Corso di Dottorato di ricerca

in Scienze del Linguaggio

ciclo XXXI

Tesi di Ricerca

in cotutela con l'Université de Paris VIII Vincennes-Saint-Denis

English Courses Across Disciplines: Questions of Motivation

SSD: L-LIN/02

Coordinatore del Dottorato
Enric Bou Maqueda, Professore Ordinario

Supervisore
Carmel Mary Coonan, Professoressa Ordinaria

Supervisore cotutela
Gwen Le Cor, Professeure des universités

Dottorando
Daniel Patrick Schug
Matricola (Ca' Foscari) : 956261
Numéro étudiant (Paris VIII): 15612484

Special Thanks

It goes without saying that I owe so much of this thesis to my two advisors, Professor Le Cor and Professor Coonan. Throughout the entire duration of this program, you both have been incredible sources of support and inspiration. As two professors who were always available to answer last minute questions and offer guidance, the dedication you both show to your work and your students has been an inspiration to me. Thank you.

I would also like to thank all of the language instructors in Paris and Venice who so generously opened their classrooms to me for the purposes of my data collection. Though, for privacy reasons, I cannot name you individually, this project would not have been possible without you. Our discussions about language teaching and research over the course of this project will stay with me always.

Of course, I would also like to thank all of the student participants. Thank you for taking my project so seriously and providing me with information that was incredibly useful to me as a researcher and fascinating to me as a teacher. I wish you all the best in all of your future endeavors.

To all the colleagues and friends from all over the world that stood by me, complained with me, encouraged me and offered advice in difficult moments, thank you.

Finally, I would also like to thank my parents, my siblings and all of my family for their unwavering support. Even at times where I was not particularly forthcoming with what I was working on, the fact that you believed in me without question helped me to continue moving forward.

Table of Contents

Note to Readers:

The following thesis uses a large number of abbreviations for commonly used terms and expressions. The following list can be used a reference:

Les sigles dans les résumé en langue française

1) AG: Anglais général
2) ASP: Anglais de spécialité
3) ASP Arts: Anglais pour les disciplines artistiques, anglais pour arts
4) L2MSS: L2 Motivational Self-System
5) TSDC: Théorie des systèmes dynamiques complexes
6) L2: Une langue étrangère ou seconde (dans le contexte de cette étude, c'est l'anglais)
7) ISL2: soi-idéal L2
8) OSL2: soi-obligé L2
9) CAL2: contexte d'apprentissage de la L2
10) MSE: Modèle socioéducatif
11) SDT: Self-Determination Theory (Théorie de l'autodétermination)
12) DMC: Directed motivational currents

English Text Abbreviations

1) ESP: English for Specific Purposes
2) ESP Arts: English for Artistic Purposes
3) GE: General English
4) L2: Any second or foreign language (usually English in this study)
5) SM: Socieductional Model
6) SDT: Self-Determination Theory
7) IM: Intrinsic Motivation
8) EVT: Expectancy-Value Theory
9) SRLT: Self-Regulated Learning Theory
10) CVT: Control Value Theory of Achievement Emotions
11) FLM: Framework of Learning Motivation
12) CDST: Complex Dynamic Systems Theory

13) L2MSS: L2 Motivational Self System
14) L2IS: L2 Ideal Self
15) L2OS: L2 Ought to Self
16) L2LE: L2 Learning Environment
17) L2IE: L2 Intended/Exerted Effort

Also, given the large amount of raw data collected in the present study, through interviews, observation sessions and questionnaires, it was deemed inappropriate to include everything in this thesis. The raw data can be found at the following links:
For questionnaire data-
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/14iUjsB4NpEdbNF6YqeAjspTnK3ccB2s8mnsB-ek9Mr4/edit?usp=sharing

For interview data-
https://docs.google.com/document/d/1nIEh3Tp7AwWnViot9d5lkz6MVjivImkiN2AF_MYy2Yc/edit?usp=sharing

For observation data-
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/196WMBXOaXROQ26TUGKvdWruQSkiXOS7N5DLQPnm8o0A/edit?usp=sharing

I) Introduction

This study offers a comparative analysis of student motivation in courses of General English (GE) and courses of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) aimed at Arts students, at the Université de Paris 8 in Saint Denis, France and the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia in Venice, Italy. Its principal objective is to gain a deeper understanding of how motivation and learner engagement differ between students of these two course setups, GE and ESP; the focus is on students' self-concepts, their long-term beliefs regarding English and their preferences regarding classroom learning activities. Grounded in research on learner motivation and ESP didactics, data is collected and analyzed through the lenses of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST).

To collect data, a convenience sampling strategy was used to identify student participants at the two universities. These students participated in questionnaires, interviews and observation sessions that focused on understanding which elements of their English learning experiences they found motivating. Ultimately, it was found that in many cases, GE students proved to have higher levels of motivation than ESP students, though it was found that the course setup was not the only factor at play here; numerous conditions present in the students' past and present lives, both inside and outside of the classroom, influenced what activities they enjoyed and how they felt about language learning.

While there is no shortage of publications in the fields of ESP and foreign language learning motivation, the present study attempts to respond to a number of gaps in existing research and add to a larger discussion about effective teaching practices at the university level. The following sections outline in greater detail how this project constitutes an advancement of existing research.

I.1) Language Learning Motivation

The concept L2 learning motivation has evolved significantly in recent decades, generating a need for further research that considers more current theoretical frameworks. To respond to this need, this study relies principally on the L2MSS and the CDST, two frameworks that illustrate the shift in research, while still taking into account ideas presented by early work on L2 motivation.

