (4) This included the researcher presenting themselves consistently (see above, section 3.9.1.). (5) All interviews were conducted in the same location, with the participant and the researcher seated next to each other at a table (Cohen *et al.*, 2005:125).

3.8.5. Tailoring instruments

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 116) recommend tailoring research instruments to the concentration span of the respondents and taking other situational factors into account.

As indicated above in section 3.7.7. I regarded tailoring the instruments to fit the particular context of the study, i.e. school-based research carried out with school children during lesson time, as highly relevant to this study. I therefore made the following design choices which aimed to reflect teaching practices which the children would be familiar with: (1) I varied types and styles of questions as much as possible in both the questionnaires and the interviews. (2) I included blank pages as ‘doodling spaces’ in the questionnaires as an incentive to complete the survey and to keep those who would finish the questionnaire early or opt out engaged with the task. (3) I kept the questionnaires and interview as short as possible. (3) I tried to achieve an attractive

layout of the questionnaire, suggesting easy completion. (4) I used child-friendly language in the introductory talk, questionnaires and interview. (5) I tested all design features through discussions with school staff and university supervisors. The main instrument, the questionnaire, was additionally pre-tested through piloting.

3.8.6. Factors concerning the researcher

Cohen *et al.* (2005: 116) point out that factors concerning the researcher (e.g. power relationships, attitude, gender, non-verbal communication) may introduce invalidity at the data gathering stage, especially in interviews.

I addressed factors concerning the researcher through: (1) Standardising as many aspects of the data gathering process as possible (see above, section 3.9.4.). (2) Developing awareness that despite my best efforts it would not be possible to eliminate all inconsistencies (reflexivity).

3.9. Data preparation and analysis

Although the majority of data in this study were survey data I decided against reducing the data and using computer packages for analysis. Despite being aware of the advantages of the commonly used software products, I decided to carry out the majority of the calculations by hand in order to be able to retain as much contact with the data throughout the whole process of data analysis as possible. This would allow me to adapt analytical processes at each stage if interesting new aspects were to emerge.

I recorded the responses mostly un-coded and unedited using Microsoft Office products (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 265-266).

As mentioned above in section 3.5., all data were anonymised. That is, I assigned a code-number to each participant via numbering the questionnaires. The same code numbers were used in the follow-up interviews. Where participants made reference to particular teachers or pupils I replaced these with 'THE TEACHER' or 'A PUPIL' during data preparation.

3.9.1. Preparation of questionnaire data

All questionnaire data were recorded in Microsoft Word table format against the code number of each individual respondent. The data were recorded unaltered, including spelling inconsistencies or errors.

I decided to deal with the different question formats in the following way: (1) Fixed alternative items: I recorded each multiple-choice response in full, including multiple responses, 'OTHER' responses and added details or comments. (2) Rating scales: As mentioned above in section 3.7.2.2., this question required the participants to mark a point on a line between two extreme answer options. In order to be able to compare the ratings more easily, I decided to record the position of the mark on the line by measuring its distance from the beginning of the line. Although this would make the data more easily accessible for analysis, I was aware that coding responses in this way would be a compromise, as some of the original intention might get lost in the process.

(3) Rank-order items: I decided to record each response in full and to distribute the responses over three separate columns in the table, depending on the rank they had been given (most important, 'MI'; very important, 'VI'; important, 'I'). I created three columns for each of the two measures (positive factors and negative factors). Multiple responses, 'OTHER' responses, additional details and comments were also recorded in the table. I decided to colour-code the columns in the data tables order to make the ranking idea more obvious. (4) Open-ended questions: All responses to the open-ended questions were recorded verbatim as found in the questionnaires. (5) Doodles: I decided to record any comments expressed in words made in the doodling spaces, as I considered any form of engagement with the questionnaire to be potentially valuable. However, drawings were difficult to transfer into the data table, so I decided to mark each eligible questionnaire with an asterisk in the table, so that I would be able to identify potentially interesting supplementary data easily later in the analysis, particularly to create student profiles.

Chapter 4: Data analysis and findings

In this chapter I describe the different stages of the analysis of the data and the findings suggested at each stage. In section 4.1. I provide details of the quantitative analysis of the data obtained through the rating scales and the ranking questions, in section 4.2. I give an account of the analysis of the data with qualitative methodology, extending the analysis to the open-ended questions. Section 4.3 is a brief description of the choices made with regard to the analysis of the interview data.

4.1. Quantitative analysis

The majority of the quantifiable data generated through the survey were non-parametric nominal and ordinal data (see Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 77, 80). In accordance with the decisions reported in chapter 3, section 3.9., not to use any of the available computer software in the analysis I decided to answer the research questions through interpretation of descriptive statistics.

I made the decision to work mainly with the original questionnaire responses rather than with coded answers, as this would make it possible (1) to include responses that did not match the suggested format, e.g. where text had been written in a tick-box, etc. and (2) to reconsider and re-group answers, whenever new insights would emerge.

For the analysis I worked with the word processed answers tables described above in section 3.10.1. Where rounding was required to express the results of statistical

calculations I employed asymmetric rounding (also: round half up). Results were rounded to the first decimal.

As described above in section 3.2.5. the data used in this study were collected in two separate data collection snapshots. Due to changes in the sample (school leavers, etc.) and pupils opting out one of the phases but completing the other the data sets obtained from the two phases were not immediately comparable. This needed to be taken into account during data analysis. In order to reflect the richness of the data and to give every pupil a 'voice', I decided to use both, the raw data, i.e. all usable responses from each phase, disregarding sample changes, etc. and the comparable data, i.e. only those responses which could be traced to individuals that had engaged with the questionnaires in both phases (tracing was possible because of coding of individuals; see above, sections 3.5.1. and 3.10.).

I started the analysis with the raw data. This gave me immediate access to the data and helped to identify overall trends in the data. As accurate comparisons between the two sets of raw data were not possible, I repeated all calculations using the comparable data. I believed that this was a detailed and rigorous approach which would allow me to make accurate comparisons based on the data collected at the two points in time.

This chapter presents selected data. The data tables can be found in appendix 2. Further data tables can be provided if necessary.

4.1.1. Evidence of a dip in motivation

The rating scales (see above, section 3.7.2.1) were designed to answer my first research question, i.e. to establish whether there was evidence of a motivational dip.

4.1.1.1. Trends in rating scales raw data

The rating scales asked the participants to comment on their like or dislike of the subject, their perception of the general level of like or dislike of the subject among their classmates and their own like or dislike of school in general. They were questions 6, 7 and 8 in the first questionnaire and questions 2, 4 and 6 in phase two respectively.

The questions were arranged in a way that question 6 in phase one was identical with question 2 in phase two (own like or dislike of the subject), question 7 in phase one with question 4 in phase two (perceived like or dislike of the subject) and question 8 in phase one with question 6 in phase two (own like or dislike of school in general). I arranged the questions in this way so that comparisons between the two phases could be made.

The participants were required to respond to the question by placing a mark anywhere on a line between two extreme positions, i.e. extreme like and extreme dislike. I chose this design over a Likert scale design, as it would allow answers which were not restricted to a finite number of possible responses.

While this design generated richer individualised data which helped me to produce individual pupil profiles in a later stage of the analysis (see below, section 4.2.2.), I decided to process the data initially quantitatively through a Likert scale-like model in order to produce a broad overview of the kinds of responses that had been given and the overall tendencies within these.

That is, I divided the original lines on which the participants had been asked to place a mark in response to the questions into five segments of equal length, each of which was then given a Likert-scale-like value accordingly, namely: ‘strongly like’, ‘like’, ‘middle value’, ‘dislike’ and ‘strongly dislike’. As a result, I was able to categorise each of the responses under one of these values, thus making the data more easily accessible for basic numerical analysis.

I needed to take into account in the interpretation of the data that I had not used Likert scales in the original design of the questionnaire. That is, the participants had not chosen their responses from these categories and therefore they did not necessarily represent their opinions.

I assumed that ‘middle value’ responses represented a neutral opinion, i.e. neither a clearly positive nor a clearly negative one (in Likert scales the ‘middle value’ response may be labelled as ‘it is OK’ or ‘I do not know’; Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 253).

Through this I was able to break down the data into extreme views, moderate views, combined positives and negatives and neutral responses.

In order to be able to carry out basic statistical operations, such as calculating percentages, I established the following numbers in the raw data: (1) The total number of pupils on register, i.e. all year 7 pupils whose names were on school record at each of the two data collection periods (N.B. although the total number of pupils on register was the same in both phases, namely 335, they were not the same individuals. Due to changes in the sample between the two phases the total number of pupils potentially involved in the study was 345).

Table 1: Number of participants in phase one and two

	Phase 1	Phase 2
A: No. of pupils on register	335	335
B: No. of pupils attending at time of survey	321 (95.8%)	308 (92.0%)
C: No. of pupils out of B taking part in the survey	272 (84.7%)	287 (93.2%)
D: No. of pupils out of B opting out	49 (15.3%)	21 (6.8%)

(2) The total number of pupils attending at the time of the survey, i.e. all the pupils who were in the classroom at the time of the survey and who were given a questionnaire. (3) The total number of pupils who had chosen to take part in the survey. I decided that in order to qualify as having taken part in the survey pupils had to have answered at least one question in a way that indicated that some form of engagement with the questionnaire and its context had taken place. (4) The total number of pupils opting out. From these I calculated attendance and opt-out rates for each of the two phases (see table 1). During analysis it emerged that there were higher-than-average drop-out rates

in the lower-ability sets. This affected some of the later calculations involving smaller groups of individuals (see chapter 5, section 5.1.1.2.).

In the following I describe the trends that emerged from the data after calculating percentages of extreme views, moderate views, combined positives and negatives and neutral responses out of overall raw data numbers.

(i) Extreme views

I first calculated percentages of any extreme views, i.e. the answers that appeared in the 'strongly like' and 'strongly dislike' segments.

It occurred that some pupils had written a comment rather than marking a spot on the line. Where these comments reflected an extreme opinion, e.g. 'I hate French' I decided to count them as an equivalent to a mark on the line (in this case as 'strongly dislike'). Answers that could not be clearly identified as extreme opinions I did not include in the analysis, e.g. 'very good - sometimes'.

I calculated the numbers and rates of extreme views given in response to each of the three questions. The results were as follows: (1) With regard to own like or dislike of MFL question it emerged that there appeared to be a reversal of the patterns in the phase one and phase two data. In phase one 26.3% of the responses appeared in the 'strongly like' section, while 13.6% appeared in the 'strongly dislike' section. In phase two only 11.5% of the responses indicated an extreme positive opinion, while 31.7% of the

responses indicated a strong dislike. (2) In the question about the like or dislike of MFL perceived in the peers, it appeared that in phase one 9.3% of the pupils recognised extreme positive opinions about MFL in the other members of the class and 8.6% of the pupils recognised a strong dislike. In phase two, only 3.3% of the responses reflected a perceived extreme positive attitude towards the subject, while 27.7% of the pupils perceived their peers as strongly disliking the subject. (3) In response to the 'school' question 29.1% of the responses indicated a strong like and 14.7% a strong dislike, indicating a positive image of school among a large number of individuals. In phase two the percentage of extreme positive responses was lower, at 19.1%, and that of extreme negative responses, at 20.2%, higher, with the proportion of extreme views on either end of the spectrum now being almost the same.

The analysis of the extreme opinions seemed to suggest that the data supported a considerable increase in extreme negative views in all three questions in phase two. With regard to the opinions about MFL it appeared that a shift from substantially more extreme positive opinions towards substantially more extreme negative ones had occurred. In the questions about the opinions about the subject as perceived in the peers, a shift into substantially more negative estimations emerged. The responses to the 'school' questions across the two phases suggested a shift from more extreme positive opinions to a slightly higher proportion of extreme negative opinions in phase two (see appendix 2, tables 2.1. and 2.2.).

(ii) Moderate views

I then extended the analysis to the moderate views, i.e. the answers which fell into the 'like' and 'dislike' categories.

The analysis produced the following results: (1) It appeared that the figures indicated a reversal in the number of positive and negative opinions. While 20.9% of the pupils answering the question had reported a moderate like of the subject in the earlier questionnaire and 16.7% a moderate dislike, only 14.0% had indicated liking MFL in phase two with a much higher percentage of 20.1% of the pupils now expressing a dislike of the subject. (2) In the question about the opinion of the subject as perceived in the peers, the trend towards increased negativity towards the subject in phase two that had emerged from the extreme opinions was reflected in the moderate opinions: In phase one 13.2% of the responses indicated a like of MFL and 12.1% perceived the others in the class as disliking the subject. In phase two, only 7.4% of the pupils had observed a like of the subject in their peers, while 20.3% thought that the other pupils disliked the subject. (3) The percentages relating to the 'school' question indicated that a like of school was reported equally frequently as a dislike of school at the time of the first questionnaire (each 15.5%), whereas a majority of pupils expressed a moderate like for school in phase two, with 18.4% of all votes appearing in the 'like' section and only 14.4% in the 'dislike' section.

It appeared that a pattern emerged from the data that confirmed that an increase in negativity within the sample may have occurred in the time between the two phases of

the survey, especially with regard to the ‘own opinion’ and the ‘perceived like or dislike of the subject in others’ questions. The ‘like or dislike of school’ question did not appear to match this trend.

(iii) Combined positive and negative views

Table 2.1.: Combined positives and negatives (extreme and moderate) in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives out of A	%	C: Total negatives out of A	%	D: Total % of pos. and neg.
Q6	258	122	47.3%	78	30.2%	77.5%
Q7	257	58	22.5%	53	20.6%	43.1%
Q8	258	115	44.6%	78	30.2%	74.8%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.2.: Combined positives and negatives (extreme and moderate) in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives out of A	%	C: Total negatives out of A	%	D: Total % of pos. and neg.
Q2	278	71	25.5%	144	51.8%	77.3%
Q4	271	29	10.7%	130	48.0%	58.7%
Q6	277	104	37.5%	96	34.6%	72.1%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

In order to verify the trend that appeared to emerge from the analysis of the extreme and moderate categories, I added up the figures obtained for extreme and moderate views on

either end of the scale and calculated the resulting numbers and rates for the combined positives and negatives.

This led to the following results: (1) In phase one 47.3% of the pupils reported having a positive opinion of the subject and 30.2% reported a negative opinion. In phase two only 25.5% of the pupils had a positive opinion while 51.8% had a negative opinion. (2) With regard to their estimations of the opinions held by their peers 22.5% of all pupils indicated a positive opinion in phase one and 20.6% a negative opinion. In phase two only 10.7% indicated a positive opinion, while 48.0% indicated a negative estimation. (3) In response to the 'school' question 44.6% reported a positive opinion in phase one and 30.2% a negative opinion. In phase 37.5% felt positively about their experience of school in general and 34.6% reported a negative opinion (see tables 2.1. and 2.2.).

It appeared that the combined positives and negatives raw data confirmed the trends which emerged from the extreme and moderate categories. That is, the data indicated the following: (1) A trend towards increased negativity within the pupils' opinions of language lessons, resulting in mainly negative opinions in phase two. While the proportion of positive opinions was higher than the proportion of negative ones in phase one, the situation appeared to be reversed in phase two where the negative opinions outweighed the positive ones. (2) Also, an increase in negativity in the question about the opinions of the subject as perceived in the other pupils resulting in predominant negativity in phase two. (3) A noticeable deterioration in the opinions of school, however not resulting in overall negativity, but rather a dampening of enthusiasm.

(iv) 'Middle value' responses

I made the following observations with regard to the responses that did not indicate a strong opinion ('middle value'): (1) The question about opinions of the subject produced fairly consistent proportions of pupils not expressing a strong opinion in both phases. 22.5% of the responses appeared in the 'middle value' section in phase one and 22.7% in phase two. (2) The question about like or dislike of the subject as perceived in the peers produced the highest number of marks in the middle section in both phases of the survey, i.e. 56.8% phase one and 41.3% phase two. The decrease in the number of 'middle value' votes in phase two despite an overall higher number of responses to the question suggested that the pupils may have perceived more clearly distinguishable positive or negative opinions among their peers in phase two. (3) The 'school' question produced similar proportions of 'middle value' answers in both phases, namely 25.2% in phase one and 27.8% in phase two.

It appeared that a high proportion of responses did not express any strong opinions. About half of the responses to the question about perceived like or dislike in the peers (56.8% phase one, 41.3% phase two), one fifth of the responses to the question about the pupils' own opinions about the subject (22.5% phase one, 22.7% phase two) and one in four of the responses to the question about school in general (25.2% phase one, 27.8% phase two).

4.1.1.2. Trends in rating scales comparable data

Table 3.1.: Combined positives and negatives (extreme and moderate) in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives out of A	%	C: Total negatives out of A	%	D: Total % of pos. and neg.
Q6	224	109	48.6%	62	27.7%	76.3%
Q7	216	49	22.7%	42	19.4%	42.1%
Q8	219	95	43.4%	68	31.0%	74.4%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 3.2.: Combined positives and negatives (extreme and moderate) in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives out of A	%	C: Total negatives out of A	%	D: Total % of pos. and neg.
Q2	224	64	28.6%	112	50.0%	78.6%
Q4	216	23	10.6%	105	48.6%	59.2%
Q6	219	80	36.5%	74	33.8%	70.3%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

I repeated the analysis with the comparable data in order to verify or falsify the trends observed in the raw data. That is, by taking changes in the sample into account (e.g. caused by school leavers or new additions) I isolated the data produced by a comparable sample. In addition to that I removed all responses from pupils who had opted out in one of the two phases. I generated a comparable data set for each of the three rating

scales questions separately. I then calculated numbers and rates for extreme views, moderate views, middle value, and combined positives and negatives within the comparable data as before.

The analysis indicated the following: (1) With regard to the combined positives and negatives it appeared that 48.6% of the pupils reported a positive opinion about the subject in phase one and 27.7% a negative opinion. In phase two 28.6% had a positive opinion about language lessons and 50.0% a negative opinion. (2) In response to the second question, 22.7% of the pupils indicated in phase one that their peers felt positively about the subject and 19.4% indicated a negative estimation. In phase two 10.6% of the pupils recognised positive opinions in their peers and 48.6% negative ones. (3) 43.4% of the pupils had a positive opinion of school in general in phase one and 31.0% a negative opinion. In phase two 36.5% felt negatively about school and 33.8% had a positive opinion (see tables 3.1. and 3.2.).

4.1.1.3. Conclusion

As a result it appeared that the trends that I observed in the raw data were confirmed by the comparable data.

From this I derived the following main trends as a preliminary result of the analysis: (1) There was a trend indicating a shift from positivity towards negativity in the own opinions of the subject, i.e. in phase one there were more positive opinions than negative ones and in phase two more negative opinions than positive ones. (2) There

appeared to be a similar trend towards negativity in the perceived opinions of the others, resulting in the negative responses outweighing the positive ones in phase two. (3) The opinions of school in general indicated a much weaker trend towards negativity. I interpreted this as dampened enthusiasm for school, i.e. despite increased numbers of negative opinions in phase two, the positive opinions outweighed the negative ones in both phases.

4.1.2. Extent of movement in responses

It appeared that both, the raw data and the comparable data generated through the rating scales question suggested an increase in negativity towards MFL in phase two. To take the analysis further I referred to the comparable data and established numbers of responses which appeared in the same and in different Likert scale segments in phase two, as well as the apparent directions of any moves in opinions. This would provide further insights into the movements in the pupils' responses that were responsible for the apparent increase in negativity, such as the number of pupils potentially changing their opinion from positive to negative, etc. (For a discussion of the constraints on concluding changed opinions inherent in the double-snapshot design, see chapter 5, section 5.1.1.1.).

In order to facilitate the analysis I coded the rating scale data by assigning numbers to the different Likert scale segments used in the previous part of the analysis. I used the following codes: 'no response' = '0', 'extreme like' = '1', 'moderate like' = '2', 'middle value' = '3', 'moderate dislike' = '4' and 'extreme dislike' = '5' (cf. numbering of

ratings in Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 253-254). I then entered the number codes into a Microsoft EXCEL table against the participants' code numbers.

I decided that a consistent response was a response that appeared in the same Likert scale segment in both phases, e.g. a response that was coded as '1' in both phases. Accordingly, a response that appeared in a different Likert scale category in phase two indicated a potentially changed opinion, e.g. '1-2' (For a discussion of the constraints on this method, see chapter 5, section 5.1.3.).

4.1.2.1. Consistent responses

I first investigated numbers of consistent responses in order to establish if any of the response categories created through the Likert scale segmentation appeared more frequently than others and to what extent these appeared consistently across the two phases. For example, it is sometimes argued in the literature that the neutral middle answer option in a rating scale may be favoured by the respondents in order to avoid expressing clearly positive or negative opinions (see Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 250 and 254; Robson, 2002: 294).

Using the coded table I identified the pupils whose responses appeared in the same segments on the scale in each of the corresponding questions in the two phases, first for each of the five coded segments separately and then in a second step for the combined positive and negative responses as well as the responses indicating no strong opinions in the centre of the line ('middle value'). I did this in order to be able to compare numbers

of pupils whose marks indicated an unchanged opinion (e.g. consistently indicating an ‘extreme like’) with the combined positives and negatives. These were differently sized groups of individuals, as the combined positives and negatives groups contained those pupils whose responses indicated consistent opinion as well as those whose opinions had changed within the range of positive or negative opinions (e.g. from ‘extreme like’ to ‘moderate like’).

(i) Consistency in extreme and moderate views

Table 4: Number of participants reporting consistent opinions per Likert category

Q#	No. of resp.	Extreme like – (1)	Moderate like – (2)	Middle value – (3)	Moderate dislike – (4)	Extreme dislike – (5)
Q6 - Q2	224	19	11	13	10	21
Q7 - Q4	216	2	6	56	7	8
Q8 - Q6(2)	219	23	10	22	8	15

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school

Regarding each of the five answer options separately the following emerged (see table 2): (1) ‘Middle value’ accumulated the single highest number of pupils reporting the same opinion consistently in the ‘perceived like or dislike’ question (question 7 in phase one, question 4 in phase two), where 56 pupils reported the same opinion across the two phases. (2) In the ‘own like or dislike’ question and the ‘school’ question (questions 6 and 2; questions 8 and 6), ‘middle value’ did not appear more consistently than the other coded responses.

(ii) Consistency in combined positives and negatives

Table 5: Number of participants reporting consistent opinions in combined positives and negatives

Q#	No. of resp.	Positive – (1 + 2)	Middle value – (3)	Negative – (4 + 5)
Q6 - Q2	224	46	13	49
Q7 - Q4	216	12	56	42
Q8 - Q6(2)	219	54	22	41

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school

The combined positives and negatives produced the following results (see table 5): (1) The categories ‘positive’ and ‘negative’ showed much higher numbers of consistent responses than the ‘extreme’ and ‘moderate’ sub-categories, i.e. ‘extreme like’, ‘moderate like’, ‘extreme dislike’ and ‘moderate dislike’. (2) In the like or dislike of the subject and the like or dislike of school question (questions 6 in phase one and 2 in phase two and questions 8 in phase one and 6 in phase two respectively), the combined positives and negatives each contained more consistent responses than the ‘middle value’ category. (3) In the like or dislike of the subject question as perceived in the peers, ‘middle value’ was the answer option attracting the most consistent responses. ‘Negative’ accumulated the second highest number of consistent responses and ‘positive’ the lowest.

This suggested that there had been some movement between extreme and moderate opinions, but that approximately one fifth of the pupils had maintained an either overall positive or negative opinion throughout when asked to provide their views on the subject and school in general. It appeared that the pupils were more likely to respond with a consistent positive or negative opinion when asked to provide their own views, than when asked to comment on their perceptions of the opinions of others. The data also suggested considerable movement in the degree of dislike perceived in the others. This indicated that the pupils may have been less certain of the opinions of the others than their own. Overall the data did not appear to suggest that ‘middle value’ had been chosen unusually frequently as a consistent neutral response in this study, as suggested in the literature. The data appeared to provide evidence that the pupils in this study used the opportunity to voice their opinions without undue caution.

4.1.2.2. Upscale and downscale moves

In the second step of the analysis I explored any changes in the responses the pupils had provided. My aim was identify any patterns, particularly any evidence for a shift from positive to negative opinions. As before I based the analysis on the coded table and the Likert scale categories described above. The data used were the comparable data for each of the three rating scales questions. I established the following parameters: (1) The extent of any upscale and downscale moves. (2) The extent of upscale and downscale moves, discounting moves into ‘middle value’. I had made the decision that a mark in the centre of the line represented an absence of a strong positive or negative opinion (see above, section 4.1.1.1.). Including moves into ‘middle value’ might thus distort the

respondents' intentions and skew the results, i.e. a move into 'middle value' may not have been an expression of perceptions of increased positivity or negativity. (3) The extent of moves into 'middle value'. In the following I describe the results of these three calculations.

(i) Any upscale and downscale moves

Table 6: Upscale and downscale moves

Q#	A: No. of resp.	B: No. of downscale moves	%	C: No. of upscale moves	%
Q6 - Q2	224	118	52.7%	24	10.7%
Q7 - Q4	216	111	51.4%	25	11.6%
Q8 - Q6(2)	219	85	38.8%	56	25.6%

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school

An analysis of all upscale and downscale moves produced the following results (see table 6): (1) The number of downscale moves was higher than the number of upscale moves in all three questions. (2) The numbers of downscale moves were similar in the 'own opinion of the subject' and the 'opinion of the subject as perceived in others' questions. In both questions roughly 50% of all responses represented a downscale move. (3) The move towards negativity was less pronounced in the opinions about school in general. In this question less than 40% of all moves represented a downscale move. (4) There were moves up the scale in all three questions. In the two questions

about the subject these accounted for more or less 10% of all moves, but in the question about school in general a quarter of all moves represented an upscale move.

These data provided evidence that some pupils changed their opinions about MFL between the two phases, contributing to the apparent widespread negativity with regard to the subject by the time of phase two (for a discussion of the extent to which the snapshot data represented changed opinions, see chapter 5, section 5.1.1.1.). There was further evidence of dampened enthusiasm for school in general, rather than a shift from positive to negative opinions.

(ii) Upscale and downscale moves discounting moves into ‘middle value’

A more detailed analysis of the downscale moves, discounting moves into ‘middle value’ (see table 7), indicated the following: (1) The most noticeable number of moves into negativity (coded ‘(4)’ and ‘(5)’ in the table) occurred in the two questions about MFL. It appeared that pupils who had not indicated a strong opinion about MFL in phase one (coded ‘(3)’ in the table) were most likely to express a negative opinion in phase two, while moves from extreme or moderate positive opinions into ‘negative’ occurred less frequently. Numbers of moves from ‘(3)’ into ‘negative’ were particularly high in the question about the perceived opinions of the classmates (questions 7 and 4). (2) There was a noticeable number of downscale moves within the negative opinions, i.e. from ‘(4)’ to ‘(5)’ in all three questions, suggesting a theme of ‘deepening dislike’. (3) There was also a relatively high number of downscale moves from moderate positive opinions into not expressing a strong opinion.

Table 7: Types and frequencies of upscale and downscale moves

Type of move	Q#	No. of resp.	Q#	No. of resp.	Q#	No. of resp.
	Q6 – Q2	224	Q7 – Q4	216	Q8 – Q6(2)	219
(1) - (2)	11		2		16	
(1) - (3)	12		7		12	
(1) - (4)	9		1		5	
(1) - (5)	8		6		6	
(2) - (1)	4		2		5	
(2) - (3)	17		15		13	
(2) - (4)	12		5		3	
(2) - (5)	2		3		2	
(3) - (1)	2		5		11	
(3) - (2)	7		6		7	
(3) - (4)	13		27		9	
(3) - (5)	16		30		7	
(4) - (1)	1		0		3	
(4) - (2)	3		0		3	
(4) - (3)	4		5		12	
(4) - (5)	18		15		12	
(5) - (1)	0		0		2	
(5) - (2)	3		0		0	
(5) - (3)	0		4		6	
(5) - (4)	0		3		7	

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school
 (1): 'extreme like' (2): 'moderate like' (4): 'extreme dislike' (5): 'moderate dislike'

It appeared that, despite the obvious constraints on the double-snapshot method, potential moderate downscale changes in the pupils' opinions, i.e. by one or two Likert scale segments, occurred more frequently than extreme changes, e.g. from 'extreme like' to 'extreme dislike'. This suggested that the apparent increase in negativity in phase two could be described as the result of a widespread downscale slide in opinions, rather than a radical change. This slide appeared to be stronger in the pupils' opinions of MFL than in their opinions of school in general.

(iii) Moves into 'middle value'

As outlined in section 4.1.1.1. I had decided that marks in the 'middle value' section of the line represented an absence of a strong opinion. I had therefore excluded moves into the 'middle value' section from the analysis. In order to establish to what extent the exclusion of moves into 'middle value' may have skewed the results of the analysis in terms of indicating a trend towards increased negativity, I determined numbers of upscale and downscale moves into the 'middle value' section (see table 8).

Table 8: Numbers of upscale and downscale moves into middle value

Q#	A: No. of responses	B: No. of upscale moves	C: No. of downscale moves
Q6 - Q2	224	4	29
Q7 - Q4	216	9	22
Q8 - Q6(2)	219	18	25

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school

This produced the following results: (1) The number of downscale moves into 'middle value' was larger than the number of upscale moves in all three questions. (2) The largest number of upscale moves into 'middle value' occurred in the 'school' question.

This suggested that the numbers of upscale and downscale moves into 'middle value' confirmed the tendency of a downscale slide towards increased negativity in the

opinions of MFL. The data indicated an overall dampening of enthusiasm in the ‘school’ question, rather than a slide into negativity. Overall I judged that the exclusion of moves into ‘middle value’ had not skewed the results in any considerable way.

4.1.2.3. Conclusion

From this I concluded that the data provided evidence that the increased levels in negativity with regard to MFL in phase two that emerged from the first part of the analysis may indeed have been a result of many pupils changing their opinions towards more negative estimations (see discussion in chapter 5, section 5.1.1.1.). Overall the increase in negativity in phase two appeared to be the result of a widespread downscale slide in opinions, as moderate changes in opinion occurred more frequently than extreme ones. Making adjustments in the analysis for ‘middle-value’ responses, which I interpreted as expressions of lack of strong opinion, did not suggest any strong impact from this, but suggested that pupils may have felt hesitant to report their perceptions of the opinions of the other members of the class.

4.1.3. Impact of specific sub-samples on trends

Much of the L2 motivation literature is concerned with motivation within specific groups of individuals (see above, chapter 2, section 2.2.).

According to the literature, motivation may be influenced by factors such as gender, language learnt or ability (see Harris, 1998, Jones and Jones, 2001; Maubach and

Morgan, 2001). Based on this it appeared that the following groups of individuals needed to be considered in the context of my study: (1) Boys and girls, (2) learners of French and German and (3) different ability groups.

I decided to explore if and to what extent any of these groups may have impacted on the overall trends. These were: (1) An apparent downscale slide in the pupils' reported opinions of MFL leading to widespread negativity in phase two. (2) An apparent downscale slide in the opinions of MFL perceived in the other pupils, also leading to widespread negativity in phase two. (3) An apparently weaker downscale slide in the opinions of school in general, indicating dampened enthusiasm for school in general in phase two.

4.1.3.1. Trends in gender-specific raw data

Matching the approach to the data taken in the previous stages (see above, section 4.1.1.), I continued the analysis with the raw data in the first instance by dividing the data into the two gender groups. I then calculated numbers and rates for extreme views, moderate views, 'middle value', and the combined positives and negatives within each of the two groups in each of the two phases.

The following results emerged from the combined positives and negatives data (the full tables presenting extreme views, etc. can be found in appendix 2, tables 2.17. to 2.44.):

(1) The girls' data confirmed the overall trends in all aspects of the analysis. In phase one 53.6% of the girls responding to the first question reported a positive opinion of

MFL and 24.6% a negative one. In phase two, the combined positives only accounted for 25.2% of the responses and 53.1% were negative opinions. A similar pattern emerged from the perceived opinions of the others where the combined positives and negatives each accounted for approximately 20% of the responses in phase one. In phase two only 9.7% of the responses reflected a positive opinion and 54.9% a negative opinion. The girls' opinions of school in general indicated dampened enthusiasm in phase two. 45.6% of the responses in phase one suggested a positive opinion and 25.4% a negative opinion. In phase two 40.0% of the girls responding indicated a positive opinion and 31.0% a negative opinion. (2) The boys' data also confirmed the trends with regard to the two questions eliciting opinions of MFL, with 51.6% of all boys reporting a negative opinion about the subject in phase two. In contrast to the girls' data, the boys' did not confirm the overall maintained positivity with regard to school in general. In phase one 41.2% of the boys responding reported a positive opinion about school and 37.7% a negative opinion. In phase two only 32.5% indicated a positive opinion about school, while 39.7% reported a negative opinion.

It appeared that the trends developed out of the overall data were mainly confirmed in the gender specific data, although the boys' data seemed to tell a slightly different story with regard to opinions about the school in general, i.e. an overall downscale slide into negativity which did not occur in the girls' data.

4.1.3.2. Trends in gender-specific comparable data

In order to verify or falsify the raw data results I repeated all calculations using the comparable gender data and identified the trends within the data (see section 4.1.1.).

Table 9.1.: Girls - combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Total positive out of A	%	Total negative out of A	%	% of pos. / neg. answers
Q6	124	64	51.6%	31	25.0%	76.6%
Q7	122	24	19.7%	26	21.3%	41.0%
Q8	123	56	45.5%	32	26.0%	71.5%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 9.2.: Girls - combined positives and negatives in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Total positive out of A	%	Total negative out of A	%	% of pos. / neg. answers
Q2	124	33	26.6%	65	52.4%	79.0%
Q4	122	13	10.6%	67	55.0%	65.6%
Q6	123	47	38.2%	37	30.1%	68.3%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

This suggested the following results for the combined positives and negatives (the full tables presenting extreme views, etc. can be found in appendix 2, tables 2.17. to 2.44.):

(1) The girls' comparable data mainly confirmed the trends observed in the raw data, by indicating a slide into negativity in the opinions of MFL and in the perceived opinions

of the others. However, with regard to estimations of the opinions of the others the data indicated more negative views from phase one, suggesting an increase in negativity by phase two, rather than a slide into negativity. The data also confirmed dampened enthusiasm of school in general (see tables 9.1. and 9.2.).

Table 10.1.: Boys - combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Total positive out of A	%	Total negative out of A	%	% of pos. / neg. answers
Q6	94	42	44.7%	30	31.9%	76.6%
Q7	94	25	26.6%	16	17.0%	43.6%
Q8	96	39	40.6%	36	37.5%	78.1%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 10.2.: Boys - combined positives and negatives in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Total positive out of A	%	Total negative out of A	%	% of pos. / neg. answers
Q2	94	29	30.8%	45	47.9%	78.7%
Q4	94	10	10.6%	38	40.4%	51.0%
Q6	96	33	34.4%	37	38.5%	72.9%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

(2) The boys' comparable data matched the raw data in all aspects. There was a slide into negativity in the opinions of MFL as well as the perceived opinions of the others. As suggested by the raw data, the comparable data also indicated a downscale slide into negativity within the opinions of school in general (see tables 10.1. and 10.2.).

4.1.3.3. Conclusion

From this I concluded the following: (1) The trends suggested by the overall data were mostly repeated in the gender-specific data, by indicating a downscale slide from substantially more positive opinions in phase one to substantially more negative ones in phase two in the opinions of MFL as well as in the perceived opinions of the peers. With regard to the opinions of school in general, the data suggested dampened enthusiasm in phase two. That is, contrary to findings presented in the literature (e.g. Coleman *et al.*, 2007) it did not seem that either of the gender groups had influenced the overall results in my study disproportionately. This was confirmed in the analysis of the raw data as well as the more rigorous analysis of the comparable data. (2) However, the boys' reported opinions of school in general suggested a minor deviation from the trend by indicating higher levels of negativity. (3) In both gender-specific data sets the most noticeable slide into negativity happened with regard to the perceived opinions of the others (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.1.1.2.).

4.1.3.4. Trends in language-specific raw data

Applying the approach outlined above (see also section 4.1.1.) I extended the exploration of the potential impact of specific sub-groupings to the language-specific data. The pupils involved in my study were taught either French or German.

This suggested the following results for the combined positives and negatives (the full tables presenting extreme views, etc. can be found in appendix 2, tables 2.45. to 2.56.):

(1) The data generated by the pupils learning French mainly confirmed the overall trends. It emerged that 45.3% of the pupils studying French reported a positive opinion of MFL in phase one, while 37.9% reported a negative opinion. In phase two 20.0% indicated a positive opinion, while 60.9% reported a negative opinion. As far as perceptions of the opinions of the others are concerned, 22.1% of those responding indicated a positive opinion in phase one and 26.3% a negative one. In phase two 6.0% reported thinking the other members of their class enjoyed the lessons, while 63.0% reported negative opinions. 45.7% of those responding indicated a positive opinion of school in general in phase one and 30.8% a negative opinion. In phase two 39.4% felt positive, while 30.7% had a negative opinion. (2) The data generated by the pupils studying German also mostly supported the trends in the overall data. 48.4% reported a positive opinion of MFL in phase one and 26.1% a negative one. In phase two 28.7% indicated a positive opinion while 46.7% reported a negative opinion. A similar slide into negativity occurred in the opinions perceived in the others. 42.4% of those responding reported a positive opinion of school in general in phase one and 31.0% a negative opinion. In phase two 34.7% reported a positive opinion and 37.7% a negative one, indicating a slide into negativity in this question.

I interpreted these results as broadly matching the trends suggested by the overall data. However, the language-specific raw data suggested minor deviations from the overall trend: (1) Within the group of pupils learning French the perceptions of the opinions of the others indicated higher levels of negativity in phase one than suggested by the overall data, with the number of negative views being higher than the number of positive views from phase one. (2) In the group of pupils learning German, a slide into

negativity emerged with regard to the opinions of school in general, as well as in the other two questions. (3) Also, the data suggested that there were considerable differences between the two languages, with the group of pupils learning German overall appearing to be more satisfied.

4.1.3.5. Trends in language-specific comparable data

Table 11.1: Language sub-samples – French – combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives (1) + (2)	C: Middle value (3)	D: Total negatives (4) + (5)
Q6	78	36 (46.1%)	14 (17.9%)	28 (35.9%)
Q7	77	19 (24.7%)	38 (49.3%)	20 (25.9%)
Q8	77	35 (45.4%)	16 (20.8%)	26 (33.7%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 11.2.: Language sub-samples – French – combined positives and negatives in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives (1) + (2)	D: Middle value (3)	D: Total negatives (4) + (5)
Q2	78	17 (21.8%)	13 (16.6%)	48 (61.5%)
Q4	77	5 (6.5%)	21 (27.3%)	51 (66.2%)
Q6	77	29 (37.6%)	25 (32.4%)	23 (29.9%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Repeating the analysis with the language-specific comparable data produced the following result: (1) The analysis mainly confirmed the raw data results (see tables 11.1./11.2. and 12.1./12.2.). (2) However, in the group of pupils learning German, the downscale slide with regard to opinions about school in general did not produce a slide into negativity in phase two, but suggested polarised opinions through equal numbers of positive and negative opinions (see tables 12.1. and 12.2.).

Table 12.1.: Language sub-samples – German – combined positives and negatives in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives (1) + (2)	C: Middle value (3)	D: Total negatives (4) + (5)
Q6	140	70 (50.0%)	37 (26.4%)	33 (23.6%)
Q7	139	30 (21.6%)	87 (62.6%)	22 (15.8%)
Q8	142	60 (42.2%)	40 (28.1%)	42 (29.6%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 12.2.: Language sub-samples – German – combined positives and negatives in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives (1) + (2)	D: Middle value (3)	D: Total negatives (4) + (5)
Q2	140	45 (32.1%)	33 (23.6%)	62 (44.3%)
Q4	139	18 (12.9%)	67 (48.2%)	54 (38.8%)
Q6	142	51 (35.9%)	40 (28.1%)	51 (35.9%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

4.1.3.6. Conclusion

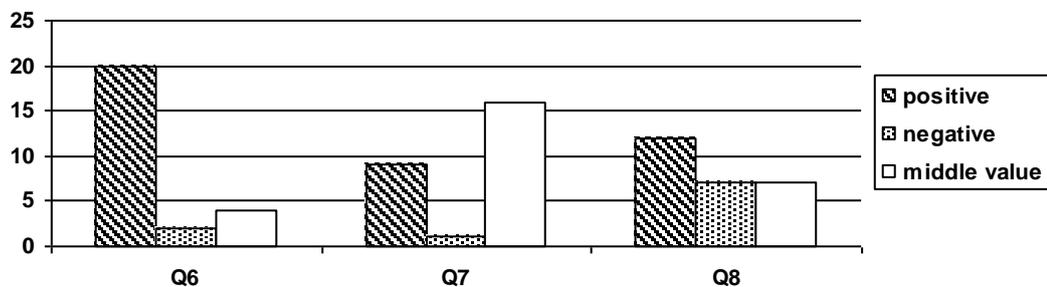
I concluded the following: (1) It appeared that the trends observed in the language-specific data were mainly consistent with those in the overall data. This appeared to be confirmed in both the raw data and the comparable data. (2) The data suggested minor variations in the onset and extent of the downscale slide in the different questions, suggesting higher levels of negativity among the pupils learning French with regard to the perceived opinions of the others and among the pupils learning German with regard to the opinions of school in general. (3) Moreover, comparison of the data generated by the two language groups indicated that French was regarded more negatively than German. That is, the drop in the percentage of positive opinions by phase two was larger with regard to French than German (-24.3% as opposed to -17.9% respectively in the comparable data). This was matched by a more pronounced increase in negative opinions in French (+25.6% and +20.7% respectively). Likewise, the percentage of perceived others' negative opinions rose more with regard to French than German (+40.3% and +23.0% respectively). That is, although the data suggested a dip in motivation in both languages by phase two, there was some evidence supporting suggestions made in the literature (e.g. Williams *et al.*, 2002) of a relationship between levels of motivation and the language learnt. It needed to be acknowledged, however, that this finding was based on a relatively small number of individuals (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.1.1.2.).

4.1.3.7. Trends in teaching groups raw data

I continued the exploration of the potential impact of specific sub-groupings at class level. This would allow judgements about the potential impact of groups of pupils of different ability levels on the overall trends. It would also take the analysis further by providing insights into trends emerging on an even smaller scale and how these compared with the results of the overall statistical analysis.

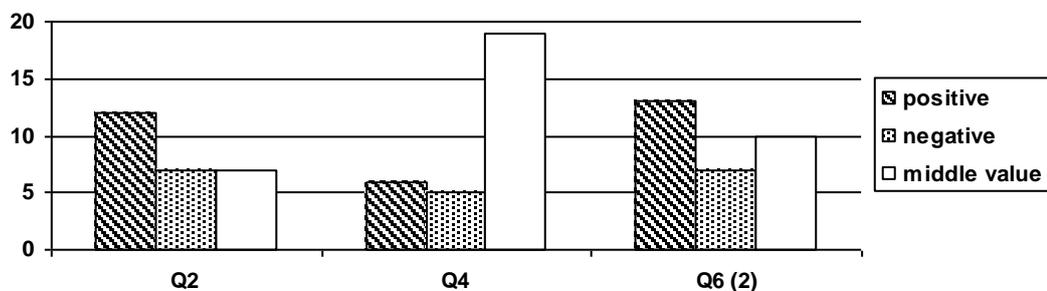
Chart 1: Group 1 (E-GM1) – more positive – combined positives and negatives based on raw data

Phase 1



Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
The y-axis represents numbers of individuals

Phase 2



Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
The y-axis represents numbers of individuals

With a view to the small scale of the analysis I decided to use the combined positives and negatives and 'middle value' responses only, as I took the view that the scale of the analysis was too small to take moves from extreme to moderate, etc. into account.

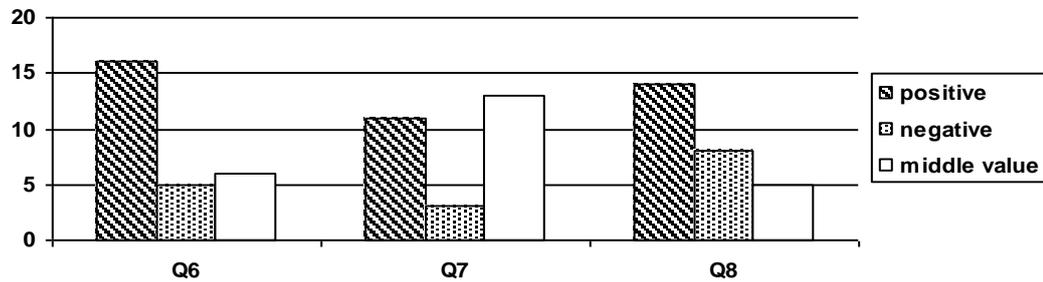
I divided the data into the twelve class groups that had participated in the study, and calculated numbers and rates for middle value, and combined positives and negatives within each of the twelve groups in each of the two phases.

This produced the following results: (1) The downscale slide in opinions of MFL into negativity was confirmed in 7 out of the 12 classes. (2) The downscale slide into negativity in the perceived opinions of the others was confirmed in 4 out of the 12 groups. (3) A dampened enthusiasm for school in general was confirmed in 6 out of the 12 groups. (4) A match with the overall trend in all the questions was confirmed in 2 out of the 12 groups. (5) A mismatch with the trend in all three questions occurred in 3 out of the 12 groups.

From this it appeared that the overall trends were not confirmed conclusively by the teaching group raw data. Also, the numbers of instances were too small to allow for any conclusions about matches across trends in particular questions and types of groups (e.g. language, set). Rather, it appeared that profiles specific to each teaching group (group profiles) emerged from the data.