Ushioda (1996) explains that motivation is often thought of as a combination of one's behaviors and efforts. While this may seem like a relatively straightforward definition, this construct has been considered in numerous, sometimes conflicting, ways. For years, Gardner's Socieducational Model dominated research in this domain. This theory's principal contribution to motivation research is the distinction of two major orientations with the potential to influence learning behaviors: integrative and instrumental; the former stemming from an internal desire to identify with the target culture of the foreign language and the latter coming from a desire to learn a language for more utilitarian reasons (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Under this theory, questionnaires, in the form of Gardner's (2004) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery, sought to understand students' motivation in relation to how they identified with one of these two orientations. Gardner (2007) explains that these orientations can be mediated by learning motivation, along with a number of other factors inside and outside the classroom, to determine learning effort and success.

Moving forward, another development in motivation research was offered by the Self-Determination Theory, which indicated that motivation existed on a continuum, somewhere between the major points of amotivation, which is the absence of motivation, extrinsic motivation, which is a type of motivation that comes from outside pressures, and intrinsic motivation, a type of motivation that occurs when one learns a language due to a personal interest (Ryan & Deci, 2000). One's placement on the continuum is thought to be a good indicator of how strong and how sustainable their learning engagement is, with intrinsic motivation being ideal.

Next, motivation research considered the learning environment as well as the learning task. The Control-Value Theory (Pekrun & Perry, 2014) and the Self-Regulated Learning Theory (Ainley & Patrick, 2006) both explain how students constantly analyze learning activities as well as the classroom when deciding how much effort to exert on a given task.

While elements of all of the above-mentioned theories have played an important role in determining the direction of the present study, two relatively recent theories, the L2MSS and the CDST, have been chosen as the principal lenses through which to interpret data. These two frameworks take elements of past theories while giving greater importance to the dynamic nature of learner motivation and its tendency to be impacted unpredictably by any number of factors.

The L2MSS, for example, supposes that three types of motivational orientations exist: 1) The L2 Ideal Self, in which one learns a language because it helps them achieve personally-valued goals, 2) the L2 Ought-to Self, in which one learns a language because it helps them avoid negative consequences coming from not learning and 3) the L2 Learning Environment, in which one's motivation comes from the classroom, institution or society where the learning takes place (Dörnyei, 2009). This theory presents a rather novel approach to understanding L2 motivation, largely due to its use of the self-concept. Gardner's integrativeness, for example, does not readily apply to contexts with little L2 contact or to the case of English, which is not associated with a specific culture (Dörnyei, 2009). The L2MSS offers a more comprehensive approach in that it focuses directly on the learner's entire identity rather than solely on their opinion of a language. Also important is the inclusion of the learning environment, which, when considered alongside the other orientations, can provide a strong indication for what inspires learner engagement.

Given the potential of the L2MSS, it is surprising that it has rarely been seen in the ESP context (Paltridge, 2016). The present study therefore constitutes a crucial step forward in the field of specialized language teaching. Past research, notably Al-Tamimi & Shuib (2009), has found that students in ESP courses are generally pushed by instrumental reasons and the desire to master English for their future or current jobs. The L2MSS has the potential to better understand the motivational power of these professional reasons and determine how they are incorporated into students' identities in the future. Guided by this framework, this study allows students the possibility to indicate that even pressures that come from external sources can be integrated into one's self-concept resulting in a strong, durable engagement.

This study is also important in the development of the L2MSS in that, aside from not being widely applied to the ESP context, it has also has not often been used to analyze university students in Western Europe. As this project focuses on universities in France and Italy, it presents an important occasion to understand its validity in a new context. This step appears necessary, particularly in light of Brady's (2014) conclusions that parts of the L2MSS did not have the same explanatory power with Spanish university students.

Regarding the CDST, this theory assumes that motivation is subject to frequent, unpredictable changes due to a variety of factors. Any small change in a given system, in this case a language classroom, can in fact result in a very large change in learner engagement

(Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Factors including the learning environment, students' past, current and future lives and their experiences learning English are just a sampling of the conditions that must be considered when analyzing motivation through the CDST. As such, research conducted under this theory insists on a very comprehensive approach.

Together, the L2MSS and the CDST offer a highly useful framework for understanding the reasons of students' engagement in their language learning. By taking into account both their self-concepts and their present language learning context, the present study can shed light on the origins of student motivation in a way that has not been widely seen in the ESP context in Western European universities.

I.2) English for Specific Purposes

The field of ESP has been the subject of significant research interest in France and Italy in recent decades (Maglie, 2004; Mémet, 2013). Much work done in this domain has been learner-focused (Williams, 2014); publications offer best practices for specialized language courses in different domains, recommendations for activities to do with students and descriptions of language structures and terminology typical of a given domain.

One area that has received relatively little attention is English for Artistic Purposes (ESP Arts), as more popular and lucrative fields like science and business have been favored (Daloiso, 2007a). While some limited work has been done in this subfield, such as that provided by Mémet (2003) and Kloppman-Lambert (2018), much more remains to be done, particularly with regard to learner behaviors in these courses. The present study responds to this shortcoming in ESP research by presenting a literature review of existing work done in the subfield of ESP Arts along with an analysis of student motivation in these specialized language courses.

The study conforms to this field's strong learner focus by furthering ESP research on student motivation. Even in the early years of specialized language instruction, Strevens (1978) explains that the motivating power of these courses has always been assumed, despite a lack of research to support it. Lozinguez-Ben Gayed & Rivens Mompean (2009) respond to this somewhat with their report on students' positive evaluations of a learning task in an ESP course for technical students. Additional studies, however, notably Mémet (2003) and Brunton (2009), found that ESP has a minimal impact on student motivation, with the latter study even

finding that students preferred General English activities in certain situations. Given these somewhat contradictory findings, the present study uses the L2MSS and the CDST to offer a comprehensive analysis of what motivates students in both general and specialized language courses.

Lastly, as Strevens (1978) and Brown (2007) point out, little research supports the widely accepted assumption that ESP courses are inherently more motivating. Such a belief seems particularly problematic in the university context of France and Italy, where students may not necessarily have an idea of what they want to do after their studies. While numerous researchers have analyzed learner motivation in ESP courses (Brown, 2007; Malcolm, 2011; Mémet, 2003), none of them are able to attest to specialized language courses motivational superiority over General English courses. Brunton's (2009) study provides one exception with hotel employees in Thailand, but further research is needed at the university level. This study responds to this need by offering a comparative analysis of motivation between ESP and GE courses.

Essentially, the present study noticed two shortcomings in ESP research: a lack of work in the subfield of ESP Arts and an insufficient analysis of the motivational power of specialized language courses. By comparing learner engagement in university language courses of GE and ESP Arts, the present study hopes to offer insight on the highly important construct of student motivation.

Summary

The value of the present study lies in the fact that it responds to several needs in the existing research on L2 motivation and ESP. First, it conforms to the trend in L2 motivation research to no longer consider motivation to be a relatively static phenomenon based largely on one's attitudes towards a language; the theoretical frameworks selected, the L2MSS and CDST, allow for a more comprehensive approach. Participants in the present study will be able to describe their past experiences with English learning, their present uses for it, their supposed future needs for it and their attitudes towards their present learning environment. Moreover, the L2MSS and CDST have been used at different levels of language learning in various countries. The body of research conducted under these theories in Western European universities, however, appears limited. Having France and Italy as the countries for data

collection in this study therefore constitutes a useful opportunity to test the theories' validity in this context.

Regarding the field of ESP, this study offers a much needed look at students enrolled in ESP Arts courses. As this subfield has largely been ignored in favor of more popular disciplines, its inclusion in the present study is significant. Furthermore, as specialized language courses have often been thought to be inherently more motivating, this study offers a comparative analysis of ESP and GE courses to ascertain the validity of this assumption.

The rest of this thesis is organized as follows:

1) Chapter II presents a review of literature from four domains that are pertinent to the present study: ESP, L2 motivation, motivated learning behaviors and motivated teaching practices.
    a) The ESP section serves to outline the major developments in ESP research. Some attention is given to the field of discourse analysis and the description of language structures and terminology of various disciplines, but the main focus is on ESP didactics, given its relevance to this project. Best practices are presented for teaching different language skills and choosing materials for specialized language courses. A section is also dedicated to the domain of ESP Arts to outline recent developments in the field that are necessary for establishing the context of the present study.
    b) The section on L2 learning motivation provides an outline of the history of learner motivation research with a presentation of the major theoretical frameworks. While these theories are not the principal focus of this study, they do provide important context for justifying the use of the L2MSS and CDST. Furthermore, information in this section is also used for explaining observed phenomena in this study that are not readily explained by the two main frameworks.
    c) The section on motivated learning behaviors provides the justification for using student behaviors and engagement as indications of motivation during the classroom observation sessions. It explains how motivated students behave and what types of actions to look for.

d) The section on motivated teaching practices gives information for interpreting classroom observation data; student behaviors can be considered in relation to the type of activity being done in class

2) Chapter III presents the main theoretical frameworks that guided the present study, the L2MSS and the CDST. Research conducted under these theories is presented along with implications for the present study.
3) Chapter IV presents the research questions, the hypotheses and the methodology. The mixed method approach, involving questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations, is presented in detail along with a description of the universities and students who participated in this report.
4) Chapter V presents the results and discussion. Tables and graphs are accompanied by text descriptions to facilitate comprehension. The chapter is divided into three sections, one for each of the three research questions. Each section includes the results which respond to the research question and a discussion of the data.
5) Chapter VI presents the conclusions. This chapter is effectively a summary of the results, but also offers implications for classroom practice and directions for future research. The limitations of the present study are also described.

II) Review of Literature

II.1) Research Trends in the field of ESP

By its very nature, the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is multidisciplinary. Not only does it include research from the various domains for which courses are designed, such as business, engineering, and medicine, but ESP also includes disciplines from the social sciences and humanities, such as education, linguistics, and cultural studies (Mémet, 2013). It is therefore not surprising that publications in this field have covered a broad range of areas, despite being a relatively young domain. As this study uses a comprehensive approach to analyzing motivation in ESP courses, it is critical to account for the various elements pertinent to the evolution of ESP teaching and research; this information is needed for fully understanding student behaviors in the specialized language classroom. This section therefore starts with a brief description of the history of ESP and then proceeds to outline the principal considerations in ESP didactics. Finally, the section concludes with a more specific focus on research and teaching in the subfield of English for Arts Purposes (ESP Arts), given its relevance to the present study.