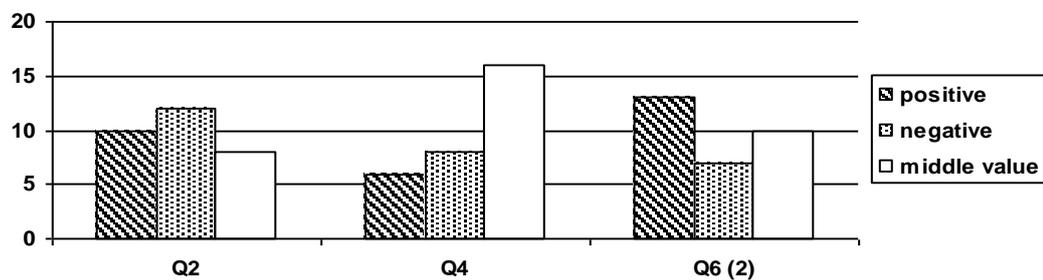
Chart 2: Group 2 (A-GM1) – match with trend – combined positives and negatives based on raw data

Phase 1



Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
The y-axis represents numbers of individuals

Phase 2



Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
The y-axis represents numbers of individuals

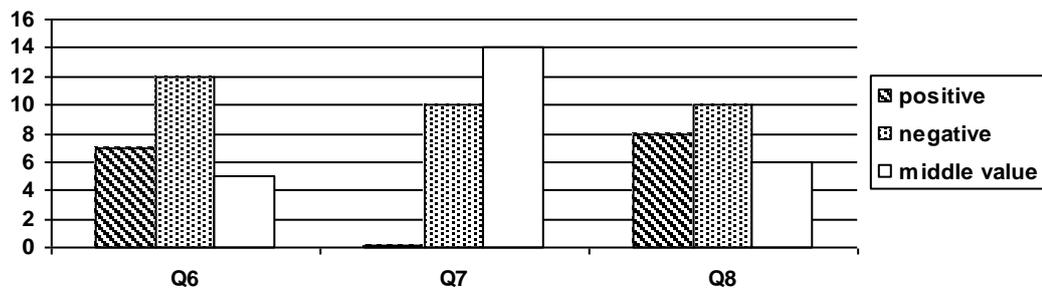
Although the data did not appear to support any consistent patterns, I decided the individual group profiles allowed for the following categorisation with reference to the trends in the overall data: (1) The groups with higher amounts of positivity. (2) The groups that matched the trends. (3) The groups with higher amounts of negativity.

I categorised a group as having higher amounts of positivity where at least one of the two MFL-related questions (questions 6 and 2 in phase one, questions 7 and 4 in phase

two) did not indicate a slide into negativity, and as having higher amounts of negativity where at least one of the three questions indicated existing negativity in phase one.

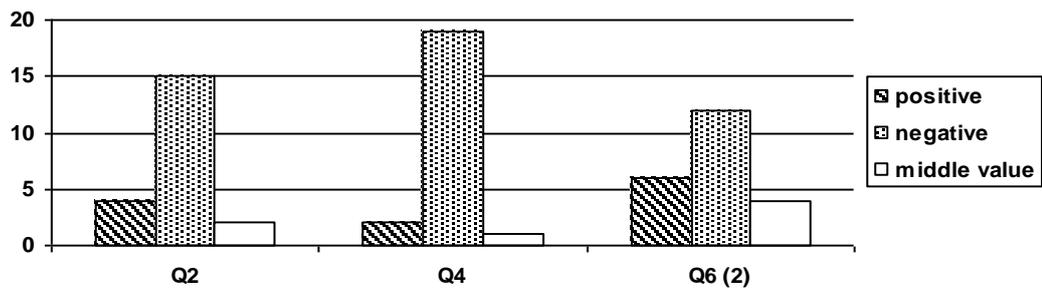
Chart 3: Group 3 (C-GM3) – more negative - combined positives and negatives based on raw data

Phase 1



Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
The y-axis represents numbers of individuals

Phase2



Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
The y-axis represents numbers of individuals

Accordingly it appeared that 3 of the 12 groups could be categorised as having higher amounts of positivity, 2 of the 12 groups as matching the overall trends and 7 of the 12 groups as having higher amounts of negativity. For examples of group profiles representing the categories see charts 1-3 (see also appendix 2, tables 2.57., 2.58. and chart 2.1. The full tables can be provided if necessary. The identifying codes for the

individual classes indicate the language learnt, i.e. 'GM' stands for 'German' and 'FR' for French, as well as the ability set, represented by the final numeral. '1' indicates highest ability set, '4' lowest).

4.1.3.8. Trends in teaching groups comparable data

Repeating the analysis with the comparable data produced the following results: (1) The downscale slide in opinions of MFL into negativity was confirmed in 3 out of the 12 classes. (2) The downscale slide into negativity in the perceived opinions of the others was confirmed in 2 out of the 12 groups. (3) A dampened enthusiasm for school in general was confirmed in 6 out of the 12 groups. (4) A match with the overall trend in all the questions was confirmed in none out of the 12 groups. (5) A mismatch with the overall trend in all three questions occurred in 4 out of the 12 groups. (6) A match with the trends observed in the raw data, i.e. the group profiles, occurred in 4 out of the 12 groups.

The analysis indicated that neither the trends in the overall data nor the raw data group profiles were confirmed by comparable data. I explained the widespread mismatch between raw data and comparable data with the small scale of the analysis. As in the case of the raw data no consistent patterns emerged out of the types of trends and the parameters of the groups (e.g. language, ability).

4.1.3.9. Conclusion

From this I concluded the following: (1) There was no consistent match of the overall trends with the trends emerging at class level. This was confirmed in the raw data and the comparable data (see appendix 2, tables 2.59. and 2.60.). I interpreted these differences as evidence of the existence of ‘group cultures’ specific to each class. (2) There was no obvious relationship between group cultures and ability set, i.e. there was no evidence that membership in a high or low ability set was linked with particular levels of motivation. Nor did it appear that there was any distortion of the overall trends through the impact of traditional ability setting (see discussion in chapter 5, section 5.1.1.2.).

It appeared that the analysis of the data at class level revealed a far more complex picture than suggested by the overall data. That is, the trends developed out of the overall data did not appear to be sufficient to describe motivational patterns at class level.

4.1.4. Summary of findings so far

The analysis indicated the following at this stage: (1) There was evidence of a motivational dip. This was represented in the overall slide into negativity in the pupils’ opinions of MFL and their perceptions of the opinions of their peers. This trend was confirmed by the large-scale raw data as well as the comparable data. (2) There was a weaker trend towards negativity in the opinions about school in general, resulting in

what appeared to be dampened enthusiasm. (3) It did not appear that any of the traditional sub-samples (gender, language, ability set) had impacted on the overall trends strongly, although variations in starting point and extent of the slide occurred in the sub-samples. (4) The large-scale statistical data suggesting a motivational dip could not be verified at class level, suggesting that a different analytical approach was needed to explore motivation on this scale.

4.1.5. Impact of selected factors on group cultures

The emergence of complex ‘group cultures’ in the previous stage of the analysis, suggested the need to take the investigation forward by exploring motivation at class level.

It was one of the aims of this study to investigate potential factors that may impact on motivation (see above, chapter 3, section 3.2.2.). In order to reflect the complexity of the data I decided to explore both the impact of particular factors in isolation and in combination and whether these could account for the emergence of particular group cultures. This analytical approach, i.e. to extend the analysis of the relationship of two variables to the analysis of three variables, is suggested by the social science research literature (e.g. Robson, 2002: 427). I selected the factors ‘teacher’, ‘language’ and ‘ability’ as these are frequently discussed in the literature and in wider society (see above, chapter 2, section 2.2.). This suggested the following combinations of factors: ‘Teacher - language’; ‘teacher - ability set’, ‘language - ability set’.

I then plotted the factors against the simplified group culture categories ‘more positive’, ‘matching the trend’ and ‘more negative’ developed in section 4.1.3.7 to search for patterns. By using the simplified types of group cultures some of the original complexity of the data would be lost, however my approach required quantifiable results.

I decided to use only the raw data in the analysis, as these appeared to provide the most accurate representation of the different group cultures.

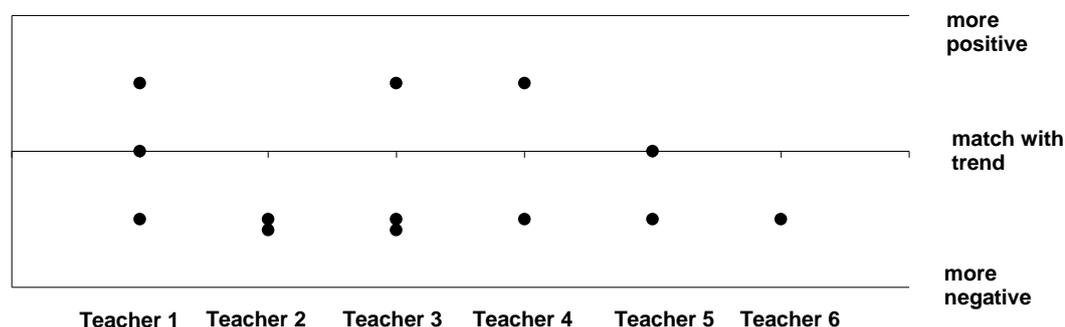
4.1.5.1. Impact of factors in isolation

(i) The teacher

I obtained the following results for the factor ‘teacher’: (1) All of the teachers taught at least one group which was more negative than the overall trend suggested. (2) Two of the six teachers in this study taught two groups which were more negative than the trend. (3) Three of the six teachers taught groups with higher positivity. (4) All of the teachers who taught groups which were more positive than the trend, also taught groups with higher negativity (see figure 1).

These results were affected by the fact that not all teachers taught the same number of classes. T3 and T6 shared a class with higher than average negativity, which appeared twice in the table for that reason. In addition to that a match with the overall trend also represented an expression of negativity.

Figure 1: Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per teacher



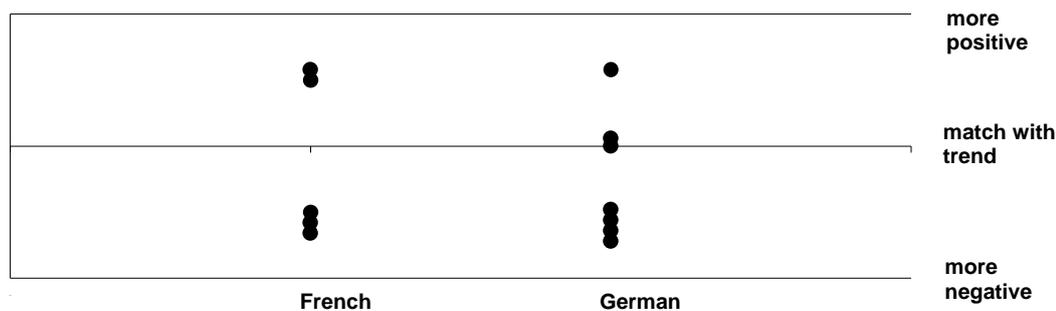
Despite this I concluded that the group cultures with more negativity than the trend suggested could not be accounted for by linking them to any particular teachers in this study, as all the teachers taught at least one group with higher rates of negativity. The data did suggest that the teacher may have had some impact on creating enthusiasm in some cases, but not as much on preventing or reversing disaffection with the subject. This was represented in the fact that all teachers taught classes with higher than average negativity, including those teachers who taught classes which appeared to remain more enthusiastic about learning a foreign language.

(ii) The language learnt

The following results were obtained for the factor ‘language’: (1) Three out of the five groups in this study learning French displayed higher rates of negativity than the overall trend suggested. Two of the five groups learning French displayed higher rates of positivity. There were no groups which matched the overall trend. (2) Four of the seven

groups in this study learning German were more negative than the trend suggested and one out of the seven groups more positive. There were two groups which displayed a match with the overall trend (see figure 2).

Figure 2: Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per language

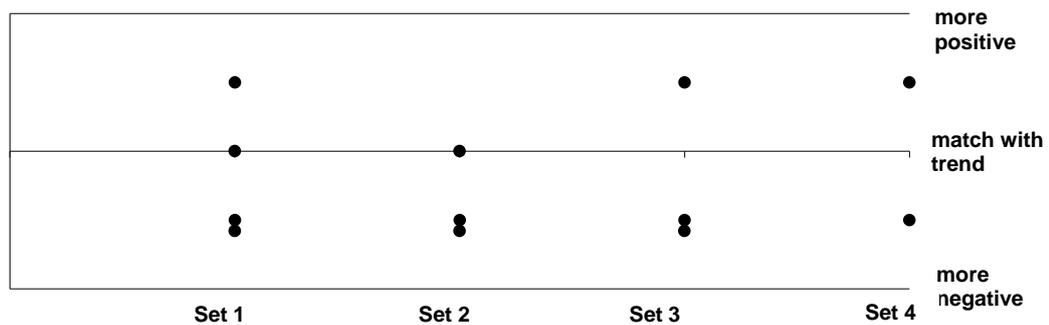


These results were affected by the fact that the number of classes learning German involved in this study was larger than the number of classes learning French (see above, chapter 3, section 3.6.). Despite that I concluded that the instances of higher rates of negativity could not be attributed conclusively to either one of the two languages in this study. However, it appeared that groups learning German were more likely to develop higher rates of negativity than higher rates of positivity. It also appeared that groups learning French were more likely to develop higher rates of positivity than groups learning German. This apparently contradicted the conclusion drawn above in section 4.1.3.6., that the pupils learning German were overall more satisfied than those learning French. My analysis suggested that exploring the data from different angles might lead

to increasingly complex and detailed results, which might question findings derived from overall statistics.

(iii) The ability set

Figure 3: Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per ability set



The following results were obtained for the factor ‘ability’: (1) There were classes with higher rates of negativity than suggested by the trend in all ability groups. (2) From sets 1-3 emerged two groups with higher rates of negativity each and from set 4 only one. (3) Out of the four sets 1, two displayed higher rates of negativity. (4) Two out of the three sets 2 displayed higher rates of negativity. (5) Two out of the three sets 3 indicated higher negativity. (6) Only one out of the sets 3 and 4 was more negative than the trend. (7) Two groups, one set 1 and one set 2 matched the overall trend. (8) Out of the three sets 1 one was more positive than the trend. (10) None of the sets 2 was more positive than the trend. (11) Out of the three sets 3, one was more positive than the trend. (12) One set 4 displayed higher rates of positivity than suggested by the trend (see figure 3).

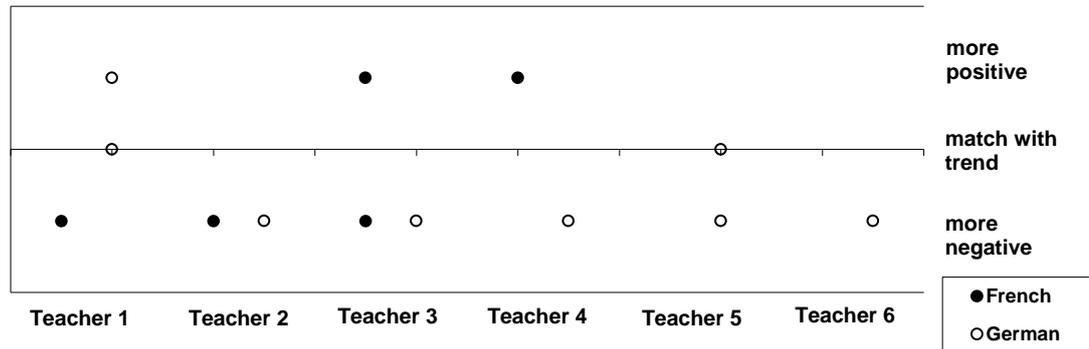
These results were affected by the uneven numbers of ability sets involved in this study (see chapter 3, section 3.6.). Despite that it seemed that none of the traditional ability sets consistently produced group cultures with higher rates of negativity than the others. However, the data suggested that higher rates of positivity were more likely to occur in the lower ability band (sets 3 and 4) (see discussion in chapter 5, section 5.1.1.2.).

4.1.5.2. Impact of factors in combination

(i) Teacher and language learnt

I obtained the following results for the combined factors ‘teacher - language’: (1) Two of the four teachers teaching both languages (T2, T3) taught groups with higher rates of negativity across the two languages. (2) One of the four teachers teaching both languages (T1) taught one French class with higher rates of negativity and one German class with higher rates of positivity. However, T1 also taught a German class matching the overall trend. (3) One of the teachers who taught both languages (T4) taught one French class with more positivity and one German class with more negativity. (4) Two out of the three teachers teaching groups that reported higher than average positivity (T1, T3), also taught groups learning the same language that displayed higher rates of negativity or a match with the trend (see figure 4).

Figure 4: Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per teacher and language



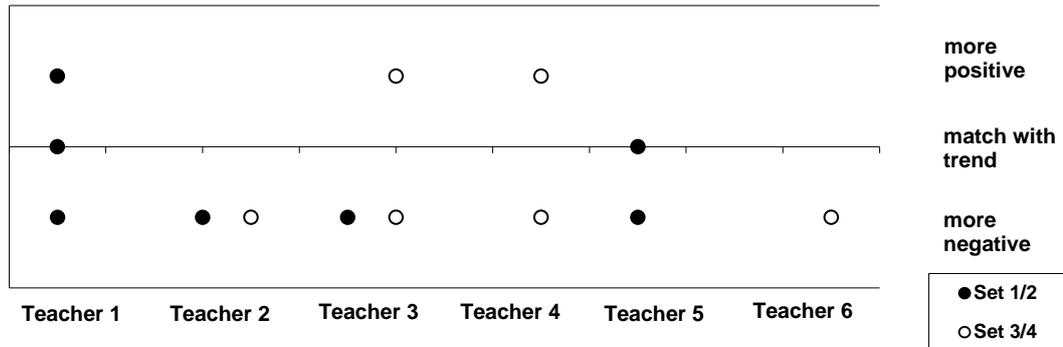
These results were affected by my decision to exclude one class from the analysis which was shared between two teachers (T3 and T6). Also there was no data available for the French classes taught by two of the teachers (T5 and T6). However, on the basis of the available data I concluded that there was no suggestion of potential language-related preferences or specialisms of the teachers consistently triggering the development of particular group cultures, as there were fewer instances of matching group cultures within same-language groups per teacher than instances of mismatches. However, the data did suggest greater complexity, as it indicated the possibility that in at least one case (T4) the language-related preference or specialism of the teacher was potentially linked to the occurrence of particular group cultures.

(ii) Teacher and ability set

I combined the ability sub-samples into two bigger groups, namely ‘higher’ (sets 1 and 2) and ‘lower’ (sets 3 and 4). I did this for ease of visual representation of the findings. I

also believed that this, given the small number of instances under investigation, would produce more meaningful results.

Figure 5: Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per teacher and ability set



The analysis produced the following results for the combined factors ‘teacher - ability’:

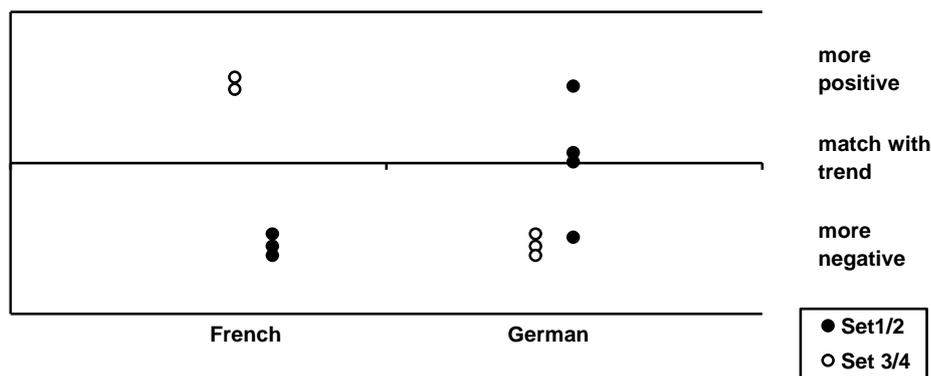
- (1) Where teachers taught both higher sets and lower sets (T2, T3), both higher and lower sets indicated more negativity than suggested by the trend.
- (2) Where teachers taught either only higher sets or only lower sets (T1, T4, T5, T6) all groups displayed different types of group cultures, regardless of being within the same ability band.
- (3) All teachers who taught groups with more positivity than suggested by the trend (T1, T3, T4), also taught groups of the same ability which were more negative than the trend (see figure 5).

From this it appeared that there was no evidence in my data of a relationship between the factors ‘teacher - ability’ and particular group cultures. That is, it appeared unlikely

that the forming of group cultures was linked to variations in the relationship between teachers and pupils as a result of the ability setting of the pupils.

(iii) Language learnt and ability set

Figure 6: Instances of teaching groups with more positivity, more negativity or match with trend per language and ability set



My analysis produced the following results for the factors ‘language - ability’: (1) All lower sets learning French displayed higher levels of positivity than suggested by the trend. (2) All lower sets learning German displayed more negativity than suggested by the trend. (3) All higher sets learning French were more negative than the trend. (4) Two of the four higher ability sets learning German produced a match with the trend. (5) One of the four higher sets learning German displayed was more negative than the trend. (6) One of the four higher ability groups learning German was more positive than the trend (see figure 6).

Despite the fact that the number of German classes contributing to the data was larger than the number of French classes and the small number of instances under investigation (see chapter 3, section 3.6.), I concluded that the data suggested the possibility of a relationship between the combined variables ‘language - ability’ and particular group cultures in this study. This conclusion was based on the finding that all French lower ability sets displayed higher levels of positivity than suggested by the trend, while all higher sets displayed higher-than-average levels of negativity. Moreover, the data relating to the German classes suggested a similarly strong pattern. All German lower ability sets indicated higher-than-average levels of negativity, while most German higher ability sets displayed either higher-than-average levels of positivity or a match with the trend. That is, there appeared to be a preference for French among the lower sets, while there was a tendency towards a preference for German among the higher sets.

4.1.5.3. Conclusion

I concluded the following about the impact of the selected factors on the development of group cultures: (1) There was no conclusive evidence that any of the factors in isolation could be used to explain the complexity observed in the teaching group data, as there did not appear to be a relationship between any of the factors and any specific types of group cultures. (2) There was no conclusive evidence that the combined variables ‘teacher - language’ and ‘teacher - set’ were related to particular types of group cultures. That is, contrary to discussions in wider society, the teacher was not found to be as important as may have been expected with regard to the forming of group cultures, but

other factors, such as the setting of the pupils and the language learnt appeared to have a much bigger impact on the process. (3) There was some evidence indicating a possible relationship between the combined variables 'language - ability' and particular group cultures. (4) Despite this the analysis suggested complex relationships between the variables which could not be accounted for through basic statistical operations.

4.1.6. Impact of ranking of factors on group cultures

My analysis of the rating scales data suggested the following: (1) There was evidence of the occurrence of a motivational dip. The motivational dip was represented in a downscale slide into widespread negativity in the pupils' reported opinions of MFL and their perceptions of the opinions of their peers. (2) There was a weaker trend towards negativity in the opinions about school in general, resulting in what appeared to be dampened enthusiasm. (3) It did not appear that any of the traditional sub-samples (gender, language, ability set) had impacted on the overall trends strongly, although variations in starting point and extent of the slide occurred in the sub-samples. (4) The further breakdown of the data did not confirm the overall trend at class level, as complex variations of group profiles emerged from the data. For further analysis I identified types of 'group cultures', namely those matching the trend and those displaying higher rates of negativity or positivity. (5) The analysis of three selected factors commonly discussed in the literature and wider society ('teacher', 'language', 'ability') against the occurrence of particular types of group cultures could not explain the complexity in the data at class level.

I continued the analysis with the data generated through the ranking questions, as I had designed these to elicit complex data about the impact of various factors.

As described above in chapter 3, section 3.7.2.3., the ranking questions asked the pupils to create short-lists of three positive and negative factors perceived as important in terms of impacting on their enjoyment of language lessons by choosing from a list of ten positive and ten negative factors which I provided, or adding their own. I asked the pupils to put the factors in perceived rank-order by marking them as, either, most important ('MI'), very important ('VI'), or important ('I').

The factors I provided were: (1) teacher, (2) career plans, (3) visits abroad, (4) materials and equipment, (5) lesson activities, (6) behaviour of the other pupils, (7) feeling of making progress, (8) enjoyment of the language, (9) friends and (10) the other subjects (for exact wording of the questions see appendix 1, tables 1.6. and 1.7.).

As outlined in section 3.7.2.3., I designed this question specifically to gather data that could be interpreted under the Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA). If successful, factors that were ranked as very important positive or negative factors could be interpreted as attractors or repellers and potential conglomerates would emerge through the ranking of various factors in relation to each other. The design would further allow me to track attractors and repellers across the two phases, thus producing data that might indicate potential attractor and repeller states. The weightings attached to the factors would indicate the perceived strength of attractors and repellers (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.2.2.).

During analysis it appeared that some pupils had chosen to answer the question in their own way, e.g. by selecting more than three factors. In order to account for different types of responses I adopted a points system, giving a score to each of the three ranks, relative to their weighting. I counted 'MI' as three points, 'VI' as two points and 'I' as one point. Where more than one factor was marked with the same rank, I divided the points score by the number of factors with the same rank, so that single nominations received the full score and multiple nominations a split score (fractions where necessary). I assumed that factors which were marked but not ranked were equivalent to an 'MI' ranking and subsumed pupils' own comments which clearly overlapped with one of the listed factors (e.g. 'The teacher picks on me') under the factor they appeared to refer to. Pupils' own comments that could not be subsumed were analysed separately. While some of the qualitative meaning may not have been translated through converting weightings into points, I felt that the quantitative analysis required making adjustments to multiple nominations in order for the results to be representative.

I calculated the points score for each factor and created bar charts, establishing separate rankings for positive and negative factors for each class. I then compared the rankings made in the two phases searching for any patterns. Where deemed appropriate I derived conclusions from this about the potential relationship between patterns and group cultures.

In the first instance I established rankings using the raw data for the three groups selected in the previous chapter to represent typical group cultures (see above, chapter 4, section 4.1.3.7.). All three groups were learning German. I chose groups learning the

same language to exclude any complexity of the pupils learning different languages and to enhance any comparisons. I repeated the analysis with the combined raw data and compared the results. In a final step I repeated the process using the comparable data in order to be able to judge to what extent the results had been skewed by changes in the sample.

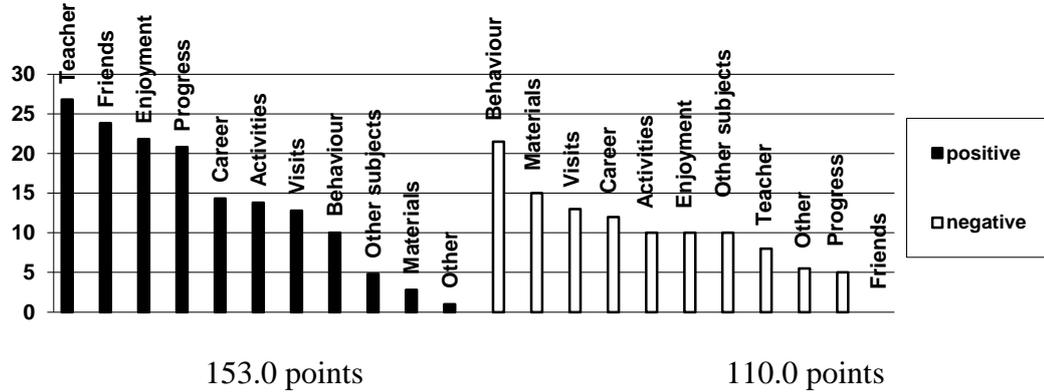
4.1.6.1. Ranking of factors in selected groups raw data

(i) Group 1 – more positive

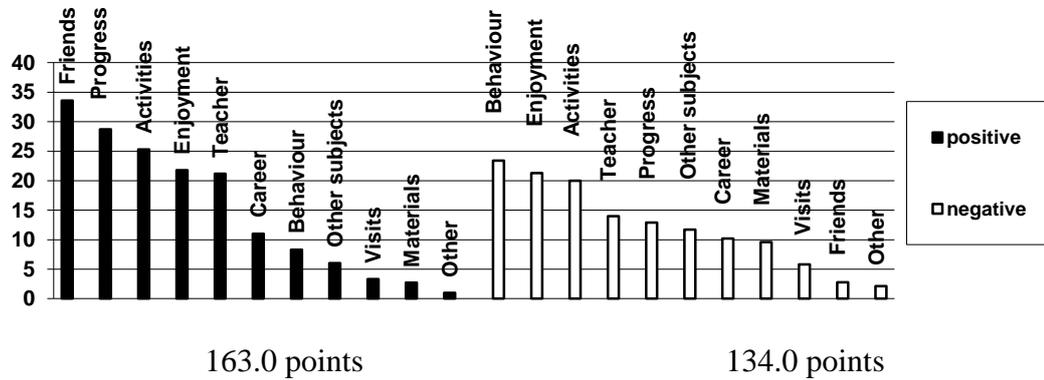
The following patterns emerged from the data generated by the group displaying higher than average positivity: (1) It appeared that perceptions of the teacher had changed from an overall positive estimation in phase one to a more moderate view in phase two, as other factors appeared to be perceived as more important in terms of generating enjoyment of language lessons. Also, teacher was ranked as a more important negative factor in phase two. That is, it appeared that there were some pupils in the group in phase two who considered the teacher to be a positive factor while others regarded the teacher as a mainly negative influence (polarisation). (2) Having friends was considered to be an important positive factor in both phases, but was the most important factor in phase two. Also, not having friends was perceived as a more important negative factor in phase two. This suggested that peer relationships were regarded as more important at the time of the second survey.

Chart 4: Group 1 (E-GM1) – more positive – ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data

Phase 1



Phase 2



(3) The behaviour of the other pupils was perceived as the most important negative factor in both phases. This potentially suggested a low level of tolerance of poor behaviour in this group which may have been an expression of high levels of enthusiasm for the subject among some pupils reflected in the maintained higher than average levels of positivity in this group. (4) It appeared that enjoyment of the lessons was an important positive factor in phase one, but was not considered to be of the same importance in phase two. Also, lack of enjoyment was perceived as a very important negative factor in phase two. This appeared to suggest that the maintained higher-than-

average positivity in this group may have been related to practical associations with the subject, rather than immediate enjoyment. This was potentially supported by the ranking of the factor ‘progress’ which was given a higher positive ranking than ‘enjoyment’ in phase two. (5) The factor ‘activities’ gained importance as both a positive and a negative factor in phase two. This appeared to suggest that many pupils felt more strongly about the lesson content in phase two. The high rank given to the factor as a positive factor and as a negative factor suggested polarised opinions about the lesson content. (6) It appeared that comparisons with other subjects were not regarded as a very important factor in either phase. However, comparisons with other subjects became more important in phase two, as the factor was ranked higher as both a positive and a negative factor. This appeared to support the earlier finding that views about school in general did not deteriorate as much as those about language lessons, but that opinions about both remained mainly positive in this group (see chart 4).

From this it appeared that factors related to social dynamics and interpersonal relationships, such as ‘teacher’, ‘friends’ and ‘behaviour’ were regarded as most important by the pupils in the process of forming an overall opinion about language lessons. There was evidence that factors related to the lesson content and practical value of the subject, such as ‘progress’ and ‘activities’, maintained a positive influence on the pupils’ opinions. There was also evidence that the impact of some factors, such as ‘teacher’ and ‘activities’ was judged in opposing ways by considerable numbers of pupils on either side, represented in the data by what appeared to be a polarisation effect with regard to these factors.

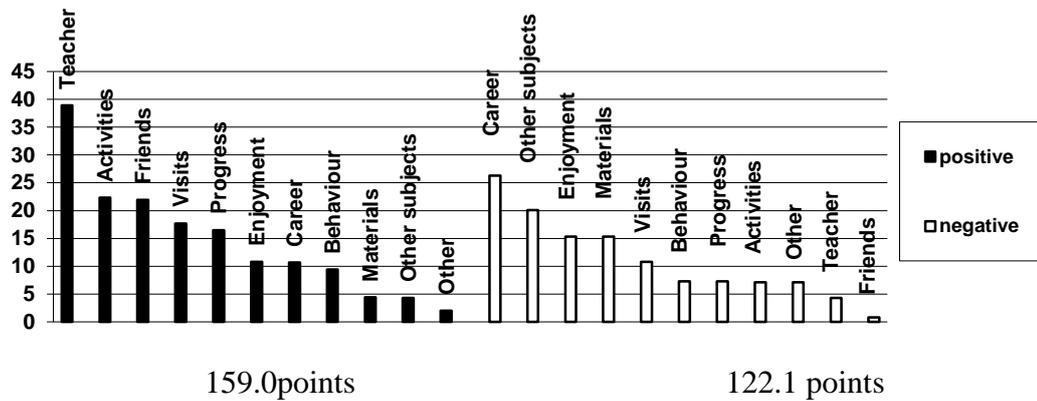
(ii) Group 2 – match with trend

The data generated by the group matching the trend appeared to suggest the following patterns: (1) The teacher was regarded as the most important positive factor in both phases. In phase one the teacher was ranked as an unimportant negative factor, but in phase two as the second most important negative factor. The pattern in the data suggested polarised opinions in phase two. This indicated a potential breakdown in pupil-teacher relationships for some pupils, while others maintained a positive relationship. (2) The factor ‘activities’ appeared in a high position in the ranking of the positive factors in both phases, accumulating slightly fewer points in phase two. Dissatisfaction with the activities did not appear to be an important factor in phase one, but in phase two the activities were ranked as the most important negative factor. This suggested that dissatisfaction with the lesson content became more important in phase two. This supported the finding of an overall downscale slide into negativity in the opinions about the subject suggested in the earlier stage of the analysis. The data suggested polarised views about the activities in phase two. (3) The lack of importance of the subject for future careers was perceived to be the most important negative factor in phase one. In phase two ‘teacher’ and ‘activities’ were considered to be more important negative factors than ‘career’. This suggested that the negativity was focussed on the more immediate factors related to the classroom situation in phase two rather than future career prospects. (4) Having friends in the class was considered as a very important positive factor in both phases. In phase two having friends was ranked higher as a positive factor than in phase one, while not having friends was ranked as the least

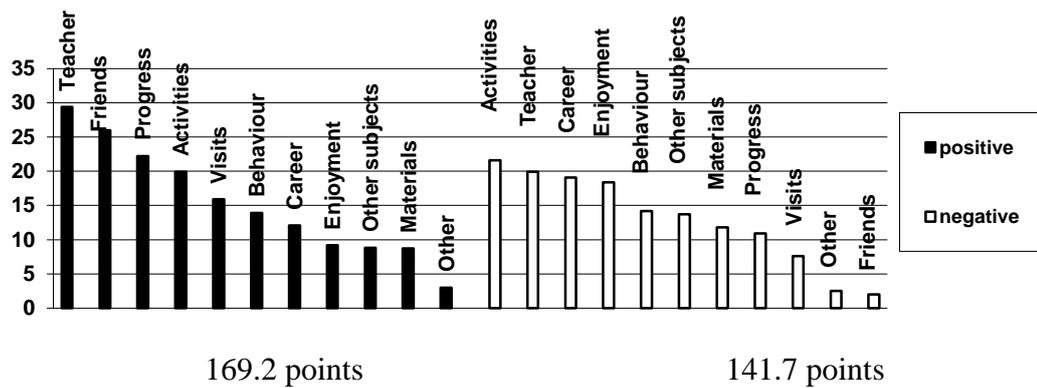
important factor in both phases. Overall this appeared to suggest that social interactions with the peer group were perceived as increasingly important in phase two.

Chart 5: Group 2 (A-GM1) – match with trend - ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data

Phase 1



Phase 2



(5) In both phases lack of enjoyment of the subject was ranked among the most important negative factors, while enjoyment as a positive factor was given minor importance. This suggested a mainly negative view of the subject and its learning content from the beginning, which may have contributed to the overall slide into negativity as represented in the rating-scales data. (6) The perceived higher enjoyment

of other subjects was the second most important negative factor in phase one. In phase two the factor 'other subjects' was less important, but making comparisons with other subjects was an unimportant positive factor in language lessons in both phases. This appeared to support the trend observed in the rating scales data that the opinions about school in general remained more positive than those about the subject (see chart 5).

It appeared that the most influential factors in the process of opinion formation in this group were related to the immediate classroom situation, i.e. the classroom dynamics ('teacher', 'friends') and the lesson content ('activities'), while factors relating to the wider context ('career') appeared to have become less important as the academic year progressed. It appeared that opinions about the impact of some of the most influential factors, namely 'teacher' and 'activities', were divided. This appeared to indicate a breakdown in teacher-pupil relationships and disaffection with the subject for some pupils, while other pupils retained their enthusiasm for teacher and subject. The data suggested that there was a lack of enjoyment of the subject from the beginning, which may have contributed to the slide into negativity in the opinions about the subject as indicated by the rating-scales data.

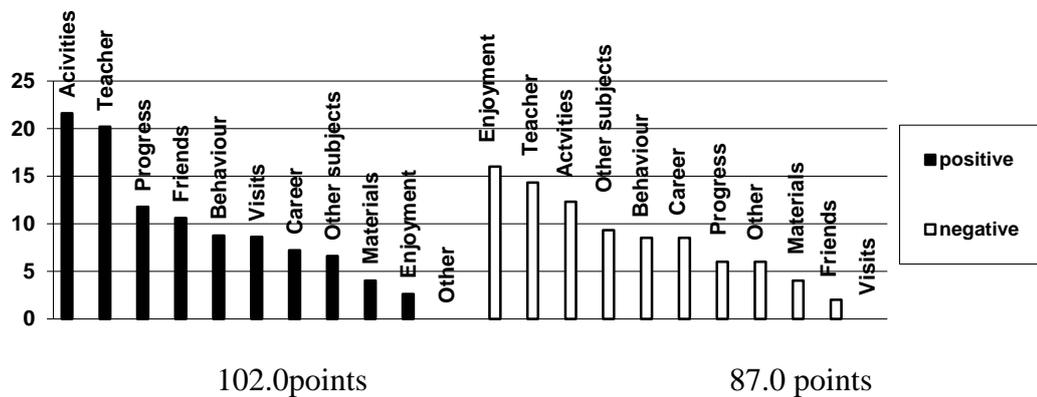
(iii) Group 3 – more negative

The data generated by the group displaying higher-than-average negativity suggested the following patterns: (1) The teacher was perceived as a very important positive factor by some pupils but perceived as a very important negative factor by others. The pattern in the data suggested a degree of polarisation in the opinions about the teacher, although

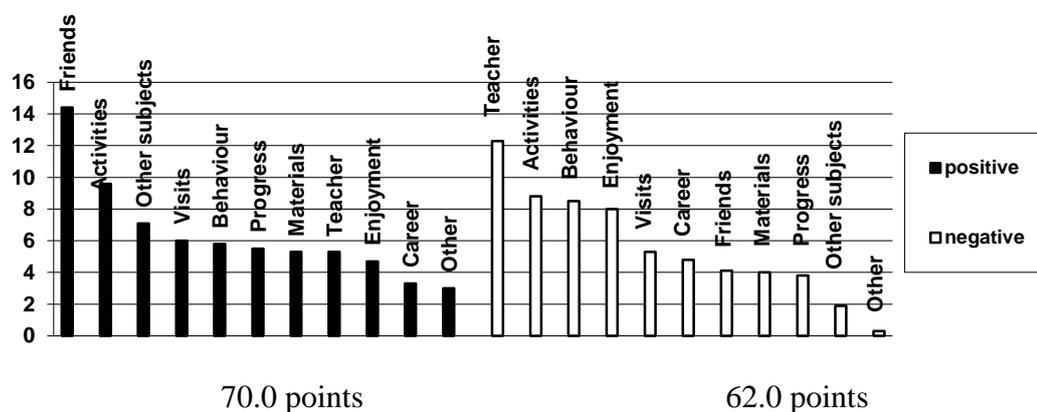
the positive weighting attached to the factor was slightly stronger than the negative weighting. In phase two the teacher was ranked as the most important negative factor and appeared to be regarded as fairly unimportant as a positive factor. This seemed to suggest a breakdown of pupil-teacher relationships for many pupils and may have been related to the higher than average negativity in this group.

Chart 6: Group 3 (C-GM3) – more negative – ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data

Phase 1



Phase 2



(2) The activities were ranked as the most important positive factor in phase one, however, some pupils regarded the activities as an important negative factor. It appeared

that there was a great amount of acknowledgement of the lesson content as well as dissatisfaction. The data suggested that this trend was intensified in phase two, as the activities were now ranked as the second most important factor with regard to their positive as well as their negative impact. That is, there appeared to be a trend towards increasingly polarised opinions. (3) Having friends in the class was ranked as having a moderately positive impact in phase one and not having friends was regarded as fairly unimportant. In phase two having friends was the most important positive factor and not having friends was ranked higher among the negative factors than before. This appeared to indicate that social dynamics within the peer group were regarded as a very important factor in phase two. (4) Lack of enjoyment of the subject was ranked as the most important negative factor in phase one and as an unimportant positive factor. In phase two lack of enjoyment was considered to be an important negative factor, but factors relating to social dynamics and classroom interactions ('teacher', 'behaviour') appeared higher in the ranking of negative factors. This lent further support to the assumption that interpersonal relationships had become increasingly important to the pupils by phase two. (5) Comparisons with other school subjects were ranked as moderately important as a negative factor in phase one and fairly unimportant as a positive factor. In phase two the factor 'other subjects' was regarded as more important with regard to its positive impact than before, while its negative impact was perceived as unimportant. This supported the trend towards overall higher than average negativity in this group, as it indicated that school in general was not perceived as more positive than language lessons in phase two, which would have been the expectation with groups matching the trend or displaying higher-than-average positivity (see chart 6).

From this it seemed that the factors with the strongest impact on the opinions in this group were related to the immediate classroom situation and dynamics. These were ‘teacher’, ‘friends’, ‘activities’ and ‘enjoyment’. It appeared that factors related to interpersonal relationships were regarded as more important in phase two (‘teacher’ and ‘friends’) than factors related to the subject content (‘activities’ and ‘enjoyment’). As far as factors related to the subject content are concerned, it seemed that factors with immediate motivational value, i.e. ‘activities’ and ‘enjoyment’, were perceived as more important than more long-term motivational factors, such as ‘career’ and ‘visits’. The data suggested a pattern of polarisation with regard to the opinions about some of the factors relevant to creating the immediate classroom experience in language lessons (‘teacher’, ‘activities’) in phase one, with many pupils holding an either very positive or very negative opinion about these. It appeared possible that the occurrence of polarised opinions about factors related to the overall experience of the subject at the beginning of the academic year may have facilitated a slide into negativity as the year progressed.

4.1.6.2. Conclusion

The analysis of the ranking-questions data generated by the three selected groups appeared to support the following conclusions with regard to the emergence of group cultures: (1) It appeared that the pupils perceived factors related to interpersonal relationships and group dynamics as having particular importance in the process of forming an opinion about language lessons in all three groups. This was represented in the high rankings given to the factors ‘teacher’, ‘friends’ and ‘behaviour’ as both positive and negative factors. With regard to the factor ‘teacher’ it appeared that the

pupils in all three groups initially perceived the teacher as a very important positive factor, but increasingly associated the teacher with negative opinions as the academic year progressed. The data appeared to indicate varying patterns of polarisation in the opinions about the teacher in all three groups and in the cases of group 2 and group 3 an apparent breakdown in teacher-pupil relationships for many pupils. That is, the apparent extent of dissatisfaction with the teacher was higher in the groups displaying an overall slide into negativity. This suggested that the pupils' opinions of the teacher may have been related to their opinions of the subject overall. As far as the factor 'friends' is concerned it appeared that the pupils in all three groups considered having friends as an increasingly important positive factor as the year progressed, and perceived having friends to be one of the most important positive factors by phase two. This suggested that the extent to which the pupils regarded having friends as a positive factor was not related to the emergence of particular group cultures. However, the patterns indicated in the data suggested that the increase in positivity associated with having friends was opposed to an increase in negativity associated with the teacher (this was reflected in the profiles of some pupils, see below, section 4.2.2., e.g. group 3, 'Lucy' and 'Sophia'). This effect appeared to be most pronounced in the negative groups and suggested that the extent of potential tensions between peer group dynamics and teacher-pupil dynamics may have been related to overall more negative outcomes. With regard to the factor 'behaviour' it appeared that the pupils in all three groups perceived the negative impact of poor behaviour as increasingly important. However, only the pupils in the more positive group ranked poor behaviour as the most important negative factor in both phases. It appeared possible to interpret this as evidence of varying degrees of tolerance towards poor behaviour rather than varying degrees of poor behaviour in the

different groups. That is, it appeared that less tolerance of bad behaviour, as, for example, represented by a core group of pupils with a positive attitude, was potentially related to overall more positive outcomes. (2) It appeared that the pupils in all three groups perceived factors related to lesson and learning content as less important than factors related to social interactions. As far as the factors related to subject and learning content are concerned it appeared that the factors related to the immediate classroom experience, 'progress', 'enjoyment', and 'activities', were overall regarded as more important than those related to more practical or material aspects, 'career', 'visits', and 'materials'. It seemed that the pupils in the more positive group remained overall more positive with regard to factors related to the immediate lesson content, while it appeared that the pupils in the two groups sliding into negativity overall perceived these as increasingly losing positive impact. The decline of 'progress' as an important factor in the lower ability set (group 3) appeared to be particularly striking, while it remained relatively important for the two upper sets (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.1.2). This appeared to confirm the importance of the immediate classroom experience and atmosphere in maintaining positivity, but suggested that more practical and material aspects had little impact on the forming of opinions and positive group cultures (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.1.5.). (3) The data suggested a potential relationship between the intensity in the weightings attached to the factors, as represented in the relative height of the bars in the chart, and the emergence of group cultures. It appeared that the pupils in the negative groups tended towards attaching more intense weightings to the factors perceived as most important, in comparison to the next lower rank, than those in the more positive group, so that there was a bigger gap in intensity between the most important factors and those ranked below them. That is, the bar charts indicated a

less even distribution of weightings in the more negative groups. It thus appeared possible that there was a relationship between the pupils feeling particularly strongly about single factors and the occurrence of negative group cultures (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.1.2.). (4) As indicated above in section 4.1.1. the analysis of the rating-scales data suggested the occurrence of a widespread motivational dip. This finding was based on the pupils' ratings of their enjoyment of language lessons. The ranking of the factor 'enjoyment' in the three selected groups appeared to broadly confirm this trend, as, overall, 'lack of enjoyment' was perceived as an increasingly important factor by phase two. Also, it appeared that the ranking of the factor 'enjoyment' vaguely reflected the different group cultures in that the data suggested different starting points and outcomes with regard to the slide into negativity for each group. That is, the data generated by the more positive group appeared to indicate reduced enjoyment, rather than a slide into widespread negativity, while the pupils in the two negative groups indicated a general lack of enjoyment in both phases. However, while supporting previous findings the ranking questions data suggested greater complexity. That is, the ranking of the factor 'enjoyment' in the most negative group did not indicate increasing negativity in phase two, as suggested by the overall trend. It appeared, rather, that the pupils in this group perceived specific factors, such as the teacher, as having a bigger impact on generating negativity. (5) It appeared that some factors divided opinions (polarisation), especially the factors 'teacher' and 'activities'; in the more positive group also 'enjoyment'. In group 1 and in group 2 this effect appeared to have developed between the two phases, in group 3 it was already present in phase one. It appeared possible that divided opinions about certain factors affected group dynamics negatively and that this was perhaps related to overall higher

negativity. (6) My analytical decision to represent weightings through a points system suggested that the pupils in all three groups were more likely to assign importance to positive factors than negative ones, as the positive factors accumulated more points than the negative ones in both phases. This was least pronounced in the group with above-average negativity. This appeared to confirm that the pupils in the more negative groups were more likely to express negative opinions, but overall did not fit the pattern of positivity and negativity in the groups.