II.1.a) History of ESP Research. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) explain that the field of ESP research took off at the conclusion of World War 2; this period saw an increase in international trade, along with an urgent need for people to communicate using a common language in very specific contexts. This increased economic cooperation helped established a more globalized world, resulting in greater international mobility between universities and the creation of organizations such as the United Nations and the European Union (Gollin-Kies, Hall & Moore, 2015; Swales, 1977). As international relations developed, so did an interest in educational psychology and learning motivation, resulting in the formation of the field of ESP, with courses that are often considered to be inherently more motivating than General English (GE) courses, given that they ideally cater directly to the needs and interests of the students (Far, 2008; Morrow, 1977). This new type of language teaching was considered revolutionary for a number of reasons, notably because it was the first time that the goal of a course was not perfect fluency, as students were only expected to have some mastery of certain segments of the language (Strevens, 1978).

Over the years, the focus of ESP didactic research has shifted several times. Initially, ESP course development focused on the structural aspects of language; Brumfit (1978) explains that a good specialized language course is meant to help students identify and understand the rhetorical features that are typical of their discipline. In a similar vein, others stated that specialized language courses should be defined by a strong emphasis on vocabulary as terminology is what distinguishes this field from general language courses (Mourlhon-Dallies, 2008; Trim, 1978). Moving forward, the stress in ESP didactics shifted from the structural aspects of language to functional aspects (Cambiaghi, 1988). In Chinese universities, for example, administrators advocated for the use of ESP as a way to improve the weak communicative skills of students who had studied English for many years (Nunan, 2003). Bell (1981) points out the necessity of this movement, as students largely express wanting to practice using language rather than learning about the structure.

As the field of ESP didactics grew, numerous publications on teaching specialized language began to appear; reflecting the learner-centered approach of this field (Williams, 2014), these reports generally offer best practices for course development, teaching strategies, and analyses of students' experiences in their specialized courses. The scope of these publications was broadened to include a huge variety of disciplines, including science, technology, professional purposes, and academic purposes (Johns, 2013).

Lastly, another major ESP development, according to Johns (2013), was becoming more local. Various countries and regions began to develop their own interest groups and professional organizations to coordinate specialized language description and teaching. As the present study concerns mainly France and Italy, some of the ESP history in these countries is described below.

II.1.a.i) ESP in France. ESP has been the subject of significant research in France; the Groupe d'Etude et de Recherche en Anglais de Spécialité (GERAS) has been active for several decades with their annual publication, *ASp, la revue du GERAS* in existence since 1993 (Mémet, 2013). In many ways, the work done by this group reflects the main research directions elsewhere; publications and conference presentations represent a variety of domains, including translation studies, discourse analysis, studies on terminology, and recommendations for courses of Business English and Medical English, just to name a few (Mémet, 2013). Van

der Yeught (2014) explains that, more recently, this field has received an additional push, as French universities resolved to make their degree programs more professionally oriented, leading language specialists to rethink their teaching approaches to non-language major students (Van der Yeught, 2014).

Indeed, the value of adopting specialized language courses has been recognized in various academic contexts in France. At the high school level, Whyte (2016) explains that French secondary schools sometimes offer courses in various disciplines taught in foreign languages by content specialists with the requisite foreign language competence through a program of Content and Language Integrated Learning; these courses often have a strong focus on content. At the university level, ESP courses are widespread and usually taught by a language specialist; these courses often stress the development of students' knowledge of the language and its structures, without necessarily improving their ability to use English (Whyte, 2016). Several exceptions to this observation have been reported, however, highlighting the presence of teaching innovation in French ESP courses. Labetoulle (2017), for example, describes using blended courses, with online activities focusing on receptive skills and in-person lessons insisting on production. Frame (2006), for example, describes an activity in ESP course for Marketing students, asking them to conduct real marketing research entirely in English; learners were required to conduct focus groups and presentations in English and present a final report written in a professional style.

Still, Van der Yeught (2014) acknowledges that the expansion of language courses for non-language majors has encountered some setbacks in France. First of all, little uniformity seems to exist both between and within universities regarding how to teach languages to non-specialists; sometimes courses group students of numerous degree programs together, making any attempt at specialization futile. Other courses offer students some disciplinary training, without actually focusing on relevant language structures. Additionally, France struggles with a lack of teachers who are qualified to offer non-language major courses (Van der Yeught, 2014). The 2018 publication of the Société des Anglicistes de l'Enseignement Supérieur provides the details of the situation, noting that only 14% of researchers who work with non-specialist students at the universities included in their study conduct research in the field of specialized language, with perhaps some more working on didactics. Furthermore, nearly half

of the university language centers included in their report did not offer further training opportunities to their staff (Brudermann, Mattioli, Roussel & Sarré, 2018).

In the last years, researchers have called for increased attention to ESP teaching and learning in French universities. Though only recently recognized as a separate field, several interest groups have already been formed in France to study English language didactics, with one, Didactique et anglais de spécialité, part of the GERAS, existing just to unite teachers of ESP (Sarré & Whyte, 2016). By coordinating with instructors in various French universities, Sarré & Whyte (2016) were able to pinpoint several universal elements of the ESP teaching experience, including the presence of an analysis of student needs, the use of domain specific materials when teaching, and highly heterogeneous student groups in terms of language proficiency. Based on these elements, and the fact that course specificity is innate to teaching in these contexts, the researchers recommend the establishment of a didactic framework to guide ESP teaching in France moving forward.

II.1.a.ii) ESP in Italy. Maglie (2004) tells us that the study of specialized language is a relatively recent phenomenon in Italy, with research dating back to the 1980s and increasing steadily since. At the center of this domain is the Centro di Ricerca sui Linguaggi Specialistici, in existence since 1999, organizing workshops and seminars focusing on LSP pedagogy and the analysis of linguistic structures (Gollin-Kies et al, 2015; Maglie, 2004). A quick scan of their website reveals that they do not focus strictly on the Italian context, inviting contributions from all over the world and in any language (CERLIS, 2004).

In terms of teaching, Italy has become one of the only countries in Europe to mandate Content and Language Integrated Learning in certain high schools, indicating Italy's openness to instituting innovate language teaching practices (Leone, 2010). At the university level, ESP courses have a strong presence. Ibba (1994) describes Italy's legal mandate that all medical schools offer specialized English courses to their students. Daloiso (2007a) talks of a similar situation in Italian arts institutes, as all establishments offer English courses, with over 50% containing an ESP element. Maglie (2004) points out that the birth of the publication *ESP Across Cultures*, based in Italy, further attests to Italy's increased commitment to expanding ESP research and teaching.

Still, the push for ESP in Italy has met several difficulties. Coonan (2013) explains that Italy has struggled with language teaching, in part, because the courses are not designed with consideration to the needs of the learners they seek to help; analyzing learner needs would be a defining element in defining any sort of ESP program (Far, 2008). Another problem with developing specialized language teaching in Italy relates to teacher training, as content and language teachers struggle to coordinate long-term, resulting in a lack of standardization of teaching practices (Ibba, 1994; Leone, 2010).

The remaining sections of this chapter serve to highlight the major developments of ESP research, particularly as they relate to the present study. As such, it begins with an explanation of the difference between ESP and General English, followed by a small sampling of studies on text analysis. Lastly, a subsection on ESP pedagogy includes a summary of best practices and recommendations for course designs, followed by a selection of studies with data on students' experiences in specialized language courses. The following section describes gaps and in current research and difficulties in ESP teaching. The chapter concludes with a description of ESP for Arts students, given the importance of these courses in the present study.

II.1.b) On the difference between ESP and GE. Johns (2013) that one of the main complexities in ESP is that the field has been difficult to define and describe; this observation seems to hold true both in terms describe specialized discourse and creating appropriately specialized courses. As a result, one of the goals of ESP research has been to identify its major distinctions from General English (GE). As the present study compares courses of ESP and GE, this section offers a brief explanations of the established contrasts between these fields.

Regarding the linguistic structures, Resche (2001, cited in Van der Yeught, 2016) aptly pointed out that no clearly-defined criteria exist to distinguish specialized and general discourse. Indeed, it appears as though varying levels of specialization exist, with some texts even presenting a form of hybridization of general and technical language (Resche, 2009). While this may be true, the defining element of specialized discourse likely lies, not exclusively in the language used, but also in the context and the target audience (Van der Yeught, 2016); as such, one cannot maintain a solid definition of specialized language, as the qualities that distinguish it from other texts are not likely stable (Le Cor, 2004).

This same question has appeared also in the ESP didactics research, as many have claimed that ESP courses are not easily distinguishable from courses of GE (Cambiaghi, 1988). Regarding course content, Kerr (1977) claims that it is not correct to suppose that GE has no purpose just because it is not specific; preparing students to communicate in a variety of everyday contexts in the L2 should perhaps constitute enough of a purpose to fall under the ESP umbrella. As such, it may be problematic to consider ESP and GE as entirely separate fields, as all language courses occur on a continuum between completely general and completely specialized (Ruiz-Garrido & Fortanet-Gomez, 2015). Still, Sarré & Whyte (2016) feel that enough factors differentiate the two course setups that a separate ESP field is warranted.

One of the major differences between these two courses is the type of materials used. Perhaps not surprisingly, Sarré & Whyte (2016) found that, in many of the ESP courses they analyzed, teachers reported using specialized materials, based on their students' academic disciplines. Such materials are necessary, as Trim (1978) and Coxhead (2013) maintain that one of the main goals of ESP is to provide students with the necessary vocabulary they need for their domain; as such, teachers are required to offer materials that help to present useful and appropriate expressions. This practice is encouraged in many ESP contexts, given the value attached to a learner-centered approach with a strong dependence on authentic documents (Ibba, 1988). While these specialized materials are sometimes used also in GE courses, it happens less intentionally and systematically, and more as a matter of chance (Wright, 1992).

Another principal distinction between GE and ESP courses relates to how the courses are organized. A defining element of ESP courses is their emphasis on student needs, as determined by a thorough needs analysis (Far, 2008; Gollin-Kies et al, 2015). This needs analysis, often the first step in ESP course design, allows a teacher to understand what the course should focus on and what types of activities it should include; it might consider the student's future objectives, his or her current problems, or the context in which the language will be used (Flowerdew, 2013).

Lastly, the goals of the two course setups are often in stark contrast. While GE courses are intentionally broad, offering a comprehensive preparation for using the L2 in a variety of contexts, ESP courses focus more on training; they are meant to provide learners with a specific

skill set to use in certain situations (Braz Viana, 2014; Makamri, 2010). As such, ESP courses are often taught with clear communicative objectives that can be readily applied to real world situations; the objectives of GE courses, however, are much less clear, and their applications less apparent (Widdowson, 1983).

Bearing in mind the defining elements of ESP courses, the following subsections expand on the research in this domain, in particular language analysis and didactics, along with their applications to the present study.