The analysis of the ranking questions data generated by the three selected groups thus suggested that the emergence of group cultures was a result of complex interactions of various factors. In particular, the data appeared to partially contradict previous findings by suggesting a relationship between perceptions of the teacher and the occurrence of negative group cultures and by raising questions about the possibility of measuring overall levels of positivity and negativity through the factor 'enjoyment'. This, in combination with the emerging importance of interpersonal dynamics in the immediate classroom situation and the apparent focus on single factors in some groups appeared to suggest that the emergence of particular group cultures was potentially related to attributions of success and failure with particular factors or clusters of factors which varied in the different groups. Drawing on elements of Attribution Theory, Weiner (1986 and 1992), particularly the assumption that an individual's motivation with regard to a given learning situation may depend on attributions of success or failure with uncontrollable factors, such as (lack of) ability, or controllable factors, such as (lack of) effort, for example, it appeared possible that the emergence of negative group cultures was related to some pupils attributing their perceived failure or lack of progress to

factors which they perceived as out of their control, such as the teacher (see Dörnyei, 2003: 8).

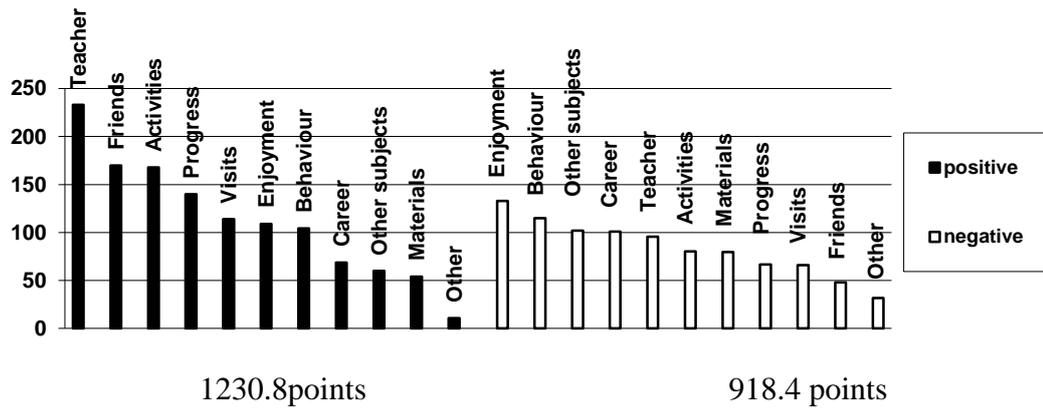
4.1.6.3. Ranking of factors in overall raw data

The analysis of the ranking of factors in the groups was based on relatively small numbers of instances and therefore it was possible that rankings made by individual pupils had an exaggerated effect on the results. In order to introduce a measure to compare the group data against, I established the ranking of factors in the overall raw data.

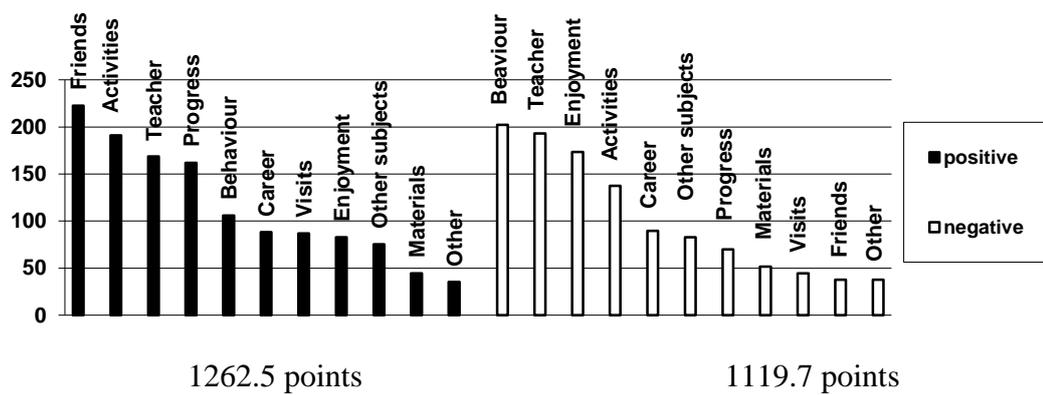
This produced the following results: (1) The teacher was perceived as the most important positive factor in phase one, but did not have a particularly strong influence as a negative factor. In phase two opinions about the teacher appeared to be more polarised. The teacher was ranked as the second most important negative factor, but it seemed that a lot of pupils perceived the teacher as an important positive factor. This appeared to indicate that a potential breakdown in teacher-pupil relationships for many pupils may have occurred, while others may have maintained a positive relationship with the teacher. It also suggested that the relationship with the teacher was perceived as very important by many pupils. (2) Having friends in the class was a very important positive factor for many pupils in phase one, becoming the most important positive factor by phase two. This appeared to confirm the perceived high importance of the social dynamics within the peer group in the estimations of overall enjoyment of the classroom experience.

Chart 7: Overall raw data – ranking and relative weighting of factors

Phase 1



Phase 2



(3) The relative weightings attached to the factor ‘behaviour’ as both a positive and a negative factor in phase one suggested polarised opinions. However, it appeared that negative behaviour was perceived as more important than positive behaviour, as negative behaviour was ranked as the second most important negative factor. In phase two ‘behaviour’ was perceived as the most important negative factor. This appeared to confirm the perceived high importance of classroom interactions and indicated that the perceived impact of negative behaviour on classroom interactions may have increased by phase two. (4) The activities were regarded as an important positive factor in both phases. However, it appeared that the negative impact of the factor increased in phase

two. This suggested an increased disaffection with the learning content, perceived by some pupils in phase two. (5) The data suggested a degree of polarisation with regard to the factor 'enjoyment' in phase one. However, 'lack of enjoyment' was ranked as the most important negative factor, but not as the most important positive factor. In phase two the weighting attached to 'lack of enjoyment' was greater than the weighting attached to its positive impact. This appeared to confirm the trend that the pupils' overall enjoyment of language lessons decreased as the academic year progressed and that negative perceptions of the subject were more common than positive ones by phase two. (6) The ranking of the factor 'progress' in both phases suggested that many pupils perceived the progress they were making as a positive influence, while a decreasing number of pupils perceived a lack of progress as negative. The rankings and weightings of the factor appeared to be fairly consistent in both phases. This indicated that perceptions of making progress remained consistently important as a motivating factor. (7) Comparisons with other subjects appeared to have a greater negative impact than a positive one in phase one. While the factor still had little positive impact in phase two, its negative impact appeared to be reduced, as the relative weightings attached to the factor indicated polarisation of opinions. This appeared to confirm the trend of reduced enthusiasm for school in general by phase two. (8) My decision to represent the weightings attached to the factors through points scores suggested that in phase two more weighting was attached to negative factors than in phase one, while the weightings attached to positive factors appeared to remain fairly similar in both phases. Although there may have been various explanations for this effect, such as variations in the sample, number of responses, etc., this appeared to confirm the overall increase in negativity as suggested by the earlier findings. Also, the data indicated increasing

polarisation in the intensity of positive and negative perceptions. That is, while the intensity of positive perceptions appeared to be stronger than the intensity of negative perceptions in phase one, in phase two the overall intensity of positive and negative opinions was equally strong (see chart 7).

4.1.6.4. Conclusion

In conclusion it appeared that the overall raw data mainly supported my interpretation of the groups data. That is, they suggested that the pupils perceived the factors related to the social dynamics of the immediate classroom situation, ‘teacher’, ‘friends’ and ‘behaviour’, as having the greatest impact on determining their opinions of the lessons. As in the groups’ data, the apparent increase in negative estimations of the teacher indicated a potential relationship with the general trend towards negativity in the opinions about the subject. The overall data also suggested that the social dynamics within the peer group were perceived as increasingly important. While the data suggested that many pupils identified disruptive behaviour as an increasingly negative influence on their enjoyment of the lessons, having friends was apparently perceived as increasingly important as a positive influence. It appeared possible to explain this effect with potential divisions between friendship groups, namely those who continued to enjoy the lessons and those who became progressively disaffected with the subject and displayed disruptive behaviour. This trend in the overall data was not confirmed consistently in the selected groups, suggesting more complex variations of group dynamics at class level. Like the groups data, the overall data indicated increasingly polarised opinions about particular factors, especially the teacher and the activities,

which appeared to provide further evidence for potential tensions in the dynamics of the group. The overall data also appeared to confirm that within the factors related to the lesson content the pupils regarded the factors related to the immediate classroom situation and atmosphere as more important than those relating to the more material aspects. The ranking of the factor 'enjoyment' in the overall data suggested that an increasing number of pupils experienced a lack of enjoyment as the academic year progressed and thus supported the finding that a motivational dip did occur. However, in contrast to the earlier findings, the ranking question data suggested a lower starting point in the development of widespread negativity, indicating that the pupils may have interpreted the term 'enjoyment' differently in the two questions. I decided that it was likely that the pupils perceived interactions of various factors as generating enjoyment or a lack of enjoyment and that the rank-order question allowed for more diverse responses, thus providing further evidence for the impact on pupils' motivation of attributions of success or failure with particular factors or clusters of factors. Also, it appeared that the overall rank-order data supported the finding that the pupils made particularly strong attributions with some factors, represented in an uneven distribution of relative weightings in the bar chart. The data suggested that positive opinions were particularly strongly attributed to the teacher in phase one. The ranking of the factor 'progress' indicated a sustained positive influence of feelings of self-worth and self-efficacy on the motivation of a core group of pupils who remained positive with regard to the subject and its learning content.

4.1.6.5. Ranking of factors in selected groups: comparable data

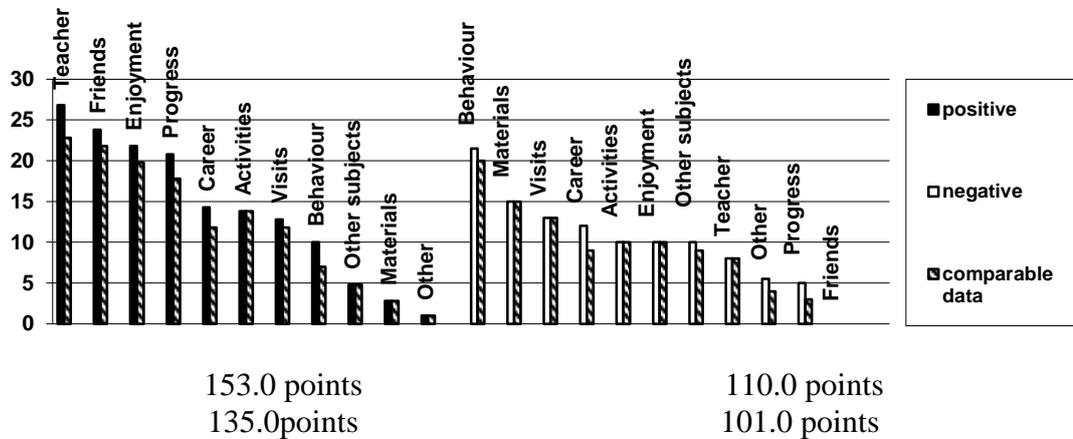
I repeated the analytical steps undertaken in the previous section with the comparable data in order to gain an insight into the extent of the impact on the results from changes in the sample. The following presents the results of a comparison of raw and comparable data. In the analysis I accounted for sample changes at different levels, e.g. sample changes at class level may not have affected sample changes at cohort level.

(i) Group 1 – more positive

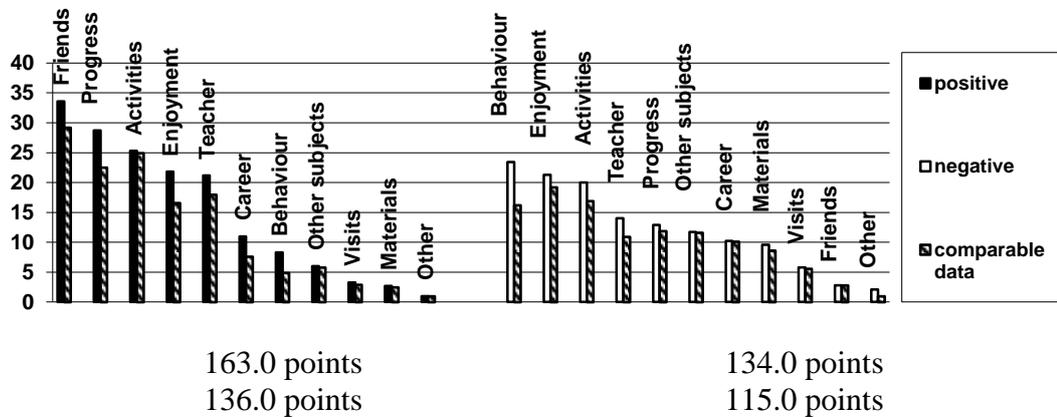
A comparison of the raw and comparable data suggested the following results for group 1: (1) In phase one the rankings were nearly identical in the raw and comparable data. The factor ‘career’ emerged as less important from the comparable data as both, a positive and a negative factor. (2) The phase two data suggested more pronounced variations in the rankings. It appeared that the comparable sample remained less critical of the teacher and regarded behaviour issues as less important, ranking poor behaviour lower than lack of enjoyment and non-engaging activities in the list of negative factors. The comparable sample also appeared to regard the positive impact of the factor ‘progress’ as less important than suggested by the raw data. That is, it appeared that the pupils who joined the group in phase two accounted for some of the criticism of teacher and behaviour apparent from the raw data, as well as the positive impact of making progress (see chart 8).

Chart 8: Group 1 (E-GM1) – more positive – ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data and comparable data

Phase 1



Phase 2



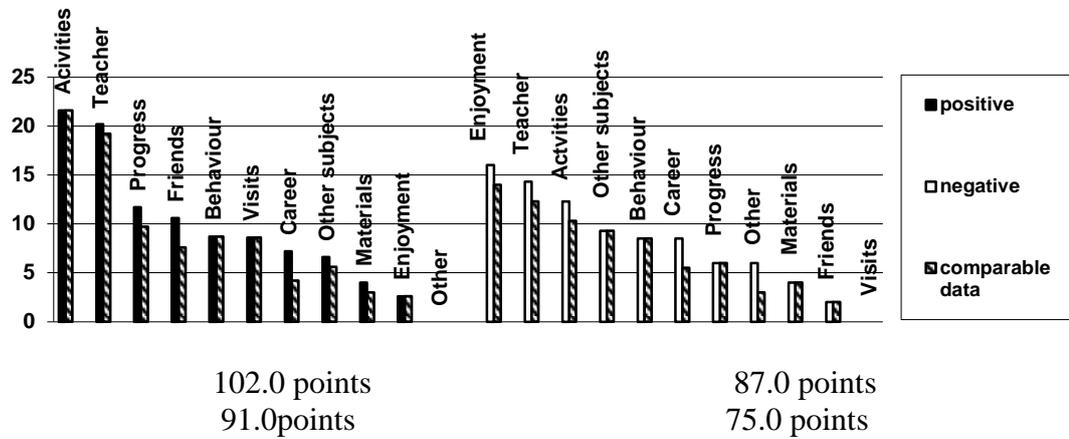
(ii) Group 2 – match with trend

The data suggested the following results group 2: (1) Raw and comparable data produced nearly identical rankings in phase one. In the list of negative factors, the pupils’ own contributions (‘other’) were ranked as more important in the comparable data than suggested by the raw data.

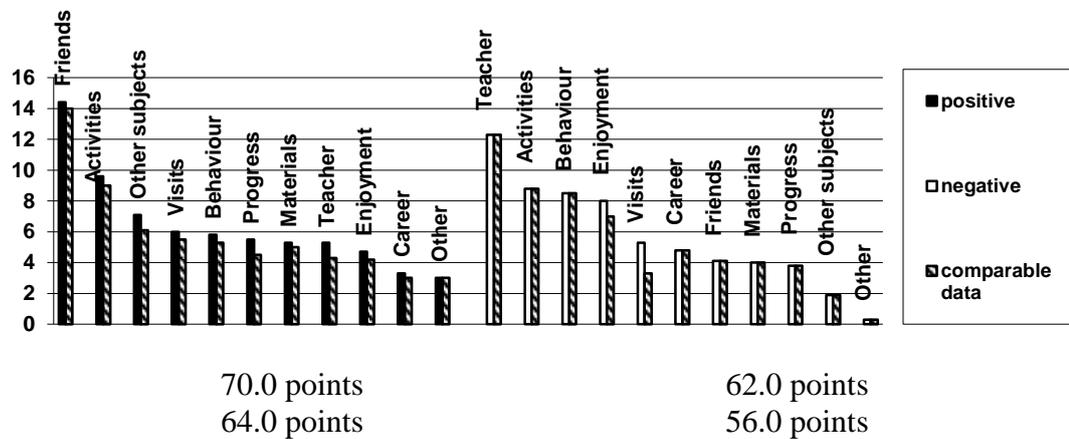
(iii) Group 3 – more negative

Chart 10: Group 3 (C-GM3) – more negative - ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw data and comparable data

Phase 1



Phase 2



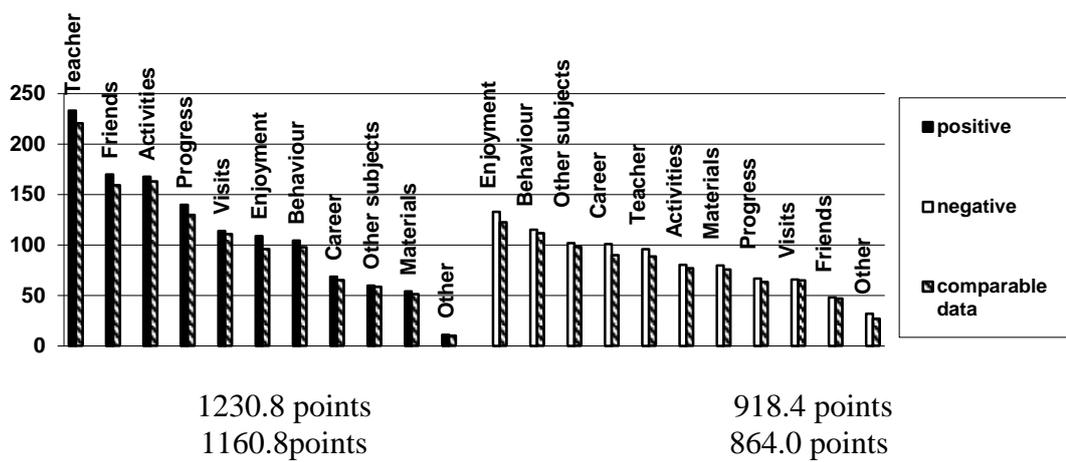
The analysis suggested the following for group 3: (1) There were no differences in the rankings of the most influential positive and negative factors in either of the two phases. (2) The phase one data suggested that the comparable sample attached less importance to the factor ‘career’ as both a positive and negative factor and to the positive impact of having friends as suggested by the raw data. (3) The raw data suggested a stronger

impact of ‘progress’ as a positive factor and ‘visits’ as a negative factor. The analysis indicated that not many changes in the sample had taken place, but highlighted the potential impact of individuals on this scale (see chart 10).

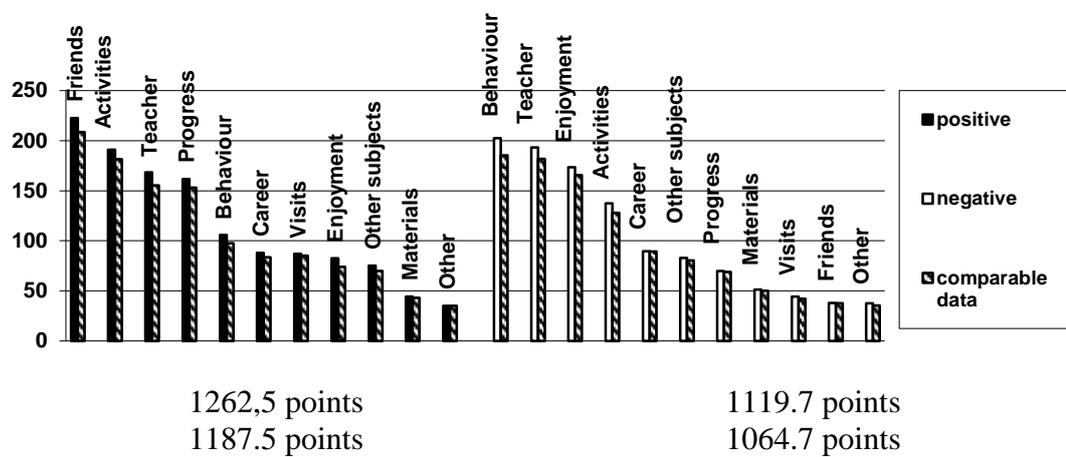
4.1.6.6. Ranking of factors in overall comparable data

Chart 11: Overall data - ranking and relative weighting of factors in raw and comparable data

Phase 1



Phase 2



A comparison of the raw and comparable data suggested the following results for the overall data: (1) There appeared to be very little difference in the ranking of factors in the raw and comparable data. (2) In phase one, it appeared that the factors ‘friends’ and ‘enjoyment’ were ranked lower on the list of positive factors by the comparable sample than suggested by the raw data. Also, the comparable data suggested that ‘progress’ was perceived as less important as a negative factor, than the raw data indicated. (3) In phase one, the raw data suggested a slightly stronger positive impact of the factor ‘career’ than the comparable data (see chart 11).

4.1.6.7. Conclusion

I concluded that the analysis provided confirmation of the raw data results. Differences between raw data and comparable data were more likely to occur at class level than in the combined data. This was to be expected due to the small number of participants and indicated that group cultures needed to be considered as groups of individuals rather than anonymous sets of data. Despite this, the data appeared to highlight again the perceived importance of factors related to social interactions and the dynamics of the classroom, such as ‘teacher’, ‘friends’, ‘behaviour’, through the contributions of movers.

4.1.6.8. Elements of the Dynamic Systems Approach reflected in the findings

I designed the ranking questions to gather data which could be interpreted using elements of the Dynamic Systems Approach (see above, chapter 3, section 3.7.2.3.).

The analysis of the data appeared to support the following overall conclusions: (1) It was possible to identify factors in the data that acted as attractors and repellers as well as attractor and repeller conglomerates. There appeared to be variations depending on the scale of the data under investigation. (2) Clusters of factors or attractor and repeller conglomerates with apparently strong influence included factors related to the social dynamics of the classroom situation, contributing to perceptions of ‘classroom atmosphere’ by merging for example the factors ‘teacher’, ‘friends’ and ‘behaviour’. (3) It was possible to identify single factors which acted as both attractors and repellers simultaneously. This was represented in the pupils’ polarised opinions about these factors. It appeared possible to explain this through attributions made by individuals or groups of individuals. Polarisation occurred particularly with regard to the factors ‘teacher’ and ‘activities’. (4) There was some evidence for strong attractors and repellers, represented in an uneven distribution of weightings attached to single factors. Strong attractors or repellers appeared to be mostly factors related to social dynamics, such as ‘teacher’ and ‘friends’. The occurrence of strong attractors and repellers was potentially related to the occurrence of more negativity. (5) There was some evidence for attractor and repeller states, i.e. factors were perceived as either attractors or repellers at different points in time. This appeared to be the case for the teacher, for example. The main constraint was that the time interval was too long for the original conception of DSA (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.2.1.).

4.1.7. Use of ‘voice’ in ranking questions

As described above in chapter 3, section 3.7.2.3. I gave the pupils the opportunity to include their own factors in the ranking, by providing a lined, blank space next to the word ‘OTHER’ where the pupils could add one or more factors, if they wished to do so (the questionnaires can be found in appendix 1, tables 1.6. and 1.7.).

Table 13: ‘OTHER’ contributions in overall data

Phase 1										Phase 2									
positive					negative					positive					negative				
#	P#	M/F	group	pts.	#	P#	M/F	group	pts.	#	P#	M/F	group	pts.	#	P#	M/F	group	pts.
1	114	F	J-FR2	1/2	1	22	M	B-GM2	3	1	41	M	C-GM3	3	1	1	F	B-GM2	1
2	165	M	A-GM1	1	2	37	F	C-GM3	3	2	81	F	I-FR1	2	2	9	F	B-GM2	2
3	175	M	A-GM1	1	3	45	M	C-GM3	3	3	123	M	I-FR1	3	3	41	M	C-GM3	1/3
4	205	F	H-FR1	1 1/2	4	88	M	I-FR1	3	4	144	F	K-FR3	3	4	63	F	I-FR1	1
5	208	M	H-FR1	1 1/2	5	94	F	J-FR2	1/10	5	145	M	A-GM1	1	5	65	M	I-FR1	3
6	240	F	E-GM1	1	6	104	F	J-FR2	1/9	6	159	M	B-GM2	3	6	74	F	I-FR1	3
7	282	F	F-GM2	1	7	148	M	A-GM1	3	7	163	F	A-GM1	1	7	91	F	J-FR2	1
8	283	F	F-GM2	1/10	8	150	F	A-GM1	1/10	8	164	F	A-GM1	1	8	98	F	J-FR2	3
9	307	F	D-GM4	1/4	9	157	F	A-GM1	1	9	176	M	H-FR1	2	9	101	F	J-FR2	2
10	335	M	G-GM3	3	10	163	F	A-GM1	3	10	194	M	H-FR1	2	10	103	F	J-FR2	1 1/2
11					11	191	M	H-FR1	1	11	197	M	H-FR1	1	11	105	M	J-FR2	3
12					12	194	M	H-FR1	1	12	201	F	H-FR1	3/4	12	129	M	K-FR3	3
13					13	201	F	H-FR1	3	13	231	F	E-GM1	1	13	144	F	K-FR3	3
14					14	205	F	H-FR1	1 1/2	14	267	M	F-GM2	1	14	170	F	A-GM1	1 1/2
15					15	206	F	H-FR1	3/10	15	281	F	F-GM2	3	15	176	M	H-FR1	1
16					16	217	F	E-GM1	3	16	285	M	F-GM2	1	16	194	M	H-FR1	1
17					17	224	M	E-GM1	1 1/2	17	302	M	D-GM4	2	17	198	F	H-FR1	1 1/2
18					18	229	M	E-GM1	1	18	314	M	D-GM4	1	18	201	F	H-FR1	1 1/2
19					19	283	F	F-GM2	1/10	19	321	F	G-GM3	2	19	210	M	E-GM1	1
20					20	336	M	G-GM3	1/9	20	335	M	G-GM3	1 1/2	20	231	F	E-GM1	1
21					21					21					21	284	F	E-GM1	1/8
22					22					22					22	314	M	D-GM4	1
23					23					23					23	339	M	A-GM1	1
Total points: 10 6/7					Total points: 31 5/6					Total points: 35 1/2					Total points: 37 1/2				

The points in the table indicate the rank attached to the factors: ‘MI’ = 3 pts., ‘VI’ = 2 pts., ‘I’ = 1 pt.; fractions are a result of multiple nominations within the same rank

This would help me tease out new factors and provide me with a rough measure for ‘use of voice’ and the level of engagement with the researcher, as well as the exhaustiveness

of the list of factors I provided. I only included usable contributions in the analysis that appeared to represent new ideas. The comment ‘The teacher picks on me’, for example, would have been subsumed under the factor ‘teacher’ in the previous stage of the analysis, rather than being regarded as a new factor.

From the data obtained through this I established the following: (1) The number and weighting (see above, section 4.1.6.) of positive and negative ‘OTHER’ contributions in the overall data and in commonly researched sub-samples, namely ‘gender’, ‘ability’ and ‘language’. (2) Any new themes represented in the data. (3) The number and weighting of positive and negative contributions in the data generated by the three groups, selected to represent particular group cultures and the themes emerging from these groups (see table 13).

4.1.7.1. Use of ‘voice’ in overall data

An analysis of the number and weighting of positive and negative ‘OTHER’ contributions in the overall data (see table 7) suggested the following: (1) The number of negative factors contributed was larger than the number of positive ones in both phases. (2) Also, it appeared that the pupils regarded the negative factors they contributed as more important than the positive ones. This was reflected in the weightings attached to positive and negative factors in both phases. (3) The pupils were more likely to add factors of their own in phase two and it appeared that they felt more strongly about their contributions, i.e. the pupils’ responses indicated that they had included fewer factors in the ranking in phase two, which increased the weighting of

each selected factor. However, there was also a slightly increased overall questionnaire participation in phase two (see above, section 4.1.1.). (4) The numbers and weightings of the own factors added indicated a much higher level of negativity in phase one than in phase two. That is, in phase one there were twice as many negative factors than positive ones. The weightings attached to the negative contributions were three times the weightings attached to the positive comments. In phase two, numbers and weightings of positive and negative own factors contributed were almost at a similar level, potentially indicating a higher degree of positivity.

4.1.7.2. Use of 'voice' in gender sub-samples

The gender-specific data indicated the following: (1) In phase one, six girls and four boys added positive factors and eleven girls and nine boys negative ones. In phase two, eight girls and 12 boys contributed positive factors, while 14 girls and nine boys made negative comments. (2) There was no obvious pattern regarding the weightings attached to factors by the different sexes. (3) Overall, it appeared that the girls were more likely to add their own factors. However, in phase two the majority of positive contributions was made by boys. This was contrary to suggestions in the literature that boys are more likely to become disaffected with MFL (e.g. Coleman *et al.*, 2007) (see table 13).

4.1.7.3. Use of 'voice' in ability sub-samples

The following results emerged with regard to factors added by pupils from different ability sets: (1) In phase one, eight of the ten pupils adding positive factors and 17 out of

the 20 adding negative ones belonged to higher-ability sets (sets 1 and 2). In phase two, 14 out of the 20 positive contributions and 19 of the 23 negative ones were made by pupils from higher-ability sets. That is, the pupils in the higher-ability sets were more likely to add factors of their own than pupils in the lower sets. (2) There was no obvious pattern within the weightings attached to factors by pupils from different ability sets. (3) There was a noticeable increase in the number and weighting of positive contributions from both, higher and lower ability sets in phase two. This did not appear to support the earlier finding of an overall trend towards increased negativity towards the subject in phase two (see above, section 4.1.1.) (see table 13).

4.1.7.4. Use of 'voice' in language sub-samples

The language-specific data suggested the following: (1) In phase one pupils learning German added seven positive and 12 negative factors of their own, i.e. they accounted for two thirds of all contributions. Pupils learning French added three positive and eight negative factors. (2) In phase two, 13 positive and nine negative factors were contributed by pupils learning German, while seven positive and 14 negative factors were contributed by pupils learning French. That is, pupils learning French and German were equally likely to add factors of their own. (3) The data generated by the pupils learning German appeared to indicate an increase in positivity in phase two, as the number of positive contributions increased in phase two while they added fewer negative factors than before. (4) While the pupils learning French expressed both, more positive and negative opinions in phase two, the data suggested an increase in

negativity. (5) No obvious pattern emerged from the language-specific data regarding the weightings attached to factors (see table 13).

4.1.7.5. Conclusion

In conclusion the data appeared to suggest the following: (1) Overall, pupils who chose to add factors of their own appeared to have been more likely to make a negative comment than a positive one. (2) Also, it appeared that the pupils felt more strongly about the negative contributions they made than about the positive ones. This was represented in overall higher importance attached to negative factors. This seemed to reflect the theme of negativity that had emerged from the earlier stages of the analysis with regard to opinions of MFL. (3) However, the data did not appear to confirm an overall trend towards increased negativity by phase two. It appeared that the average amount of points per contribution, i.e. the total number of points per positives and negatives columns and phase, divided by the number of factors added, indicated that in phase one the negatives outweighed the positives by a factor of 1.5, while the individual weighting attached to positive and negative contributions was fairly similar in phase two. Also, numbers of positive and negative factors added in phase two were fairly similar, while in phase one there were twice as many negative contributions than positive ones. That is, the overall data appeared to be more representative of increased polarisation than a slide into negativity. (4) The data suggested that numbers of contributions increased by nearly 50% in phase two, from 30 to 43. Despite slightly increased participation in the survey in phase two (figures indicating participation can be found above, section 4.1.1.) it appeared possible that this was potential evidence for a

progressive opinion-forming processes, i.e. some pupils may have been unsure about their opinions in phase one, but may have felt more confident to express their opinions at the later time in the academic year. (5) There was some evidence of gender-, ability- and language- (French vs. German) related patterns. It was imaginable that the set-up of the question (open-ended, free text, articulating of own ideas) appealed more to some of the sub-groupings within the sample (girls, higher ability sets, etc.), but due to uneven numbers in the sub-groupings I decided that it was impossible to identify any trends reliably. (6) The analysis of the rankings and weightings given to the pupils' own factors in the combined data indicated that these consistently appeared among the least important factors (see above, tables 15 and 19). Although the ranking questions had not been specifically designed to test the exhaustiveness of the list of factors I provided in the questionnaires, I concluded that the ten factors I had chosen were appropriate to the task. (7) The numbers of own factors added compared with overall participation in the survey revealed that about 11% of the pupils had contributed factors in phase one and 15% in phase two. Given the context of the study within the compulsory school sector and the age group of the pupils I believed that this indicated a good level of engagement with the research.

4.1.7.6. Themes within expressions of 'voice'

In this section I describe approach and findings of the thematic analysis I carried out with the factors added by the pupils. As outlined above (this section), factors that I believed could be subsumed under the list I provided the pupils with were not included in this part of the analysis. The aim of the analysis was therefore to develop any new

themes out of the data, by scanning the pupils' responses for common themes and grouping them together (The pupils' full responses can be found in appendix 2, table 2.61.). Figures in brackets in the following are code numbers used to identify individuals; see above, section 3.5.1. and 3.10.). I included the following types of responses: (1) Factors added by the pupils that represented new ideas, e.g. 'My family nows a bit of German' (240) suggested a new factor, namely reinforcement provided through the family. (2) Factors that suggested a degree of overlap with my factors, but I believed added a new dimension, e.g. 'Sit with mates' (321) seemed to add a new dimension to my factor 'friends', namely aspects such as 'seating plan', 'school rules' and potentially 'conflict with the teacher'.

As Robson (2002: 257-258) points out it is inevitable that some of the information is lost in the process of identifying themes and developing codes in open-ended questions. Following the recommendations I tried to minimise loss of intended meaning by closely bearing in mind the purpose of the question and by cross-checking other responses made by the same participant.

Where pupils had added a positive factor to the negative list, or vice versa, I recorded each comment in the data table where it was placed by the individual (see appendix 2, table 2.61.), but moved them into positives and negatives as I believed was intended later in the analysis. Some pupils addressed more than one factor in their contributions. In cases where comments appeared to relate to more than one theme, I treated them as different ideas in the analysis, e.g. 'Distractions, No fun things to do, people shouting out' (201) appeared to relate to behaviour issues and dissatisfaction with lesson content.

This meant that, in some parts of the analysis, some individuals contributed more than once to the data. Where pupils unambiguously referred to the same theme more than once, I regarded this as only one contribution, unless the object of the analysis demanded otherwise, e.g. where phase one and two were regarded separately. I then established numbers of occurrences of the emerging positive and negative themes. In a second step I split the data into the phases in order to search for any patterns.

(i) Positive themes

The following positive themes emerged from the pupils' own contributions (in order of frequency): (1) 'New experience or skill', (2) 'nothing is bad', (3) 'it is fun', (4) 'sitting with friends', (5) 'teaching methods', (6) 'success', (7) 'support from family', (8) 'general interest', (9) 'learning environment', (10) 'the class', (11) 'previous knowledge' (see table 14).

Table 14: Positive themes in order of frequency

Theme	Participant no. (M/F) group			
New experience / skill	81 (F) I-FR1	144 (F) K-FR3	145 (M) A-GM1	164 (F) A-GM1
Nothing is bad	22 (M) B-GM2	201 (F) H-FR1	234 (F) E-GM1	260 (F) L-FR4
It is fun	123 (M) A-GM1	159 (M) B-GM2	285 (M) F-GM2	
Sitting with friends	176 (M) H-FR1	194 (M) H-FR1	321 (F) G-GM3	
Teaching methods	114 (F) J-FR2	281 (F) F-GM2	307 (F) D-GM4	
Success	175 (M) A-GM1	335 (M) G-GM3		
Support from family	114 (F) J-FR2	240 (F) E-GM1		
General interest	165 (M) A-GM1			
Learning environment	201 (F) H-FR1			
The class	302 (M) D-GM4			
Previous knowledge	208 (M) H-FR1			

The table combines phase 1 and 2 data: where the same theme is addressed in both phases by the same individual, this appears only once in the table.

(ii) *Negative themes*

The following negative themes emerged from the data (in order of frequency): (1) ‘Nothing is good’, (2) ‘It is boring’, (3) ‘teaching methods’, (4) ‘It is hard’, (5) ‘practical issues’, (6) ‘classroom management’, (7) ‘the class’, (8) ‘the language as such’, (9) ‘not enough rewards’, (10) ‘not enough trips’, (11) ‘no-one listens to me’, (12) ‘other’ (see table 15).

Table 15: Negative themes in order of frequency

Theme	Participant no. / M/F / group									
Nothing is good	44 (M) C-GM3	61 (M) I- FR1	100 (F) J-FR2	101 (F) J-FR2	105 (M) J-FR2	177 (F) H-FR1	188 (F) H-FR1	190 (F) H-FR1	205 (F) H-FR1	343 (F) G-GM3
It is boring	63 (F) I-FR1	157 (F) A-GM1	176 (M) H-FR1	194 (M) H-FR1	201 (F) H-FR1	205 (F) H-FR1	210 (M) E-GM1			
Teaching methods	1 (F) B-GM2	37 (F) C-GM3	148 (M) A-GM1	170 (F) A-GM1	224 (M) E-GM1					
It is hard	74 (F) I-FR1	98 (F) J-FR2	144 (F) K-FR3	170 (F) A-GM1						
Practical issues	65 (M) I-FR1	191 (M) H-FR1	205 (F) H-FR1	229 (M) E-GM1						
Classroom management	91 (F) J-FR2	217 (F) E-GM1	314 (M) D-GM4							
The class	9 (F) B-GM2	105 (M) J-FR2								
The language as such	163 (F) A-GM1	198 (F) H-FR1								
Not enough rewards	88 (M) I-FR1									
Not enough trips	231 (F) E-GM1									
No-one listens to me	284 (F) E-GM1									
Other	45 (M) C-GM3									

The table combines phase 1 and 2 data: where the same theme is addressed in both phases by the same individual, this appears only once in the table

An analysis of types and frequencies of positive and negative themes suggested the following results: (1) It appeared that factors relating to interpersonal relationships and

the immediate classroom experience ('it is boring', 'sitting with friends') were addressed more frequently than factors relating to more material aspects ('rewards'). This appeared to confirm my earlier findings from the ranking of the factors I had provided. (2) The data also appeared to support the idea that motivational factors may act as attractors and repellers as the data suggested a potential positive and negative impact of the same factor ('teaching style'). (3) There was an apparent tendency towards global comments, such as 'all is bad', 'nothing is bad', 'it is fun', and 'it is hard', suggesting that the pupils attached high importance to the overall learning experience or classroom atmosphere, and also that some pupils may have experienced their lessons as a whole and did not necessarily distinguish between separate influences on the experience. This represented a new idea which had not emerged from the analysis of the factors I had provided (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.1.4.). (4) It appeared that clusters of particular themes emerged from particular groups (e.g. 'nothing is good', group J and H; 'it is boring', group H), indicating that these issues may have been of particular concern in these groups.

(iii) Emergence of themes per phase of survey

An analysis of the themes split into the phases indicated the following: (1) Among the positive themes (see table 16), 'new experience and new skills', 'it is fun', 'sitting with friends', 'the learning environment' and 'the class' were only addressed in phase two. The themes 'nothing is bad', 'support from family', 'general interest', and 'previous knowledge' were only addressed in phase one. Two factors, namely 'teaching methods' and 'success', were addressed in both phases.

Table 16: Emergence and frequency of positive themes per phase

Theme	Phase 1	Phase 2
New experience / skill		81 (F) I-FR1; 144 (F) K-FR3; 145 (M) A-GM1; 164 (F) A-GM1
Nothing is bad	22 (M) B-GM2; 201 (F) H-FR1; 234 (F) E-GM1; 260 (F) L-FR4	
It is fun		123 (M) A-GM1; 159 (M) B-GM2; 285 (M) F-GM2
Sitting with friends		176 (M) H-FR1; 194 (M) H-FR1; 321 (F) G-GM3
Teaching methods	114 (F) J-FR2; 307 (F) D-GM4	281 (F) F-GM2
Success	175 (M) A-GM1	335 (M) G-GM3
Support from family	114 (F) J-FR2; 240 (F) E-GM1	
General interest	165 (M) A-GM1	
Learning environment		201 (F) H-FR1
The class		302 (M) D-GM4
Previous knowledge	208 (M) H-FR1	

(2) Among the negative themes (see table 11), ‘nothing is good’, ‘it is hard’, ‘the class’, ‘not enough trips’ and ‘no-one listens to me’ were only addressed in phase two, while ‘not enough rewards’ was only addressed in phase one.

Table 17: Emergence and frequency of negative themes per phase

Theme	Phase 1	Phase 2
Nothing is good		44 (M) C-GM3; 61 (M) I-FR1; 100 (F) J-FR2; 101 (F) J-FR2; 105 (M) J-FR2; 177 (F) H-FR1; 188 (F) H-FR1; 190 (F) H-FR1; 205 (F) H-FR1; 343 (F) 7 G-GM3
It is boring	157 (F) A-GM1; 194 (M) H-FR1	63 (F) I-FR1; 176 (M) H-FR1; 194 (M) H-FR1; 201 (F) H-FR1; 205 (F) H-FR1; 210 (M) E-GM1
Teaching methods	37 (F) C-GM3; 148 (M) A-GM1; 224 (M) E-GM1	1 (F) B-GM2; 170 (F) A-GM1
It is hard		74 (F) I-FR1; 98 (F) J-FR2; 144 (F) K-FR3; 170 (F) A-GM1
Practical issues	191 (M) H-FR1; 205 (F) H-FR1; 229 (M) E-GM1	65 (M) I-FR1
Classroom management	217 (F) E-GM1	91 (F) J-FR2; 314 (M) D-GM4
The class		9 (F) B-GM2; 105 (M) J-FR2
The language as such	163 (F) A-GM1	198 (F) H-FR1
Not enough rewards	88 (M) I-FR1	
Not enough trips		231 (F) E-GM1
No-one listens to me		284 (F) E-GM1
Other	45 (M) C-GM3	

Themes emerging from both phases were ‘it is boring’, ‘teaching methods’, ‘practical issues’, ‘classroom management’ and ‘the language as such’.

This suggested the following with regard to the emergence of factors across the two phases: (1) There was a apparent shift within the estimations of the lessons from global positive to negative (‘nothing is bad’, ‘nothing is good’). This appeared to support my earlier finding of a slide into widespread negativity by phase two. (2) The data also supported earlier findings by suggesting increased perceived importance of interpersonal relationships in phase two (‘sitting with friends’, ‘the class’). (3) It appeared that the data also supported the earlier finding that factors related to the immediate classroom experience were perceived as more important in phase two (‘it is fun’, ‘the learning environment’). (4) The data appeared to suggest that factors related to academic concerns of wanting to do well became less important for some pupils (‘support from family’, ‘previous knowledge’). This was a new idea that did not emerge from the analysis of the factors I had provided. (5) The data appeared to suggest that some factors acted as attractors and repellers simultaneously. For example, in phase two ‘the class’ was regarded as a positive factor by some pupils, while others perceived it as a negative factor. This indicated that peer relationships had become more important by phase two and suggested potential tensions within particular groups, such as friendship issues or poor behaviour (see discussion chapter 5, sections 5.2.1.4. and 5.2.2.2.).

4.1.7.7. Conclusion

In conclusion, the analysis of the themes that emerged from the pupils' own contributions appeared to support my earlier findings in that it suggested a shift in the overall estimations of the subject from mostly positive to mostly negative within the researched time interval. Also, the data supported the finding that the pupils perceived factors related to interpersonal relationships as very important and suggested that the perceived importance of such factors became greater as the academic year progressed. The data also appeared to support the model of attractors and repellers, suggesting that factors were perceived as positive and negative influences at the same time by different pupils. Furthermore, the data supported the finding that the pupils perceived factors relating to the immediate classroom experience and atmosphere as more important than the more material and academic aspects of learning a foreign language. It appeared that these factors gained impact as the year progressed.

With regard to the pupils' perceptions of classroom atmosphere the data revealed new insights, by suggesting that some pupils maintained a holistic view of the classroom experience in which individual factors appeared to merge into global estimations. Despite the small numbers involved in this part of the analysis, the data indicated the emergence of particular themes from particular classes, e.g. 'it is boring' was addressed four times in group H. This highlighted the importance of individual experiences which could not be translated through statistical analysis. This suggested that I needed to continue the analysis by profiling groups and then the individuals within the groups.

4.1.7.8. Expressions of ‘voice’ in selected teaching groups

For this reason I decided to continue the analysis with the pupils’ own contributions made in the three groups selected to represent particular group cultures (see above, section 4.1.3.7.). The aim was to explore to what extent the group cultures might be reflected in the contributions made by individuals from each group.

(i) Group 1 – more positive

The data suggested the following results for group 1 (see table 18): (1) There were more negative own contributions than positive ones in both phases, which appeared to contradict the earlier finding of a more positive group culture. (2) Own factors were mostly contributed by girls. (3) All factors were contributed by different individuals. In phase two, one girl (231) expressed a positive as well as a negative opinion about the same factor. This supported the idea of particular factors acting as attractors and repellers simultaneously. The girl commented on trips being enjoyable, but that there were not enough trips and that she had only ‘been on one’.