II.1.c) Language Analysis in ESP. Gollin-Kies et al (2015) tell us that one of the major branches of research on specialized language falls in the category of discourse analysis, with studies seeking to describe the structures and lexicon typical of a certain field. Indeed, Williams (2014) confirms that while much of ESP research has been learner-oriented, these descriptive studies diverge from the norm, constituting a significant subfield in ESP often without any clear pedagogical implications. The following paragraphs aim at providing a brief introduction to this subfield, while highlighting potential didactic considerations that could inform the present study.

Wozniak (2015) provides one such example, in describing the structural evolution of mountaineering literature. Early narratives presented the climber as a stoic, fearless explorer, indifferent to danger. This tendency gave way to the now widespread adrenaline narrative, often describing a journey.

Aside from the structure of specialized texts, lexicon has also received significant research focus. Chen & Ge (2007) performed a lexical study of fifty medical research articles written in English, comparing the words present in the articles with the 570 word families offered by Coxhead's Academic Word List (AWL), a list of general academic vocabulary that allegedly appears in a wide range of disciplines. Ultimately, they found that only 10% of words in their corpus come from the AWL, of which only half appear frequently. In the field of engineering, Mudraya (2006) conducted a comparative lexical analysis between the Student Engineering English Corpus, the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus and the British National Corpus. She found that most words in the engineering corpus were not technical words, but rather sub-technical or non-technical words that frequently appear in academic texts from numerous disciplines.

These reports, focusing on the structure and lexicon of specialized texts have interesting didactic implications that can inform the analysis of the present study. A knowledge of the patterns and trends in specialized discourse can help teachers develop more pertinent and targeted learning materials (Nesi, 2013). Chapon (2011) illustrates this point in her description of an activity on a Supreme Court ruling in a legal English class; the activity relied on four different types of authentic documents: a newspaper article, an episode of a fictional TV series, *Boston Legal*, transcriptions of oral arguments in the American Supreme Court and transcriptions of the ruling of the case. An initial comparison of the documents revealed that all four contained a large amount of specialized legal vocabulary, with the court ruling having the most, and the TV series and the court transcriptions having lesser, similar amounts. Chapon (2011) uses this information to suggest that the TV episode could be a good way to start a lesson to whet enthusiasm and provide students with necessary vocabulary, allowing them to see it being used in a realistic context. Their newly acquired lexicon and cultural knowledge will assist them in interpreting the more technical documents. Other than adding a novel element to the linguistic analysis of legal documents, Chapon's recommendations underline the pedagogical value of an informed language analysis; by basing teaching decisions on informed linguistic knowledge, a teacher can make documents more accessible to students and help them grapple with specialized texts, a key consideration in ESP courses.

In light of the above-mentioned research, it is evident that analyses of language structures and lexical features of a specific field should not be ignored in a study on learning in the ESP classroom. Though Williams (2014) describes such studies as diverging from the traditional learner-orientation of ESP work, an understanding of this branch of research has clear implications for classroom practice that can be observed in the present study. The next section focuses more intently on classroom practice, analyzing the different tools and strategies that have been accepted in ESP teaching practice.

II.1.d) ESP Didactics: Best Practices and Course Development. This subsection expands on some of the defining elements of ESP courses, focusing on best practices and suggestions for course design. Of course, the present list is not meant to be exhaustive, but it is a good indication of the recurrent themes in ESP didactics research, following a thorough literature review; they represent strategies that have been found to be useful and effective in

many different ESP contexts. As such, the following information contains necessary background information that provides a basis for an analysis of the classroom environments observed in the present study; understanding common teaching strategies in specialized language courses allows for a point of comparison for the courses observed.

II.1.d.i) Needs analyses. Although Far (2008) has identified student needs analyses as a key factor in organizing ESP courses, understanding learners' needs is rarely a simple and direct process; institutions might not be clear about why the course is necessary and their reasons may not easily transfer into classroom practice (Mourlhon-Dallies, 2008). Often, one's objective needs, as imposed by an employer or school, do not consider the affective element of language learning, leaving students uninterested in the course (Tudor, 1997). Moreover, a learner's needs are often multi-faceted; an instructor must understand the student's personal interests and goals, his or her needs as imposed by their employer or school, as well as his or her gaps in linguistic competence (Braz Viana, 2014; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Furthermore, given that needs tend to evolve, these analyses cannot just be considered a one-time task to complete at the beginning of a course, as they must be regularly updated to better reflect the learner's changing needs (West, 1997; Widdowson, 1983). In an attempt to respond to these difficulties, numerous researchers and practitioners have commented on the most effective ways to conduct these analyses.

Flowerdew (2013) recognizes two main factors that must make up a needs analysis: the target situation analysis (TSA) and the present situation analysis (PSA). The TSA requires teachers to understand what the learners need to do with the language in the future; activities designed following this analysis are usually skills-based, focusing on students' ability to get by in certain situations. The PSA, on the other hand, takes into account the students' current knowledge gaps as well as the learning environment; it insists on an understanding of students' course expectations and attitudes towards English as well as the resources available to the students and the teacher when developing the course.

To incorporate these two factors in a needs analysis, a comprehensive approach is necessary, including both inductive and deductive methods (Flowerdew, 2013). First, teachers can rely somewhat on their own professional intuition and life experiences as well as informal discussions and interviews with the stakeholders. Next, teachers may consider more formal

interviews or focus groups in addition to surveys and questionnaires. Flowerdew (2013) and Isani (2014) also speaks of the value of conducting long-term observation sessions in the contexts in which the L2 will be used; these observations could provide a deeper understanding of the characteristics of the necessary language and provide crucial insight to the social context for the documents and assure the validity of teachers' pedagogical choices. Lastly, this knowledge could be complemented with an analysis of texts and publications from the discipline (Flowerdew, 2013).

Much of the existing literature on ESP course design appears to focus on Flowerdew's target situation analysis. Ibba (1994) presents one such example, proposing a strategy for a identifying the situations in which students would be using English. She found that students in her medical English course needed English for their future job search, to strengthen their applications for study abroad programs, to facilitate presenting and publishing in English, and to be able follow lectures given by foreign professors.

Braud (2008) describes a similar approach while developing a specialized English course for courtroom judges who were already working in the field. An electronic questionnaire was sent to all registered French judges to understand their professional uses for English. A multivariate analysis of questionnaire responses revealed that oral expression and comprehension skills were the most important in their jobs. Furthermore, results indicated that many would use English skills to have greater autonomy in their jobs when working with foreign clients; they could verify translations independently and could participate more readily in conferences and international meetings.

Focusing on Flowerdew's present situation analysis, Domingo (2013) describes two strategies for identifying student needs, with a language test and a questionnaire. While developing a course of English for Academic Purposes for university students in the Philippines, a language proficiency exam was used to better understand what grammatical and lexical gaps exist in students' knowledge. Next, students completed a questionnaire regarding what difficulties they perceived in their own English use. Students largely reported needing assistance in strengthening their reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills, as well as understanding complex grammar points.

Other practitioners have employed more extensive approaches for identifying learner needs. Incorporating elements of both a PSA and a TSA, Klimova (2011) studied motivation

with students taking language courses in a variety of faculties in the Czech Republic. She devised an open questionnaire with five general questions, allowing students to comment freely about the types of strategies students appreciated in the language classroom and why they studied English. Responses indicated that students were studying English largely to facilitate international tourism in the future and that they were had a preference for activities that allowed them to review grammar, acquire new vocabulary, and express opinions with native speakers.

Tarantino (1994) offers another example of a joint PSA/TSA needs analysis while preparing an English course for science students; she analyzed a sampling of job postings for scientific positions as well as administered a questionnaire to students. While less than 40% of the job postings asked for English competence, students largely asked for a course that focused on their general language skills, including reading and speaking.

The above reports call attention to both the range of student needs that can exist and the variety of strategies for identifying them. While both the PSA and TSA are capable of producing rich sources of information, as shown by Domingo (2013) and Braud (2008), a more all-inclusive analysis, similar to the one presented in Klimova (2011), allows teachers to choose both professional and linguistic objectives for a course. Both considerations are important, given the need for ESP teachers to present materials that are relevant to students' goals and equip them pertinent language structures (Coxhead, 2013; Ibba, 1988). As part II.2 of this chapter explains, meeting these requirements has important implications not only for learner success, but also motivation (Birdsell, 2013). As such, it highly relevant to the present study to understand both the setup and organization of the courses analyzed in the present as well as students' responses to class activities.

II.1.d.ii) Teaching strategies in ESP. Though Strevens (1978) tells us that LSP does not have a clearly established methodology, many have written extensively with possibilities for different course structures and foci. Gollin-Kies et al (2015) as well as Widdowson (1983) describe courses that stress the functional aspects of language, others that focus on structural aspects, and still others that seek to develop communication skills. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) stress that these different approaches are not contradictory and can be used simultaneously in a course to a highly beneficial effect. The following paragraphs briefly

explain a sampling some of these different approaches to provide a basis for discussion for the present study.

Mourlhon-Dallies (2008) provides several examples of teaching approaches often seen in specialized language courses. First, she describes a variety of structural approaches, including a lexical approach, which could focus on the lexicon used in certain professional contexts, a phonetic approach, which focuses on proper pronunciation, and a grammatical approach, stressing the common linguistic structures present in a given field. She also describes more social and communicative approaches, that focus on the L2 culture and using the language; in a discursive approach, for example, students discuss texts while concentrating on pragmatic uses of the language, while in a deontological approach, students seek to understand the cultural aspects in which the L2 is used.

Of course, the aforementioned approaches are not at odds with each other and can be effectively combined (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This point is illustrated in D'Albora Calabrese's (1994) medical English textbook for university students; her lessons include not only explicit grammar lessons and comprehension exercises based on studied texts, but also group activities to encourage interaction, plus writing tasks to immediately use newly acquired knowledge. This manual is just one example of how to combine different teaching approaches in an overall course design.

Building on the descriptions of different approaches and syllabi, ESP researchers have specifically described specific strategies for developing language competences. One domain that has received significant attention, for example, is specialized vocabulary knowledge. As long as ESP has existed, technical vocabulary has been considered an important element of a course (Anderson, 1994). Nevertheless, teaching vocabulary remains a daunting task, particularly if the teacher's subject knowledge is limited (Coxhead, 2013). In the medical field, for example, many everyday words are used with entirely different meanings; teachers must therefore make decisions not only on what technical words to teach but also on the different forms and uses of these words (Howard, 1994).