Table 18: Group 1 (E-GM1) – more positive - pupils’ own contributions in phase one and two based on raw data

Phase 1								Phase 2							
positive				negative				positive				negative			
#	P#	M/F	pts	#	P#	M/F	pts.	#	P#	M/F	pts.	#	P#	M/F	pts.
1	240	F	1	1	224	M	1 1/2	1	231	F	1	1	210	F	1
2				2	229	F	1	2				2	231	F	1
3				3	217	F	3	3				3	284	F	1/8
points: 1				points: 5 1/2				points: 1				points: 2 1/8			

The points in the table indicate the rank attached to the factors: ‘MI’ = 3 pts., ‘VI’ = 2 pts., ‘I’ = 1 pt.; fractions are a result of multiple nominations within the same rank

(4) The number of own contributions was the same in both phases, but there was more weighting attached to the negative factors in phase one. One negative factor added in phase one affected the weightings in particular through its 'MI' ranking. It appeared that one girl (217) felt strongly about the seating plan. She said: 'We should be able to sit where we want because in conversations we have we don't get as much work done because we should talk with our friends!' This appeared to support the earlier finding that the pupils felt particularly strongly about factors related to the social dynamics of the classroom situation, especially that having friends was of great importance. (5) The data also appeared to support my earlier finding that there may have been less tolerance for poor behaviour in this group, as two of the pupils commented on this. One girl (284) said: 'The fact that I would like to move because of a person who annoys me all the time', and a boy (224) mentioned 'being distracted' as a negative factor. (6) Two other negative contributions suggested criticism of teaching style and lesson content of the subject. A girl (210) said: 'It's sometimes boring and I find if you do fun stuff you learn better', and a boy (224) said that 'writing quickly' was a negative factor. (7) The topic of seating was raised by altogether three pupils. In phase one, one girl commented on the fact of not being able to sit with her friends as a negative influence (217; see above) and another girl said that 'Not being able to see the whiteboard' was a negative factor. In phase two, one girl (284, see above) said that she would like to move seats because of distractions from the pupil she was sitting next to. This indicated that seating arrangements were perceived as an issue by some pupils in this group which evoked strong opinions. The comments may have been expressions of friendship preferences, purely practical considerations or disagreement with the teacher's classroom management strategies. (8) The two positive contributions were concerned with the

wider and narrower learning content. One pupil mentioned the opportunity to go on trips abroad (231; see above). Another pupil (240) commented in the positive list that ‘My family nows a bit of German’ (for a full transcript of the pupils contributions, see appendix 2, table 2.61.).

In summary, it did not appear that the numbers of positive and negative own contributions supported the more positive group culture trend derived from the earlier findings. The data rather suggested greater complexity and that individual profiles within the group may deviate from the overall statistics. However, the data did appear to support the model of attractors and repellers, as well as the earlier finding that peer relationships were of particular importance to the pupils and that there may be less tolerance to poor behaviour in groups which maintain a positive attitude. The data also suggested that negative experiences of the teaching and learning style as well as the teacher’s classroom management strategies may have had a strong influence on some pupils’ opinions.

(ii) Group 2 – match with trend

The data suggested the following for group 2 (see table 19): (1) The pupils contributed more negative factors than positive ones in phase one. In phase two the ratio of positive and negative factors was reversed and there were fewer negatives than positives. This did not appear to support the trend towards increasing negativity suggested by the overall statistics. (2) Own factors were provided by similarly sized groups of boys and girls in both phases.

Table 19: Group 2 (A-GM1) – match with trend - pupils’ own contributions in phase one and two based on raw data

Phase 1								Phase 2							
positive				negative				positive				negative			
#	P#	M/F	pts.	#	P#	M/F	pts.	#	P#	M/F	pts.	#	P#	M/F	pts.
1	165	M	1	1	148	M	3	1	145	M	1	1	170	F	1 1/2
2	175	M	1	2	157	F	1	2	163	F	1	2	339	M	1
3				3	163	F	3	3	164	F	1	3			
4				4				4				4			
points: 2				points: 7				points: 3				points: 2 1/2			

The points in the table indicate the rank attached to the factors: ‘MI’ = 3 pts., ‘VI’ = 2 pts., ‘I’ = 1 pt.; fractions are a result of multiple nominations within the same rank

(3) Most pupils who contributed factors did so in only one phase. However, there was one girl (163) who made contributions in both phases, adding a negative factor in phase one and a positive one in phase two. In phase one she said: ‘Why do we have to do languages?’ and in phase two she wrote: ‘There are computers that we occasionally use.’ In response to the rating scales the girl indicated a dislike for language lessons in phase one and an extreme dislike in phase two. It appeared that despite an apparent trend towards increasingly negative estimations of the subject within the wider group as well as the individual pupil, she had felt strongly enough about a particular factor which had a motivating effect on her to comment on it. That is, while her overall opinion appeared to be increasingly negative, a single factor may still have acted as a strong attractor. (4) Although the number of negative contributions made in phase one was identical to the number of positive ones in phase two, there was considerably more weighting attached to the negative comments in phase one. Two negative contributions in phase one were ranked as ‘MI’ and affected the difference in the weightings particularly. These were: ‘Why do we have to do languages?’ (163; see above) and ‘Sometimes we barely do any work’ (148). That is, the strongest negative opinions in

phase one allowed for various interpretations and may have been criticism of the teacher's teaching style, the subject content or the poor behaviour of some pupils in the group. It did appear, however, that they were expressions of fundamental disappointment with the subject, which was apparently very clear for these pupils at this early stage (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.1.1.2.). (5) Two negative factors added by the pupils appeared to relate to behaviour issues. In phase one, a boy commented that sometimes very little work was done (148; see above) and in phase two a girl (339) identified a negative influence in 'The way other pupils criticise'. However, references to poor behaviour were less frequent in this group than in the more positive group, potentially suggesting that there may have been more tolerance for negative behaviour in this class. (6) The other negative factors appeared to be related to the overall experience and the learning content of the subject. In phase one, a girl (157) said: 'It just doesn't make [m]e say 'horray, German!', it makes me say 'right, German next', revealing a degree of disappointment with the subject, possibly in relation to other school subjects. In response to the rating-scales question the girl indicated a strong like for both language lessons and school, but my scoring system indicated a preference for school in general. However, she did not indicate that comparisons with other subjects were important to her in the rank-order question. In phase two another girl (170) said: 'The work isn't explained properly. It gets hard'. It appeared likely that this contribution aimed at the learning content of the lesson, but may have been criticism of the teacher's teaching style or class management. (7) There were altogether five positive contributions. Most of these appeared to be related to feelings of personal development and long-term benefits. In phase one, one boy (165) said: 'That I've wanted to do German for a while', and in phase two a girl (164) thought that 'Learning new ways of

communication languages’ was a positive aspect of the subject. In phase two a boy (145) added ‘The fact that you can speak another language’ to the list of positive factors. In phase one, a boy (175) said that ‘How much you think your good at it’ was a positive factor. This contribution appeared to relate to the concept of self-efficacy and its impact on experiencing language lessons as positive (for a full transcript of the pupils’ comments, see appendix 2, table 2.61.).

In summary, the data generated through the pupils own contributions in this group did not appear to support the overall trend towards increasing negativity that appeared to emerge from the analysis of the rating scales data. However, the data did appear to suggest the possibility of an influence from individual factors acting as strong attractors in motivational processes and that there may have been differences in tolerance levels in different groupings of pupils with regard to disruptions caused by poor behaviour from some pupils in the class. The data also suggested that some pupils in this group had strong feelings of disappointment and possibly disaffection with the subject as early as in phase one, while other pupils appeared to have maintained positive feelings about the benefits of learning a foreign language for their personal development well into the academic year, possibly indicating polarised opinions of the subject which may have affected group dynamics and classroom atmosphere negatively.

(iii) Group 3 – more negative

The analysis of the contributions made by the pupils in group 3 suggested the following (see table 20): (1) There were only four comments altogether, so that it did not appear

useful to compare numbers of contributions in the two phases in order to derive patterns. However, there was no obvious pattern of increased levels of negativity, as suggested by the earlier findings with regard to this group of pupils. (2) Two of the three pupils suggesting factors were boys. (3) All three pupils making a contribution attached the highest weighting to at least one of the factors they added, i.e. they ranked their contributions as ‘MI’, indicating that they felt particularly strongly about these. All three pupils only contributed factors in one of the phases.

Table 20: Group 3 (C-GM3) – more negative - pupils’ own contributions in phase one and two based on raw data

Phase 1								Phase 2							
positive				negative				positive				negative			
#	P#	M/F	pts.	#	P#	M/F	pts.	#	P#	M/F	pts.	#	P#	M/F	pts.
1				1	37	F	3	1	41	M	3	1	41	M	1/3
2				2	45	M	3	2				2			
points: 0				points: 6				points: 3				points: 1/3			

The points in the table indicate the rank attached to the factors: ‘MI’ = 3 pts., ‘VI’ = 2 pts., ‘I’ = 1 pt.; fractions are a result of multiple nominations within the same rank

(4) One boy (41) added a positive and a negative factor in phase two. He said that ‘The attitude to the teacher’ was a positive aspect and added ‘Less attitude’ as a negative factor. Despite the ambiguity in these responses it appeared likely that the pupil intended to identify poor behaviour as a negative factor. This was supported by the ‘MI’ ranking he assigned to the factor ‘behaviour’ in the list of negative factors which I had provided. It appeared that despite the apparent widespread disaffection with language lessons in this group, suggested in the earlier findings, individual pupils may have maintained their motivation to progress in the subject throughout the academic year and may have been disappointed with the perceived poor behaviour of some pupils in the

group. (5) The contribution of another boy (45) in phase one suggested that some pupils felt disaffected with the subject from an early stage. In response to the question he stated that 'I'm stuck on a level on my PS2 game' was the most important negative factor about language lessons. Although this statement allowed for a various interpretations, the pupil's remaining questionnaire responses suggested a strong dislike of the subject throughout, implying that his response to the question could be interpreted as disregard for the lesson content and that anything else was more important, including a lack of progress in an activity which was banned during lesson time. (6) In phase one, one girl (37) commented that the most important negative factor in language lessons was to 'Always read out of textbooks and not the teacher [t]elling us the words which is better than reading out of the textbooks'. The comment suggested criticism of the teacher's teaching style or classroom management strategies and appeared to support the earlier finding that factors relating to classroom atmosphere and interactions were perceived as most important in the opinion-forming process by many pupils.

In summary, the amount of data available from this group did not appear sufficient to compare any results with the trend developed out of the earlier findings, but appeared to confirm that pupils in lower-ability sets were less likely to contribute their own comments. However, the contributions made by some pupils in this group appeared to suggest that teaching and learning may have been affected by poor behaviour in this group as early as in phase one and that some pupils may have felt dissatisfaction with the teacher's reaction in terms of adapting teaching style and applying classroom management strategies. The weightings attached to the contributions indicated that the pupils who did add factors felt particularly strongly about these issues. The data

suggested that despite an apparent widespread disaffection with the subject in phase two, individual pupils may have maintained their motivation to progress in the subject.

4.1.7.9. Conclusion

In conclusion it appeared that the exploration of individual expressions of voice through the factors added by the pupils and their potential reflection within the group cultures revealed greater complexity beneath the overall trends than suggested by the statistical analysis. This appeared to question an approach based on statistical generalisations and suggested that I needed to look more closely at individual cases and profiles.

4.2. Qualitative analysis

My analysis of the data with quantitative methodology suggested that the influences on the motivation of small groups of individuals or individual pupils were highly complex.

The purpose of the subsequent analysis was therefore to create rich descriptions of individual cases, or profiles, in order to explore how the interaction with various factors present in the classroom experience at class level may have impacted on individual pupils' attitude towards language learning.

In order to aid the production of pupil profiles I carried out a thematic analysis of the remaining data, i.e. the data obtained through the open-ended questions in the two parts

of the survey (for the exact wording of the open-ended questions in the two versions of the questionnaire see table 21).

Table 21: List of open-ended questions used in phase one and phase two

Phase 1	Phase 2
11. Do you think you learn anything in your languages lessons that is important for your everyday life? If so, what?	9. Do you NOW think you learn anything in your languages lessons that is important for your everyday life? If so, what?
12. How important is it for you to have friends in your languages class? Why?	10. How important is it for you to have friends in your languages class now? Why?
13. Could you make any suggestions to make this questionnaire better?	11. IF you have been given any MERITS or DETENTIONS by your languages teacher, how did it make you feel?
	12. How important is it for you what others think about you being given DETENTIONS or MERITS?
	13. If you had to design a questionnaire on this topic for another class, what would you ask?

The numbering of the questions is taken from the questionnaires

I decided to concentrate on the data generated by the three groups chosen to represent more positive attitudes (group 1), a match with the overall trend (group 2) and more negative attitudes (group 3) (see above, section 4.1.3.7.), as this appeared to be the most consistent and rigorous analytical approach.

4.2.1. Themes in open-ended questions

I carried out a thematic analysis of the responses obtained through the open-ended questions for all pupils in all three groups in order to (1) inform my selection of

individuals for subsequent profiling and (2) to give all pupils a voice, including those who would not be chosen for profiling (see Lundy, 2006; Lewis *et al.*, 2007; Gorard and Smith, 2008; for a discussion of the importance of pupil voice in my study, see chapter 5, section 5.2.1.5.).

The main objective of this part of the analysis was to extract themes from the open-ended questions through coding (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 148-149.; Robson, 2002: 257-258) of the responses and to create an overview of the types and frequencies of the extended comments within each group as well as to undertake a rough comparison between the groups and to identify any potential differences.

As the emphasis of the approach was on adding richer qualitative detail rather than quantification I included only responses in the analysis that added more detail to the topics addressed by the survey questions, but disregarded straightforward ‘yes’ or ‘no’ responses.

In the following sections I summarise the findings from each of the three groups. In section 4.2.1.4., I compare the findings from the three groups.

4.2.1.1. Group 1 – more positive

Through coding (Cohen *et al.*, 2005: 148-149.; Robson, 2002: 257-258) of the responses obtained from the group that displayed higher than average positivity I developed the following themes out of the combined data from both questionnaires (in order of frequency; numbers in brackets in the following indicate the number of times each

theme was addressed): Friends create a supportive classroom atmosphere (26); language has a potential use for contact with native speakers (17); friends help with the work (16); language has no use outside school (8); merits create positive feelings (8); language has potential use in the home environment (6); merits indicate achievement (6); language has potential use for future career (5); detentions create negative feelings (4); friends make lessons fun (socialising) (3); detentions serve a purpose (3); detention was given unfairly (3); others acknowledge achievement (3); improvements to teaching and learning (3); self-sufficiency (2); others are not interested in whether I get detentions or merits (2); amount of learning (2); friends may distract from work (1); peer pressure (1); role of the teacher (1); lack of choice of language learnt (1) (the full responses can be found in appendix 3, table 3.1.).

The following themes developed out of the combined data for all three groups were not addressed by the pupils from this group (in any order): Language has potential use for enjoyment; language lessons teach general skills for learning; friends are not important; rewards and sanctions have no meaning; there are no rewards or sanctions; enjoyment of textbook topics; self-efficacy; not having a voice; room and seating plan.

4.2.1.2. Group 2 – match with trend

The following themes emerged from the analysis of the responses obtained from the group that matched the overall trend towards negativity: Friends create a supportive classroom atmosphere (33); friends help with the work (14); language has a potential use for contact with native speakers (13); language has no use outside school (12);

merits indicate achievement (10); peer pressure (8); merits create positive feelings (7); rewards and sanctions have no meaning (6); lack of choice of language learnt (5); lack of choice (drop-out) (5); language has potential use for future career (3); detention was given unfairly (3); there are no rewards or sanctions (3); self-efficacy (3); language has potential use for enjoyment (2); friends make lessons fun (socialising) (2); detentions create negative feelings (2); others acknowledge achievement (2); self-sufficiency (2); others are not interested in whether I get detentions or merits (2); improvements to teaching and learning (2); language has a potential use in the home environment (1); friends are not important (1); detentions serve a purpose (1); room and seating plan (1) (the full responses can be found in appendix 3, table 3.2.).

The following themes were not addressed by the pupils in this group: Language lessons teach general skills for learning; friends may distract from work; amount of learning; enjoyment of textbook topics; role of the teacher; not having a voice.

4.2.1.3. Group 3 – more negative

The following themes emerged from the data generated by the group with higher than average negativity: Friends create a supportive classroom atmosphere (12); friends help with the work (9); language has a potential use for contact with native speakers (8); friends make lessons fun (socialising) (7); language has no use outside school (6); there are no rewards or sanctions (6); improvements to teaching and learning (6); merits create positive feelings (4); detentions create negative feelings (3); detention was given unfairly (3); rewards and sanctions have no meaning (3); peer pressure (3); language has potential use in the home environment (2); language lessons teach general skills for

learning (2); merits indicate achievement (2); others acknowledge achievement (2); enjoyment of textbook topics (2); role of the teacher (2); lack of choice of language learnt (2); friends may distract from work (1); detentions serve a purpose (1) self-sufficiency (1); others are not interested in whether I get detentions or merits (1); not having a voice (1) (the full responses can be found in appendix 3, table 3.3.).

The following themes were not addressed by the pupils in this group: Language has a potential use for future career; language has potential use for enjoyment; friends are not important; amount of learning; self-efficacy; room and seating plan.

4.2.1.4. Groups compared

My analysis of the themes emerging from the open-ended questions revealed that perceptions of the importance of having friends were addressed most frequently across all three groups and both phases. This appeared to lend further support to my earlier finding that the pupils perceived social interactions, contributing to feelings of belonging and a generally non-threatening classroom environment as most important. There also appeared to be further evidence of polarised opinions with regard to some features of language lessons and school in general, such as the usefulness of learning a foreign language, the perceived quality of teaching and learning, the purpose and fairness of the rewards and sanctions system and the perceived importance of the opinions of the class as a whole (see table 22).

Table 22: Themes in open-ended questions

Theme	Group 1 – more positive			Group 2 – match with trend			Group 3 – more negative		
	Total	Phase 1	Phase 2	Total	Phase 1	Phase 2	Total	Phase 1	Phase 2
		(of 32)	(of 31)		(of 31)	(of 32)		(of 27)	(of 27)
Language has potential use for future career	5	4	1	3	2	1	0	0	0
Language has potential use for contact with native speakers	17	8	9	13	8	5	8	4	4
Language has potential use in the home environment	6	4	2	1	1	0	2	2	0
Language has potential use for enjoyment	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0
Language lessons teach general learning skills	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0
Language has no use outside school	8	3	5	12	3	9	6	2	4
Friends help with the work	16	10	6	14	4	10	9	2	7
Friends create supportive classroom atmosphere	26	11	15	33	19	14	12	8	4
Friends make lessons fun (socialising)	3	1	2	2	0	2	7	2	5
Friends may distract from work	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Friends are not important	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
Merits create positive feelings	8	(1)	7	7		7	4	(2)	2
Merits indicate achievement	6		6	10		10	2		2
Detentions serve a purpose	3		3	1		1	1		2
Detentions create negative feelings	4		4	2		2	3		3
Detention was given unfairly	3		3	3		3	3		3
Rewards and sanctions have no meaning	0		0	6		6	3		3
There are no rewards or sanctions	0		0	3		3	6		6
Peer pressure	1		1	8		8	3		3
Others acknowledge achievement	3		3	2		2	2		2
Self-sufficiency	2		2	2		2	1		1
Others are not interested in whether I get detentions or merits	2		2	2		2	1		1
Improvements to teaching and learning	3	1	2	2	1	1	6	2	4
Amount of learning	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Enjoyment of textbook topics	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Self-efficacy	0	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	0
Role of the teacher	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	1
Lack of choice (language)	1	0	1	5	1	4	2	1	1
Lack of choice (drop-out)	0	0	0	5	1	4	0	0	0
Not having a ‘voice’ (pastoral)	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Room and seating plan	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0

Shading indicates that the rewards and sanctions system and peer pressures were mainly addressed in phase two as per my questionnaire design

It appeared that, in both parts of the survey, between one third and half of all pupils in group 1 (11 out of 32 in phase one and 15 out of 31 in phase two) regarded having friends as important in creating a supportive classroom atmosphere and helping with the work. A fairly large number of pupils (8 in phase one and 9 in phase two) thought that learning German had a potential use outside school for contact with native speakers and to a lesser degree for career and in the home environment, but some pupils (3 in phase one and 5 in phase two) thought that learning a language had no practical use at all. None of the pupils reported learning the language for enjoyment. It appeared that detentions were perceived as both potentially reasonable and unfair, but none of the pupils reported that rewards and sanctions had no meaning to them at all. Merits were perceived as creating positive feelings and indicating achievement, and only one pupil perceived peer pressure to be a potential problem. 2 out of the 31 pupils in phase two raised questions about the amount of learning during lessons and to what extent the teacher facilitated their progress. Overall it appeared that a substantial number of pupils in group 1 perceived positive social dynamics within the peer group as very important while academic progress combined with specific expectations of potential use of the language in the future also remained important to many of them.

The data suggested that between one half and two thirds of the pupils in group 2 (19 out of 31 in phase one and 14 out of 32 in phase two) considered a supportive classroom atmosphere created by having friends in the class as important. Some pupils (4 in phase one and 10 in phase two) indicated that having friends was important to help with the work, particularly in phase two. It appeared that the views that learning German had a potential use for contact with native speakers and no use outside school at all were

roughly equally common within the group, but only a few pupils (2 in phase one and 1 in phase two) reported that they thought the language had potential use for their future careers. 7 out of the 32 pupils in phase two believed that receiving merits created positive feelings, but the belief that receiving merits indicated achievement appeared to be more widespread (reported by 10 out of 32 pupils). However, there were also some pupils (6 out of 32) who reported that rewards did not have a meaning at all. There were pupils who thought that they had been given a detention unfairly and only one pupil reported that they believed detentions served a purpose. One in four pupils (8 out of 32) said that they perceived peer pressure as a potential problem. Also, a number of comments in the second questionnaire suggested that there was a feeling that not being able to choose the language they learnt (reported by 4 out of 32 pupils) or to opt out of learning a language altogether (4 out of 32) was a negative aspect. Overall it appeared that supportive social interactions with the peer group were very important for many pupils, while reports of perceived peer pressure suggested potential tensions within the social dynamics of the group. There appeared to be some uncertainty about the potential usefulness of the language and dissatisfaction with not being able to make choices about language learning.

In group 3, a smaller but overall substantial number of pupils reported that they perceived having friends as important to create a supportive classroom atmosphere (8 out of 27 in phase one and 4 out of 27 in phase two) and to help with the work (reported by 2 pupils in phase one and 7 in phase two) in both parts of the survey. A larger number of comments than in the other groups made in response to the second questionnaire also suggested that having friends was important for socialising and that

the lessons were perceived as boring (reported by 5 out of 27 pupils). Some pupils (4 out of 27 in both parts of the survey) thought that learning German had potential use for meeting native speakers, but the belief that the language had no practical use at all was almost equally widespread. None of the pupils indicated that they perceived a potential value for future careers in learning the language. In both parts of the survey, 2 out of the 27 pupils believed that receiving merits created positive feelings, but it did not appear that receiving merits indicated an achievement for many pupils. There were pupils who felt they had been given a detention unfairly and only one pupil thought detentions served a purpose. About one fourth of the pupils (6 out of 27) reported that they had not been given any merits at all, and 3 out of the 27 pupils indicated that they did not perceive any meaning in the rewards and sanctions system. There appeared to be some criticism of the perceived quality of the teaching and learning, particularly in the second part of the inquiry (reported by 4 out of 27 pupils). Overall it appeared that learning-related social interactions remained important for many pupils, but that the increased emphasis on the socialising aspect of having friends in the class in phase two may have disrupted lessons to some extent. Perceptions of a limited practical use of the language and negative attitudes towards the teacher's delivery of the lesson content may have also been related to the negativity in this class.

4.2.2. Pupil profiles

My analytical approach to creating the profiles was to follow up the group culture traits developed out of the ranking of motivational factors in the previous chapter, such as polarisation, using selected individuals as examples.

Accordingly I selected pupils for profiling whose responses represented the factors which appeared to build towards a group culture and the complexity therein. My choice of individuals for profiling was also influenced by the amount of detail provided by each pupil in the open-ended questions, i.e. their degree of engagement with the research. Limited space precluded a full description of all profiles so I chose ten individuals per group.

In establishing the profiles I combined the responses obtained from particular individuals through the open-ended questions with the findings of the statistical analysis carried out so far. This represented a horizontal look at the data involving all questionnaire responses across the two phases of the inquiry.

For purposes of triangulation I asked the pupils in questions 1, 3 and 5 in phase two to indicate whether they felt more positive, the same, more negative or unsure in comparison to their previous responses, before answering each of the rating-scale questions (see above, chapter 3, section 3.7.2.2.). This revealed inconsistencies in the responses of some individuals (for a discussion of this see chapter 5, sections 5.1.1.1. and 5.2.2.1.).

In the following I summarise each pupil's questionnaire responses in prose, including responses to rating-scales and rank-order questions. I describe the pupils' responses to the rating-scales questions by referring to the places where the pupils left their marks on the lines through the codes developed out of the Likert-scale segmentation earlier in the analysis (see above, chapter 4, section 4.1.1.). In order to make the individual profiles

easier to distinguish I give each participant a random pseudonym, rather than using their code number (examples of data tables used to establish pupil profiles can be found in appendix 3, tables 3.4. to 3.26. Data tables for all three groups can be provided if necessary).

4.2.2.1. Group 1 – more positive

The statistical analysis of the data generated by this group indicated that factors related to social dynamics and interpersonal relationships, such as ‘teacher’, ‘friends’ and ‘behaviour’ were regarded as most important by the pupils in the process of forming an overall opinion about language lessons. There was evidence that factors related to the learning experience and instrumental value of the subject, such as ‘progress’ and ‘activities’, maintained a positive influence on the pupils’ opinions. There was also evidence that the impact of some factors, such as ‘teacher’ and ‘activities’, was judged in opposing ways by considerable numbers of pupils on either side, represented in the data by what appeared to be a polarisation effect with regard to these factors. The ensuing descriptions of profiles are grouped under these headings.

(i) Social dynamics – friends (Amy, Chloe)

Participant no. 230 (F), Amy, German (remained in same group): Amy did not indicate a strong opinion about language lessons in the rating scales in either part of the survey (3-3), but by phase two reported increased enjoyment in question one. In phase one she thought that the other pupils liked the lessons, but did not indicate a strong view about

their opinions in phase two (2-3), reporting, in question three, that she was unsure about whether they had changed their opinions. Her ratings indicated an increased like of school by phase two (2-1), although in question five she reported reduced enjoyment. Her responses were therefore somewhat inconsistent, stressing the need for a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to challenge each other (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.1.3.).

Amy reported that having friends in the class was the most important positive factor for her at both points in time. In phase one having friends was important for her in pair work activities, as she could work with them. In phase two, having friends was still important to her within the context of facilitating classwork, but her answer appeared to imply that friends may have been important for socialising as well. Her further responses supported the importance of friendship relationships, as she felt very sure of the support of the other members of the class when being given merits.

She indicated in both phases that the lesson activities and the teacher were positive factors, while lack of enjoyment was the most important negative factor for her. She also sustained the view that there was little or no practical use in learning a language for her everyday life. It appeared that Amy felt positively about the application of the rewards and sanctions system, as being given rewards made her feel that she was making progress. Overall, Amy's responses suggested a positive attitude towards school and studying, rather than enjoyment of language lessons in particular. It appeared that in order to achieve in the subject she perceived positive social interactions in the

classroom environment as important. This included supportive friendship relationships as well as a positive relationship with the teacher.

Participant no. 232 (F), Chloe, German (remained in same group): Chloe reported a like of language lessons in phase one, but dampened enthusiasm by phase two (2-3). This was confirmed in question one. She did not express a strong view about the opinions of the other pupils in phase one, but thought that they disliked the lessons by phase two (3-4). This was not supported by her response to question three, as she indicated unchanged opinions. She rated her opinion of school as a strong dislike in phase one, but changed her opinion to a strong like in phase two (5-1). Despite that she reported not having changed her opinion in question five. This highlighted potential memory issues in the rating question.

She ranked having friends as the most important positive factor in both questionnaires. Her responses to the open-ended questions in both questionnaires appeared to suggest that she perceived having friends as helpful in order to manage the classwork, but also that they helped create a positive, reassuring classroom atmosphere which contributed to the enjoyment of the lessons.

Chloe initially perceived the teacher and enjoyment of the lessons as important positive factors, but in phase two she replaced both the teacher and enjoyment, with relevance for career and good behaviour. She also expressed the opinion that learning German may have a potential practical use in her everyday life at both points in time and selected the factors activities and materials as important negative factors in both

questionnaires. Overall this appeared to suggest that, by phase two, her appreciation of the subject was influenced less by the immediate experience of being taught within the lesson context, than by more practical aspects, such as the potential relevance of the subject for future careers. Also, the potential negative influence of disruptions from the peer group appeared to have become more prominent. While these changes may have resulted in a less enthusiastic view of the subject, supportive friendship relationships maintained a very positive influence on her experience of the subject.

(ii) Social dynamics – poor behaviour (Hannah, Emily)

Participant no. 217 (F), Hannah, German (remained in same group): Hannah reported a maintained strong like of language lessons (1-1). She did not indicate a strong view about the opinions of the other pupils in either phase (3-3), being unsure of whether their opinions had changed in phase two. She rated her opinion of school as a dislike in phase one, but thought that her opinion had improved in phase two, although she did not indicate a strong opinion (4-3).

Although not mentioned in the first questionnaire, Hannah selected poor behaviour as the most important negative factor in phase two and also indicated that appropriate behaviour was an important positive factor. In phase one she reported that having friends was an important positive factor for her and felt very strongly about not being able to sit with friends, which she added as the most important negative factor. Although she no longer included having friends in the ranking of factors in phase two, she sustained the view that having friends was important to her in terms of classwork

demands in both questionnaires. She reported in phase two that receiving rewards made her feel pleased with herself, but that the opinion of the others in the class about her being rewarded was not important to her.

Hannah regarded the teacher as a very important positive factor consistently in both phases and also indicated that the lesson content (activities, enjoyment) had a maintained positive impact on her. In phase two she referred to the amount of learning achieved in language lessons, suggesting that academic progress in the subject remained an important aspect to her at the time of the second questionnaire. Overall Hannah's responses appeared to suggest that she was mainly motivated by the learning situation within the school and the classroom. By phase two her responses appeared to suggest that social interactions with the friendship group had become less important and that she perceived disruptions through poor behaviour as an increasingly important negative influence.

Participant no. 227 (F), Emily, German (remained in same group): Emily indicated that she strongly liked language lessons in both questionnaires (1-1), and by phase two reported increased enjoyment in question one. While she did not indicate a strong view about the opinion of the other pupils in phase one, her rating in phase two indicated strong like (3-1). However, question three contradicted this, answering 'unsure' as to whether her peers liked lessons more or less than before. Her ratings in the school question suggested dampened enthusiasm by phase two (1-3), although she reported in question five that her opinion had not changed. This again highlighted potential memory issues in the rating activity.

Emily's responses in both phases indicated that she perceived poor behaviour as the most important negative factor in her language lessons. Although she did not comment on the importance of having friends through the ranking questions, her further comments suggested that having friends was important to her to help with the classwork at both points in time. She felt that having friends was important in creating a more supportive classroom atmosphere, preventing her from being left out and enabling her to choose work partners she liked. In phase two she reported that she believed the rewards and sanctions system rewarded good work as well as good behaviour and that being rewarded for either of these made her happy.

While Emily ranked the teacher as the most important positive factor in phase one, this became a less positive and potentially negative factor in phase two. Although she appeared to have changed her opinion about the positive impact of the teacher by phase two, it seemed that meeting the teacher's expectations remained relevant to her, as she said that being given a detention showed that the teacher was not 'pleased with you'. Emily indicated that the activities were important positive factors for her in both phases. The subject maintained a potential practical use outside school for her across the two parts of the survey. Overall it appeared that Emily was mainly motivated by factors related to the lesson content and the possibility of applying what she was learning outside the classroom. It also appeared that cooperating with the teacher was important to her. Her responses suggested that the social dynamics of the classroom were important to her at both points in time and that she perceived some members of the peer group as disruptive and potentially unsupportive. However this did not appear to have impacted on her enjoyment of the lessons.

(iii) Polarisation – activities (Adam, Megan)

Participant no. 236 (M), Adam, German (remained in same group): Adam reported increased enjoyment of language lessons in phase two, which was supported by his responses to the rating scales, moving from no strong opinion in phase one to a like in phase two (3-2). While he perceived a strong like of the lessons in the other pupils in phase one, he was less sure of their opinions in phase two and did not indicate a strong view on the scale (1-3). He reported liking school at both points in time (2-2), by phase two indicating intensified enjoyment in question five.

He regarded the lesson activities as the most important negative factor in both parts of the survey, although he indicated that they were also an important positive factor in phase two. In phase two his comments appeared to suggest that he questioned the amount of learning that was going on in lessons, without providing any more details. Adam indicated having some previous knowledge of German through his family in the beginning of the year and that he thought that there was a practical use in learning the language. He also indicated that the feeling of making progress and the higher appeal of MFL compared to other subjects was very important to him (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.1.1.2. and 5.2.1.5.).

Although not mentioned in phase one, Adam reported that having friends was the most important positive factor in phase two. His comments in both questionnaires suggested that having friends was important for him to help with the classwork. While he did not comment on his opinion about the teacher in the beginning of the year, he identified the

teacher as a very important positive factor in phase two and his further responses suggested that he acknowledged the rewards and sanctions system. He reported that the opinion of the other members of the class about him being given rewards or sanctions was not very important to him. Overall it appeared that factors related to the social dynamics of the classroom had become more important to Adam by the time of the second questionnaire and that they had a mainly positive influence on him. His responses suggested potential criticism of the teaching activities or the curriculum, rather than the teacher.

Participant no. 234 (F), Megan, German (remained in same group): Megan maintained a positive opinion about language lessons and reported that she liked the lessons in both phases (2-2). In neither questionnaire did she indicate a strong view about the opinions of the other pupils (3-3) or about her opinion of school in general (3-3), perceiving both as unchanged in phase two.

She ranked the activities as the most important positive factor in both parts of the survey, but added the feeling of making progress to the list of positive factors in phase two, also giving it a most important ranking. She added that she was learning different phrases of the language in her lessons which would enable her to speak to people in Germany. In the second questionnaire she maintained her view that learning languages had potential practical use.

Megan reported in both phases that having friends in the class was an important positive factor, suggesting that having friends had a social value to her, as she was able to talk to

them, which made the lessons more enjoyable. She did not comment on the teacher in the beginning of the year, but this became a very important positive factor in phase two. She indicated that the opinion of the other pupils in the class about her receiving rewards or sanctions was not very important to her, but suggested asking them whether or not they enjoyed the lessons, which potentially implied that she perceived some of her classmates as not feeling as positively about the lessons as she did. Overall it appeared that Megan was motivated by the methodology of teaching and learning applied in her lessons at both points in time and that she believed that what she learnt in her lessons could be applied outside school. It also appeared that the social dynamics of the classroom were important to her and that the working relationship with the teacher had become more prominent by the time of completing the second questionnaire.

(iv) Polarisation – teacher (Daniel, Shannon)

Participant no. 228 (M), Daniel, German (remained in same group): Daniel rated his opinion of language lessons as a strong like in both phases (1-1), indicating increased enjoyment by phase two in question one. While he thought the other pupils liked the lessons in the beginning of the year, he reported, in phase two, that they strongly disliked the lessons (2-5). However, this was not supported in question three, where he was less sure about any changes. In the second questionnaire he reported that his opinion of school had not changed. He indicated a strong like of school in both phases (1-1).

He reported in both parts of the survey that the teacher was the most important positive factor and that the activities were also important to him, while he ranked poor behaviour as the most important negative factor and the materials as another very important negative factor. In phase one Daniel reported that having friends was important because they could help with the work, but in phase two he said that they were not very important to him, as not having friends enabled him to focus on the classwork . He also suggested asking the other pupils, whether or not they enjoyed language lessons, which potentially supported the idea that he perceived the other pupils in the class as feeling negatively about the lessons, as he had indicated in response to the rating scales. Daniel did not appear to maintain the view that languages had a practical use outside school, apart from providing him with some simple phrases.

Overall it appeared that Daniel was mainly motivated by the class teacher and their application of the subject-specific teaching and learning activities, while he perceived the teaching materials as negative. It appeared that he perceived the social dynamics of the peer group as a negative influence on his enjoyment of the lessons in both phases.

Participant no. 215 (F), Shannon, German (remained in same group): Shannon liked language lessons in phase one, but reported reduced enjoyment in phase two, rating her opinion as a dislike (2-4). She thought that the other pupils liked the lessons in phase one, but that they liked the lessons less in phase two, indicating a dislike (2-4). In phase one she reported a strong like of school, but a dislike in phase two (1-4). This was not supported by question five as she indicated being unsure of any changes.

While she perceived the teacher as an important positive factor in phase one, this was a very important negative factor at the time of the second survey. In phase two she indicated that she felt the teacher treated pupils unfairly as his or her use of the rewards and sanctions policy appeared to be inconsistent with its application by other members of staff. She also suggested asking the other pupils whether or not they liked the teacher. While she identified poor behaviour as the most important negative factor in the beginning of the year, she did not perceive poor behaviour as a negative factor in phase two.

Shannon reported that having friends was an important positive factor in both parts of the survey, but while it appeared in phase one that having friends was important to help create a more supportive classroom working atmosphere, her responses in phase two suggested that it was important to make an otherwise boring lesson more interesting. She indicated that it was not important to her what the other pupils in the class thought about her receiving sanctions or rewards. She reported that learning a language may have potential practical use for future careers in phase one, but no longer recognised a practical use in phase two.

Overall Shannon's responses to the second questionnaire appeared to indicate a breakdown in the relationship with the teacher and that she had become disaffected with many aspects of the subject, while her perception of friendship relationships and classroom dynamics appeared to have changed in favour of the peer group.

(v) Learning experience (Jessica, Melissa)

Participant no. 229 (F), Jessica, German (remained in same group): Jessica reported that she liked language lessons in both parts of the survey (2-2), indicating intensified enjoyment in question one by phase two. She thought that the other pupils liked the lessons equally in both phases (2-2). Her opinion of school also remained unchanged and she indicated a strong like in both questionnaires (1-1).

She indicated in both phases that the feeling of making progress and enjoyment of the lessons were very important positive factors for her. Her responses in phase two appeared to support the idea that making progress and achieving in the subject were important to her, as she commented that showing her parents how she was making progress was important to her. She also said that the teacher may or may not have an impact on the pupils' progress. It appeared possible that this was intended to be criticism of the teacher, as she ranked the teacher as the most important positive factor in phase one, but removed the teacher from the ranking in phase two. Jessica reported in both phases that having friends in the class was important to her to discuss the classwork. In phase two she said that rewards were important to her and that she had been rewarded on a number of occasions. Also, she appeared to be very sure about the supportive attitude of her classmates when receiving rewards, even though they might not have been rewarded as frequently as she had.

The factors she perceived as most negative appeared to be linked to preventing her from doing well in the classroom situation. In both phases she indicated that the materials

used in the lessons were a negative factor and in the beginning of the year she felt strongly enough about not being able to see the whiteboard to add her own comment. Overall it appeared that academic progress, encouraged and rewarded from both within the school and from outside, maintained an important positive influence on Jessica's enjoyment of the lessons, while factors related to the social dynamics of the classroom appeared to be less important.

Participant no. 237 (F), Melissa, German (remained in same group): Melissa reported a strong like of language lessons in phase one, but indicated dampened enthusiasm in phase two (1-2). This was not supported by her response to question one, as she reported an unchanged opinion. While she was not sure by phase two whether the other pupils enjoyed the lessons more or less, her ratings suggested improved opinions, as she did not indicate a strong opinion in phase one and a like in phase two (3-2). Her opinion of school in general improved between the two phases from a like to a strong like (2-1). This was corroborated by her response to question five, where she indicated increased enjoyment.

Factors related to lesson content and enjoyment were among the most important positive factors to her in both phases and her comments in phase two suggested that making progress and achieving in the subject were important to her. The rewards and sanctions system had a positive meaning to her and reassured her of being successful in the subject and of behaving as expected. Melissa indicated that having friends was very important to her in both phases to provide mutual assistance with the classwork and to facilitate learning activities. Having friends also emerged as an increasingly important

factor from the ranking questions. She believed that her classmates felt happy for her when she was rewarded by the teacher, as they also perceived her attitude to work and her behaviour as being appropriate. She identified poor behaviour as a negative factor in both phases, but thought that it was more important at the time of the second survey. She maintained the opinion that learning a language may have a potential practical use, either to teach other people in her home environment or when travelling.

While Melissa reported that the teacher was a very important negative factor in phase one, she made no further comments about the teacher in the second questionnaire. Overall it appeared that Melissa was mainly motivated through perceiving herself as being successful in the subject. By phase two receiving positive feedback from her circle of friends appeared to have become an important aspect of this. Despite that, comparisons with other subjects and the wider school context, which she appeared to have perceived as increasingly positive, may have contributed to an overall reduced enthusiasm for the subject in phase two.

(vi) Summary

The Group 1 profiles appeared to reflect the themes developed out of the ranking questions data. There was further confirmation of the strong impact of factors related to the social interactions in the classroom, such as feelings of well-being and belonging. Criticism of behaviour issues emerged as a particularly strong factors from the profiles. Despite that the data suggested the emergence of a variety of new themes for each individual which incorporated changes in attitude over time. This suggested complex

motivational stories for each individual which apparently could not be accounted for consistently through the influence of particular factors alone.

4.2.2.2. Group 2 – match with trend

The statistical analysis of the data generated by this group indicated that the process of opinion formation here appeared to be mainly influenced by perceptions of the immediate classroom situation, i.e. the classroom dynamics ('teacher', 'friends') and the lesson content ('activities'), while factors relating to the wider context and the practical use of the language ('career') appeared to have become less important as the academic year progressed. It appeared that opinions about the impact of some of the most influential factors, namely 'teacher' and 'activities', were divided. There appeared to be a potential breakdown in teacher-pupil relationships and disaffection with the subject for some pupils, while other pupils retained their enthusiasm for teacher and subject. The data suggested that there was a widespread lack of enjoyment for the subject from the beginning of the year.

(i) Social dynamics – friends (Andrew, Tanya)

Participant no. 148 (M), Andrew, German (remained in same group): Andrew reported a maintained like of language lessons in both phases (2-2). He indicated that the other pupils disliked the lessons in phase one, and in question three, phase two, that their opinions were unchanged. However his response to the rating scale no longer indicated a strong view (4-3). He rated his opinion towards school in general as a dislike in both

phases (4-4), but reported an intensified dislike in question five in the second questionnaire.

He indicated in both questionnaires that having friends was a very important positive factor to him, as it made the lessons more enjoyable. In phase one he added that he thought that the lessons were quite enjoyable, but did not repeat this in phase two. In the second questionnaire he reported that the opinion of the other pupils in the class about him receiving rewards or sanctions was not important to him and also that he had not been given any.

While he indicated that he perceived the potential relevance of the language for career and visits as important positive factors, his further comments suggested that he did not believe that learning the language had a practical use outside school. In phase one he regarded the activities as the most important positive factor. However, it appeared that he felt very strongly about the perceived slow pace of some of the lessons, as he made use of the opportunity to add his own comment, ranking this as the most important negative factor. While Andrew perceived the teacher as an important negative factor in the first part of the survey, he ranked the teacher as the most important positive factor in phase two, but reported that poor behaviour was an important negative factor. In phase two he suggested asking the other pupils which part of the learning content they had enjoyed most recently. Overall it appeared that Andrew maintained a positive opinion about learning a foreign language and that he regarded having friends in the class as a positive part of the learning environment. It did not appear that he perceived social

interactions with the peer group as an alternative concept to academic focus and positive interaction with the teacher.

Participant no. 160 (F), Tanya, German (remained in same group): Tanya did not indicate a strong opinion of language lessons in either questionnaire (3-3). She reported thinking that the other pupils disliked the lessons in both parts of the survey (4-4), by phase two indicating an intensified dislike in question three. She did not report a strong opinion of school at either point in time (3-3).

She perceived having friends as the most important positive factor in the beginning of the year. Although her later ranking appeared to reduce their importance, she said that she needed friends in case she needed help with the classwork, and would not want to ask pupils she did not like.

While she did not identify any negative factors in the beginning of the year, in phase two Tanya perceived lack of relevance of learning a foreign language for potential careers as the most important negative factor and added further comments suggesting that she did not think that learning a language had a practical use for everyday life. She also identified comparisons with other school subjects and lack of enjoyment as important negative factors, while she perceived the feeling of making progress and the lesson activities as positive factors. She suggested asking the other pupils what other languages they might want to learn. She also reported having received a merit, but that it was not important to her. Overall it appeared that Tanya maintained a moderately positive attitude towards the subject and that having friends was important to her to

create a supportive classroom environment. Her responses suggested that she may have perceived the social dynamics of the peer group as disharmonious at the time of the second part of the survey and also that lack of choice of the language learnt was a negative aspect for her.

(ii) Polarisation – activities (Sarah, Luke)

Participant no. 171 (F), Sarah, German (remained in same group): Sarah's responses to the rating scales indicated a strong like of the lessons in phase one, but dampened enthusiasm by phase two (1-2). However, this was not confirmed in question one, where she indicated intensified enjoyment. While she thought the other pupils strongly liked the lessons in phase one, she was less sure of their opinions in phase two, not indicating a strong view (1-3). She reported a like of school in phase one and although she indicated not having changed her opinion in phase two, my scoring system suggested reduced enthusiasm (2-3).

While she perceived the activities as an important positive factor in both phases, she also perceived them as a negative factor at the time of the second survey. In phase one she regarded having friends as important, because it enabled her to enjoy the lesson activities more, but her response suggested that concentrating on the work was more important to her. She expressed a similar opinion in the second questionnaire.

In phase two she reported having received merits, which she perceived as positive feedback on her achievements in the subject. She stated that the other pupils' opinions

about her receiving rewards or sanctions were unimportant to her. Sarah reported in both phases that learning a language might have a practical value, although it appeared that her response in the second questionnaire was more negative than before. She identified poor behaviour as a very important negative factor in phase one and this became the most important negative factor in phase two. In the beginning of the year she perceived the teacher as the most important positive factor, but by the time of the second questionnaire as both an important positive or negative factor. In phase two she suggested asking the other pupils to make suggestions about the learning in class. Overall it appeared that Sarah maintained a positive attitude towards learning a foreign language. Her responses suggested that the successful completion of the learning activities was an important factor in generating enthusiasm for the subject. It appeared that she increasingly perceived the social dynamics of the peer group as having a potentially negative impact on the lessons.

Participant no. 173 (M), Luke, German (remained in same group): Luke reported strongly liking language lessons in phase one, but by phase two, in question one, indicated reduced enthusiasm, reflected in the rating scale question (1-3). While he did not indicate a strong view about the opinions of the other pupils in either part of the survey (3-3), he indicated reduced enjoyment through question three in phase two. He reported a dislike of school in phase one, but although in phase two he thought his opinion was unchanged, his rating suggested an improved opinion (4-3).

While he perceived the lesson activities as an important negative factor in phase one, this became the most important negative factor in phase two. He ranked the teaching

materials as a negative factor in both phases. His comments suggested that he did not think that anything he learnt in language lessons was relevant for his everyday life at either point in time, but in phase two ranked the potential importance of learning a language for future careers as a very important positive factor.

He considered having friends to be a very important factor in phase one and an important factor in phase two. He reported in phase one that friends were important to help settle into the school environment and to help with the classwork. In phase two his response suggested that having friends was still important in facilitating classwork. Although not mentioned in phase one, the teacher became a very important positive factor at the time of the second survey. In phase two he said that he liked receiving merits. His further responses suggested that he believed that giving out rewards had a positive impact on the pupils, but that giving out sanctions did not have any effect. Overall it appeared that Luke maintained a moderately positive attitude towards engaging with the classwork and that he perceived the impact of the teacher and receiving rewards as increasingly positive, but that he perceived factors related to the material lesson content as increasingly negative, which had an impact on his overall enjoyment of the subject. His responses also suggested that he perceived the rewards and sanctions system as partially ineffective.

(iii) Polarisation – teacher (Victoria, Tiffany)

Participant no. 170 (F), Victoria, German (remained in same group): Victoria indicated a strong like of language lessons in phase one, and although she reported not having

changed her opinion in phase two, her response to the rating scale suggested reduced enthusiasm (1-2). She did not indicate a strong view about the opinions of the other pupils in either phase (3-3). Her ratings in the school question suggested reduced enjoyment by phase two (1-3), despite reporting an unchanged opinion in question five.

She reported perceiving the teacher as the most important positive factor in both phases and added further positive comments about the teacher in the second questionnaire. In the same questionnaire she commented on the work not being explained properly, ranking this as a very important negative factor. She indicated in phase one that poor behaviour was a negative factor and by phase two this became the most important negative factor. In phase one she said that having friends in the class was not very important to her, as she believed that focusing on the work was more important than socialising in the lessons. In phase two she reported that having friends was important in creating a supportive classroom atmosphere, giving the example of having to speak in front of the class.

She indicated in phase two that the work was getting more difficult, which she perceived as a very negative factor as well as a challenge. She said that she was proud of having been given merits, as she perceived the subject as difficult. Victoria reported that it was not important to her what the other pupils in the class thought about her receiving rewards, as she thought that many pupils received rewards frequently. She added that she thought the other pupils in the class would not take notice if she was given a detention. She maintained her opinion that learning a foreign language had a potential practical use in her everyday life throughout both phases. Overall it appeared

that Vitoria maintained her very positive attitude towards the subject. Her questionnaire responses suggested that she regarded the teacher as a very important influence on her motivation throughout. Social interactions with the friendship group did not appear to be very important for her and she perceived the poor behaviour of some pupils in the class as a negative influence. Her responses suggested that the perceived degree of difficulty of the work had the potential to be a negatively as well as a positively motivating factor (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.2.2.).

Participant no. 157 (F), Tiffany, German (remained in same group): Tiffany indicated a strong like of language lessons in phase one, but reduced enjoyment in phase two, rating her opinion as a dislike (1-4). While she thought the other pupils liked the lessons in phase one, she reported being less sure of their opinions in phase two, no longer indicating a strong view (2-3). She reported a strong like of school in phase one, but although she indicated not having changed her opinion in question five, her rating in phase two suggested reduced enthusiasm (1-2).

While she believed that the teacher was the most important positive factor in the beginning of the year, she reported that this was both a very important positive factor as well as the most important negative factor in phase two. In phase two she said that she would feel normal about receiving merits, but that she would not like the teacher if she was given detentions. She also believed that the other pupils in the class would call her a 'teacher's pet' if she was given a lot of merits, but that she was not concerned about their opinions if she was given detentions. Her responses in both questionnaires

suggested that having friends in the class was very important to her, as she would not pay full attention in class without her friends and would find the lessons very boring.

In both phases Tiffany reported that learning a language did not have any practical use in her everyday life and in phase two she suggested asking the other pupils what language they would like to learn. Although she rated her opinion about language lessons as a strong like in the beginning of the year, she felt strongly enough about not being inspired very much by the subject to add her own comment to the rank-order questions in the same questionnaire. Overall it appeared that Tiffany had a moderately positive attitude towards the subject in the beginning of the year, but a negative opinion of language lessons by the time of the second survey. She referred to the potential negative impact of the teacher in several of her responses in the second questionnaire, while having friends and positive social interactions with the peer group appeared to be very important for her throughout both phases. Her responses suggested also that lack of choice of the language learnt may have been a negative factor for her.

(iv) Lack of relevance outside school (John, Bradley)

Participant no. 145 (M), John, German (remained in same group): John reported a strong like of language lessons in both phases, for both, himself (1-1) as well as the perceived opinions of the other pupils (1-1) and also maintained a very positive opinion of school in general throughout the two parts of the survey (1-1), indicating intensified enjoyment in phase two in all three questions.

While he indicated at the beginning of the year that the potential relevance of the subject for visits abroad was an important positive factor, he believed in phase two that the lack of relevance of the subject for future careers was an important negative factor. His responses in phase one suggested that he thought learning a language had a potential limited practical use in everyday life, but in phase two he reported that he would not use German in everyday life. He suggested asking the other pupils whether they would opt out of learning a language if it was possible to do so.

In both questionnaires he reported that having friends was an important positive factor for him, as they could help with the classwork. He considered the teacher to be a very important positive factor in the beginning of the year, but did not comment on this in phase two. He reported that when he was given merits he felt that he was achieving beyond the expectations in the subject. John ranked the feeling of making progress and enjoyment as very important positive factors in both phases. In the second questionnaire he added a comment to the ranking question saying that being able to speak another language was an important positive factor. Overall it appeared that John maintained a very positive attitude towards the subject despite believing that learning a language did not have a practical use in everyday life for him. His responses appeared to suggest that he was mainly motivated by learning and being able to speak a foreign language, but also that not having the option of opting out of learning a language was a potentially negative factor.

Participant no. 161 (M), Bradley, German (remained in same group): Bradley reported liking language lessons in phase one, but despite reporting an unchanged opinion in

question one, his rating in phase two suggested reduced enthusiasm (2-3). He did not indicate a strong view about the opinions of the other pupils in phase one, but perceived a dislike of the lessons in phase two (3-4). This was not confirmed in question three as he indicated unchanged opinions. He reported a dislike of school in phase one, but increased enjoyment in phase two, without expressing a strong view (4-3).

He indicated in both questionnaires that the lack of relevance of the subject for future careers was the most important negative factor for him and added that he did not believe learning a language had a practical use in his everyday life, although it might be useful for potential holidays.

Having friends was a very important factor for him in both phases. He added in phase one that having friends was important to create a supportive classroom atmosphere. In phase two he said that having friends was very important to him, as he would have no-one to talk to if he did not have friends in the class and the lessons would be boring. However, the opinion of the others in the class about him being given merits or detentions was not important to him. He said that he had been given merits and that he felt positively about that. Overall it appeared that Bradley maintained a moderately positive attitude towards some aspects of the language lessons, but that he perceived the subject as unimportant. It appeared that the social aspect of having friends in the class had become more important to him as the academic year had progressed.

(v) Negativity from phase one (Zoe, Carl)

Participant no. 147 (F), Zoe, German (remained in same group): Zoe indicated a strong dislike of language lessons in both parts of the survey (5-5), by phase two reporting an intensified dislike in question one. She rated the opinions of the other pupils as a strong dislike in both phases (5-5), indicating further deterioration by phase two in question three. She did not indicate a strong view of school in either phase (3-3).

She indicated that the teacher was the most important negative factor and that lack of enjoyment was a very important negative factor in both phases. She did not engage with most of the open-ended questions in phase one, but reported believing that learning a language had no potential practical use in her everyday life in both phases. She indicated that having friends in the class was an important factor for her at both points in time and added in phase two that having friends was very important to her as she would find the lessons boring if she did not have friends in the class. She also suggested asking the other pupils if they were going to opt out of learning German as soon as the subject was becoming an option subject at the end of year 9. She reported not feeling strongly about receiving merits or detentions and that the opinion of the other pupils about her being given rewards or sanctions was unimportant to her.

In phase one Zoe considered the learning activities the most important positive factor and the relevance of the subject for potential visits abroad a very positive factor. In phase two she indicated that the teaching materials were a very important positive factor for her. Overall it appeared that Zoe maintained a mostly negative attitude towards

learning a foreign language throughout both parts of the survey. Her responses suggested that she perceived the teacher as a very strong negative influence on the lessons, but that lack of a perceived practical value of the subject and lack of enjoyment of the lessons also had a sustained negative impact on her opinion, while positive social interactions with the peer group were important to her in both phases. Despite that the lesson activities and some material aspects of learning a language maintained a positive influence. Her responses also suggested that lack of choice of whether or not to learn a language was a potentially negative aspect to her.

Participant no. 155 (M), Carl, German (remained in same group): Carl reported a dislike of language lessons in both phases (4-4). He did not indicate a strong view about the opinions of the other pupils in either phase (3-3), but reported strongly disliking school in both phases (5-5). His responses to the additional questions in phase two suggested intensified negativity in all three aspects.

He reported in both questionnaires that lack of enjoyment of language lessons was a very important negative factor for him. In the beginning of the year, he thought that the teaching materials were the most important negative factor and in phase two he indicated that the lack of relevance of learning a language for potential future careers was the most important negative factor, but his further comments in both phases suggested that he believed there may be potential practical use in learning a language in the future. In phase one he reported that having friends was an important positive factor, as he could complete the classwork together with them, which would be very boring if

he had no friends in the class. His responses in phase two suggested that having friends was still important to him to be able to complete the work.

In phase two he indicated having been given merits which had reassured him of doing well in the subject and that he believed giving out rewards was important to provide positive feedback to pupils. He also reported that the feeling of making progress was the most important positive factor. While in phase one he perceived the behaviour of the other pupils as an important positive factor, in phase two poor behaviour became an important negative factor in. He suggested asking the other pupils whether they liked the subject or not and if they thought that learning a language was important for their future lives.

Although Carl reported a maintained and deepening dislike of learning a language in response to the rating-scale question, it appeared overall that his attitude towards the subject was more positive in phase two, which may have been related to the rewards he had received and the feeling of making progress in the subject. His responses suggested that he was unsure about the potential practical value of the subject throughout both phases.

(vi) Summary

The group 2 profiles reflected the group culture traits developed out of the rank-order data. Also, the data appeared to confirm the social interactions of the classroom as a very prominent concern for the pupils. The profiles suggested that many pupils

perceived the subject as having little practical value and criticised a lack of choice with regard to the language learnt or opting out altogether. Otherwise, the analysis indicated a great variety of diverging sub-plots to the group culture traits within each individual pupil, thus suggesting an increased degree of complexity and the emergence of individualised motivation stories.

4.2.2.3. Group 3 – more negative

The statistical analysis of the data generated by this group indicated that the factors which had the strongest impact on the opinions of language lessons in this group appeared to be related to the immediate classroom situation and dynamics. These were ‘teacher’, ‘friends’, ‘activities’ and ‘enjoyment’. It appeared that factors related to interpersonal relationships were regarded as more important at the time of the second survey (‘teacher’ and ‘friends’) than factors related to lesson content (‘activities’ and ‘enjoyment’). As far as factors related to the lesson content are concerned, it seemed that factors with immediate motivational value, i.e. ‘activities’ and ‘enjoyment’, were perceived as more important than more long-term motivational factors, such as ‘career’ and ‘visits’. The data suggested a pattern of polarisation in phase one with regard to the opinions about some of the factors relevant to creating the immediate classroom experience in language lessons (‘teacher’, ‘activities’), with many pupils holding an either very positive or very negative opinion about these.

(i) Social dynamics – friends (Chelsea, Emma)

Participant no. 36 (F), Chelsea, German (remained in same group): Chelsea reported a strong dislike of language lessons in both parts of the survey (5-5), by phase two indicating intensified dislike in question one. She held no strong opinion on the other pupils' opinions in phase one, but by phase two felt that they liked lessons less and indicated strong dislike (3-5). Her responses suggested a strong dislike of school at both points in time (5-5) and further reduced enjoyment in phase two, as reported in question five.

She reported in both phases that having friends in the class was the most important positive factor for her. This was confirmed in the open-ended questions in the first questionnaire, without providing further detail. In phase two she indicated that having friends was important to her in creating a supportive classroom atmosphere and to help with the classwork.

She perceived the teacher as the most important negative factor in phase one and suggested further criticism of the teacher in the open-ended questions. In phase two the teacher seemed to be a very important positive or negative factor. She added poor behaviour as a very important negative factor in phase two. In the second questionnaire she said that she did not think that the other pupils paid attention to her receiving merits and she also reported that merits were not given out in her language lessons. While she did not think, in phase one, that learning a language had practical use for her everyday life, she reported in phase two that it may have potential practical use for trips abroad.

She suggested asking the other pupils about their opinion of school so as to identify the main problems as well as their favourite subject. Overall it appeared that Chelsea had a very negative attitude towards learning a foreign language in the beginning of the year, which appeared to be related to the negativity she associated with the teacher and the perceived lack of relevance of the subject. Her responses in phase two suggested a more positive attitude towards some aspects of the subject and more diversified criticism involving the teacher, the behaviour and attitude of the group as well as a deepening negative perception of the wider school context.

Participant no. 47 (F), Emma, German (remained in same group): Emma did not express a strong view about language lessons in phase one, but reported reduced enjoyment in phase two, indicating a strong dislike (3-5). She also held no strong views on the opinions of the other pupils, but by phase two thought that they enjoyed them less than before and strongly disliked them (3-5). She strongly disliked school in both phases (5-5) and reported an intensified dislike in question five.

In the ranking question in phase one she did not comment on the importance of having friends in the class, but reported in the open-ended questions that she thought having friends was not important to her, as she would not be able to concentrate on the classwork if she had friends in the class. In the second questionnaire having friends was the most important positive factor and she added that friends were very important for helping her with classwork or having private conversations during the lesson.

While in phase one she thought that the teacher was the most important positive factor, this became the most important negative factor in phase two. In phase one she believed learning a foreign language was potentially important for everyday life, but in phase two she reported that there was no practical use in learning a language, as she would never go to Germany, and questioned the need to study languages in school. She also thought receiving merits was positive, but that she did not feel strongly about it, and that receiving detentions was negative. She did not perceive the opinion of the other pupils about her being given rewards or sanctions as important. She reported that the teaching activities were a very important positive factor in phase two. She suggested asking the other pupils whether they liked the topic they were being taught at the time of completing the survey. Overall it appeared that Emma had a moderately positive attitude towards learning a foreign language in the beginning of the year, but had developed a mostly negative attitude by phase two. Her responses in phase two suggested a breakdown in the relationship with the teacher and a redefined perception of the role of friendship relationships in class, which appeared to emphasise the social function of having friends over the work context. While Emma perceived no practical value of the subject in phase two, her responses suggested that she perceived some aspects of the lessons, such as particular activities and units in the textbook as having a continued positive motivational impact.

(ii) Polarisation – activities (Sophia, Lucy)

Participant no. 51 (F), Sophia, German (remained in same group): Sophia indicated a strong like of language lessons in phase one but by phase two her rating suggested

dampened enthusiasm (1-2). This was not confirmed in question one where she indicated not having changed her opinion. She thought that the other pupils disliked the lessons in phase one and indicated intensified dislike in phase two, rating their opinion as a strong dislike (4-5). She reported no strong feelings about school in phase one, but increased enjoyment and a strong like by phase two (3-1).

Her responses to the rank-order questions in both phases suggested that she did not perceive any of the factors as having a negative impact and that the learning activities were one of the most important positive factors, while she perceived some of the other factors, such as the potential relevance of the subject for trips abroad, as having a less consistent positive impact. She did not provide any details about her opinion of the activities elsewhere, but added a comment in phase one suggesting that she strongly liked learning languages.

While the teacher was highlighted as an important positive factor in phase one, this became the most important factor in phase two. She reported having been given a merit, which she felt very positively about, and that she had received further positive feedback about her achievement from family at home, but that the opinion of the other pupils in the class about her receiving rewards or sanctions was not important to her. Having friends in the class was one of the most important factors for her in phase one, but a less important positive factor by phase two. She suggested asking the other pupils whether they enjoyed the topic they were studying at the time of completing the questionnaire and what they thought about the teacher. Overall it appeared that Sophia sustained a very positive attitude towards learning a foreign language. Her responses in phase two

suggested that her opinion of school in general had improved while she appeared to have become less certain of her enjoyment of language lessons. Although she perceived the teacher as a very positive factor and social interactions with the peer group seemed to have become less important to her by phase two, it appeared that her perceptions of growing disaffection and polarised opinions within the peer group about the lesson content and the teacher may have had some impact on her opinion of the lessons.

Participant no. 58 (F), Lucy, German (remained in same group): Lucy reported a dislike of language lessons in both phases (4-4) and by phase two indicated intensified dislike in question one. She thought that the others pupils disliked the lessons in phase one and indicated a strong dislike in phase two (4-5). She did not indicate a strong opinion about school in phase one. Although she reported unchanged opinions in phase two, my scoring system suggested a deterioration (3-4).

She thought the activities were a very important negative factor in phase one and one of the most important negative factors by phase two. Although in phase two she also perceived the activities as a potentially positive factor in phase two, her additional comments suggested further criticism of the lesson content. She stated that she believed the teacher did not set any work and that the lessons were boring. Although not mentioned in phase one, she thought that having friends was one of the most important positive factors in phase two. She reported in both phases that having friends was important in helping with classwork. In phase two there appeared to be an emphasis on the socialising aspect of having friends, as she sometimes perceived the lessons as non-engaging.

The teacher moved from an important negative factor in phase one to a very important one in phase two. The teacher was also seen in both phases as a potentially important positive factor, but her further comments suggested that this was prevented by the teacher's generally negative attitude and unfair use of detentions. By phase two behaviour issues were highlighted as an important negative factor. She suggested asking the other pupils what they would like to change about the lessons. Overall it appeared that Lucy had a fairly negative attitude towards the language lessons throughout both phases. Her responses suggested that by phase two the negativity she associated with the lessons was mainly focused on the teacher's selection and presentation of the lesson activities as well as the teacher's classroom management.

(iii) Polarisation – teacher (Lydia, Christopher)

Participant no. 39 (F), Lydia, German (remained in same group): Lydia reported a strong dislike of language lessons in both phases (5-5) indicating intensified dislike in question one. She believed that the other pupils disliked the lessons in phase one and that their opinions had deteriorated into a strong dislike in phase two (4-5). She strongly disliked school at both points in time (5-5), by phase two reporting intensified dislike in question five.

She perceived the teacher as the most important negative factor in both phases and made additional comments, which in phase one suggested criticism of the teacher's delivery of the lesson content. She reported that she perceived the lessons as non-engaging and also indicated that she thought the lesson activities were an important negative factor.

Her comments in phase two implied dissatisfaction with the teacher's classroom management, as she thought the teacher was giving out detentions unfairly and did not reward good work or behaviour with merits. In phase two she perceived the activities as having a potentially important positive or negative impact, which suggested a more positive attitude to the lesson content at the later point in time.

In phase one having friends was the most important positive factor and her additional comments in both phases suggested that socialising was the most important aspect of having friends, as she perceived the lessons as generally boring and having friends made them more enjoyable. In phase two having friends was still one of the most important positive factors, but the activities, positive behaviour, general enjoyment and the level of satisfaction with the subject in comparison to other subjects were potentially equally important. She perceived learning a foreign language as irrelevant for her everyday life in both phases, but her comments in phase two indicated that her negative attitude may have been related to a perceived lack of choice about the language she studied, rather than a general dislike of learning languages. Overall it appeared that Lydia maintained a negative attitude towards language lessons throughout both phases. It appeared that she blamed the teacher for negative perceptions of lesson content and the rewards and sanctions system.

Although her responses to the second questionnaire indicated a deepening dislike of the lessons, there also appeared to be increased positivity about individual factors, such as the activities, against the background of comparisons with school in general.

Participant no. 41 (M), Christopher, German (remained in same group): Christopher's responses suggested a strong like of language lessons in phase one, but dampened enthusiasm in phase two where he no longer held a strong opinion (1-3). He did not express a strong view about the other pupils' opinions in phase one, but reported reduced enjoyment by phase two, indicating a strong dislike (3-5). He strongly liked school in phase one and reported maintained enthusiasm in phase two, although my scoring system suggested dampened enthusiasm (1-2).

The teacher was the most important positive factor in phase one but by phase two the teacher had become a very important positive or negative factor. He considered poor behaviour as one of the most important negative factors in both phases. This was confirmed by his additional comments in phase two which suggested that he considered the attitude towards the teacher, both positive and negative, a very important influence on the enjoyment of the lessons. His comments implied that he perceived the attitude of some pupils in the class as disrespectful of the teacher.

He maintained the opinion that learning German had potential practical use in his everyday life, both in his home environment as well as for trips abroad. Having friends in the class was important in both phases, as they created a supportive classroom atmosphere and helped with the learning. His responses in phase two suggested that he had been given merits for good work or good behaviour and that he felt positively about this, as it represented an achievement. It also appeared that he felt positively about the potential reactions of the other pupils when he was given a reward, although he did not provide any more details. He suggested asking the other pupils whether they enjoyed

school and the language they learnt. Overall Christopher's responses suggested a very positive attitude towards learning German and school in general. His responses to the second questionnaire suggested reduced enjoyment of language lessons and that this was related to frustration over the apparent poor behaviour of some pupils in his class and the disrespect of the teacher he perceived in their behaviour.

(iv) Enjoyment (Aidan, Sabrina)

Participant no. 44 (M), Aidan, German (remained in same group): Aidan reported strongly disliking language lessons in both phases (5-5), indicating an intensified dislike by phase two in question one. He believed that the opinions of the other pupils deteriorated from a dislike in phase one to a strong dislike in phase two (4-5), which was corroborated by his response to question three. He rated his opinion of school as a strong dislike in both questionnaires (5-5) and indicated intensified dislike in question five.

He perceived the teacher as the most important negative factor in phase one, the activities as very important and general lack of enjoyment as an important negative factor. Aidan's responses in phase two suggested increased disaffection, as he ranked all factors as most important negative factors and none of the factors in the list as positive. He indicated in both phases that learning a language had no potential practical use for his everyday life and added his own comment in phase one, stating in strong language that he thought learning German was very boring. He reported in the first questionnaire

that having friends was an important positive factor and commented in both phases that they were important as he would have no-one to talk to if he had no friends in the class. He consistently perceived the teacher as a very negative factor and reported in phase two that he had not been given any merits or detentions because of the teachers in the school. His responses to the first questionnaire suggested that he perceived positive behaviour as a very important factor and that he believed that the learning activities were an important positive or negative factor. Overall it seemed that Aidan had a negative attitude towards learning a language in the beginning of the year which appeared to have deepened at the time of the second survey. His responses in the second questionnaire suggested a global disaffection with the subject which may have been related to the perceived lack of relevance of the subject and a potential breakdown in the pupil-teacher relationship, not only within the setting of the subject, but the wider school environment.

Participant no. 55 (F), Sabrina, German (remained in same group): Sabrina did not indicate a high opinion of the lessons in phase one, but reported a strong like in phase two (3-1). This was not supported in question one where she claimed not to have changed her opinion. Her responses to the rating scales suggested improved opinions of the other pupils by phase two (3-2), but in question three she indicated being unsure about whether their opinions had changed. She reported a maintained strong like of school in both phases (1-1).

While in phase one she perceived lack of enjoyment as the most important negative factor, she indicated in phase two that general enjoyment of the lessons was both, a

potentially positive and negative factor. She believed learning a language had a practical use in her everyday life at both points in time, as she was going to use the language to communicate with members of her family and when going on holidays. In phase one she said that having friends in the class was important to her in creating a supportive classroom atmosphere. In the second questionnaire she reported that having friends was an important factor and added that it was important to help each other with the classwork. She also reported having been given a merit, which she perceived as positive. Her responses suggested that she perceived the opinions of the other pupils in the class about her being given rewards or sanctions as important and that she believed receiving detentions was negative.

She perceived the teacher as the most important positive factor in phase one, but as both a very important positive as well as the most important negative factor in phase two. In phase two she also suggested asking the other pupils whether they thought the teacher was listening to them. Although poor behaviour was not mentioned in phase one, in phase two she identified it as a very important negative factor and considered good behaviour to be an important positive factor.

Overall it appeared that Sabrina had a positive attitude towards learning a foreign language in the beginning of the year and that her enjoyment of the lessons had increased by phase two. Her responses suggested that her maintained perception of a practical use of the language as well as her maintained enthusiasm for school in general and her recognition of the effectiveness of the rewards and sanctions system may have been related to sustaining her positive attitude.

However, the teacher appeared to have become an increasingly negative factor and her responses suggested that her perception of not having a voice may have contributed to this. Also, the behaviour of the class appeared to have become more prominent by phase two.

(v) Practical use – career and visits (Tina, Sonya)

Participant no. 49 (F), Tina, German (remained in same group): Tina reported a dislike of the lessons in phase one and a strong dislike in phase two (4-5), indicating intensified dislike in question one. She believed that the other pupils disliked the lessons at both points in time (4-4), but that their dislike had also intensified by phase two. She reported liking school in phase one, but her response in phase two suggested reduced enthusiasm, where she no longer expressed a strong opinion (2-3).

She perceived the learning activities as the most important positive factor in phase one and thought that lack of enjoyment was the most important negative factor. While she still regarded the activities as the most important positive factor in phase two, she indicated that lack of relevance of the subject for potential future careers was the most important negative factor. She wrote in the second questionnaire that the subject had some importance for her everyday life in that she had learnt a lot in German which would help her in everyday situations when going abroad.

Although the teacher was not mentioned in phase one, in phase two she regarded him/her as an important positive factor and also reported that having friends in the class was important in providing help (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.1.3.). She reported having been given merits, but that she did not feel strongly about it. She considered the opinion of the other pupils in the class about her being given merits or detentions as moderately important, but believed that detentions were fair. She indicated in phase one that poor behaviour was an important negative factor and in phase two that positive behaviour was an important factor. She suggested asking the other pupils about their opinion and to comment on the content of the lessons. Overall it appeared that Tina maintained a critical attitude towards learning a foreign language throughout both phases, which appeared to be mainly determined by factors related to the immediate experience of the classroom situation, such as lesson content and enjoyment. Her responses suggested however that more material and practical aspects were also important to her and appeared to have become more influential as the academic year progressed. Positive classroom interactions with friends and the teacher also appeared to have gained importance in phase two.

Participant no. 57 (F), Sonya, German (remained in same group): Sonya indicated a dislike of language lessons in phase one and intensified dislike in phase two, rating her opinion as a strong dislike (4-5). She did not express a strong view about the opinions of the other pupils in phase one, but thought that they strongly disliked the lessons in phase two (3-5). She did not indicate a strong opinion of school in either phase (3-3), but by phase two reported reduced enjoyment in question five.

In phase one she reported perceiving the teacher as the most important positive factor and general lack of enjoyment of the subject as the most important negative factor. While she regarded the potential relevance of the subject for future careers as an important positive factor in both phases, she also identified lack of relevance for career as a very important negative factor. She reported in phase one that learning a foreign language had potential practical use for going on holiday and in the second questionnaire that she had learnt the basics of the language, which was potentially important for her everyday life.

She indicated in both phases that having friends was important to her for purposes of creating a supportive classroom atmosphere and to help with the classwork. She perceived the teacher as an important positive or negative factor in phase two and her further comments suggested criticism of the teacher for not giving out merits. She perceived poor behaviour as a very important negative factor in both phases and added in phase two that she thought detentions were fair. She suggested asking the other pupils whether they preferred learning Spanish, French or German. Overall it appeared that Sonya's lack of enjoyment of language lessons had further decreased by the time of the second questionnaire. While she appeared to have maintained a mainly positive attitude towards some of the potential practical benefits of learning a foreign language and her own progress, it seemed that factors related to learning a foreign language in the immediate classroom situation had a bigger impact on the opinion-forming process. Her responses also suggested that lack of choice of the language learnt may have been a negative factor for her.

(vi) Summary

The profiles established for selected pupils from group 3 appeared to confirm the group culture traits, as well as the strong impact of factors related to the social dynamics of the classroom. Other factors emerging from the profiles that appeared to be particularly prominent in this group included criticism of the teacher, negative estimations of the motivation of the classmates and disaffection with school in general. Despite that the profiles mainly confirmed a high level of complexity and the emergence of complex motivation stories, individual to each pupil, which apparently could not be explained by the group culture traits or any combination of factors alone.

4.2.2.4. Conclusion

A search for potential patterns across all profiles suggested the following common themes: (1) Many pupils seemed critical of other members of their class, as well as the teacher (e.g. 'Melissa', group 1; 'Sarah', group 2; 'Sabrina', group 3) (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.1.4.). (2) The pupils from the more negative group (group 3) appeared to perceive their peers to be least enthusiastic (e.g. 'Aidan', 'Lucy', 'Lydia'), suggesting a potential relationship between perceived and own levels of motivation, fuelled by negative attributions derived from the environment ('learned helplessness') (see discussion chapter 5, sections 5.1.2. and 5.2.2.2.). (3) Some pupils focussed on their own achievements rather than their classmates, but while some profiles indicated a sustained level of self-sufficiency (e.g. 'Jessica', 'Melissa', group 1) others suggested this for only one of the phases (e.g. 'Daniel', group 1) (see discussion chapter 5, section

5.1.2.). (4) The rewards and sanctions system appeared to polarise opinions, i.e. some pupils believed that it provided positive feedback (e.g. ‘Luke’, group 2), while other profiles suggested a demotivating impact (e.g. Shannon, group 1) (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.1.3.). (5) Many pupils criticised a lack of choice with regard to the language learnt as well as the option to opt out altogether (e.g. ‘John’, group 2; ‘Lydia’, group 3) (see discussion chapter 5, section 5.2.1.5.).

The production of selected pupil profiles, and their compilation against the background of the themes that had emerged from the analysis of the ranking-questions data, revealed complex individual stories, which seemingly differed for each individual pupil. The analysis suggested diverging motivation stories even in cases where profiles appeared to be similar (e.g. ‘Tina’ and ‘Sonya’, group 3). Despite the emergence of some common themes from each group and also the combined profiles I concluded that the complexity revealed by the profiles could not be explained by any combination of factors, i.e. the profiles suggested dynamic individualised motivation stories, rather than predictable systems.

4.3. Choices made with regard to interview data

As outlined above in chapter 3, section 3.2.5.2., I incorporated small-scale semi-structured follow-up interviews in the design of the study as a means of triangulating any findings obtained through the analysis of the questionnaire data. Viewing the interview data during the process of data recording I decided that there was little the data added to the qualitative questionnaire findings discussed in foregoing sections and that a formal analysis was therefore unnecessary (for a discussion of this decision see

chapter 5, section 5.1.3.; sample transcripts of interviews can be found in appendix 1, tables 1.11. and 1.12.; transcripts of all interviews can be provided if necessary).

Chapter 5: Discussion and conclusion

In the following I consider whether the findings of the study answer the research questions and if so, to what extent. I do this by reviewing the impact of my methodological and analytical choices and by linking findings to the conceptualisation of motivation developed in the literature review in chapter 2. I then go on to consider potential implications for educational policy and practice. In section 5.4. I discuss the nature of the contribution to the field that I believe this study makes and in section 5.5. I suggest potential directions for future research in this area.

5.1. Research question one

My first research question was whether any evidence could be found of a general dip in motivation for language learning during year 7.

5.1.1. Evidence of a dip in motivation

My quantitative analysis strongly suggested a trend towards loss of motivation during the course of year 7. There was triangulating support for this through the comparison with general attitudes towards school. The data indicated the occurrence of a motivational dip through an overall downscale slide in the pupils' reported opinions of MFL, their perceptions of the opinions of their peers and their reported opinions about school in general. There was a strong downscale slide into negativity in the pupils' own opinions of MFL as well as those observed in their peers, resulting in a shift from

mainly positive opinions in phase one to mainly negative ones in phase two. There was a weaker trend towards negativity in the opinions about school in general, resulting in what appeared to be dampened enthusiasm (see above, chapter 4, section 4.1.1.). With reference to Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System it appeared that this could be interpreted as potential evidence of a shift in the pupils' perceptions of the 'self' as 'someone who enjoys learning a foreign language' and that it could be useful to explore potential causes of such a shift.

5.1.1.1. Merits and challenges of the double-snapshot design

I derived the finding of a motivational dip from the comparison of large-scale snapshot data collected in two separate data collection periods. Through this design I introduced a simplified longitudinal element to the study. This was a central element of my study as I intended to reflect principles of the Dynamic Systems Approach (DSA) in its design (see section 5.2.2.). As outlined above in chapter 2, Dörnyei (2009b) recommends longitudinal research into moment-to-moment changes in motivation at the micro level. Although the double-snapshot design could not represent changes over time, I believed that the differences between the two data sets generated through this method allowed me to conclude that levels of motivation in the sample were noticeably lower in phase two and therefore that a dip had occurred (see above chapter 4, section 4.1.1.). I also believed that the relatively large numbers involved in this conclusion added to its reliability. The comparability of the two snapshots was further enhanced through the design, as most questions were identical in both phases (see above, chapter 3, sections 3.7.2.2. and 3.7.6.2.).

Triangulation through the multiple-choice questions in phase two, i.e. questions 1, 3 and 5, revealed inconsistencies in the rating scale responses of some pupils, indicating that these pupils may have forgotten the responses they gave in phase one, due to the long time-interval between snapshots (see above, chapter 4, section 4.2.2., e.g. ‘Amy’, group 1). These inconsistencies were based on my analytical choice to quantify the rating scale responses through segmentation of the original scale into five Likert scale-like categories (see above, chapter 4, section 4.1.1.1.). It appeared that some of the richness of the data may have been lost through this, however it was necessary to establish large-scale trends in order to attempt an answer to research question one. Also, the emergence of inconsistencies suggested that triangulation through the multiple-choice questions was successful and highlighted the importance of incorporating both quantitative and qualitative approaches to data analysis in my study. I intended to achieve this by merging all an individual’s responses into a personalised profile. Through this I hoped to put the rating-scale responses into a context truer to the pupils’ intentions and to explore how the pupils perceived themselves with reference to Dörnyei’s (2005) conception of ideal and ‘ought selves’. The ensuing complex motivation stories appeared to indicate changes between the two phases. While the snapshot design precluded this, I believed that the relatively large number of profiles warranted a cautious interpretation of potential patterns (see chapter 4, section 4.2.2.4.).

5.1.1.2. Variations in sub-samples

My quantitative analysis suggested that none of the traditional sub-samples (gender, language, ability set) had impacted strongly on the overall trends, although there were

variations in starting point and in the extent of the downscale slide in opinions. For example, a noteworthy finding appeared to be that the pupils learning German, overall, as a group, seemed to be more satisfied than those learning French. However, the apparent variations in onset and extent of the downscale slide were caused by small numbers of individuals (see chapter 4, sections 4.1.3.4. to 4.1.3.6.). Also, the group of pupils learning German was much larger than the group of pupils learning French (see above chapter 3, section 3.6.). These factors were out of my control, but may have impacted on the results.

The analysis of motivational patterns at class level revealed greater complexity than suggested by the combined data, with some classes appearing to create a culture of increased motivation and some appearing to create a culture of demotivation. I analysed the data set for the influence of specific issues deemed important in the literature, such as the language being taught (German or French), the individual teacher or the ability level of the pupils. As suggested in chapter 4, section 4.1.5.1., an unexpected result lay in the possibility that negative group cultures were not necessarily emerging from lower-ability sets. That is, it appeared that these pupils, despite being classified as lower ability, may have seen themselves as more committed to potential 'ideal selves' as learners of a foreign language. This finding was affected by higher-than-average drop-out rates in the lower-ability sets. This may have skewed the results as, potentially, only those pupils who had more positive views supplied data in the first place. However, this finding was supplemented by the emergence of a theme of fundamental disappointment and global disaffection, represented in the factors added particularly by a few pupils' from higher-ability sets in the 'OTHER' section of the ranking questions (see above,

chapter 4, section 4.1.7.8.). It appeared from the pupil profiles that such feelings in higher-ability sets may have been related to perceived slow progression (chapter 4, section 4.2.2., e.g. ‘Adam’, group 1; ‘Andrew’, group 2) or a lack of choice of the language learnt (e.g. ‘Zoe’, group 2), where pupils had previous knowledge of a foreign language, suggesting the need to pay more attention to pre-secondary school L2 experiences. With regard to patterns of positivity and negativity within the language sub-samples the analysis at group level appeared to contradict earlier findings and suggested greater complexity (see chapter 4, section 4.1.5.1.), strongly implying the need for triangulation through a combination of various analytical approaches.

Due to limited space in the questionnaires, and due to the complexity of the concept of attributions, I did not explicitly extend the inquiry to attributions of ability. The findings in section 4.1.5.1. indicated that there was no obvious relationship between ability setting and group cultures. However, it appeared that pupils in a set labelled high ability may not necessarily perceive themselves as ‘able’ and vice versa. That is, perceptions of individual ability may have impacted on the results across different sets of presumed ability (see Graham, 2004) and may need to be incorporated into future research.

5.1.2. Attributions

My analysis did however suggest that attributions linked to certain factors may have impacted on motivation. It appeared possible to explain individual cases of negative group cultures by using elements of Attribution Theory (Weiner, 1986 & 1992), (see above, chapter 2, section 2.1.2.), especially the assumption that an individual’s

motivation may depend on attributions of success or failure to uncontrollable factors, such as the teacher (see Dörnyei, 2003a: 8). This was reflected in the ranking of factors in negative group cultures. While my large-scale quantitative analysis indicated that the teacher was not a reliable factor to explain outcomes (see chapter 4, sections 4.1.5.1. and 4.1.5.2.), exploration of the data at class level and through personal profiles did suggest considerable impact from this factor. It seemed, for example, that groups who ranked the teacher highly as a negative factor tended to display higher levels of disaffection. Also, groups that attached particularly strong weightings to individual factors appeared to be more negative (see chapter 4, section 4.1.6.2.). The pupil profiles in particular suggested that the teacher may have represented an ‘ought self’ for some pupils that was unattainable and therefore demotivating. This was reflected in some pupils’ perceptions of an unfair application of rewards and sanctions through the teacher (e.g. Shannon, group 1).

Further evidence for the potential impact of attributions emerged from the profiles. Dörnyei’s (1994) Three-Level Framework of L2 Motivation (see above, chapter 2, section 2.1.2) suggests that motivation at learner level is influenced by causal attributions and perceptions of self-efficacy. This idea was reflected in the profiles of some pupils who indicated high levels of self-sufficiency and self-reliance. The findings in chapter 4, section 4.2.2. revealed that some pupils appeared to focus on their own achievements in both phases (e.g. ‘Jessica’, ‘Melissa’, group 1), while others did so only in one of the two phases (e.g. ‘Daniel’, group 1). This suggested that feelings of self-sufficiency are not stable conditions, but may be subject to dynamic changes in how the

‘ought self’ is generated and perceived through the interaction with environmental factors (see below, section 5.2.1.).

The profiles also suggested that the pupils in the more negative group (group 3) were more likely to perceive a lack of enthusiasm in their peers than those in the other two groups, which indicated a potential relationship between perceptions of motivation in others and the pupils’ own motivation. While the finding did not necessarily imply a causal relationship, it appeared possible that many pupils somehow attributed low levels of motivation to membership in this group, potentially pointing to the effects of a ‘learned helplessness’ (see Williams and Burden, 1997; Graham, 2004).

5.1.3. Combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches

My analysis appeared to justify a mixed-method approach in social science research, combining quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection and analysis. This was supported by the emergence of inconsistencies in the rating-scale responses in phase two. In order to provide triangulation I attached multiple-choice questions to each of the rating scales in phase two, asking the pupils to indicate whether they felt more positive or negative, the same, or unsure in comparison to their previous responses. These were questions 1, 3 and 5 in phase two (see above, chapter 3, section 3.7.6.2.). While the main trends in the data were confirmed by the multiple-choice responses, there was evidence of contradictions in the responses of some individuals (e.g. chapter 4, section 4.2.2., ‘Amy’, group 1). This suggested that participants may never be totally reliable and may have been confused about the questions and earlier responses.

The production of pupil profiles by incorporating the open-ended questions (see chapter 3, section 3.7.2.4.) provided a more detailed look at individuals from a large sample and helped to put conflicting responses into context. Cohen *et al.* (2005: 281-282) warn that the translation of questionnaire answers into text is a form of interpretation and needs to be done with great care. Although this could not be fully prevented, I believe that the design of the questionnaire, generating quantitative and qualitative data as well as opportunities for triangulation, helped counteract the challenges involved in interpretation.

While the profiles provided a wider context, the open-ended responses raised questions about the intended meanings of some comments. For example, many pupils reported that having friends was important to them as they provided ‘help’ (e.g. chapter 4, section 4.2.2., ‘Tina’, group 3). As seen in chapter 3, section 3.8.1., I designed qualitative follow-up interviews to clarify ambiguities. The interviews mainly suggested that these utterances referred to the context of friends helping with classwork, rather than issues of social dynamics and peer pressures. During analysis of the questionnaire data I decided that the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches reflected in these appeared sufficient to question and adapt any ensuing conclusions, and I therefore did not use the interview data for any other purposes. Also, the interviews revealed that many pupils seemed hesitant to report about the perceived opinions of other pupils, which was corroborated by a high number of ‘middle value’ responses in the rating scales (see chapter 4, section 4.1.2.1). It appeared possible that the pupils had not thought about the opinions of their peers, did not perceive them as relevant to themselves or that they perceived their opinions as too diverse to warrant a simple

response. This suggested that although teachers tend to view classes as a whole, the individuals within the group may well not do so. Similarly, my quantitative analysis suggested the theme of ‘group cultures’, but the qualitative analysis of the profiles cast doubt on this.

The quantitative and qualitative approaches chosen in this study thus each raised questions and presented challenges. This suggested that a combination of both may be needed to prevent complacency.

5.2. Research question two

My second research question was to explore factors that might influence a motivational dip.

5.2.1. Impact of selected factors

My first quantitative interrogation of the data investigated individual motivational factors. These were ‘teacher’, ‘ability’ and ‘language learnt’. My analysis suggested that none of these factors in isolation or in combination could reliably explain outcomes (see chapter 4, sections 4.1.5.1. and 4.1.5.2.). However, despite being based on small numbers, the data did appear to suggest that the pupils learning German maintained more positive views than those learning French (see chapter 4, section 4.1.3.4 to 4.1.3.6.). That is, there was some evidence supporting suggestions made in the literature (e.g. Williams *et al.*, 2002) of a relationship between levels of motivation and the

language learnt. Also, the pupil profiles indicated that some pupils were disappointed with the language they were allocated to, particularly where they had prior experience of a different language (e.g. 'Lydia', group 3).

Further qualitative analysis of the more detailed questions showed that there were several factors which seemed to have particular power, either as positively or negatively motivating factors. These were the teacher, the rewards and sanctions system, perceptions of making progress, the learning activities, the social dynamics of the classroom and lack of curricular choices.

5.2.1.1. The teacher

The factor 'teacher' is conceptually linked to the exploration of various potential influences on motivation at the 'learning situation level', as suggested by Dörnyei's (1994) Three-Level Framework of L2 Motivation (see chapter 2, section 2.3. and chapter 3, section 3.7.2.3.) As indicated in chapter 4, section 4.1.5.1., it appeared from my quantitative analysis that the teacher may have contributed to generating positive attitudes for some pupils in some classes, but that none of the teachers in this study were always able to prevent or reverse negative group cultures, so that differences between the groups could not be explained through this factor.

Subsequent qualitative interrogation of the data further indicated a breakdown in the relationship with the teacher for some pupils, particularly in the more negative groups.

However, there was no indication of a cause-effect pattern, as worsening relationships could have been an effect rather than a cause of demotivation.

It appeared that the teacher divided opinions within some classes, i.e. while some pupils appeared to attribute blame to the teacher (e.g. chapter 4, section 4.2.2., 'Shannon', group 1), others maintained a very positive opinion (e.g. 'Daniel', group 1). Negativity associated with the teacher involved particularly the delivery of the lesson content (e.g. 'Lydia', group 3), perceived unfair application of the rewards and sanctions system (e.g. 'Shannon', group 1) and perceptions of denying pupils a 'voice' (e.g. 'Sabrina', group 3). However, many pupils criticised the teacher as well as their classmates (e.g. 'Sarah', group 2). Although many pupils associated the teacher with positivity, especially in phase one, somehow the developing social dynamics gave the teacher prominence as a polarising factor.

Both my quantitative and qualitative analysis appeared to suggest that the teacher represented a strong polarising factor within a complex system. The more detailed qualitative profiling suggested that perceptions of unfairness may have had particular impact in determining polarity, giving each teacher the potential to become a negative factor. It appeared that the teacher as a representative of the school system and the established 'ought self', was in some cases perceived as 'not playing by the rules'. This may have made it difficult for some pupils to measure themselves reliably against the 'ought self', promoted by the institution and may have generated some of the negativity associated with this factor.

5.2.1.2. Progress and activities

My quantitative analysis consistently identified the factor ‘progress’ as one of the most important motivational factors in the overall data (see chapter 4, sections 4.1.6.3. and 4.1.6.6.). As seen above, in the relevant sections on research and questionnaire design (chapter 2, section 2.3. and chapter 3, section 3.7.2.3.), I intended this factor to link in conceptually with perceptions of ‘difficulty’ and ‘ability’ within the ‘expectancy’ component of Crookes and Schmidt’s (1991) motivation model, as well as the concept of ‘attributions’, as found in Williams and Burden’s (1997) Social Constructivist Model.

The quantitative analysis of the data obtained from three selected individual classes suggested that the factor ‘progress’ maintained a positive motivational impact in both phases for the two higher ability sets represented in the data, while, by phase two, it was no longer ranked among the most important positive factors by the lower ability set. My qualitative analysis confirmed the maintained positive motivational impact of the factor ‘progress’ for many pupils in the two higher ability sets. Some pupils’ responses revealed that making progress was important for them to gain positive feedback from significant others, such as teachers or parents (e.g. Jessica, group 1). This suggested influence from actual and ought selves on the pupils’ motivation. That is, ‘progress’ appeared to have maintained its positive motivational impact where academic progress was considered to be a means to close the gap between actual and ought selves and where pupils were able to achieve such progress. This may have contributed to the forming of a sense of self-sufficient ideal selves, as reflected in the personal profiles of some pupils from the higher ability sets (e.g. Hannah, group 1). An overall lower level

of tolerance of 'poor behaviour' displayed by pupils in group 1 and 2 could possibly be further evidence of this.

However, where individuals perceived that they were not making sufficient progress through not being stretched enough by the content of the lessons, this may have had a demotivating impact (see e.g. Adam, group 1). This raised questions about the effectiveness of current practices of measuring progress through NC levels. That is, it appeared that, rather than promoting a culture of high motivation, standardised techniques of progression, such as the system of NC levels, may not have been providing enough challenge for some pupils and thus created a mismatch between a sense of ideal and ought selves for such individuals (see Mitchell, 2003).

This suggested that decline or stagnation in progress can be an important issue for some individuals. It appeared that in some groups which displayed higher negativity the factor 'progress' had been replaced in rank order by aspects of social dynamics. That is, where making progress was regarded as important and pupils felt that they were succeeding and meeting institutional expectations as well as their own expectations of progress, social dynamics and influences through peer pressure may have been less important within the dynamic system. My analysis further suggested that where progress declined in importance, especially in lower ability sets with higher negativity, social dynamics and, in particular, the teacher as a negative factor seemed to predominate within the system (see chapter 4, section 4.1.6.1.). These factors may therefore be interrelated. That is, where pupils are less self-sufficient, perhaps especially in lower ability sets, they may need positive and fair feedback on their progress from their teacher in order to

feel that they are making sufficient progress. Where pupils perceive that this is not happening, the teacher may become a more important negative factor and they may be more inclined to look to their peers for feedback.

Conceptually the factor 'activities' was related to Dörnyei's (1994) Three-Level Framework of L2 Motivation, where 'teaching methods' operate at the third level, the 'learning situation level' (see chapter 2, section 2.3. and chapter 3, section 3.7.2.3.). My quantitative analysis indicated that the factor 'activities' polarised opinions in the three selected groups as well as the in overall data (see chapter 4, sections 4.1.6.1. and 4.1.6.3.).

The qualitative pupil profiles suggested that the factor may have been seen as a part of wider motivational conglomerates by some pupils. These potential motivational conglomerates appeared to be composed from different factors for each individual. For Adam, group 1, for example, 'activities' and 'progress' appeared to be related concepts, while Lucy, group 3, seemed to link the activities to the teacher's style of teaching. Other pupils, e.g. Luke, group 2, commented on the lack of importance for everyday life provided by the learning activities, thus suggesting potential conglomeration of perceptions of 'relevance' and 'activities'.

However, the data did not provide sufficient detail to comment on the influence of the different learning activities on motivation, suggesting that further research in this area may be needed.

5.2.1.3. The rewards and sanctions system

Perceptions of the purpose and fairness of the rewards and sanctions system emerged as another polarising factor from my quantitative analysis. According to Williams and Burden's (1997) Social Constructivist Model, factors such as praise and punishment operate on the learner-external level and may impact on an individual's motivation through interactions with significant others. Within Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System, rewards and sanctions can be linked to the conceptualisation of the 'ought self'. That is, where individuals aim to meet the expectations of the 'ought self' but appear not to get rewarded for doing so, the system of rewards and sanctions may lose its meaning. This idea appeared to be reflected in the pupil profiles (see chapter 4, section 4.2.2.). Positive outcomes appeared to be related to feelings of positive reinforcement of behaviour. Groups of people perceived as significant were the teacher and the classmates (e.g. 'Melissa', group 1) or the parents and the classmates (e.g. 'Jessica', group 1). Negative outcomes appeared to be related to perceptions of an inconsistent application of the system by the teacher (e.g. 'Shannon', group 1), or negative peer pressure (e.g. 'Tiffany', group 3). It appeared that in some cases the peer group may have come to represent an alternative 'ought self'. While many pupils recognised a positive impact from rewarding good behaviour or achievement through merits, only a few indicated that detentions may have a purpose (e.g. 'Tina', group 3). It appeared possible that some pupils who saw themselves as incapable of achieving the institutional 'ought self' felt they were punished for failing by the system rather than being encouraged to try. My analysis suggested a strong impact of the rewards and sanctions system, which may not be surprising given the school context of the study and

particularly appeared to highlight the challenges of social control in the compulsory education sector. The importance of fair application of the system was strongly implied.

5.2.1.4. The social dynamics of the classroom

Factors related to interpersonal relationships emerged as very important from all parts of the analysis. My quantitative analysis in chapter 4, section 4.1.6.2., suggested that social interactions were particularly important in generating perceptions of classroom atmosphere. Complex interactions between different factors appeared to be strongly implicated and suggested holistic perceptions rather than an itemised view involving distinct factors. That is, factors such as the teacher, the activities and the behaviour of the class may have been merged together, creating perceptions of ‘atmosphere’ within a dynamic system. Further evidence for global estimations emerged from the analysis of the factors added by the pupils in the ‘OTHER’ section of the ranking question (see chapter 4, section 4.1.7.6.). Adopting a dynamic systems perspective on motivation, this potentially indicated the operation of motivational conglomerates (see Egbert, 2003) and reinforced questions about the usefulness of studying motivational factors in isolation (see sections 5.2.2.2. and 5.2.2.3.).

It further appeared that the data reflected Dörnyei’s (1994) Three-Level Framework of L2 Motivation (see above, chapter 2, section 2.1.2.) which locates influences on motivation from social interactions on the third level, the ‘learning situation level’. The findings of this study suggested the particular importance of influences on this level. From the qualitative profiling undertaken in chapter 4, section 4.2.2., it emerged that

many pupils were critical of both the teacher and their classmates, suggesting that there was widespread dissatisfaction with the social dynamics of the learning environment. While some pupils apparently maintained a positive attitude towards the lessons despite this (e.g. 'Melissa', group 1), others developed negative attitudes and may have contributed to the negativity in the dynamics themselves (e.g. 'Lucy', group 3). Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System suggests that motivation may be derived from a learner's vision of an 'ideal self'. The qualitative profiles indicated that some pupils created 'ideal selves' that fitted mainstream expectations of positive attitudes towards school and studying, by implication trusting the teacher and the system to do what is best for them, while others by contrast appeared to question such authority, apparently creating alternative ideal selves. Although causality could not be implied, there could have been some connection here with the perceived difficulty or lack of relevance of MFL. Some comments indicated that perceptions of how the system and the group rewarded behaviour may have had some impact on the pupils' conceptions of 'ought selves'. For example, 'Melissa', group 1, seemed to feel fairly reassured about her behaviour: '[Merits are] important to me because I have achieved so I know that I am doing the right thing. I think other people think that I do the right thing and they are happy' (see appendix 3, table 3.14.; full data tables for the pupils from all three groups can be provided if necessary). Other pupils appeared to be less certain whether they met potential expectations, e.g. 'Aidan', group 3, said: 'I have [illegible] no merits or detentions cause the teachers are gay'. This highlighted the importance of fair application of the rewards and sanctions system and indicated a potential complex relationship between this and group dynamics, namely that perceived confusion over the values promoted by the teacher may encourage some pupils to develop alternative ideal

selves. That is, it appeared possible that the emphasis on factors related to interpersonal relationships emerging from the pupils' comments may have reflected a fundamental need for orientation within the group, putting other issues of motivation further into the background, suggesting hierarchical prioritisation of needs (see Maslow, 1943). I speculated that such an effect was not restricted to the impact of various factors from the school context, but was very likely linked to the wider society.

The importance perceived in having friends in order to create a supportive classroom atmosphere (see above, chapter 4, section 4.2.1.4., table 16) emphasised the social nature of learning in the classroom and the importance of feelings of well-being and belonging. It appeared possible that many pupils experienced such feelings through a circle of friends rather than the wider class. For example, 'Victoria', group 2, said: '[Having friends] is very important for when you speak in front of the class and you don't feel nervous'. Further evidence for the potential fragmentation of classes into friendship groups or individuals was in the hesitancy of many pupils to report other pupils' opinions (see above, section 5.1.3.). Also, several pupils mentioned behaviour issues and in question 13 in phase two suggested asking their peers about their opinions of the lessons (e.g. 'Daniel', group 1; 'Carl', group 2; 'Lucy', group 3), indicating further uncertainty. This lent support to the notion that classes are not cohesive units, but that each class contains a rich diversity of individual personalities, attitudes and motivations, etc.

My analysis suggested that the teachers in this study needed to cope with a challenging amount of responsibility. Society, government and even school leaders may often

underestimate this challenge. It appears unlikely that, if at all, these issues could be addressed sufficiently under current work conditions.

5.2.1.5. Lack of curricular choices

Williams and Burden's (1997) social constructivist model assumes that two types of events may impact on motivation, namely those that initiate and those that sustain motivation (see above, chapter 2, section 2.1.3.). Some pupils' profiles suggested that motivation was initiated through prior contact with L2 learning, but that the secondary classroom situation somehow failed to sustain enthusiasm. The data indicated that a lack of choice of the language learnt or opting out of learning a language altogether may have been factors contributing to this (see above, chapter 4, section 4.2.2.). For organisational reasons the school did not take prior experiences and preferences into account when allocating the pupils to either French or German on entry to the school, thus ignoring pupils' experiences and potentially negatively affecting their construction of 'selves'. The responses of a girl from a group learning German ('Lydia', group 3), for example, pointed to the negative impact of this. She reported prior knowledge of French and Spanish in phase one of my survey and indicated a dislike of the German lessons she attended at school. She added: 'I hate German take it out of schools please. I find it boring [...]'. However, some self-sufficient learners appeared to be able to sustain enthusiasm despite criticism, apparently accepting the institutionally imposed 'ought self'. 'Jessica', group 1, indicated pre-secondary knowledge of Spanish. She commented: '[...] I wouldn't normally speak German in my everyday life, but I do practise at home speaking German'.

Further evidence of potential issues generated by not taking prior knowledge into account was reflected in some pupils' profiles whose motivation for language learning was apparently initiated through the family context. 'Adam', group 1, for example, indicated prior knowledge of German. While his responses suggested a mainly positive view, as well as increased enjoyment of language lessons in phase two, there was potential criticism of the amount of learning in phase two. He suggested asking the other pupils: 'Do you learn anything. If not why'. A similar comment was made by 'Andrew', group 2, who also reported that he was not learning as much as he believed he could. It appears that failure to build on some pupils' prior knowledge and to provide sufficiently challenging lessons for them may in some cases contribute to demotivation, as the gap between actual and 'ought self' as represented in the institutional model of progress is perceived as insufficient. This seems to suggest that a redesign of the model, offering greater differentiation may be necessary.

The responses of a few speakers of minority languages appeared to reflect a similarly negative impact on motivation created by not allowing them to fulfil potential integrative motives (see Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 2005). That is, motivation to learn a language may have been initiated by a wish to integrate into a language community, as suggested by the theory, though not necessarily in the community whose language the pupils were forced to learn. This did not emerge from data analysis as a main factor in this case and for this reason these pupils were not profiled. It appears, however, that this is an area that may need to be explored in future research.

My study suggested an unexpected result with regard to factors that may affect language choices. As suggested in chapter 4, section 4.1.6.1., it appeared from my quantitative analysis that factors related to more material and practical aspects, such as the importance of the language learnt for potential future career choices, were apparently regarded as having only little impact on motivation by the pupils. A lot of effort has been put into portraying languages as useful for businesses or careers in recent years, but this appears not to have had the intended impact. This suggests that new ways to justify language learning may need to be found.

My qualitative analysis appeared to imply that issues of choice and preference in language learning may affect learners' motivation significantly, suggesting that this should be taken into account in future policy making. This raised the question of whether it is possible for a mainstream education system to respect individual choices and preferences, or to allow learners to build on prior knowledge. Where this is deemed impossible, it appears that explaining and justifying the choices made for learners or providing alternative provision may need to be considered. The need for action was further implied by the pupils' apparent desire for 'voice' emerging from my study. This was demonstrated by the generally good level of engagement with the research (see above, chapter 3, section 3.9.2.) and particularly in the pupils' persistence in undertaking the quite complex ranking task (see above, chapter 4, section 4.1.6.). Some recent motivation studies suggest low levels of engagement with open-ended questions (e.g. QCA report, 2006: 13-15). I did not find this to be the case in my study. In that respect my study might have benefitted from the fact that the pupils knew me as a member of staff of the school and therefore felt more at ease to comment in more detail.

This suggested that this study could make a relevant contribution to the field and highlighted the importance of pupil voice in matters concerning their education (see Gorard and Smith, 2008; Lewis *et al.*, 2007). While provision for pupil voice was made in this study, there was not enough room to give teachers a voice. However, the study was about pupil motivation and therefore adopted a pupil-centred perspective (see above, chapter 3, section 3.5.2.). A combination of pupil and teacher voices may be a theme for future research in this area.

5.2.2. Principles of the Dynamic Systems Approach reflected in this study

My discussion of Dynamic Systems Theory in the literature chapter pointed out that Dörnyei himself questioned the possibility of using dynamic systems theory research in the classroom (see above, chapter 2, section 2.1.5.). Nevertheless, certain tenets and principles of the Dynamic Systems Approach appeared to be highly relevant and potentially very useful in researching my own questions within my context, such as the idea of attractors and repellers. I therefore built such aspects into my own research design, without attempting to carry out a Dynamic Systems Approach research project. Instead I borrowed some features of DSA and built them into my own research design in ways that were specific to the context and the constraints on research conducted as a lone PhD student. That is, my design choices were not an ideal representation of the Dynamic Systems Approach, but a compromise between incorporating elements of the theory, while also meeting the inevitable practical constraints and other objectives of the study (see above, chapter 3, section 3.3.). Dörnyei (2011) and others suggest that research aiming to reflect the Dynamic Systems Approach should include a longitudinal

element, focus on the identification of attractors and repellers and attempt to explain system outcomes through retrodictive system modelling (see above, chapter 3, section 3.2.6.1.). The following sections consider the extent to which my study can be seen to reflect these guiding principles of DSA.

5.2.2.1. Application of a simplified longitudinal approach

I believed that the approach to data collection chosen in my study had limited but sufficient capability to reflect the longitudinal dimension of the Dynamic Systems Approach. The data used in this study were collected in October 2007 and July 2008 in two large-scale snapshot collection rounds. Through this I introduced a simplified longitudinal element to the design of the study. A constraint on this method was its limited capability to reflect potential dynamic changes in the pupils' attitudes, due to the long interval between data collection rounds. Triangulation through multiple-choice questions in phase two (see above, section 5.1.1.1.) revealed apparent inconsistencies in the pupils' estimations of previous level of enjoyment. This may have been caused by memory issues or genuine fluctuations and illustrated the difficulties of capturing potential changes in motivation. However, it appeared that the large size of the sample increased the reliability of any findings.

Capturing dynamic moment-to-moment changes in motivation is a central element of the Dynamic Systems Approach, assuming that motivational factors may change their functions as attractors or repellers at any given moment in time as a consequence of complex multidirectional interactions with each other and the environment (see above,

chapter 3, section 3.1.4.). While my study was not designed to capture the dynamics of motivation in such detail, I believed that it would allow insights into potential long-term effects by taking something like a time-lapse view on the events. I hoped that such an approach might contribute to answering Dörnyei's (2011) call for research into phases of stability within the system.

5.2.2.2. Attractors and repellers

As described above in chapter 3, section 3.7.2.3., the ranking task asked the pupils to create short-lists of three positive and negative factors perceived as important in terms of impacting on their enjoyment of language lessons by choosing from a list of ten positive and ten negative factors which I provided, or adding their own. The pupils were then required to put these into rank-order as either most important ('MI'), very important ('VI') or important ('I'). I believed that this design could be perceived as linking in with the concept of attractors and repellers, as formulated in DSA. By designing the question in this way I tried to create a practical tool that might be able to capture quantifiable information about how different factors were perceived by individuals, as either positive factors, i.e. attractors, or negative ones, i.e. repellers, or both (polarisation), depending on the point in time and the situation, as the theory assumes (see above, chapter 3, section 3.1.4.).

During data recording and analysis it emerged that many pupils had persisted in the task, but had chosen to respond in their own ways, e.g. by selecting more than three factors from each list. In order to establish some system of quantitative comparison I

devised a scoring system which I believed was capable of taking different numbers of factors as well as rankings that deviated from my design into account (see above, chapter 4, section 4.1.6.). Handling the data in this way did not necessarily represent the intentions of the respondents, but appeared to be a sound statistical procedure. I addressed the potential loss of richness inherent in this approach by producing qualitative pupil profiles at a later stage of the analysis, which may have provided a truer reflection of individual voice.

Despite these constraints I believed that my design and analytical choices allowed for the identification of potential attractors and repellers, as well as attractor and repeller conglomerates. My quantitative analysis suggested that clusters of factors related to the social dynamics of the classroom situation had a particularly strong impact (see chapter 4, sections 4.1.6.3., 4.1.6.4. and 4.1.6.6.). I believed that such clusters potentially represented conglomerates in the sense of the Dynamic Systems Approach. Perceptions of ‘classroom atmosphere’, for example, appeared to merge factors such as ‘teacher’, ‘friends’ and ‘behaviour’, etc. which together seemed to exert influence on motivation. Further evidence for the operation of conglomerates emerged from the analysis of the factors added by the pupils in the ‘OTHER’ section of the ranking question. This was reflected in global estimations of language lessons, such as ‘all is good’ (see chapter 4, section 4.1.7.6.).

It appeared possible to identify single factors which acted as both attractors and repellers simultaneously. This was represented in the pupils’ polarised opinions about these factors emerging from the initial quantitative analysis of the data. Polarisation

occurred particularly with regard to the factors ‘teacher’ and ‘activities’. While this effect emerged with regard to different groups of pupils, subsequent qualitative analysis of the data indicated that individuals also recognised the simultaneous positive or negative impact of particular factors on their motivation. I believed that this potentially reflected dynamic changes in the pupils’ perceptions of these factors, namely that they considered the factors to possess either positive or negative capacities, depending on the situation. The pupil profiles indicated that the perceived degree of difficulty of MFL could be experienced in this way. ‘Victoria’, group 2, included in the ranking of negative factors in phase two that the work was getting harder, but her further comments suggested that this was also a positive challenge: ‘I’ve been given merits which makes me feel proud as the subject is hard’. This suggested complex and dynamic influences on motivation, combining perceptions of fair feedback from significant others, particularly the teacher, and of an appropriate level of challenge presented by the classwork, enabling pupils to measure their progress towards the ‘ought self’.

There was some evidence for strong attractors and repellers. Although weightings attached to factors only emerged from the analytical choices I made in the quantitative analysis of the data, it appeared that strong attractors and repellers were represented in the apparently particularly strong weightings attached to single factors. Strong attractors or repellers appeared to be mostly factors related to social dynamics, such as ‘teacher’ and ‘friends’. My findings indicated that the occurrence of strong attractors and repellers was potentially related to the occurrence of more negative group cultures.

The data also appeared to support the concept of attractor and repeller states, i.e. factors perceived to exert either a stable positive or negative influence, without any suggestion of potential fluctuations. Some pupils indicated that the teacher had such an impact on their motivation, for example.

There was further potential indication of reciprocal interactions between dynamic systems and their contexts, as suggested by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) (see above, chapter 3, section 3.1.4.). As seen in chapter 4, section 4.2.2.4. the comparison of profiles from three selected groups indicated that the pupils from the most negative group (group 3) perceived their classmates as being the least enthusiastic. If a relationship in Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011) sense could be inferred, the motivation of the pupils in this group may have been influenced negatively by perceptions of a 'learned helplessness' exerted by the wider group (see above, section 5.1.2.). It was likely that the ensuing negative attitude of individual pupils would in turn have added to the negativity within the wider group, i.e. dynamic motivational processes within the individual pupil would have interacted and reciprocally interacted with their context, the 'learned helplessness' of the group.

5.2.2.3. The complexity of the system

My basic quantitative analysis suggested that no one factor could explain differences. It emerged from my subsequent qualitative analysis that combinations of different factors appeared to produce different effects, i.e. the perceived presence of similar combinations could not predict a similar outcome. This strongly suggested

characteristics of a dynamic system within the construct of motivation. That is, there did not appear to be a simple explanation for the outcomes and while there appeared to be some factors which had a strong influence on motivation, they could not in isolation explain the emergence of a particular motivational culture, nor was it possible to predict outcomes through combinations of strong factors. It seemed that factors work together in an intricate and dynamic system to produce certain types of emotional culture in the classroom, with personal relationships between teacher and pupil and pupil and pupil being strong but not decisive factors; some of the pupils with apparently strongest motivation appeared to be mature enough to rise above such issues of personality. It appeared possible that these pupils' perceived their 'ideal' and 'ought selves' to be close and that therefore they were less subject to other influences, i.e. they saw themselves as good students who were aiming and succeeding to comply with the 'ought self' projected by the institutional situation.

Dörnyei (2011: 5-6) suggests researching typical dynamic outcome patterns by means of retrodictive qualitative modelling (RQM), i.e. by asking why system behaviour results in particular outcome options. I believe that I partially reflected such an approach in my study by establishing system outcomes through quantitative methodology and outcome options through qualitative profiling. This allowed me to work backwards by exploring different outcome options, i.e. to speculate why individual profiles differed from or converged with the outcomes suggested by the trends within the wider class.

The quantitative data generated by the pupils from the more positive group (group 1), for example, indicated that forming positive friendship relationships was an increasingly

important factor for many pupils (chapter 4, section 4.2.2.1.). However, the profile established for 'Daniel' appeared to deviate from this. He reported that friends were important in phase one to help with the classwork, but by phase two, having friends no longer had the same impact. He said: 'It's not that important to have friends in languages class because if you don't have friends you can get on with your work'. That is, 'Daniel's' responses indicated a very self-sufficient attitude and strong institutional 'ought self' in phase two which was not suggested in phase one (see above, section 5.1.2.). My scoring system indicated that he perceived a strong deterioration (2-5) in the other pupils' opinions of the lessons. This was not confirmed by a slide into negativity in the data (see above, chapter 4, section 4.1.3.7., chart 7), suggesting that his perceptions may have been influenced by his perspective as an apparent outsider rather than ongoing communication with the other members of the group. He also regarded poor behaviour as the most important negative factor in both phases. 'Daniel's' profile suggested potential disappointment with friendship relationships which may have failed to develop in phase one, and that he did not feel fully integrated in the group by phase two. It appeared that 'Daniel's' enthusiasm for language lessons came from other sources, potentially from the impact of the teacher and the activities. This pointed to alternative concepts of high motivation emerging from the same group and different constructions of the 'ideal self'. That is, while the rest of the group may have become more influenced by the social group, 'Daniel' rejected their changing goals for the 'ideal self' and retained his own which included maintained conformity with the institutional 'ought self'.

The quantitative data indicated that many pupils in group 1 maintained a positive attitude towards MFL and school in general. A deviating pattern emerged from ‘Shannon’s’ profile, which suggested a slide into negativity in phase two. Her responses in phase one appeared to reflect attitudes similar to other pupils’ in this class. That is, she indicated a positive impact from the teacher, the activities and potential practical use of learning German for career and visits abroad. She considered having friends important to help create a supportive classroom atmosphere and her ranking of negative factors suggested a low level of tolerance of ‘poor behaviour’. In phase two, however, my scoring system indicated dislike on all three rating questions. ‘Shannon’s’ further responses suggested that she no longer perceived German to have potential relevance for her everyday life. She reported pre-secondary knowledge of French and Spanish in phase one, which suggested that not being able to build on potentially existing language skills may have contributed to her reduced enthusiasm (see above, section 5.2.1.5.). Also, having friends became more important and her comments suggested that this factor had taken on a socialising aspect. She said: ‘[Having friends is important] Because it’s quite boring now than it was before and it’s good to have my friends in the class so it won’t be a really dull lesson.’ A particularly strong negative impact on ‘Shannon’s’ opinions was apparently exerted by the teacher. Her ranking of negative factors in phase two suggested that she perceived the teacher as most important, giving this factor a lot of prominence by not including any others in the ranking. Her further responses suggested perceived unfair application of sanctions by the teacher. She said: ‘I’ve been given detentions for late homework, I think this is really unfair. Most teachers give you a strike out of 3, or say to hand it in the next day or you’ll get a detention, but my teacher doesn’t do this, that’s why I think it’s unfair’. She referred to

the teacher again in question 13 and suggested asking the other pupils whether they liked him or her and also what else could be improved about the lessons. That is, ‘Shannon’s’ profile suggested negative impact from a lack of choice of the language learnt, but appeared to highlight particularly the potentially significant impact that perceptions of unfairness in specific contexts may have on individuals in the classroom environment. This emphasised the challenge teachers need to confront in promoting perceptions of fairness in the application of rewards and sanctions and the potential impact of a perceived absence of reliable feedback on the individual’s progress towards ‘ideal’ and ‘ought selves’.

5.3. Conclusion and implications for educational policy and practice

My analysis strongly suggested characteristics of a complex dynamic system within the construct of motivation. Although it appeared that a trend indicating deteriorating levels of motivation for language learning could be established from the quantitative analysis of the combined data, an increasingly complex picture emerged at class level and from the qualitative analysis of individual pupils’ personal profiles. Interpersonal relationships and perceptions of classroom ‘atmosphere’ emerged as strong but not necessarily decisive factors. In the light of such complexity it appears that there is no simple explanation of how a high motivational culture for language learning can be created. There is no simple, straightforward teacher training approach which could guarantee success. There are, nevertheless, a number of factors to which it seems sensible to draw attention and which, tackled in combination with an understanding of

the complex dynamics of the classroom, might increase chances of creating an environment more conducive to high motivation.

These are: (1) The importance of positive social dynamics in the classroom and a positive classroom atmosphere. In the light of current practice it appears that this may require a reallocation of teaching time currently spent on other issues and a redefinition of priorities away from teaching and learning strategies adapted from business models. Perceptions of the 'self' seem to have considerable impact on the dynamics of the classroom. While teachers themselves strive to meet an 'ought self', promoting progress according to a pre-specified range, this may not necessarily converge with the non-linear nature of real learning and the varied 'ideal selves' of their pupils. It therefore appears that teacher training may need to promote greater understanding of how such conflict between policy and classroom reality may arise and devote more time to discussing how 'ideal' and 'ought selves' might be manipulated to encourage higher motivation. Current models of progress and measuring progression may need to be reconsidered. (2) The importance of a transparent and fair application of the rewards and sanctions system in the classroom. This includes an understanding of the potential damage that perceptions of inconsistent or unfair application of the system may cause to the layers of the pupils 'selves' as language learners. (3) The development of a culture of choice and self-determination with regard to the language learnt, allowing pupils to build on pre-secondary school experience. Where this is deemed impossible it appears that those affected deserve explanations for decisions. (4) A shift in the focus in promotional strategies away from career-centred approaches. This may include a greater

emphasis on global cultural world-citizen aspects, intercultural understanding and contact, or a focus on language learning skills.

5.4. Contributions to the field

I believe that raising the above issues may make a contribution to the field of L2 motivation research. Also, to the best of my knowledge there is no UK-based study investigating issues of motivation in year 7 by involving such a large sample of pupils at two separate points in time within the same academic year. This, in combination with a comparative application of quantitative and qualitative methodologies to challenge and triangulate each other through the identification of large-scale trends in the combined data set and at class level as well as subsequent profiling of individual pupils, appears to be a new approach. It was my intention to reflect key principles of the Dynamic Systems Approach, as promoted by Dörnyei (2011) and others, in the design of this study without wishing to claim to have carried out a dynamic systems study. I believe that this was partially successful, even though exploration at micro-level, capable of plotting changes over time, might be truer to the theory.

5.5. Directions for future research

This study raises a number of issues that future research in this area may wish to consider. The following among these seem particularly relevant: (1) My analysis indicates that factors related to the social dynamics of the classroom have a strong impact on pupil motivation and that the teacher is often perceived as a pivotal factor.

This suggests that combining pupil and teacher voices in future research may be needed in order to explore potential tensions between the perspectives of pupils and teachers, including tensions between teacher's and pupils' 'ought selves'. (2) In-depth qualitative exploration of pupils' perceptions of the class and the potential tensions created by pressure from diverse groups within the class could shed light on how conformity and diversity are balanced and how some pupils appear to have high levels of self-efficacy and are able to rise above many factors. (3) In-depth qualitative exploration of the effects of the rewards and sanctions systems on motivation and the pupils' sense of the 'self', i.e. what pupils perceive as fair and unfair, as well as specifics of how such systems are used and how they affect the dynamics of the classroom. (4) The impact of the family on the pupils' motivation, as some responses appeared to reflect positive reinforcement from the home environment. (5) The impact of lack of choice of the language learnt on pupils from families speaking minority languages. (6) Methodologically, research might benefit from balancing self-report with actual observation of classrooms, e.g. by following two classes to see how the dynamic system appears to evolve over time. (7) In order to reflect the Dynamic Systems Approach more accurately, research should aim to adopt a true longitudinal design and to capture moment-by-moment changes.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Research design

Table 1.1.: Questionnaire design timeline

November 2006 - May 2007: Developed ideas for the questionnaire on the basis of supervision meetings, research methodology literature, University of Birmingham research modules and meetings with school leadership.

January 2007: Decided to use rank-order items for one particular question instead of Likert Scales.

May 2007: Draft of year 10 pilot questionnaire in place and meeting with Deputy Head of the school to discuss draft.

June 2007: Redrafted year 10 pilot questionnaire after consultation with Deputy Head of the school and University of Birmingham supervisors.

July 2007: Completed year 10 pilot questionnaire and recorded data; carried out an evaluation of the effectiveness of the questionnaire items.

September - October 2007: Redrafted year 10 pilot into first phase year 7 questionnaire; made adjustments to wording of questions.

October 2007: Started first phase of year 7 data collection.

December 2007: Completed phase one of year 7 data collection.

January 2008: Made decision not to make major changes to questionnaire items in phase two in order to ensure that the data obtained in both phases were comparable.

February 2008: Completed recording of phase one data.

March 2008: Consulted with school and departmental leadership about second phase questionnaire and made the decision to delay the second phase until after the year 7 end of year exams.

May 2008: Started second phase of year 7 data collection.

July 2008: Completed phase two and recorded all data.

Table 1.2.: Interview design timeline

<p>Mid-June 2008: Started to identify themes for follow-up interviews.</p> <p>End of June 2008: Made the decision to identify individuals for the interviews on the basis of apparent extreme motivational behaviours displayed in phase one and two of the survey.</p> <p>Early July 2008: Carried out two interviews; changed interview schedule as a result of the ongoing analysis of the questionnaire data and after identifying how my interview technique could be improved.</p> <p>By end of July 2008: Carried out three more interviews but experienced difficulties to arrange further interviews due to end-of-year tests taking place.</p>
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Table 1.3.: Teaching groups and numbers of pupils per group

CODE	Language	No. of pupils phase 1:	No. of pupils phase 2:
A-GM1	G	31	32
B-GM2	G	32	31
C-GM3	G	27	27
D-GM4	G	27	29
E-GM1	G	32	31
F-GM2	G	29	26
G-GM3	G	20	21
H-FR1	F	32	30
I-FR1	F	32	33
J-FR2	F	32	34
K-FR3	F	21	21
L-FR4	F	20	20
Total no. of pupils:		335	335

Table 1.4.: Placement of factors identified in the literature and how addressed in the questionnaire and its analysis

Factors identified in the literature		Question No.		How addressed in the study
		Phase 1	Phase 2	
1	attributions	Q9/10	Q7/8	Implicitly through the ranking task and subsequent analysis
2	peer pressure	---	Q12	How important is it for you what others think about you being given detentions or merits?
3	enjoyment	Q6	Q2	Do you enjoy your language lesson?
		Q7	Q4	How much do you think the others in your class enjoy language lesson?
		Q8	Q5	Do you enjoy going to school?

		---	Q1	Do you enjoy your language lessons more or less than in the beginning of the year?
		---	Q3	Do you think the others in your class enjoy language lessons more or less than in the beginning of the year?
		---	Q5	Do you enjoy going to school more or less than in the beginning of the year?
4	comparisons with other subjects	Q9/10	Q7/8	The level of satisfaction compared with the rest of the school day
5	the teacher	Q9/10	Q7/8	The teacher
6	relevance for career	Q9/10	Q7/8	The importance you attach to the language in terms of career plans
7	teaching materials	Q9/10	Q7/8	The materials and equipment you use
8	teaching methods	Q9/10	Q7/8	The activities you do
9	relevance for other practical applications	Q9/10	Q7/8	The importance you attach to the language for visits abroad
		Q11	Q9	Do you think you learn anything in your language lessons that is important for your everyday life? If so, what?
10	group dynamics	Q9/10	Q7/8	The behaviour of the other pupils in the class
11	gender	Q1	---	Are you male or female?
		---	---	Through data analysis (coding)
12	ability	---	---	Through data analysis (coding)
13	language learnt	Q2	---	Which language do you learn?
		Q9	Q7	The fact that you enjoy the subject
		---	---	Through data analysis (coding)
14	perceptions of difficulty	Q9/10	Q7/8	Implicitly through the ranking of the factor 'progress'
15	achievement	Q9/10	Q7/8	The feeling of making progress
16	friends	Q9/10	Q7/8	The fact that you have got a lot of friends in the class
		Q12	Q10	How important is it for you to have friends in your language lessons? Why?
17	learning environment	Q6-12	Q1-12	Implicitly through various questions about the subject, school, peer relationships
18	curricular choices	Q9/10	Q7/8	The fact that you enjoy the subject
19	Impact of rewards and sanctions	---	Q11	If you have been given any merits or rewards by your language teacher, how did that make you feel?

Table 1.5.: Pilot questionnaire

MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Questionnaire for Year 10 pupils:

As you know, we are collecting data for a research project on MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING in secondary schools. We would like to find out how people's motivation to learn a language changes over the years and what influences affect their motivation. We are very interested in your opinions about this as a person who chose to continue to learn a language. We would be very grateful if you could answer the questions below as fully and frankly as possible! Thank you very much!

PLEASE TICK ONE BOX ONLY

1. Are you male or female? Please tick the relevant box.

- F
- M

2. You chose Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) for one of your options at the end of Year 9. Which language do you learn?

- French
- German

3. Who or what influenced you most when you chose to continue with languages at the end of Year 9?

- Your teacher
 - Your friends
 - Your other classmates
 - Your parents
 - Your other options
 - Your career plans
 - Your enjoyment of the subject
 - OTHER (please specify):
-

4. Do you enjoy coming to your language lessons?

- Yes, I like it very much
- Yes, but not more than any of my other subjects
- It's OK
- No, but I don't like any of my other subjects better either
- No, I wish I had picked another subject

5. When did you enjoy learning languages most?

- In Year 7
- In Year 8
- In Year 9
- In Year 10

WHAT DO YOU THINK MAKES YOUR LANGUAGE LESSONS ENJOYABLE?

6. What do you think makes you feel POSITIVE about your language lessons?

Please mark at least one of the factors listed below "MI" (most important).

At least one "VI" (very important).

And at least one "I" (important).

You may mark additional ones if you wish.

- The teacher
- The importance you attach to the language in terms of career plans
- The importance you attach to the language for visits abroad
- The materials and equipment you use
- The activities you do
- The behaviour of the other pupils in the class
- The feeling of making progress
- The fact that you enjoy the subject
- The fact that some of your friends did or did not choose the same option
- The level of satisfaction compared with the rest of the school day
- OTHER (please specify):

WHAT DO YOU THINK MAKES YOUR LANGUAGE LESSONS NOT ENJOYABLE?

7. What do you think makes you feel NEGATIVE about your languages lessons? Again, please mark at least one of the factors listed below “MI” (most important), at least one “VI” (very important) and at least one “I” (important). You may mark additional ones if you wish.

- The teacher
- The importance you attach to the language in terms of career plans
- The importance you attach to the language for visits abroad
- The materials and equipment you use
- The activities you do
- The behaviour of the other pupils in the class
- The feeling of making progress
- The fact that you do not enjoy the subject
- The fact that some of your friends did or did not choose the same option
- The level of satisfaction compared with the rest of the school day
- OTHER (please specify):

ANSWER AS FULLY AS YOU CAN, OR STATE THAT YOU DO NOT KNOW, OR DO NOT HAVE AN OPINION

8. In your opinion, why is it that a lot of your fellow pupils in year 9 did NOT choose to continue with languages?

9. WHEN do you think they first started not to enjoy the subject?

10. Do you think that you are taught any skills that are useful for your everyday life in your languages lessons? If so, what skills are they?

11. If you could change anything about your languages lessons, what would it be?

12. What other questions would you include in this questionnaire if you were giving it to Year 7 pupils (with the intention of finding out about their MOTIVATION in languages)?

Table 1.6.: Main questionnaire – phase one

MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Questionnaire for Year 7 pupils (1):

As you know, we are collecting data for a research project on MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING in secondary schools. We would like to find out how people's motivation to learn a language changes over the years and what influences affect their motivation. We are very interested in your opinions about this. We would be very grateful if you could answer the questions below as fully and frankly as possible! Thank you very much!

(Coded number)

(page 2)

PLEASE TICK ONE BOX ONLY TO ANSWER EACH OF THE QUESTIONS

1. Are you male or female? Please tick the relevant box!

- F
- M

2. Which language do you learn?

- French
- German

3. Do you know any words or phrases from another language?

- Yes
- No
- Not sure

4. IF you do, where did you learn the words or phrases from that language? Please tick as many boxes as apply!

- Holiday
- Primary School
- Family
- Friends
- Television
- Internet
- Books
- OTHER (please give details):

5. IF you do know words or phrases from another language, which language is it?

- French
- German
- Spanish
- OTHER (please give details):

(page 3)

PLEASE MARK A SPOT ON THE LINE AS APPROPRIATE

6. Do you enjoy your languages lessons?

VERY MUCH ----- NOT AT ALL

7. How much do you think the others in your class enjoy the languages lessons?

VERY MUCH ----- NOT AT ALL

8. Do you enjoy going to school?

VERY MUCH ----- NOT AT ALL

(page 4)

WHAT DO YOU THINK MAKES YOUR LANGUAGE LESSONS ENJOYABLE?

9. What do you think makes you feel POSITIVE about your language lessons?

Please mark at least one of the factors listed below "MI" (most important).

At least one "VI" (very important).

And at least one "I" (important).

You may mark additional ones if you wish.

- The teacher
- The importance you attach to the language in terms of career plans
- The importance you attach to the language for visits abroad
- The materials and equipment you use
- The activities you do
- The behaviour of the other pupils in the class
- The feeling of making progress
- The fact that you enjoy the subject
- The fact that you have got a lot of friends in the class
- The level of satisfaction compared with the rest of the school day
- OTHER (please give details):

WHAT DO YOU THINK MAKES YOUR LANGUAGE LESSONS NOT ENJOYABLE?

10. What do you think makes you feel **NEGATIVE** about your languages lessons? Again, please mark at least one of the factors listed below “MI” (most important), at least one “VI” (very important) and at least one “I” (important). You may mark additional ones if you wish.

- The teacher
- The lack of importance you attach to the language in terms of career plans
- The lack of importance you attach to the language for visits abroad
- The materials and equipment you use
- The activities you do
- The behaviour of the other pupils in the class
- The lack of the feeling of making progress
- The fact that you do not enjoy the subject
- The fact that you have not got many friends in the class
- The low level of satisfaction compared with the rest of the school day
- OTHER (please give details):

(page 5)

PLEASE ANSWER AS FULLY AS YOU CAN, OR STATE THAT YOU DO NOT KNOW OR DO NOT HAVE AN OPINION

11. Do you think you learn anything in your language lessons that is important for your everyday life? If so, what?

12. How important is it for you to have friends in your language class? Why?

13. Could you make any suggestions to make this questionnaire better?

14. Would you be happy to take part in a interview about your MOTIVATION to learn a language? The interview will take place later in the year.

- No
- Yes (IF you tick this box, can you please add your name and teaching group in the space below so that we can contact you later)

Table 1.7.: Main questionnaire – phase two

MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Questionnaire for Year 7 pupils (2):

As you know, we are collecting data for a research project on MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING in secondary schools. We would like to find out how people's motivation to learn a language changes over the years and what influences affect their motivation. We are very interested in your opinions about this. We would be very grateful if you could answer the questions below as fully and frankly as possible! Thank you very much!

(Coded number)

(page 2)

PLEASE TICK ONE BOX ONLY

1. Do you enjoy your languages lessons more or less than in the beginning of the year?

- More
- The same
- Less
- Not sure

PLEASE MARK A SPOT ON THE LINE

2. Do you enjoy your languages lessons now?

VERY MUCH ----- NOT AT ALL

PLEASE TICK ONE BOX ONLY

3. Do you think the others in your class enjoy the languages lessons more or less than in the beginning of the year?

- More
- The same
- Less
- Not sure

PLEASE MARK A SPOT ON THE LINE

4. How much do you think the others in your class enjoy the languages lessons now?

VERY MUCH ----- NOT AT ALL

PLEASE TICK ONE BOX ONLY

5. Do you enjoy going to school more or less than in the beginning of the year?

- More
- The same
- Less
- Not sure

PLEASE MARK A SPOT ON THE LINE

6. Do you enjoy going to school now?

VERY MUCH ----- NOT AT ALL

(page 3)

WHAT DO YOU THINK MAKES YOUR LESSONS ENJOYABLE?

7. What do you think makes you feel POSITIVE about your languages lessons?

Please mark at least one of the factors listed below with either “MI” (most important).

At least one “VI” (very important).

And at least one “I” (important).

You may mark additional ones if you wish.

- The teacher
- The importance you attach to the language in terms of career plans
- The importance you attach to the language for visits abroad
- The materials and equipment you use
- The activities you do
- The behaviour of the other pupils in the class
- The feeling of making progress
- The fact that you enjoy the subject
- The fact that you have got many friends in the class
- The level of satisfaction with the rest of the school day
- OTHER (please give details):

WHAT DO YOU THINK MAKES YOUR LESSONS NOT ENJOYABLE?

8. What do you think makes you feel NEGATIVE about your languages lessons?

Again, please mark at least one of the factors listed below “MI” (most important), at least one “VI” (very important) and at least one “I” (important). You may mark

additional ones if you wish.

- The teacher
- The lack of importance you attach to the language in terms of career plans
- The lack of importance you attach to the language for visits abroad
- The materials and equipment you use
- The activities you do
- The bad behaviour of the other pupils in the class
- The lack of feeling of making progress
- The fact that you do not enjoy the subject
- The fact that you have not got many friends in the class
- The low level of satisfaction with the rest of the school day
- OTHER (please give details):

(page 4)

PLEASE ANSWER AS FULLY AS YOU CAN, OR STATE THAT YOU DO NOT KNOW OR DO NOT HAVE AN OPINION

9. Do you NOW think you learn anything in your languages lessons that is important for your everyday life? If so, what?

10. How important is it for you to have friends in your languages class now? Why?

11. IF you have been given any MERITS or DETENTIONS by your languages teacher, how did that make you feel?

12. How important is it for you what others think about you being given DETENTIONS or MERITS?

13. If you had to design a questionnaire on this topic for another class, what would you ask?

14. Would you be happy to take part in an interview about your MOTIVATION in languages? The interview will take place later in the year.

- Yes
 No

Table 1.8.: Main questionnaire - introductory speech – phase one

**YEAR 7 QUESTIONNAIRE (PHASE ONE) - TRANSCRIPT OF
INTRODUCTORY SPEECH**

(Appropriate greeting)

You all know me as Mr Deckner, the Language Assistant and have worked with me in the office practising German or playing games on the computer. However, today I am in your lesson as a different person.

What does that mean? When I am not here in school, I work [study] at the University of Birmingham in the south of the city (check if any of the children know the university). What I am doing there is to try and find out what people like you, who learn a foreign language at school, think about this experience, basically, what they find good and bad about it.

In the following weeks I will visit all the Year 7 classes in this school and I will ask them how they feel about learning German or French.

Miss / Mr (name of class teacher) and the headteacher (name of headteacher) have

kindly given me the opportunity to talk about this with you today in this lesson (thank the teacher again).

So, how are we going to do this? I would like you to tell me about your opinions by filling in this short questionnaire (show questionnaire). We will do this in this lesson and it will probably take the whole hour.

Later this year I am planning to visit your group again with a second questionnaire and eventually I will compare your answers.

Let me explain to you how the questionnaire works. As you can see, on the front cover, there is a title and a short text inviting you to take part in the survey. There is also a box with a number. This is really important. I have numbered the questionnaires and I have recorded these numbers against your names on your class register. It means that I will know who filled in each questionnaire, but it also means that no-one else will, as they can only see the numbers (check they understand). This also means that I do not want you to write your names on the questionnaires (check they understand).

On page one (show page one) there are a few straight forward questions about your gender, what language you learn and whether or not you know any other foreign languages. Please read through the questions carefully and tick the appropriate boxes (check they understand).

On page two (show page two), there are three questions about how much you like your languages lessons in comparison with school in general and how you think other people feel about languages lessons. As you can see, the layout of this question is a bit different from the first one. There are no boxes to tick. To answer these three questions I would like you to put a mark on the lines, somewhere between the extreme answers. For example, the first question says 'Do you enjoy your languages lessons?'; the extreme answers are 'very much', here on the left and 'not at all' here on the right, and between them there is a line. To answer this you need to mark a spot on the line, according to how much you enjoy your languages lessons, because not everyone may have one of these extreme opinions. Your opinion may be somewhere in the middle, or somewhere near one of the extremes (check they understand).

On page three (show page three) there is a list of ten things that I think may be good or bad about languages lessons. I have separated them into the good things, here at the top, and the bad things, here underneath the good things. What I would like to find out is whether or not you agree with me and also how you think about the factors on my list. So, what I would like you to do is to pick at least three factors from the list of good things and rate them according to whether you think they are the most important ('MI') good thing about languages lessons, a very important ('VI') good thing or just an important ('I') good thing (check understanding). Then, I would like you to do the same for the bad things. If you do not agree with my factors or if you would like to add other ones, please write them into this space at the end of my list, and please also give them a rating (check understanding).

Finally, on page four (show page four), there are three more questions. As you can see

I have changed the layout of the questions again. There are no boxes tick, or marks to put on lines. To answer these, I would like you to write your answer in your own words, as much or as little as you like, in the space provided (check understanding).

Some more VERY important things, before I hand out the questionnaires (make sure the children listen carefully)!

(1) Although we are in school, although we are doing this in lesson time and although your teachers are here, you do not have to fill in the questionnaire. Like I said in the beginning, I am not here today as Mr Deckner, the Language Assistant, I am here today as a researcher from university who would like to find out what you honestly think about language learning. That means, you have a choice of whether or not you are happy to give me your answers. I hope that you will take part in this survey, as it is your chance to have your say, but, unlike in a normal lesson, there will be no consequence if you decide not to take part.

(2) If you decide not to take part, I would like you to make a drawing for me on the last page of the questionnaire. Anything you like. There is a blank page particularly for this purpose (show page five of the questionnaire). There are also crayons that you can use (show where they are).

(3) The questionnaire is confidential (secret). No-one, apart from me, is supposed to know if you are taking part or what you are writing. That includes your teachers and everybody else in this class. If you take part in the survey I want your OWN, honest answers.

(4) You can also answer parts of the questionnaire and to leave other parts you are not sure of blank. You can help me with even one or two answers. That is ok.

Are there any questions (answer questions)?

Thank you for listening! You have [...] minutes to fill in the questionnaire (hand out questionnaire).

(Collect questionnaires. Thank pupils and teachers for their participation in the project at the end after collecting in the questionnaires)

Table 1.9.: Main questionnaire – introductory speech – phase two

**YEAR 7 QUESTIONNAIRE (PHASE TWO) - TRANSCRIPT OF
INTRODUCTORY SPEECH**

(Appropriate greeting)

As you know I am Mr Deckner. My job at this school is to help you with learning languages. I have worked with most of you at some point this year.

You may also know that, when I am not here in school, I work [study] at the University of Birmingham. I am visiting all the Year 7 classes in this school this year to ask them about how they feel about learning French or German. I hope that you remember that I have visited your class earlier this year (check if they remember).

Most of you helped me a lot last time by taking part in a survey about what you think is good or bad about learning a foreign language. Thank you very much for that again.

Thank you also to Miss / Mr (name of class teacher) and the headteacher (name of headteacher) who have kindly given me permission to come back today. Why have I come back? Because I need your help again.

I have designed a new questionnaire which will help me to explore if and in what way your opinions about language learning have changed in the last few months. This is really important for what I want to find out. What I am going to do is to compare your opinions from the beginning of the year with what you are telling me today.

Unfortunately I cannot give you any feedback about the first questionnaire yet, as this might have an influence on what you are going to tell me today.

Like last time, I would like you to tell me about your opinions by filling in this short questionnaire (show questionnaire). We will do this in this lesson and, again, it will probably take the whole hour.

Let me explain to you what I would like you to do with this second questionnaire. As you can see, on the front cover, there is also a box with a number again. Maybe you remember that I have given each one of you a number (check if they remember. If not, explain process again). This helps me to make sure that nobody, apart from me, knows what you tell me. In other words, the survey is anonymous, so please do not write your name on the questionnaire (check they understand).

On page one (show page one) there are no questions about your gender, what language you learn and whether or not you know any other foreign languages, because I already know that from the previous questionnaire. There are three questions that require ticking boxes. These questions are about how much you enjoyed language learning and school in the beginning of the year and now and also how much you think the opinions of the others in the class have changed since then. Please read through the questions carefully and tick the appropriate boxes (check they understand).

There are also three questions that require marking a spot on the line. I used the same question in the other questionnaire. I would like you to put a mark on the lines, somewhere between the extreme answers. For example, the first question says 'Do you enjoy your languages lessons?'; the extreme answers are 'very much', here on the left and 'not at all' here on the right, and between them there is a line. To answer this you need to mark a spot on the line, according to how much you enjoy your languages lessons, because not everyone may have one of these extreme opinions. That is, your opinion may be somewhere in the middle, or somewhere near one of the extremes (check they understand).

On page two (show page two), there is a list of ten things that I think may be good or bad about languages lessons. Again I have used the same question in the other questionnaire, because I want to make comparisons between the two questionnaires. I have separated the lists of factors into the good things, here at the top, and the bad things, here underneath the good things. What I would like to find out is whether or not you agree with me and also how you think about the factors on my list. So, what I would like you to do is to pick at least three factors from the list of good things and rate them according to whether you think they are the most important ('MI') good thing about languages lessons, a very important ('VI') good thing or just an important ('I') good thing (check understanding). Then, I would like you to do the same for the bad things. If you do not agree with my factors or if you would like to add other ones, please write them into this space at the end of my list, and please also give them a rating (check understanding).

Finally, on page three (show page four), there are five more questions. As you can see I have changed the layout of the questions again, like I did in the other questionnaire. There are no boxes tick, or marks to put on lines. To answer these, I would like you to write your answer in your own words, as much or as little as you like, in the space provided (check understanding).

Some more VERY important things, before I hand out the questionnaires (make sure the children listen carefully)!

(1) Although we are in school, although we are doing this in lesson time and although your teachers are here, you do not have to fill in the questionnaire. Like I said in the beginning, I am not here today as Mr Deckner, the Language Assistant, I am here today as a researcher from university who would like to find out what you honestly think about language learning. That means, you have a choice of whether or not you are happy to give me your answers. I hope that you will take part in this survey, as it is your chance to have your say, but, unlike in a normal lesson, there will be no consequence if you decide not to take part.

(2) If you decide not to take part, I would like you to make a drawing for me on the last page of the questionnaire. Anything you like. There is a blank page particularly for this purpose (show page five of the questionnaire). There are also crayons that you can use (show where they are).

(3) The questionnaire is confidential (secret). No-one, apart from me, is supposed to know if you are taking part or what you are writing. That includes your teachers and everybody else in this class. If you take part in the survey I want your OWN, honest answers.

(4) You can also answer parts of the questionnaire and to leave other parts you are not sure of blank. You can help me with even one or two answers. That is ok.

(5) Even if you did not take part in the survey last time, or if you were absent, have changed class, etc. I would like you to take a look at the questionnaire and then

perhaps give me your opinions this time round.

Are there any questions (answer questions)?

Thank you for listening! You have [...] minutes to fill in the questionnaire (hand out questionnaire).

(Collect questionnaires. Thank pupils and teachers for their participation in the project at the end after collecting in the questionnaires)

Table 1.10.: Interview schedule

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Today is _____ July 2008. Present are participant # _____ and myself.

As you know I'd like to ask you a few questions about your views on some issues that have to do with pupils' motivation and behaviour in your French/German lesson. Do you understand that you don't have to answer to my questions if you don't want to and that I'd like you to ask me to move on if you want me to skip a certain question?

ANSWER:

And also that you can ask me to stop the interview at any time?

ANSWER:

Are you happy with me recording our conversation on tape for the sake of making the analysis of your answers easier for me?

ANSWER:

Are you still happy to take part in the interview?

ANSWER:

Question 1: How much are you enjoying your French/German lessons at the moment?

ANSWER:

Question 2: Can you give me reasons why you're enjoying/not enjoying your French/German lessons? Explain!/How does it compare to subjects you like?/What makes a good subject/teacher in your opinion?

ANSWER:

Question 3: How much do you think the other people in your class like your French/German lessons at the moment? How do you know?

ANSWER:

Question 4: Can you give me reasons why the other people in your class enjoy/don't enjoy your French/German lessons?

ANSWER:

Question 5: From the answers you've given in the questionnaires I gave you earlier in the year I have seen that you...

liked the subject in the beginning of the year and still like it.
liked the subject in the beginning of the year but now don't like it any more.
didn't like the subject in the beginning of the year and still don't like it.
didn't like the subject in the beginning of the year but now like it.

Can you tell me more about this?

ANSWER:

Question 6: How would you rate the behaviour of the class in your French/German lessons? Why?

ANSWER:

Question 7: In your experience, is the behaviour of the class a problem in other lessons (or is it particularly a problem in French/German)?

ANSWER:

Question 8: Do you think that the good behaviour of the class is important for your learning? Why/why not?/Why is it (not) happening?

ANSWER:

Question 9: In the questionnaire, many pupils said that it's very important to have friends in the class. To what extent do you agree? Why/why not?

ANSWER:

Question 10: They often said that friends are important, because they can help you. Why do you think they used that word “help”?/What do you think they mean by that?

ANSWER:

At the end of the interview are you still happy with me using your answers in my analysis?

ANSWER:

DO YOU WISH TO ADD ANYTHING?

ANSWER:

Thank you very much for your honesty and your time!

End of recording.

Tables 1.11. and 1.12. are examples of interview transcripts. Transcripts of all interviews can be provided if necessary.

Table 1.11.: Interview sample transcript

Candidate # 201 [+ +]

(based on first version questions - questions revised after first two interviews)

Q1: Can you tell me please if you are at the moment enjoying going to your French lessons?

A1: Yes.

Q2: Yes? Can you give me any reasons why you're enjoying going to your French lessons? Would you know why that is?

A2: I enjoy going to my French lessons, because I find French an easy subject, not like other people say. I also find it fun to learn another language.

Q3: How much do you think the other people in your class like your French lessons at the moment?

A3: I think a lot of the people in the class dislike the French lessons, because they find it hard when we come to learn some parts.

Q4: Why do you think they don't enjoy it so much? Do they find it hard, you think? Is it because of that?

A4: I think they find it hard because when we come to [incomprehensible] and the body parts [?] and the different words, I think people just find it hard to pronounce them because they [incomprehensible] so different and they confuse you [?]

Q4: Just to clarify, you think it's about the subject? The subject is really hard.

A4: Yes.

Q5: From the answers you have given me in the two questionnaires I have worked out that you liked the subject in the beginning of the year and that you still like it. Can you tell me ore about this?

A5: I like French a lot because I just find really easy, sir. I find I like it more because it has got more easy for me I can understand [?] it better and I'm really really good at loads of subjects. That's why I think I like it more and I think it's my friends are with me as well and I feel more confident.

Q5: So nothing has changed, you liked it in the beginning and you still like it?

A5: Yes.

Q6: Do you think that the behaviour of the class is a problem in your French lessons?

A6: Sometimes yes, because people don't like French that much, they, like, play up and distract others' learning, sir. I find it hard to concentrate then, because they disrupt my learning and others' and we can't understand all the time what we have to do.

Q7: In your experience is the behaviour of the class a problem in other lessons as well, or is it particularly French that is the problem?

A7: In other lessons as well they do play up I think this is manly because they just play up all the time they're badly behaved they just don't want to learn. They don't want to et a good education as I do that's why I [incomprehensible] to behave as well.

Q7: Why do you think they don't care? Could you think of any reasons why they wouldn't care, because it is important, isn't it?

A7: I think they don't care because they're not bothered at the moment they're not thinking what's going to happen in the future. They're just thinking about what's gonna happen now.

Q8: Do you think that the good behaviour of the class is an important factor in learning?

A8: I think it's a very important factor because you can learn more when the class is behaved and you can hear much better and the confidence of everybody around you boosts your confidence, as when they're all badly behaved you find it hard to learn, you get distracted.

Q9: In the questionnaire any pupils said that it is very important to have friends in the class. Do you agree with that?

A9: I strongly agree with that. When your friends are around you it helps you learn, because you know that other people are gonna be there and if you make a mistake they're still gonna be there to boost your confidence to help you.

Q10: They often said that friends are important because they can "help" you. I was wondering why do you think they used that word, "help", what do you think they mean by that? It can mean lots of things, can't it?

A10: When they say "help", they mean they can boost your confidence for when you have to speak aloud to do numbers in front of people in a different language. They boost your confidence. That's what they mean by the word "help". They can boost your confidence: if you make a mistake they'll always be there for you. To help your friends [incomprehensible].

Q10: So you think it as got to do with the work, or with the whole classroom setting of being with other people and speaking in front of other people?

A10: I think it's because when you make a mistake in front of people you get embarrassed, but they know you'll be there and that's something nice for other people to have, somebody there that will be listening and always look after you [?]

Q10: What do you think would happen if you didn't have any friends in the class?

A10: If you didn't have any friends in the class you wouldn't be confident and speak aloud. I think you'd be very very shy and it would be hard for you to work as you didn't know anything, anybody around you, and it would be hard to [incomprehensible] and you would be more nervous, as you wouldn't know half the people around you.

Table 1.12.: Interview sample transcript

Candidate # 176 [--]

(based on first version questions - questions revised after first two interviews)

Q1: Can you tell me please if you're enjoying going to your French lessons at the moment?

A1: Yeah.

Q2: Can you give me any reasons why you're enjoying going to your French lessons?

A2: Because you can be with friends.

Q2: Friends are important?

A2: Yeah.

Q3: How much do you think the other people, the people around you in your class like your French lessons at the moment?

A3: Not much.

Q4: Not much? What makes you think that? Can you give me any reasons why other people in your class might not enjoy your lesson?

A4: Because they don't like the teacher.

Q4: They don't like the teacher?

A4: No.

Q4: It's not about the subject it's about the teacher, you think?

A4: Yeah.

Q4: Have you spoken to people saying that or is it just your impression?

A4: Impression.

Q5: From the answers you gave me in the questionnaire I've worked out that in the beginning you said you didn't like the subject so much.

A5: Yeah.

Q5: And you told me last time as well you don't like it very much now either. Can you tell me more about this? Why do you think nothing has changed?

A5: Because of the teacher.

Q5: Because of the teacher in your case as well? Right from the beginning when I first came with the questionnaire you knew: I don't like the teacher?

A5: No I just didn't like French [incomprehensible]

Q5: So you didn't like the subject?

A5: Yeah and then I didn't like the teacher.

Q5: Who was it or what was it you didn't like first, the subject or the teacher?

A5: The subject because I thought it was gonna be hard.

Q5: And then you thought: I don't like the teacher either?

A5: Yeah.

Q5: Do you think you might have changed your opinion had the teacher been different?

A5: Yeah.

Q6: Do you think that the behaviour of the class is generally a problem in your French lessons?

A6: Yeah.

Q6: Yes? Why?

A6: Because they're making a row, so you don't get taught anything. That's why it's hard to understand.

Q7: In your experience, is the behaviour of the class a problem in other lessons as well, or is it particularly in French?

A7: Probably just in French.

Q7: Just in French? So Maths, for example wouldn't be so bad?

A7: No.

Q8: Do you think that it's important, in general, for learning, that there is good behaviour in any lesson?

A8: Yeah.

Q8: So you regret a bit that in French this is not the case?

A8: Yeah.

Q8: Or are you not bothered?

A8: Not bothered.

Q9: In the questionnaire many pupils said that it's very important to have friends in the class. Do you agree with that?

A9: Yeah.

Q9: Why do you think that's important?

A9: They can help you if you get stuck.

Q10: They also said it's important because they can help you. What do you think they mean by that. What do you mean by that word "help"?

A10: Because if the teacher don't understand and your friend does, then he can explain it to you.

Q10: Explain what?

A10: The work and what you have to do.

Q10: So it's about the work?

A10: Yeah.

Q10: What do you think might happen if you didn't have any friends in the class?
 A10: You probably wouldn't get very far and would do no work, because you wouldn't get it.
 Q10: So it's important to have friends because they help you do the work?
 A10: Yeah.

Appendix 2: Quantitative analysis

Tables 2.1. to 2.6. present calculations based on the raw data, tables 2.7. to 2.16 represent the comparable data.

Table 2.1.: Extreme positives and negatives in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	258	68	26.3%	35	13.6%	39.9%
Q7	257	24	9.3%	22	8.6%	17.9%
Q8	258	75	29.1%	38	14.7%	43.8%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.2.: Extreme positives and negatives in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	278	32	11.5%	88	31.7%	43.2%
Q4	271	9	3.3%	75	27.7%	31.0%
Q6	277	53	19.1%	56	20.2%	39.3%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.3.: Moderate positives and negatives in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Moderate like out of A	%	C: Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of moderate like/dislike
Q6	258	54	20.9%	43	16.7%	37.6%
Q7	257	34	13.2%	31	12.1%	25.3%
Q8	258	40	15.5%	40	15.5%	31.0%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.4.: Moderate positives and negatives in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Moderate like out of A	%	C: Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of moderate like/dislike
Q2	278	39	14.0%	56	20.1%	34.1%
Q4	271	20	7.4%	55	20.3%	27.7%
Q6	277	51	18.4%	40	14.4%	32.8%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.5.: Middle value responses in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q6	258	58	22.5%
Q7	257	146	56.8%
Q8	258	65	25.2%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.6.: Middle value responses in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q2	278	63	22.7%
Q4	271	112	41.3%
Q6	277	77	27.8%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.7.: Extreme like/dislike in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strongly like out of A	%	C: Strongly dislike out of A	%	D: Total % of extreme answers
Q6	224	60	26.8%	26	11.6%	38.4%
Q7	216	18	8.3%	15	7.0%	15.3%
Q8	219	62	28.3%	30	13.7%	42.0%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.8.: Extreme like/dislike in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strongly like out of A	%	C: Strongly dislike out of A	%	D: Total % of extreme answers
Q2	224	27	12.0%	66	29.5%	41.5%
Q4	216	9	4.2%	62	28.7%	32.9%
Q6	219	44	20.1%	42	19.2%	39.3%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.9.: Moderate like/dislike in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Moderate like out of A	%	C: Moderate dislike out of A	%	D: Total % of moderate answers
Q6	224	49	21.9%	36	16.1%	38.0%
Q7	216	31	14.3%	27	12.5%	26.8%
Q8	219	33	15.1%	38	17.3%	32.4%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.10.: Moderate like/dislike in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Moderate like out of A	%	C: Moderate dislike out of A	%	D: Total % of moderate answers
Q2	224	37	16.5%	46	20.5%	37.0%
Q4	216	14	6.5%	43	19.9%	26.4%
Q6	219	36	16.4%	32	14.6%	31.0%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.11.: Middle value responses in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q6	224	53	23.7%
Q7	216	125	57.9%
Q8	219	56	25.6%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.12.: Middle value responses in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q2	224	48	21.4%
Q4	216	88	40.7%
Q6	219	65	29.7%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.13.: Number of participants with same voting behaviour in corresponding questions in both phases

Q#	(1) Extreme like	(2) Moderate like	(3) Middle value	(4) Moderate dislike	(5) Extreme dislike
Q6 - Q2	19	11	13	10	21
Q7 - Q4	2	6	56	7	8
Q8 - Q6(2)	23	10	22	8	15

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school

Table 2.14.: Consistent positive and negative (extreme or moderate) and middle value

Q#	(1) & (2) Positive	(3) Middle value	(4) & (5) Negative
Q6 - Q2	46	13	49
Q7 - Q4	12	56	42
Q8 - Q6(2)	54	22	41

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school

Table 2.15.: Rates of consistency in corresponding questions in both phases

Q#	(1) Extreme like	(2) Moderate like	(3) Middle value	(4) Moderate dislike	(5) Extreme dislike
Q6 - Q2	19 (31.7%)	11 (22.4%)	13 (24.5%)	10 (27.8%)	21 (80.7%)
Q7 - Q4	2 (11.1%)	6 (19.5%)	56 (44.8%)	7 (25.9%)	8 (53.3%)
Q8 - Q6(2)	23 (37.1%)	10 (30.3%)	22 (39.3%)	8 (21.0%)	15 (50.0%)

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school
(Percentages in brackets refer to comparable data and indicate the proportion of consistent votes out of the original number of votes)

Table 2.16.: Rates of consistent positive and negative (extreme or moderate) and middle value responses

Q#	(1) & (2) Positive	(3) Middle value	(4) & (5) Negative
Q6 - Q2	46 (42.2%)	13 (24.5%)	49 (79.0%)
Q7 - Q4	12 (24.5%)	56 (44.8%)	42 (100%)
Q8 - Q6(2)	54 (56.8%)	22 (39.3%)	41 (60.3%)

Q6/Q2: own like/dislike subject Q7/Q4: perceived like/dislike subject Q8/Q6: own like/dislike school

Tables 2.17. to 2.32. present calculations based on the raw data, tables 2.33. to 2.44 represent the comparable data.

Table 2.17.: Girls - extreme positives and negatives in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	138	41	29.7%	15	10.9%	40.6%
Q7	136	8	5.9%	10	7.3%	13.2%
Q8	138	41	29.7%	14	10.1%	39.8%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.18.: Girls - moderate positives and negatives in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Moderate like out of A	%	Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	138	33	23.9%	19	13.8%	37.7%
Q7	136	19	14.0%	18	13.2%	27.2%
Q8	138	22	15.9%	21	15.2%	31.1%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.19.: Girls – combined positives and negatives in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives out of A	%	C: Total negatives out of A	%	D: Total % of pos. and neg.
Q6	138	74	53.6%	34	24.6%	78.2%
Q7	136	27	19.8%	28	20.6%	40.4%
Q8	138	63	45.6%	35	25.4%	71.0%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.20.: Girls - middle value responses in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q6	138	30	21.7%
Q7	136	81	59.5%
Q8	138	40	29.0%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.21.: Girls - extreme positives and negatives in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	147	14	9.5%	50	34.0%	43.5%
Q4	144	6	4.2%	44	30.5%	34.7%
Q6	145	28	19.3%	25	17.2%	36.5%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.22.: Girls - moderate like and dislike in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Moderate like out of A	%	Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	147	23	15.7%	28	19.0%	34.7%
Q4	144	8	5.5%	35	24.3%	29.8%
Q6	145	30	20.7%	20	13.8%	34.5%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.23.: Girls - combined positives and negatives in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives out of A	%	C: Total negatives out of A	%	D: Total % of pos. and neg.
Q6	147	37	25.2%	78	53.1%	78.3%
Q7	144	14	9.7%	79	54.9%	64.6%
Q8	145	58	40.0%	45	31.0%	71.0%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.24.: Girls - middle value responses in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q6	147	33	22.4%
Q7	144	51	35.4%
Q8	145	42	29.0%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.25.: Boys - extreme like and dislike in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	114	26	22.8%	19	16.7%	39.5%
Q7	115	15	13.0%	11	9.6%	22.6%
Q8	114	32	28.1%	24	21.0%	49.1%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.26.: Boys - moderate like and dislike in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Moderate like out of A	%	Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	114	19	16.6%	24	21.1%	37.7%
Q7	115	14	12.2%	12	10.4%	22.6%
Q8	114	15	13.1%	19	16.7%	29.8%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.27.: Boys – combined positives and negatives in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives out of A	%	C: Total negatives out of A	%	D: Total % of pos. and neg.
Q6	114	44	38.6%	43	37.7%	76.3%
Q7	115	29	25.2%	23	20.0%	45.2%
Q8	114	47	41.2%	43	37.7%	78.9%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.28.: Boys - middle value responses in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q6	114	26	22.8%
Q7	115	63	54.8%
Q8	114	24	21.1%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.29.: Boys - extreme like and dislike in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	124	17	13.7%	38	30.6%	44.3%
Q4	121	3	2.5%	30	24.8%	27.3%
Q6	126	23	18.3%	31	24.6%	42.9%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.30.: Boys - moderate like and dislike in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Moderate like out of A	%	Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	124	15	12.1%	26	21.0%	33.1%
Q4	121	9	7.4%	19	15.7%	23.1%
Q6	126	18	14.3%	19	15.1%	29.4%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.31.: Boys - combined positives and negatives in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives out of A	%	C: Total negatives out of A	%	D: Total % of pos. and neg.
Q6	124	32	25.8%	64	51.6%	77.4%
Q7	121	12	9.9%	49	40.5%	50.4%
Q8	126	41	32.5%	50	39.7%	72.2%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.32.: Boys - middle value responses phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q6	124	28	22.6%
Q7	121	60	49.6%
Q8	126	35	27.8%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.33.: Girls - extreme positives and negatives in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	124	35	28.2%	13	10.5%	38.7%
Q7	122	6	4.9%	9	7.4%	12.3%
Q8	123	35	28.4%	13	10.6%	39.0%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.34.: Girls - moderate like and dislike in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Moderate like out of A	%	Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	124	29	23.4%	18	14.5%	37.9%
Q7	122	18	14.7%	17	13.9%	28.6%
Q8	123	21	17.1%	19	15.4%	32.5

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.35.: Girls - middle value responses in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q6	124	29	23.4%
Q7	122	72	59.0%
Q8	123	35	28.4%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.36.: Girls - extreme positives and negatives in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	124	11	8.9%	39	31.4%	40.3%
Q4	122	6	4.9%	39	32.0%	36.9%
Q6	123	24	19.5%	19	15.4%	34.9%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.37.: Girls - moderate positives and negatives in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Moderate like out of A	%	Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	124	22	17.7%	26	21.0%	38.7%
Q4	122	7	5.7%	28	23.0%	28.7%
Q6	123	23	18.7%	18	14.6%	33.3%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.38.: Girls - middle value responses in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q2	124	26	21.0%
Q4	122	42	34.4%
Q6	123	39	31.7%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.39.: Boys - extreme positive and negative in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	94	24	25.5%	12	12.8%	38.3%
Q7	94	12	12.8%	6	6.4%	19.2%
Q8	96	27	28.1%	17	17.7%	45.8%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.40.: Boys - moderate like and dislike in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Moderate like out of A	%	Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q6	94	18	19.1%	18	19.1%	38.3%
Q7	94	13	13.8%	10	10.6%	24.4%
Q8	96	12	12.5%	19	19.8%	32.35

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.41.: Boys - middle value responses in phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q6	94	22	23.4%
Q7	94	53	56.4%
Q8	96	21	21.9%

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.42.: Boys - extreme positives and negatives in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Strongly like out of A	%	Strongly dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	94	15	16.0%	27	28.7%	44.7%
Q4	94	3	3.2%	23	24.5%	27.7%
Q6	96	20	20.8%	23	24.0%	44.8%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.43.: Boys - moderate positives and negatives in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	Moderate like out of A	%	Moderate dislike out of A	%	% of extreme answers
Q2	94	14	14.9%	18	19.1%	34.0%
Q4	94	7	7.4%	15	16.0%	23.4%
Q6	96	13	13.5%	14	14.6%	28.1%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.44.: Boys - middle value responses in phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Choosing middle value out of A	C: % B out of A
Q2	94	20	21.3%
Q4	94	46	49.0%
Q6	96	26	27.1%

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Tables 2.45. to 2.53. present calculations based on the raw data, tables 2.54. to 2.56 represent the comparable data.

Table 2.45.: Language sub-samples – French – phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strong like (1)	C: Moderate like (2)	D: Middle value (3)	E: Moderate dislike (4)	F: Strong dislike (5)
Q6	95	28 (29.5%)	15 (15.8%)	16 (16.8%)	22 (23.1%)	14 (14.7%)
Q7	95	9 (9.5%)	12 (12.6%)	49 (51.6%)	14 (14.7%)	11 (11.6%)
Q8	94	32 (34.0%)	11 (11.7%)	22 (23.4%)	14 (14.9%)	15 (15.9%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.46.: Language sub-samples – French – phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strong like (1)	C: Moderate like (2)	D: Middle value (3)	E: Moderate dislike (4)	F: Strong dislike (5)
Q2	105	13 (12.4%)	8 (7.6%)	20 (19.0%)	23 (21.9%)	41 (39.0%)
Q4	100	3 (3.0%)	3 (3.0%)	31 (31.0%)	22 (22.0%)	41 (41.0%)
Q6	104	25 (24.0%)	16 (15.4%)	31 (29.8%)	12 (11.5%)	20 (19.2%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.47.: Language sub-samples – French – phase one combined positives and negatives in raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives (1) + (2)	C: Middle value (3)	D: Total negatives (4) + (5)
Q6	95	43 (45.3%)	16 (16.8%)	36 (37.9%)
Q7	95	21 (22.1%)	49 (51.6%)	25 (26.3%)
Q8	94	43 (45.7%)	22 (23.4%)	29 (30.8%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.48.: Language sub-samples – French – combined positives and negatives in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives (1) + (2)	D: Middle value (3)	D: Total negatives (4) + (5)
Q2	105	21 (20.0%)	20 (19.0%)	64 (60.9%)
Q4	100	6 (6.0%)	31 (31.0%)	63 (63.0%)
Q6	104	41 (39.4%)	31 (29.8%)	32 (30.7%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.49.: Language sub-samples – German – phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strong like (1)	C: Moderate like (2)	D: Middle value (3)	E: Moderate dislike (4)	F: Strong dislike (5)
Q6	157	39 (24.8%)	37 (23.5%)	40 (25.4%)	21 (13.4%)	20 (12.7%)
Q7	156	14 (8.9%)	21 (13.4%)	95 (60.9%)	16 (10.2%)	10 (6.4%)
Q8	158	41 (25.9%)	26 (16.4%)	42 (26.6%)	26 (16.4%)	23 (14.5%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.50.: Language sub-samples – German – phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strong like (1)	C: Moderate like (2)	D: Middle value (3)	E: Moderate dislike (4)	F: Strong dislike (5)
Q2	167	18 (10.7%)	30 (17.9%)	41 (24.5%)	31 (18.5%)	47 (28.1%)
Q4	165	6 (3.6%)	14 (8.4%)	80 (48.5%)	32 (19.4%)	33 (20.0%)
Q6	167	26 (15.5%)	32 (19.1%)	46 (27.5%)	27 (16.1%)	36 (21.5%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.51.: Language sub-samples – German – combined positives and negatives in phase one raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives (1) + (2)	C: Middle value (3)	D: Total negatives (4) + (5)
Q6	157	76 (48.4%)	40 (25.4%)	41 (26.1%)
Q7	156	35 (22.4%)	95 (60.9%)	26 (16.6%)
Q8	158	67 (42.4%)	42 (26.6%)	49 (31.0%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.52.: Language sub-samples – German – combined positives and negatives in phase two raw data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Total positives (1) + (2)	D: Middle value (3)	D: Total negatives (4) + (5)
Q2	167	48 (28.7%)	41 (24.5%)	78 (46.7%)
Q4	165	20 (12.1%)	80 (48.5%)	65 (39.4%)
Q6	167	58 (34.7%)	46 (27.5%)	63 (37.7%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.53. Language sub-samples – French – phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strong like (1)	C: Moderate like (2)	D: Middle value (3)	E: Moderate dislike (4)	F: Strong dislike (5)
Q6	78	23 (29.4%)	13 (16.6%)	14 (17.9%)	18 (23.1%)	10 (12.8%)
Q7	77	8 (10.4%)	11 (14.3%)	38 (49.3%)	12 (15.6%)	8 (10.4%)
Q8	77	26 (33.7%)	9 (11.7%)	16 (20.8%)	14 (18.2%)	12 (15.6%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.54.: Language sub-samples – French – phase two comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strong like (1)	C: Moderate like (2)	D: Middle value (3)	E: Moderate dislike (4)	F: Strong dislike (5)
Q2	78	10 (12.8%)	7 (8.9%)	13 (16.6%)	18 (23.1%)	30 (38.4%)
Q4	77	3 (3.9%)	2 (2.6%)	21 (27.3%)	19 (24.7%)	32 (41.5%)
Q6	77	20 (25.9%)	9 (11.7%)	25 (32.4%)	10 (12.9%)	13 (16.9%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.55.: Language sub-samples – German – phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strong like (1)	C: Moderate like (2)	D: Middle value (3)	E: Moderate dislike (4)	F: Strong dislike (5)
Q6	140	36 (25.7%)	34 (24.3%)	37 (26.4%)	18 (12.8%)	15 (10.7%)
Q7	139	10 (7.2%)	20 (14.4%)	87 (62.6%)	15 (10.8%)	7 (5.0%)
Q8	142	36 (25.3%)	24 (16.9%)	40 (28.1%)	24 (16.9%)	18 (12.7%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Table 2.56.: Language sub-samples – German – phase one comparable data

Q#	A: Total no. of responses	B: Strong like (1)	C: Moderate like (2)	D: Middle value (3)	E: Moderate dislike (4)	F: Strong dislike (5)
Q2	140	16 (11.4%)	29 (20.7%)	33 (23.6%)	26 (18.6%)	36 (25.7%)
Q4	139	6 (4.3%)	12 (8.6%)	67 (48.2%)	24 (17.2%)	30 (21.6%)
Q6	142	24 (16.9%)	27 (19.0%)	40 (28.1%)	22 (15.5%)	29 (20.4%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

Tables 2.57., 2.58. and chart 2.1. present data used to identify group cultures. The chosen group is an example. Data tables and charts for all 12 groups can be provided if necessary.

Table 2.57.: Sub-samples – individual teaching groups – phase one raw data (I-FR1)

Q#	No. of resp.	Strong like (1)	Moderate like (2)	Total positive (1) + (2)	Middle value (3)	Moderate dislike (4)	Strong dislike (5)	Total negative (4) + (5)
Q6	28	6 (21.4%)	7 (25.0%)	13 (46.4%)	4 (14.3%)	10 (35.7%)	1 (3.6%)	11 (39.3%)
Q7	29	3 (10.3%)	2 (6.9%)	5 (17.2%)	18 (62.0%)	3 (10.3%)	3 (10.3%)	6 (20.7%)
Q8	28	6 (21.4%)	2 (7.1%)	8 (28.6%)	9 (32.1%)	9 (32.1%)	1 (3.6%)	10 (35.7%)

Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

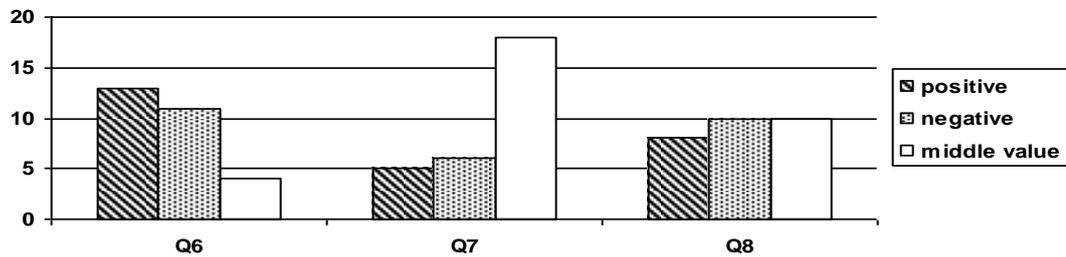
Table 2.58.: Sub-samples – individual teaching groups – phase one raw data (I-FR1)

Q#	No. of resp.	Strong like (1)	Moderate like (2)	Total positive (1) + (2)	Middle value (3)	Moderate dislike (4)	Strong dislike (5)	Total negative (4) + (5)
Q2	29	2 (6.9%)	4 (13.8%)	6 (20.7%)	4 (13.8%)	8 (27.6%)	11 (37.9%)	19 (65.5%)
Q4	28	1 (3.6%)	1 (3.6%)	2 (7.1%)	7 (25.0%)	8 (28.6%)	11 (39.3%)	19 (67.8%)
Q6	29	5 (17.2%)	3 (10.3%)	8 (27.6%)	10 (34.5%)	5 (17.2%)	6 (20.7%)	11 (37.9%)

Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school
(Percentages in () refer to total no. of responses)

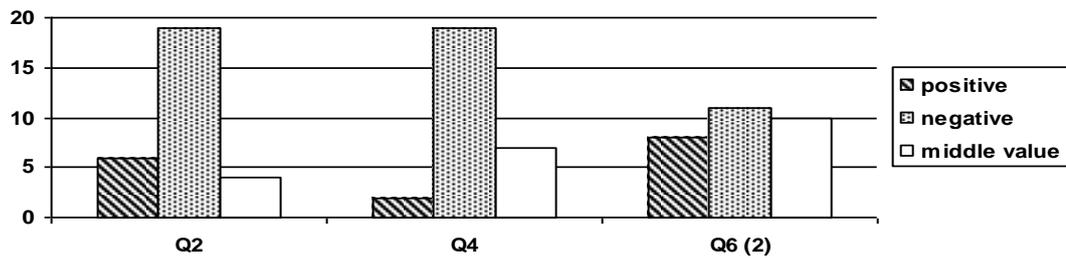
Chart 2.1.: Numbers of pupils choosing ‘positive’ (1)+(2), ‘negative’ (4)+(5), ‘middle value’ (3) - I-FR1 (French) – raw data

Phase 1



Q6: own like/dislike of subject Q7: perceived like/dislike of subject Q8: own like/dislike of school

Phase2



Q2: own like/dislike of subject Q4: perceived like/dislike of subject Q6: own like/dislike of school

Table 2.59.: Group profiles – raw data

Group	Q6 - Q2	Q7 - Q4	Q8 - Q6	Trend
A-GM1	Y	Y	Y	Y
B-GM2	Y	Y	Y	Y
C-GM3	N	N	N	+NEG
D-GM4	Y	N	Y	+NEG
E-GM1	N	N	Y	+POS
F-GM2	Y	Y	N	+NEG
G-GM3	N	N	N	+NEG
H-FR1	N	N	N	+NEG
I-FR1	Y	N	N	+NEG
J-FR2	Y	N	Y	+NEG
K-FR3	N	Y	Y	+POS
L-FR4	Y	N	N	+POS
No. of matches:	7	4	6	2

+NEG = more negative than trend
Y = match with trend

+POS = more positive than trend
N = no match with trend

Table 2.60.: Group profiles – comparable data

Group	Q6 - Q2	Q7 - Q4	Q8 -Q6	Trend
A-GM1	N	N	Y	+POS
B-GM2	N	N	Y	+POS
C-GM3	N	N	N	+NEG
D-GM4	N	N	N	+NEG
E-GM1	N	N	N	+POS
F-GM2	Y	Y	N	+NEG
G-GM3	Y	N	N	+NEG
H-FR1	N	N	N	+NEG
I-FR1	Y	Y	N	+NEG
J-FR2	N	N	Y	+NEG
K-FR3	N	N	Y	+POS
L-FR4	N	N	Y	+POS
No. of matches:	3	2	5	0

+NEG = more negative than trend +POS = more positive than trend
 Y = match with trend N = no match with trend

Table 2.61.: List of positive and negative ‘OTHER’ comments per pupil and phase (raw data, all groups)

P #	M/F		Phase 1 (positive)	Phase 1 (negative)	Phase 2 (positive)	Phase 2 (negative)
1	F	B-GM2				<i>The tests.</i> [1] [OTHER]
9	F	B-GM2				<i>The classmates.</i> [2] [OTHER]
22	M	B-GM2		<i>I don't dislike German class in any way.</i> [3] [OTHER, POSITIVE]		
37	F	C-GM3		<i>Always read out of textbooks and not the teacher [t]elling us the words which is better than reading out of the textbooks.</i> [3] [OTHER]		
41	M	C-GM3			<i>The attitude to the teacher.</i> [3] [BEHAVIOUR]	<i>Less attitude.</i> [1/3] [BEHAVIOUR]
44	M	C-GM3			<i>None</i> [3] [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	
45	M	C-GM3		<i>I'm stuck on a level on my PS2 game.</i> [3] [OTHER]		
56	F	C-GM3			<i>'NI' - Not important: Teacher.</i> [3] [TEACHER]	
61	M	I-FR1			<i>[All marked:] 'R' [Key:] R=rubbish</i> [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	<i>Everything.</i> [1 ½] [OTHER] [The teacher] mean, big head. [TEACHER]
63	F	I-FR1				<i>The boringness of the lesson (if boringness is a word).</i> [1] [OTHER]

65	M	I-FR1				Don't get to try the languages food. [3] [OTHER]
74	F	I-FR1				It sometimes being really hard. [3] [OTHER]
77	M	I-FR1			The only positive thing of French is when the teacher isn't here. No 1 likes [the teacher] and with [the teacher] French is pointless. Why does my teacher hate me? Even when I do something good [the teacher] ain't happy. 'Naughty your in detention you plum do something good'. [TEACHER]	French is worse than ever. [The teacher] has put me off learning. I don't to live knowing that [***] is my teacher. [The teacher] is evil and picks on me. [TEACHER]
81	F	I-FR1				It's a new subject. [2] [OTHER]
88	M	I-FR1		Not enough opportunities to get merits. [3] [OTHER]		
91	F	J-FR2				The we have to sit in silent's and do no work. [1] [OTHER]
98	F	J-FR2			I don't feel positive in my language lessons because I don't understand half of the work. [3] [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	
100	F	J-FR2			I do not feel positive about my language lessons. [3] [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	
101	F	J-FR2			The end of it. [1] [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	The beginning. [1] [OTHER]
103	F	J-FR2			The fact that I have got many friends in the class. [FRIENDS]	[added to 'teacher'] and that I do not like the subject. [NO ENJOYMENT]
105	M	J-FR2			Nothing. [1 ½] [OTHER, NEGATIVE?]	The class. [1 ½] [OTHER]
114	F	J-FR2	Making the lessons fun and learning words that you can use at home so you repeat the words that you used at school so that younger siblings and friends get more interested in learning languages. [1/2] [OTHER]			
123	M	A-GM1				Having fun. [3] [OTHER]
129	M	K-FR3				The teacher is a dickhead. [TEACHER]
144	F	K-FR3			A good thing about French is that you get to learn words in different langwich. [3] [OTHER]	Bad thing about French is that it is hard to say some of the words. [3] [OTHER]
145	M	A-GM1				The fact that you can

					<i>Another language.</i> [1] [OTHER]	
148	M	A-GM1		<i>Sometimes we barely do any work.</i> [3] [OTHER]		
157	F	A-GM1		<i>It just doesn't make [m]e say 'horray, German!'; it makes me say 'right, German next'.</i> [1] [OTHER]		
159	M	B-GM2			<i>That you feel happy in the lesson.</i> [3] [OTHER]	
163	F	A-GM1		<i>Why do we have to do languages?</i> [3] [OTHER]	<i>There are computers that we occasionally use.</i> [EQUIPMENT]	
164	F	A-GM1			<i>Learning new ways of communication languages.</i> [1] [OTHER]	
165	M	A-GM1	<i>That I've wanted to do German for a while.</i> [1] [OTHER]			
170	F	A-GM1			<i>The teacher is friendly, they are fun.</i> [TEACHER]	<i>The work isn't explained properly. It gets hard.</i> [1 ½] [OTHER]
175	M	A-GM1	<i>How much you think your good at it.</i> [1] [OTHER]		<i>I think the most important thing is to have good people in the class that won't disrupt the lesson.</i> [BEHAVIOUR]	
176	M	H-FR1			<i>Sitting next to friends.</i> [2] [OTHER]	<i>Boring</i> [1] [OTHER]
177	F	H-FR1			<i>Nothing.</i> [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	<i>Everything.</i> [3] [OTHER]
188	F	H-FR1			<i>Nothing.</i> [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	<i>Everything.</i> [3] [OTHER]
190	F	H-FR1			<i>Nothing.</i> [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	<i>Everything.</i> [1 ½] [OTHER]
191	M	H-FR1		<i>Having the lesson at the end of the day.</i> [1] [OTHER]		
194	M	H-FR1		<i>I'm just not boverd.</i> [1] [OTHER]	<i>Sitting next to friends.</i> [2] [OTHER]	<i>It's boring.</i> [1] [OTHER]
197	M	H-FR1			<i>Experiments</i> [1] [ACTIVITIES]	
198	F	H-FR1				<i>No enjoying the language I am learning.</i> [1 ½] [OTHER]
201	F	H-FR1		<i>There is nothing I do not enjoy.</i> [3] [OTHER, POSITIVE]	<i>Your classroom [OTHER 3/4] and being with friends [FRIENDS], no distractions [BEHAVIOUR].</i>	<i>Distractions [BEHAVIOUR], No fun things to do [1 ½] [OTHER], people shouting out [BEHAVIOUR].</i>
205	F	H-FR1		<i>Stairs!</i> [1 ½] [OTHER]	<i>Nothing it's boring.</i> [OTHER, NEGATIVE]	<i>Boring [1] [OTHER] everybody messes around [BEHAVIOUR]</i>
208	M	H-FR1	<i>Knowing things already.</i> [1 ½] [OTHER]			
210	M	E-GM1				<i>It's sometimes boring and I find if you do fun stuff you learn better.</i> [1] [OTHER]
217	F	E-GM1		<i>We should be able to</i>		

				<i>sit where we want because in conversations we have we don't get as much work done because we should talk with our friends! [3] [OTHER]</i>		
224	M	E-GM1		<i>[This is added to 'behaviour'] being distracted [BEHAVIOUR], writing quickly. [1 ½] [OTHER]</i>		
229	M	E-GM1		<i>Not being able to see the whiteboard. [1] [OTHER]</i>		
231	F	E-GM1			<i>The trips you go on, which are enjoyable. [TRIPS]</i>	<i>Amount of trips only been on one. [1] [OTHER]</i>
234	F	E-GM1		<i>Nothing negative [OTHER, POSITIVE]</i>		
240	F	E-GM1	<i>My family nows a bit of German. [1] [OTHER]</i>			
260	F	L-FR4		<i>I think that French is good and there is nother rong. [3] [OTHER, POSITIVE]</i>		
267	M	F-GM2			<i>Learning with mates. [FRIENDS]</i>	
281	F	F-GM2			<i>That you learnt something news every time. [3] [OTHER]</i>	
282	F	F-GM2	<i>Having friends I my class to help me. [FRIENDS]</i>			
284	F	E-GM1			<i>The fact that I would like to move because of a person who annoys me all the time. [1/8] [OTHER, NEGATIVE?]</i>	
285	M	F-GM2			<i>Fun lessons. [1] [OTHER]</i>	
302	M	D-GM4			<i>The people in the class. [2] [OTHER]</i>	
307	F	D-GM4	<i>How you work. [1/4] [OTHER]</i>			
314	M	D-GM4			<i>That the teachers need to be quiet. [1] [OTHER, NEGATIVE]</i>	<i>The teacher always shouting and it hurts my ears. [1] [OTHER]</i>
317	M	G-GM3				<i>Bad behaviour. [BEHAVIOUR]</i>
321	F	G-GM3			<i>Sit with mates. [2] [OTHER]</i>	
335	M	G-GM3	<i>Games. [ACTIVITIES]</i>		<i>That some of the words are easy to pronounce [1 ½] [OTHER] and some of the lessons we play games. [ACTIVITIES]</i>	
339	M	A-GM1				<i>The way other pupils criticise. [BEHAVIOUR]</i>
341	F	D-GM4				<i>Keep talking when the teacher said not to. [BEHAVIOUR]</i>
343	F	G-GM3			<i>Nothink because I don't learn nothink. [1 ½] [OTHER,</i>	

			<i>'I can show my parents how I am making progress.'</i>	229 (2)	
			<i>'Yes I learn things for everyday life because I can teach other people German and I can teach it to my children when I'm older.'</i>	237 (1)	
			<i>'I can wind my brother up and he doesn't know what I'm saying.'</i>	240 (2)	
	Negative	Language has no use outside school	<i>'Not really, because the only time I'm going to speak German is in my German lessons.'</i>	209 (2)	
			<i>'No because I don't go anywhere to speak German.'</i>	218 (2)	
			<i>'No because I'm not going to use it every day.'</i>	223 (1)	
			<i>'It's not important at all when are you ever going to speak German in England?'</i>	226 (2)	
			<i>'No, because I wouldn't normally speak German in my everyday life [...].'</i>	229 (1)	
			<i>'I don't think I learn anything that is important for everyday life.'</i>	230 (2)	
			<i>'No, as I would never go to Germany anyways.'</i>	233 (2)	
			<i>'Not really because I don't go to Germany or I don't really do anything that the language could help me with.'</i>	235 (1)	
Friends	Positive	Friends help with the work	<i>'I think it is because you could test each other out of school.'</i>	209 (1)	
			<i>'It's important because if you do groupwork then you can with them.'</i>	209 (2)	
			<i>'So they can help you and you can help them.'</i>	213 (1)	
			<i>'Because then you can ask them for help if your ever stuck.'</i>	213 (2)	
			<i>'I think it's important so you can talk to them about the subject and in German.'</i>	217 (2)	
			<i>'It's very important because if you do partner work and group work.'</i>	218 (1)	
			<i>'It's very important, because if you didn't have friends in the class you would have nobody to help you except the teacher.'</i>	218 (2)	
			<i>'Very because I can ask them later instead of the teacher.'</i>	224 (2)	
			<i>'Very important to have friends in the class, because I can talk to them and they help me when I'm stuck.'</i>	226 (1)	
			<i>'They help me when I'm stuck [...].'</i>	227 (1)	
		<i>'Because you can help each other.'</i>	228 (1)		
		<i>'So you can discuse things if you are unsure.'</i>	229 (1)		
		<i>'This is important to me so we can discuss things about the lesson.'</i>	229 (2)		
		<i>'It's good to have some friends because you can ask them for help [...].'</i>	232 (1)		
		<i>'It's very important to have friends in the class because if they get stuck or I get stuck we can help each other.'</i>	237 (1)		
		<i>'Yes, because you can help each other.'</i>	240 (1)		
			Friends create supportive classroom atmosphere	<i>'Quite important because if you work together it would be better if they were your friends.'</i>	210 (2)
				<i>'It is important because they make you have fun and you may like German better with friends.'</i>	211 (1)
				<i>'If we did not have friends it would be hard to have fun in the lesson at the same time as learning in the lesson. This would make it boaring.'</i>	211 (2)
				<i>'Because I feel more comfortable with my friends in my languages lesson because I know they will also be there for me if I'm stuck or something.'</i>	214 (2)
	<i>'Because you feel more confident you have friendly advice n stuff.'</i>	215 (1)			
	<i>'So you can talk to them and you don't feel left out.'</i>	216 (2)			
	<i>'Because if they're not your friends you are most likely not to speak to them in conversations in German.'</i>	217 (1)			
	<i>'It is a bit important because you have someone to talk</i>	219 (2)			

			<i>to.'</i>	
			<i>'So you feel comfortable and talk to them.'</i>	221 (2)
			<i>'Very because you feel more positive about what you are doing.'</i>	223 (1)
			<i>'To support me throughout the lesson and to know someone.'</i>	224 (1)
			<i>'[...] when I don't know anyone I wouldn't like to be left out.'</i>	227 (1)
			<i>'Because if you have to work in groups you can work with someone you like.'</i>	227 (2)
			<i>'Because if we need to do partner work I can pair with them.'</i>	230 (1)
			<i>'It is important because when we work in groups I have someone to work and talk to.'</i>	230 (2)
			<i>'I'm glad to have them in my class because I can talk to them.'</i>	231 (1)
			<i>'So you can talk and feel more relaxed.'</i>	231 (2)
			<i>'[...] if you do partner work then you can be confident around the people you no.'</i>	232 (1)
			<i>'So you can enjoy the lesson with your friends and you can express yourself more and not be shy.'</i>	232 (2)
			<i>'Quite important because sometimes you can talk to your friends about the lesson and how it went.'</i>	234 (1)
			<i>'Sometimes because if I had no friends with me then we had to do partners I wouldn't like to work with people I don't like.'</i>	235 (1)
			<i>'I think it's very important as you've got people to talk to or ask for help.'</i>	236 (2)
			<i>'It's important because if you didn't have friends in your class you won't get on with a lot of people and you won't be able to get on with people when you are practising German with people in your class.'</i>	237 (2)
			<i>'Very important. They can back me up and I can back them up.'</i>	239 (2)
			<i>'You might to partner up and speak in German to each other. And if you have no friends you won't feel comfortable.'</i>	265 (2)
			<i>'Very important because if you never had friends in your class you would be in misery.'</i>	284 (2)
		Friends make lessons fun (socialising)	<i>'Because it's quite boring now than it was before and it's good to have my friends in the class so it won't be a really dull lesson.'</i>	215 (2)
			<i>'We have fun. You don't be very serious.'</i>	233 (1)
			<i>'A lot because it's not my faviroit class.'</i>	240 (2)
	Negative	Friends may distract from work	<i>'It's not that important to have friends in languages class because if you don't have friends you can get on with your work.'</i>	228 (2)
Rewards and sanctions	Positive	Merits create positive feelings	<i>'Merits – it made me feel ok, but not that excited.'</i>	209 (2)
			<i>'[...] the merit made me feel ok.'</i>	214 (2)
			<i>'[...] makes me feel pleased with myself.'</i>	217 (2)
			<i>'Well merits are good so I would be happy [...].'</i>	218 (2)
			<i>'It makes me happy by getting merits.'</i>	220 (2)
			<i>'The merits make me feel happy [...].'</i>	225 (2)
			<i>'I've had 4-5 merits and made me feel good.'</i>	229 (2)
			<i>'I feel happy when I get merits [...].'</i>	236 (1)
		Merits indicate achievement	<i>'When I had my 3 merits it made me feel like I was achieving in a subject I love.'</i>	211 (2)
			<i>'Well if I get merits then I'm happy because it means I have done good work or good behaviour [...].'</i>	227 (2)
			<i>'It makes me [feel] like I am getting better.'</i>	230 (2)
			<i>'A merit made me feel happy for doing good work [...].'</i>	233 (2)
			<i>'[...] when I get merits it makes me feel happy because I have achieved something.'</i>	237 (2)

			<i>'I've had merits because of my work in my book.'</i>	265 (2)	
		Detentions serve a purpose	<i>'I got one detention but it made me feel alright because now I no never get a languages detention again.'</i>	213 (2)	
			<i>'[...] Detentions I would no it was my fault and I face the consequences.'</i>	218 (2)	
			<i>'[...] But if I get detentions it means the teacher isn't pleased with you.'</i>	227 (2)	
	Negative		Detentions create negative feelings	<i>'When I had the 1 detention it made me feel like I was failing.'</i>	211 (2)
				<i>'[...] I felt disappointed and shocked for the detention.'</i>	214 (2)
				<i>'[...] and disappointed when get detentions.'</i>	236 (2)
				<i>'Detentions I might be worried [...]'</i>	239 (2)
			Detention was given unfairly	<i>'[...] I think this is really unfair. Most teachers give you a strike out of 3, or say to hand it in the next day or you'll get a detention, but my teacher doesn't do this, that's why I think it's unfair.'</i>	215 (2)
				<i>'[...] but I don't like detentions for no reason.'</i>	225 (2)
				<i>'[...] but the 1 detention made me feel very sad as the person who started it wasn't punished.'</i>	233 (2)
Opinion of other pupils about receiving rewards or sanctions		Important	Peer pressure	<i>'If you are given merits you may look like a teacher's pet. If you have a detention you may look cool.'</i>	218 (2)
			Others acknowledge achievement	<i>'They take it well and congratulate me about merits.'</i>	229 (2)
	<i>'They feel the same.'</i>			230 (2)	
	Not important	Self-sufficiency	<i>'Not that important to me as long as I'm doing well then I don't mind. But detentions is the same I don't care what people think.'</i>	211 (2)	
			<i>'It's not important about what other people think.'</i>	226 (2)	
		Others are not interested	<i>'I don't really think it is that important to them because if I or anyone else gets in trouble it is their problem and the merits is theirs as well.'</i>	214 (2)	
			<i>'Not very. I think they don't really care.'</i>	239 (2)	
Other	Positive	Improvements to teaching and learning	<i>'How they like to learn and what they would make it fun or make any changes.'</i>	211 (2)	
			<i>'[...] what could be improved and so on.'</i>	215 (2)	
			<i>'You could have a question about how we could make the lesson better.'</i>	235 (1)	
		Amount of learning	<i>'How much do you think you have learnt on a scale of 1-10.'</i>	217 (2)	
			<i>'Do you learn anything. If not, why?'</i>	236 (2)	
	Negative	Role of the teacher	<i>'Do you think the teacher has some part of your progression?'</i>	229 (2)	
		Lack of choice (language)	<i>'[...] I find there is no point of learning German and not fair as Frence is easier.'</i>	231 (2)	

Table 3.2.: Themes in open-ended questions – group 2 – match with trend

Category	Evaluation	Theme	Participant's response	# (1/2)
Importance of lesson content	Positive	Language has potential use for future career	<i>'Not at this particular moment but as I grow older I think my German will come in handy one day.'</i>	155 (1)
			<i>'For my important job in the future life of me hoping to be a police officer.'</i>	156 (1)
			<i>'I think it is important for holiday / career.'</i>	165 (2)
		Language has potential use for contact with native speakers	<i>'I don't think it's completely useless, but it doesn't effect my everyday life. If I were to go to Germany, then it would effect my everyday life, but other than that, no.'</i>	145 (1)
			<i>'The only thing is if I actually went to Germany it is good.'</i>	153 (1)

			<i>'I don't really need use this skill until I grow up and go to Germany for important reasons.'</i>	155 (2)
			<i>'I really want to go to Berlin in Germany, so when I go, I will know some German so that I can talk to people and make German friends.'</i>	158 (1)
			<i>'Well, if we went on a trip to Germany it would be helpful or if we went with my family it would be useful too.'</i>	158 (2)
			<i>'No I don't (except maybe holidays).'</i>	161 (2)
			<i>'Yes because if you go on holiday you can already talk German or whatever language.'</i>	162 (1)
			<i>'Yes because it's good to learn about other languages you may go on visits so this would be very helpful.'</i>	164 (1)
			<i>'No except for holidays.'</i>	165 (1)
			<i>'I think it is important for holiday / career.'</i>	165 (2)
			<i>'I think that learning different languages can help you if you have a friend that speaks that language, or if you go on holiday to a foreign country.'</i>	171 (1)
			<i>'[...] Only when travelling to a country that uses that language.'</i>	171 (2)
			<i>'Yes because if we carry on learning this good at the end of year 7 a few of us could go to Germany and actually have a conversation.'</i>	175 (1)
		Language has potential use in the home environment	<i>'Not really as I don't know anyone who is or speaks German, but it is nice to show off my German skills to my family and friends.'</i>	154 (1)
		Language has potential use for enjoyment	<i>'Not really but I think its cool to be able to speak to people in a 2nd language.'</i>	164 (2)
			<i>'No I just like it because now I am learning German myself - I used to be told most things in German by my older brother [...].'</i>	166 (1)
	Negative	Language has no use outside school	<i>'No I wouldn't use German in my everyday life.'</i>	145 (2)
			<i>'It is not as important for my everyday life.'</i>	150 (2)
			<i>'No I don't think that I learn anything that would be important because I don't know anyone who is German and I know how to organise myself.'</i>	152 (1)
			<i>'I don't think that I learnt that much in language lessons that will help me in everyday life.'</i>	152 (2)
			<i>'I learn a lot of interesting things, but none that help me in everyday life so far.'</i>	166 (2)
			<i>'I don't think that it's important for everyday life.'</i>	170 (2)
			<i>'I do not think that anything I have learnt in my languages class will help me in everyday life [...].'</i>	171 (2)
			<i>'I think I do not learn any think for everyday life in German.'</i>	173 (1)
			<i>'I don't think it is important for everyday life, as I don't know anyone who speaks German.'</i>	173 (2)
			<i>'I don't think you learn anything to help you with everyday life, because you don't need to speak a different language.'</i>	174 (1)
			<i>'No, because I don't use German.'</i>	174 (2)
			<i>'I think in most jobs you do not need to know German or French and it makes no difference if we have them or not.'</i>	2 (2)
Friends			Positive	Friends help with the work
	<i>'Yes, because you can practise with them.'</i>	145 (2)		
	<i>'So if I am stuck I can talk to them.'</i>	151 (1)		
	<i>'So that we can all help each other outside of school with our homework.'</i>	151 (2)		
	<i>'Because you can talk to them in the language that you are learning to practise it.'</i>	152 (2)		

			<i>'So we work together because if we don't we will probably fall to sleep doing work on our own.'</i>	155 (1)
			<i>'Very important because you will not have any support that you can really do your German lesson.'</i>	155 (2)
			<i>'Yes because you can learn with them.'</i>	162 (2)
			<i>'Because you have people to help you.'</i>	163 (2)
			<i>'It's not really important but maybe it's good if you need a bit of help.'</i>	164 (1)
			<i>'It is very because if your stuck on something friends can help.'</i>	164 (2)
			<i>'You can get help in more of a way you understand than the teachers and you have people to talk to when finished work / all owed to.'</i>	166 (2)
			<i>'Important because you can ask them for help as well as the teacher.'</i>	169 (2)
			<i>'It is important so we can communicate with our friends and that, that also helps us.'</i>	173 (2)
		Friends create supportive classroom atmosphere	<i>'Because they give me more confidence for me because I know I won't have to start again making friends.'</i>	146 (1)
			<i>'Very important because even though they [the lessons] are quite fun anyway it just makes it a little bit more fun.'</i>	148 (1)
			<i>'Very important, because it makes the lesson more fun.'</i>	148 (2)
			<i>'I feel it is important to have friends in your classes because it makes me feel at home and less uptight about learning. I think most people feel that way too. I also think it is a good way to socialise, while being in a group of people you don't know and people you do know.'</i>	149 (1)
			<i>'Because they can make you feel comfortable, because you know your with a friend.'</i>	150 (1)
			<i>'It is quite important because I don't have to be as nervous when working with different people.'</i>	150 (2)
			<i>I find it very important to have friends in the class because you can find or go to the class together and you will feel more welcome and comfortable in the class.'</i>	152 (1)
			<i>'Because it is more fun plus you know who is in your class.'</i>	153 (2)
			<i>'It is very important as it is nice to be able to work with people you know.'</i>	154 (1)
			<i>'So you may (can) feel confident in your work and class.'</i>	156 (1)
			<i>'So you can learn together as friends and to have fun.'</i>	156 (2)
			<i>'It is very important because I will not really pay much attention. I would be thinking of getting back to my friends.'</i>	157 (1)
			<i>'Its important enough because if you didn't have friends in your class you would be bored hoping the lesson would finish and you would only do your work half-hearted.'</i>	157 (2)
			<i>'When it comes to partner and group work, it will be hard to get into group and very awkward when talking to them.'</i>	158 (1)
			<i>To make the lesson more enjoyable. Also when doing partner or group work it will be easier to talk to people.'</i>	158 (2)
			<i>'It important because then you won't feel left out.'</i>	159 (2)
			<i>'I think it is important to have friends in the class because you don't really want to ask someone you don't like for help.'</i>	160 (2)
			<i>'A little bit important because if you are with people you know and are friends with you will have more confidence and enjoy it more.'</i>	161 (1)
			<i>'Because if you don't like anyone in the class you will not learn or do very much.'</i>	162 (1)
			<i>'You don't really interact with your friends but you can talk a bit and it's better than being with some random</i>	165 (1)

			<i>person / person you don't like.'</i>		
			<i>'Very important: so you have fun when you are aloud to talk, and when it's partner work, it's fun with someone that you are friends with - you then have fun!!!'</i>	166 (1)	
			<i>'Very important because it is a familier face to see every language lesson.'</i>	167 (1)	
			<i>'Not that important except when we have to make a group but we come to learn and not to play with our friends during lesson.'</i>	170 (1)	
			<i>'It is very important for when you speak in front of the class and you don't feel nervous.'</i>	170 (2)	
			<i>'It is a bit important because you can enjoy your lesson activities more. But you don't need lots of friends to concentrate on your work.'</i>	171 (1)	
			<i>'I think it is important, but not very important because it is easier to communicate with others during a class discussion.'</i>	171 (2)	
			<i>'It is important because you work harder.'</i>	172 (2)	
			<i>'Because they can help you find the way when you first join. And to help each other when doing German.'</i>	173 (1)	
			<i>'I think it's quite important to have friends in your language class because it's nice to have a laugh with your friends if you're not too loud.'</i>	174 (1)	
			<i>'It's quite important, because if you have to get into pairs or write about a friend you an.'</i>	174 (2)	
			<i>'I think it's very important because if you have to go in pairs with people you don't know you wouldn't be a[s] enthusiastic to it.'</i>	175 (1)	
			<i>'Very important because if you don't have friends you feel uncomfortable and left out and when you have to work in pairs your stuck with someone you don't like.'</i>	2 (2)	
			<i>'It is very important because people who dislike you may make your work and learning experience unpleasant.'</i>	339 (2)	
		Friends make lessons fun (socialising)	<i>'Very or else I would be bored.'</i>	147 (2)	
			<i>'Very otherwise I'd have no one to talk to & be bored.'</i>	161 (2)	
	Negative	Friends are not important	<i>'It is not because you work on your own.'</i>	167 (2)	
Rewards and sanctions	Positive	Merits create positive feelings	<i>'Merit's wise very happy and proud [...]'</i>	150 (2)	
			<i>'I do sometimes feel proud.'</i>	156 (2)	
			<i>'I have been given merits. This makes me feel proud.'</i>	158 (2)	
			<i>'Merits - made me feel good.'</i>	161 (2)	
			<i>'Either happy or sad. Depending on the situation.'</i>	162 (2)	
			<i>'Merits felt good.'</i>	167 (2)	
				<i>'I like it when I get merits [...]'</i>	173 (2)
		Merits indicate achievement	<i>'When I get merits in German it seems like of done and learned beyond the normal pupils and expectations [...]'</i>	145 (2)	
			<i>'I have had a merit and that made me feel very proud of myself and that I am achieving another language.'</i>	152 (2)	
			<i>'Merits it makes me feel good because I know I'm doing well in the subject.'</i>	153 (2)	
			<i>'I've only been given merits and it make me feel that I can do German to a full potential.'</i>	155 (2)	
			<i>'Being given a merit makes you feel like your good at the subject.'</i>	164 (2)	
			<i>'Merits show I'm doing well, and improve confidence [...]'</i>	166 (2)	
			<i>'I've been given merits which makes me feel proud as the subject is hard.'</i>	170 (2)	
			<i>'I have only ever gotten a languages merit. It made me feel good because I have done very well learning a different language.'</i>	171 (2)	
			<i>'When I got a merit it made me feel like I've done good</i>	174 (2)	

			<i>work to deserve it.</i>		
			<i>'I think that merit are important to raise confidence.'</i>	175 (2)	
		Detentions serve a purpose	<i>'[...] but not the detentions but they do help.'</i>	156 (2)	
	Negative	Detentions create negative feelings	<i>'Either happy or sad. Depending on the situation.'</i>	162 (2)	
			<i>'[...] Detentions I wouldn't like the teacher.'</i>	157 (2)	
		Detention was given unfairly	<i>'[...] but stay behind for 10 mins. a lot for small reasons.'</i>	165 (2)	
			<i>'Angry & upset because I know I didn't do anything.'</i>	169 (2)	
			<i>'Sometimes the teacher says they have heard your voice and you didn't really speak and it makes you angry but you can't do nothing.'</i>	2 (2)	
		Rewards and sanctions have no meaning	<i>'Nothing special.'</i>	147 (2)	
			<i>'Merits I would feel normal [...].'</i>	157 (2)	
			<i>'I have got a merit before and it didn't make me feel anything.'</i>	160 (2)	
			<i>'[...] and detentions I wouldn't feel any different.'</i>	166 (2)	
			<i>'[...] but not really important to give us detentions.'</i>	173 (2)	
			<i>'Not very affected by merits or detentions, as they do not interest me.'</i>	339 (2)	
		There are no rewards or sanctions	<i>'I haven't been given either.'</i>	148 (2)	
			<i>'We don't / I don't get a lot of merits.'</i>	163 (2)	
	<i>'You don't get given merits [...].'</i>		165 (2)		
Opinion of other pupils about receiving rewards or sanctions	Important	Peer pressure	<i>'Merit's wise very happy and proud, but sometimes like a swat [...].'</i>	150 (2)	
			<i>'It is very important because I don't want other people to say and pick on me if I get a merit that I'm a teachers pet.'</i>	152 (2)	
			<i>'Well, if they give you lots of merits, people will call you a teachers pet. Detentions I wouldn't care.'</i>	157 (2)	
			<i>'If you get loads of detentions you will get a bad reputation, but if you get loads of merits people will think your a 'teachers pet'.'</i>	158 (2)	
			<i>'Getting lots of merits makes people think you're a swat.'</i>	166 (2)	
			<i>'If you get lots of detentions you get a bad reputation but if you get lots of merits people think you are a suck up.'</i>	169 (2)	
			<i>'[...] but if I get loads of merits, people may think you're the favourite in the class.'</i>	174 (2)	
			<i>'When you get a merit they call you a swat and a geek when really your not and when you get detentions you still get laughed at.'</i>	2 (2)	
		Others acknowledge achievement	<i>'Important to have merits because it is nice to know that other people are getting on their way with German.'</i>	155 (2)	
			<i>'People feel happy about the merits and are proud. [...].'</i>	156 (2)	
		Not important	Self-sufficiency	<i>'Not very important because they don't mean anything to me.'</i>	146 (2)
				<i>'Not affected at all by this.'</i>	339 (2)
			Others are not interested	<i>'Not very important as everyone gets merits and they don't care about detentions.'</i>	170 (2)
				<i>'It isn't important at all to me because I feel that it is none of my business.'</i>	171 (2)
	Other	Positive	Improvements to teaching and learning	<i>'To ask more questions about the actual school work [...].'</i>	156 (1)
<i>'I would as what they thought and felt about learning another language and if they could help to give ideas about learning in class.'</i>				171 (2)	
Self-efficacy			<i>'How well do you think you are doing & why?'</i>	146 (2)	
			<i>'How do you think you are at German?'</i>	174 (2)	
			<i>'Do you believe you are capable of learning your languages.'</i>	339 (2)	

	Negative	Lack of choice (language)	<i>'[...] how we feel about learning a different language not of our choice.'</i>	152 (1)
			<i>'What is your favourite language to learn?'</i>	157 (2)
			<i>'Whether they would like to learn different languages, e.g. Japanese.'</i>	158 (2)
			<i>'What other languages would you like to do?'</i>	160 (2)
			<i>'If you wanted to learn a more enjoyable language?'</i>	163 (2)
		Lack of choice (drop-out)	<i>'Whether if they could, would they quit language.'</i>	145 (2)
			<i>'Will you quit German in Year 9.'</i>	147 (2)
			<i>'Why do you think you have to do German or learn other languages.'</i>	152 (2)
			<i>'Things like [...] would you choose it as an option.'</i>	166 (2)
		Room & seating plan	<i>'I would ask if they enjoyed it and why they think we should do it.'</i>	170 (2)
			<i>'Do you like the room, do you like where you sit.'</i>	2 (2)

Table 3.3.: Themes in open-ended questions – group 3 – more negative

Category	Evaluation	Theme	Participant's response	# (1/2)	
Importance of lesson content	Positive	Language has potential use for contact with native speakers	<i>'In case you go abroad I suppose...?'</i>	36 (2)	
			<i>'Yes go abroad.'</i>	37 (2)	
			<i>'Learning German words because I go German because I go to Germany and he go shopping and they are German. I could talk to them and I get myself organised.'</i>	40 (1)	
			<i>'Like if you go abroad to Germany you can speak to people.'</i>	42 (1)	
			<i>'I think I have learn a lot about German so if I go abroad I will just about see how much the things cost.'</i>	49 (2)	
			<i>'Yes it helps me when I go on holidays to speak in that country [...]'</i>	55 (1)	
			<i>'Yes if we go to Germany for a trip it will help you understand and talk to people in German.'</i>	55 (2)	
			<i>'So I go on holiday to go to Germany like others do.'</i>	57 (1)	
			Language has potential use in the home environment	<i>'In my street there is a lads what speaks German and English but she struggles saying English.'</i>	41 (1)
				<i>'[...] And also it helps me speak to my uncle.'</i>	55 (1)
		Language has potential use for enjoyment	<i>'Yes because I like German and the teacher speaks German.'</i>	53 (1)	
			<i>'I think I have learnt the basic languages of German and there saying and meanings.'</i>	57 (2)	
			<i>'German is cool because I live learning different languages.'</i>	51 (1)	
		Language lessons teach L2L skills	<i>'To organise my classroom equipment and put them in my bag, e.g. Kuli (pen).'</i>	37 (1)	
	<i>'In German you have to bring planner to school every day and must not forget it.'</i>		50 (1)		
	Negative	Language has no use outside school	<i>'Nothing at all I need to use in my everyday life.'</i>	36 (1)	
			<i>'It is not important for my life because it is only German and that isn't going to help you in your life.'</i>	38 (2)	
			<i>'Languages is not important especilly German as no one is going over there.'</i>	39 (2)	
			<i>'No I en't goining to Germany so I don't use it.'</i>	45 (2)	
			<i>'No because I'm never going to Germany. So why do I need to teach the language.'</i>	47 (2)	
<i>'No I don't learn anything for everyday life.'</i>			48 (1)		
Friends	Positive	Friends help with the work	<i>'So you can work with them.'</i>	34 (2)	
			<i>'So you can speak to them and if you are confused you can ask your friends.'</i>	40 (1)	
			<i>'Very important because you can ask them for help [...]'</i>	47 (2)	

			<i>'I think its important that you have lots of friends so you can help them and they can help you.'</i>	49 (2)
			<i>'Very important because if you don't understand and the teacher is shouting at a puple.'</i>	54 (2)
			<i>Important in case we get stuck and they understand other they can help you.'</i>	55 (2)
			<i>'So we can give more opinions with each other.'</i>	57 (2)
			<i>'It important to have friends in class so they could help me and if I get stuck they can help me tell the teacher.'</i>	58 (1)
			<i>'So if you don't know a question you can ask a friend [...]'</i>	58 (2)
		Friends create supportive classroom atmosphere	<i>'Yes, it is important because then you can't talk to anyone you don't know.'</i>	35 (1)
			<i>'Because you no you get along with them and can work well.'</i>	36 (2)
			<i>'So I am not on my own.'</i>	37 (1)
			<i>So I don't feel lonely.'</i>	37 (2)
			<i>'Very important because they can give me company. And when the lesson is finished I can walk with them!!!'</i>	38 (1)
			<i>'So you can work with them and co-operate.'</i>	38 (2)
			<i>'To make the lessons more enjouebble.'</i>	41 (1)
			<i>'Because if you have friends in the class then you can learn better.'</i>	41 (2)
			<i>'It is because there would be no people to talk to.'</i>	50 (1)
			<i>'Good because I like to talk to them.'</i>	53 (1)
			<i>'Because you know it's not just you that is learning a new language.'</i>	55 (1)
			<i>'Because they can help me and we can enjoy German more.'</i>	57 (1)
		Friends make lessons fun (socialising)	<i>'Very because it's a boring lesson and they make it fun.'</i>	39 (1)
			<i>'Very important, cuz if the lesson is rubbish then ther there.'</i>	39 (2)
			<i>'Very because I need someone to talk to.'</i>	44 (1)
			<i>'Otherwise I can talk to no one.'</i>	44 (2)
			<i>'Very important because you can [...] gossip.'</i>	47 (2)
			<i>'Because if I get bored and the teacher don't do anything we talk to our friends.'</i>	56 (2)
			<i>'[...] And if your bored you can talk to them.'</i>	58 (2)
	Negative	Friends may distract from work	<i>'Its not important because if you have friends you cant concentrate.'</i>	47 (1)
Rewards and sanctions	Positive	Merits create positive feelings	<i>'Merits = ok [...]'</i>	47 (2)
			<i>'Merits = good [...]'</i>	37 (2)
			<i>'Good and proud.'</i>	41 (2)
			<i>'[...] I got a merit and it makes me happy.'</i>	55 (2)
		Merits indicate achievement	<i>'When I got a merit it made me happy and I told my mom and she would praise me for good work. I have not got a detention.'</i>	51 (2)
			<i>'[...] Good if I got at merit cause I feel I am learning [...]'</i>	57 (2)
	Detentions serve a purpose	<i>'[...] when you get a detention you do the crime you must do the time.'</i>	49 (2)	
	Negative	Detentions create negative feelings	<i>'[...] Detentions = bad.'</i>	37 (2)
			<i>'[...] Detentions = sad.'</i>	47 (2)
			<i>'Bad if you got det. because if I didn't get anything I should ask [...]'</i>	57 (2)
			<i>'[...] if I get a detention I wouldn't go to it and I would tell.'</i>	38 (2)
Detention was given unfairly		<i>'[The teacher] gives you detentions cuz of nothing [...]'</i>	39 (2)	
		<i>'Confused for the detention cuz [the teacher] doesn't give us any work so its boring and [the teacher] randomly</i>	58 (2)	

			<i>gives out detentions [...]</i>	
		Rewards and sanctions have no meaning	<i>'Normal.'</i>	34 (2)
			<i>'If I got a merit I don't care [...]</i>	38 (2)
			<i>'I got a couple of merits in German and I felt the same because they are only merits.'</i>	49 (2)
		There are no rewards or sanctions	<i>'You don't get merits in this class.'</i>	36 (2)
			<i>'[...] you don't get merits in German.'</i>	39 (2)
			<i>'I have [can't read] no merits or detentions cause the teachers are gay [can't read].'</i>	44 (2)
			<i>'Never had a merit or detention in German.'</i>	54 (2)
			<i>'[...] (we don't get merits).'</i>	57 (2)
			<i>'[...] [The teacher] never gives us merits [...]</i>	58 (2)
Opinion of other pupils about receiving rewards or sanctions	Important	Peer pressure	<i>'Important for merits but detentions are not good.'</i>	55 (2)
			<i>'Bad and they might not get any friends.'</i>	57 (2)
			<i>'Its a bit important but when you get a detention you do the crime you must do the time.'</i>	49 (2)
	Not important	Others acknowledge achievement	<i>'Good makes you be good so you get one I don't know how feel.'</i>	37 (2)
			<i>'Proud and happy.'</i>	41 (2)
			<i>'I'm not to fused.'</i>	52 (2)
		Others are not interested	<i>'When you get a merit nothing happens [...]</i>	36 (2)
Other	Positive	Improvements to teaching and learning	<i>'Change the teacher. More fun activities because we copy.'</i>	39 (1)
			<i>'German is so boring can hope you take it with you it's crap.'</i>	44 (1)
			<i>'German is boring.'</i>	46 (2)
			<i>'Do you enjoy the lesson, what do you do in the lesson.'</i>	49 (2)
			<i>'[...] [The teacher] [...] never marks our work.'</i>	58 (2)
			<i>'What would you like to change in your lesson.'</i>	58 (2)
	Negative	Role of the teacher	<i>'Do you like this topic.'</i>	47 (2)
			<i>If they enjoy this topic or if its horroble [...]</i>	51 (2)
		Lack of choice (language)	<i>'Ask us if the teacher is the main problem.'</i>	36 (1)
			<i>'[...] if there teacher is cool or not.'</i>	51 (2)
		Not having a voice	<i>'Do you prefere Spanish, French or German.'</i>	57 (2)
			<i>'Yes, but I don't think German is a relevant enough language to learn.'</i>	146 (1)
			<i>'[...] Does the teacher listen to you and others?'</i>	55 (2)

Tables 3.4 to 3.26. are examples of data tables used to establish pupil profiles. Data tables for all three groups can be provided if necessary.

Table 3.4.: Participant no. 230 (F), Amy, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	She has some previous knowledge of French and Spanish through primary school and family.
Q6, Q7, Q8	She is not sure about her opinion of languages (3) but thinks that the others in the class like the lessons (2). She likes school (2).
Q9	She thinks that having friends is the most important positive factor, that the activities are very important and that the teacher is important.
Q10	She thinks that lack of enjoyment of languages is the most important negative factor, that lack of relevance for visits is very important and that lack of relevance for career is an important negative factor.
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'I think you can use them in everyday but we don't usually need.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'Because if we need to do partener work I can pair with them.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'More colour and better presentation and pink paper.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.5.: Participant no. 230 (F), Amy, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	She enjoys languages more than before but is not sure about her opinion of the lessons (3). She is not sure whether the others in the class enjoy it more or less than before and also of their opinion of the lessons (3). She enjoys school less than before and strongly likes it (1).
Q7	She thinks that having friends is the most important positive factor, that the activities are very important and that the teacher is important.
Q8	She thinks that lack of enjoyment of languages is the most important negative factor and that lack of relevance for career is very important, but does not comment on any important factors.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'I don't think I learn anything that is important for everyday life.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'It is important because when we work in groups I have someone to work and talk to.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>'It makes me [feel?] like I am getting better (merits).'</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>'They feel the same.'</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>[blank]</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.6.: Participant no. 232 (F), Chloe, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	She has some previous knowledge of Spanish through books.
Q6, Q7, Q8	She likes languages (2) but is not sure about the opinion of the others in the class (3). She strongly dislikes school (5).
Q9	She thinks that having friends is the most important positive factor, that the teacher is very important and that enjoyment of languages is important.
Q10	She thinks that the materials are the most important negative factor, that the activities are very important and that lack of relevance for career is an important negative factor.
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'Yes in case a German person wants to be your friend you can speak to them.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'It's good to have some friends because you can ask them for help or if you do partner work then you can be confident around the people you no.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'A pretty boarder around it.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.7.: Participant no. 232 (F), Chloe, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	She enjoys languages less than before but is not sure about her opinion of the lessons (3). She thinks the others in the class enjoy it the same as before but that they dislike the lessons now (4). She enjoys school the same as before and strongly likes it (1).
Q7	She thinks that having friends is the most important positive factor, that relevance for career is very important and that behaviour is important.
Q8	She thinks that the activities are the most important negative factor, that lack of feeling to make progress is very important and that the materials are important.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'We learn this language so we can talk to German people if they don't speak very good English or none at all.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'So you can enjoy the lesson with your friends and you can express yourself more and not be shy.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>[blank]</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>[blank]</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>'The same questions really.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis so far; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.8.: Participant no. 217 (F), Hannah, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	She has some previous knowledge of Spanish and Italian through holiday, primary school and friends.
Q6, Q7, Q8	She strongly likes languages (1) but is unsure about the opinion of the others in the class (3). She dislikes school (4).
Q9	She thinks that enjoyment is the most important positive factor, that the teacher is very important and that having friends is important.
Q10	She thinks that [‘OTHER’:] not being able to sit with her friends is the most important negative factor, that the activities are very important and that the materials are important.
Q11 (‘importance’)	<i>‘No - I don’t no.’</i>
Q12 (‘friends’)	<i>‘Because if they are not your friends you are most likely to not speak to them in conversations in German.’</i>
Q13 (‘improvements’)	<i>‘We could of done it all ourselves. You didn’t have to explain it all!’</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant’s own words)

Table 3.9.: Participant no. 217 (F), Hannah, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	She enjoys languages the same as before and strongly likes the lessons (1). She is not sure whether the others in the class enjoy it more or less than before and is not sure about their opinion of the lessons (3). She likes school more than before, but is not sure about her opinion (3).
Q7	She thinks that the activities are the most important positive factor, that the teacher is very important and that behaviour is important.
Q8	She thinks that poor behaviour is the most important negative factor, that lack of enjoyment is very important and that the activities are important.
Q9 (‘importance’)	<i>‘I don’t know.’</i>
Q10 (‘friends’)	<i>‘I think it is important so you can talk to them about the subject and in German.’</i>
Q11 (‘merits & detentions’)	<i>‘Merits - I always get them - makes me feel pleased with myself. Detentions - never had one.’</i>
Q12 (‘opinion of others’)	<i>‘I don’t mind.’</i>
Q13 (‘your questions’)	<i>‘How much do you think you have learnt on a scale of 1-10.’</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant’s own words)

Table 3.10.: Participant no. 227 (F), Emily, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	She has some previous knowledge of German through family (her sister).
Q6, Q7, Q8	She strongly likes languages (1) but is unsure about the opinion of the others in the class (3). She strongly likes school (1).
Q9	She thinks that the teacher is the most important positive factor, that enjoyment of languages is very important and that the activities are important.
Q10	She thinks that poor behaviour is the most important negative factor, that lack of relevance for visits is very important and that the materials are an important negative factor.
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'I like it that I know more than 1 language and that when I finish year 7 I could try and beat my sisters at it.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'They help me when I'm stuck and when I don't know anyone I wouldn't like to be left out.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'No. I think it was a good questionnaire.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.11.: Participant no. 227 (F), Emily, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	She enjoys languages more than before and strongly likes the lessons (1). She is not sure whether the others in the class enjoy it more or less than before but thinks that they strongly like the lessons (1). She enjoys school the same as before but is not sure about her opinion (3).
Q7	She thinks that the feeling of making progress is the most important positive factor, that the activities are very important and that the teacher is important.
Q8	She thinks that poor behaviour is the most important negative factor, that the low level of satisfaction in languages compared with the other subjects is very important and that the teacher is an important negative factor.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'If you go away somewhere and there is people there who are French or German you could have a conversation with them.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'Because if you have to work in groups you can work with someone you like.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>'Well if I get merits then I'm happy because it means I have done good work or good behaviour. But if I get detentions it means the teacher isn't pleased with you.'</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>[blank]</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>[blank]</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.12.: Participant no. 229 (F), Jessica, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	She has some previous knowledge of Spanish through holiday and books.
Q6, Q7, Q8	She likes languages (2) and thinks that the others in the class also like it (2). She strongly likes school (1).
Q9	She thinks that the teacher is the most important positive factor, that the feeling of making progress is very important and that enjoyment of languages is important.
Q10	She does not comment on any most important negative factors, but thinks that the materials are very important and that [OTHER':] not being able to see the whiteboard is an important negative factor.'
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'No because I wouldn't normally speak German in my everyday life, but I do practise at home speaking German.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'So you can discuss things if you are unsure.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'I think it was fine.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.13.: Participant no. 229 (F), Jessica, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	She enjoys languages more than before and likes the lessons (2). She thinks the others in the class enjoy it the same as before and thinks that they also like the lessons (2). She enjoys school the same as before and strongly likes it (1).
Q7	She thinks that the feeling of making progress is the most important positive factor, that enjoyment of languages is very important and that relevance for visits is important.
Q8	She does not comment on any most important or very important negative factors but thinks that the materials are important negative factors.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'I can show my parents how I am making progress.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'This important to me because we can discuss things about the lesson.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>'I've had 4-5 merits and made me feel good.'</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>'They take it well and congratulate me about merits. I have never had a detention.'</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>'Do you think the teacher has some part of your progression.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.14.: Participant no. 237 (F), Melissa, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	She has some previous knowledge of French and German through primary school.
Q6, Q7, Q8	She strongly likes languages (1) but is not sure about the opinion of the others in the class (3). She likes school (2).
Q9	She thinks that enjoyment of languages is the most important positive factor, that the relevance for career is very important and that the level of satisfaction in languages compared with the other subjects is important.
Q10	She thinks that the materials are the most important negative factor, that the teacher is very important and that poor behaviour is important.
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'Yes I learn things for everyday life because I can teach other people German and teach it to my children when I am older.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'It is very important to have friends in the class because if they get stuck or I get stuck we can help each other.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>[blank]</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.15.: Participant no. 237 (F), Melissa, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	She enjoys languages the same as before and likes the lessons (2). She is not sure whether the others in the class also enjoy it more or less than before but thinks that they like the lessons (2). She enjoys school more than before and strongly likes it (1).
Q7	She thinks that having friends is the most important positive factor, that the feeling of making progress is very important and that the activities are important.
Q8	She thinks that the low level of satisfaction in languages compared with the other subjects is the most important negative factor, that poor behaviour is very important and that lack of enjoyment of languages is important.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'Yes I think that [what?] I'm learning now will be good for the future because if I ever go to Germany I will understand people and I will know what to say.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'It is important because if you didn't have friends in your class you won't get on with a lot of people and you won't be able to get on with people when you are practising German with people in your class.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>'I haven't had any detentions but when I get merits it makes me feel happy because I have achieved something.'</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>'It is important to me because I have achieved so I know that I am doing the right thing. I think other people think that I do the right thing and they are happy.'</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>'If you had to go to Germany what would you say to people?'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.16.: Participant no. 236 (M), Adam, German (remained in same group) - phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	He has some previous knowledge of Swiss and German through his family.
Q6, Q7, Q8	He is not sure about his opinion of languages (3) but thinks the others in the class strongly like it (1). He likes school (2).
Q9	He thinks that the level of satisfaction in languages compared with the other subjects is the most important positive factor, that the feeling of making progress is very important and that behaviour is important.
Q10	He thinks that the activities are the most important negative factor, but does not comment on any other very important or important negative factors.
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'Yes I do.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'Very because you will have someone to talk to.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'No.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.17.: Participant no. 236 (M), Adam, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	He enjoys languages more than before and likes the lessons now (2). He is not sure whether the others in the class also enjoy it more or less than before and is not sure about their opinion (3). He enjoys school more than before and likes it (2).
Q7	He thinks that having friends is the most important positive factor, that the teacher is very important and that the activities are important.
Q8	He thinks that the activities are the most important negative factor, that the lack of feeling to make progress is very important and that the low level of satisfaction in languages compared with the other subjects is important.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'Don't understand.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'I think it is very important as you've got people to talk to or ask for help.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>'I feel happy when I get merits and disappointed when get detentions.'</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>'Not very important.'</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>'Do you learn anything. If not why.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.18.: Participant no. 234 (F), Megan, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	She has some previous knowledge of foreign languages through her family, but does not remember which ones.
Q6, Q7, Q8	She likes languages (3) but is not sure of the opinion of the others in the class (3). She is not sure about her opinion of school (3).
Q9	She thinks that the activities are the most important positive factor, that the feeling of making progress is very important and that having friends is important.
Q10	She does not comment on any negative factors.
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'You learn all different phrases in the lessons so if you went to Germany you would be able to speak to some people.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'Quite important because sometimes you can talk to your friends about the lesson and how it went.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'No.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[Added under Q10:] 'Nothing negative.'</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.19.: Participant no. 234 (F), Megan, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	She enjoys languages the same as before and likes the lessons (2). She thinks the others in the class also enjoy it the same as before but is not sure about their opinion (3). She enjoys school the same as before but is not sure about his opinion (3).
Q7	She thinks that the fact that the activities and the feeling of making progress are the most important positive factors, that the teacher is very important and that behaviour and having friends are important.
Q8	She does not comment on any negative factors.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'I think that learning languages is important because when you are older if you go to one of the countries and you know the language you can talk to them.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'It is important because it makes it more enjoyable.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>[blank]</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>'Not very important.'</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>'If they enjoy their languages lesson.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.20.: Participant no. 228 (M), Daniel, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	He does not have any previous knowledge of a foreign language.
Q6, Q7, Q8	He strongly likes languages (1) and thinks that the others in the class like it (2). He strongly likes school (1).
Q9	He thinks that the teacher is the most important positive factor, that relevance for visits is very important and that the activities are important.
Q10	He thinks that poor behaviour is the most important negative factor, that the materials are very important and that lack of feeling to make progress is an important negative factor.
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'Simple phrases.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'Because you can help each other.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'More questions.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.21. Participant no. 228 (M), Daniel, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	He enjoys languages more than before and strongly likes the lessons (1). He is not sure whether the others in the class enjoy it more or less than before but thinks that they strongly dislike the lessons (5). He likes school the same as before and strongly likes it (1).
Q7	He thinks that the teacher is the most important positive factor, that the activities are very important and that behaviour is important.
Q8	He thinks that poor behaviour is the most important negative factor, that not having friends is very important and that the materials are an important factor.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>[blank]</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'It's not that important to have friends in languages class because if you don't have friends you can get on with your work.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>[blank]</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>[blank]</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>'Do you enjoy your languages.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.22.: Participant no. 215 (F), Shannon, German (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	She has some previous knowledge of French and Spanish through family and internet.
Q6, Q7, Q8	She likes languages (2) and thinks that the others in the class also like it (2). She strongly likes school (1).
Q9	She thinks that the teacher, the relevance for career, the relevance for visits, the materials, the activities, the feeling of making progress, enjoyment of languages, having friends and the level of satisfaction in languages compared with the other subjects are all most important positive factors, but does not comment on any very important or important factors. [This is my interpretation, as the factors were marked but not put in rank-order in the original questionnaire]
Q10	She thinks that poor behaviour is the most important negative factor, but does not comment on any very important or important negative factors. [My interpretation, see above]
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'Yes, because it could be a career.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'Because you feel more confident you have friendly advice n stuff.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'I don't know.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.24.: Participant no. 215 (F), Shannon, German (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	She enjoys languages less than before and dislikes the lessons (4). She thinks the others in the class also enjoy it less than before and thinks they also dislike the lessons (4). She is not sure whether she likes school more or less than before, but dislikes it (4).
Q7	She thinks that enjoyment is the most important positive factor and that the activities, behaviour and having friends are very important, but does not comment on any important positive factors.
Q8	She thinks that the teacher is a very important negative factor, but does not comment on any most important or important positive factors.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'Nope.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'Because it's quite boring now than it was before and it's good to have my friends in the class so it won't be a really dull lesson.'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>'I've been given detentions for late homework, I think this is really unfair. Most teachers give you a strike out of 3, or say to hand it in the next day or you'll get a detention, but my teacher doesn't do this, that's why I think it's unfair.'</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>'It's not.'</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>'Do you like the teacher, what could be improved and so on.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis so far; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.25.: Participant no. 233 (M) – not profiled (remained in same group) – phase one

Q3, Q4, Q5	He has some previous knowledge of Gujarati, Japanese, Italian, French, Hindi and Urdu through holiday, primary school, family, friends, television, the internet and software.
Q6, Q7, Q8	He strongly likes languages (0.7) and thinks the others in the class like it (2.5). He strongly likes school (0.8).
Q9	He thinks that the teacher, the materials, the feeling of making progress, the fact that he enjoys languages, having friends and the level of satisfaction in languages compared with the other subjects are the most important positive factors, that the relevance for career and behaviour are very important and that the relevance for visits and the activities are important.
Q10	He does not comment on any negative factors.
Q11 ('importance')	<i>'Nothing.'</i>
Q12 ('friends')	<i>'We have fun. You don't be very serious.'</i>
Q13 ('improvements')	<i>'Shorter. Quick to explain.'</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q3-Q10: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q11-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

Table 3.26.: Participant no. 233 (M) – not profiled (remained in same group) – phase two

Q1 - Q6	He enjoys languages less than before and dislikes the lessons now (5.9). He thinks the others in the class also enjoy it less than before but is not sure about their opinion (4.9). He enjoys school less than before but is not sure about his opinion (4.7).
Q7	He thinks that the fact that he enjoys languages is the most important positive factor, that the feeling of making progress is very important and that the activities are important.
Q8	He thinks that the lack of relevance for visits is the most important negative factor, that the lack of relevance for career is very important and that the teacher is important.
Q9 ('importance')	<i>'No as I would never go to Germany anyways.'</i>
Q10 ('friends')	<i>'N/A'</i>
Q11 ('merits & detentions')	<i>'A merit made me feel happy for doing good work but the 1 detention made me feel very sad as the person who started it wasn't punished.' [The teacher's class management measures!].</i>
Q12 ('opinion of others')	<i>'Not very important.'</i>
Q13 ('your questions')	<i>[blank]</i>
Additional information:	<i>[none]</i>

(Q1-Q8: Profile description, based on statistical analysis; Q9-Q13: Open-ended questions: responses in the participant's own words)

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