To overcome the complexities of vocabulary acquisition, Rossi (2007) describes his approach with students completing an undergraduate degree in translation and professionals completing an online graduate degree in legal translation. In both groups, students are offered a training in terminology and then, in groups, they must prepare translation reports for different

domain-specific words. The group discussion with their peers, coupled with this in-depth analysis of word use in context, was not only a pleasant experience for the students, but it also equipped them with a strong mastery of the target words and an idea for how to operate in professional translation contexts. Anderson (1994) offers another option for vocabulary teaching, with a recommendation to offer students numerous opportunities to see important words in context to allow them to understand collocations and lexical patterns, rather than studying lists of isolated vocabulary. Both of these teaching techniques have the potential to help students' expand their lexical knowledge, as they force learners to analyze words in different contexts to fully understand its use (Coxhead, 2013).

ESP teaching research has also provided recommendations for developing the four major language skills of speaking, listening, writing, and reading. Feak (2013), for example, explains that speaking in specialized contexts has been the subject of increased interest, particularly in academic contexts and business. Many studies on speaking have clear pedagogical implications; Noom-ura (2008) highlights the need to focus on realistic and authentic contexts for communication with a study on students in a remedial course of English for academic purposes. This course, which resulted in improved speaking skills for most participants, included a variety of interactive activities putting students in realistic contexts for L2 use, including having them go out and communicate with foreigners. Baines (2006) offers another example in inserting theatre lessons in a specialized French course for students of law and management in a British university; the course put students in a variety of realistic, possible contexts and forced them to focus on accent, breathing, delivery, and spontaneity in order to develop the fluency and clarity that would be necessary in their future jobs.

Regarding listening, Goh (2013) explains that ESP listening skills have considerable overlap with general L2 listening skills, as both depend on the student's ability to make logical inferences when listening to presentations and lectures as well as in interactive situations. In both cases, learners must have an appreciation for the English sound system to be able to separate the sounds they hear into comprehensible word strings. While in the ESP context, learners have the additional burden of needing to know domain-specific terminology, this knowledge alone does not guarantee they will be able to identify the words in a spoken word string (Goh, 2013). To help support non-native speaking students, Goh (2013) recommends carefully structuring lectures with noticeable visual and linguistic cues, with consideration to

cultural differences. ESP teachers may assist students further by indicating the typical structure of certain communicative events, such as a business meeting or academic lecture, so students can identify the key points (Goh, 2013). Furthermore, similar to teaching speaking skills, it is important for students to practice listening to documents that correspond to the contexts in which they will be doing most of their listening; one possibility is to provide students with pre-recorded mini-lectures from their subject areas and encouraging them to develop multi-task skills, by simultaneously listening and taking notes (Dudley-Evans, 1977; Fortune, 1977). Such an activity would acclimate students to the structure and rhetorical devices often present in the lesson and enhance their processing capacity.

Reading skills have also had a unique place in ESP research (Hirvela, 2013); though many students identify reading in English as the least difficult language skill, it still represents a significant part of their use for the L2 and continues to pose some challenges, as in many cases, students need to be capable of dealing with academic texts (Rees Franzinetti, 1994). Research on reading describes two different course setups: ESP reading as a stand-alone skill and ESP reading as an integrated skill (Hirvela, 2013). In the former case, many teachers have advocated for the use of authentic documents published in English so that students are accustomed to how they are structured; as many learners in ESP courses already have an understanding of how to read in English, exercises should focus on locating the necessary information in a text. Furthermore, given the wide array of texts present even in a single domain, some teachers have insisted on helping students develop a range of reading strategies and metacognitive techniques to help them cope with different types of documents (Hirvela, 2013). In integrated courses, reading is often paired with writing activities; after a thorough analysis of the structure of a document or series of documents, students are asked to produce their own texts following the same patterns and using similar rhetorical devices; such course setups have proven successful in a variety of contexts, resulting in improved reading comprehension and written expression (Hirvela, 2013). Offering an example of how to improve academic reading skills in a stand-alone ESP reading course, Savaş (2009) describes implementing an extensive reading program in a course of English for academic purposes in a Turkish university. In this program, students are encouraged to read independently over long periods of time, choosing their own texts that are within their skill level. While the teacher provides initial guidance, students must read alone in a variety of genres. Results from this

program were compared with results from a more traditional, intensive reading approach in which students needed to understand the exact meaning of every word in shorter texts. Ultimately, Savaş (2009) found that students progressed more in the extensive reading approach, with an increased capacity for recognizing new words.

Lastly, writing has also received some attention in didactic research, as it constitutes a large part of a learner's L2 work, particularly in higher education contexts (Hyland, 2013). Similar to studies on reading, much research on ESP writing focuses on analyzing the genres present in various academic fields with the goal of identifying the structural norms of certain texts. This information can guide the development of classroom activities, as it facilitates the selection of authentic texts on which students can base their own writing. Cooke (1993) provides an example of this approach in a program designed to improve the written English of professors and graduate students looking to publish research articles; he describes a program in which students from the same disciplines work together to identify common rhetorical structures in articles they themselves provide. Guided and aided by the teacher as problems arise, the students would help each other establish an understanding of common rhetorical elements in the different articles.

The above reports are demonstrative of the scope of existing research on teaching practices in ESP. While these descriptions do not explicitly speak of student motivation, they offer several indications of well-established best practices in this field that are useful for the analysis of classroom observations in the present study. The following section delves deeper into the subject of teaching practices by analyzing materials development in specialized language courses.

II.1.d.iii) Materials. Following recommendations for course design and teaching strategies, many researchers have made suggestions regarding how to choose effective materials for teaching students in various disciplines.

One of the most often seen recommendations is the importance of authentic documents in ESP courses. Documents taken from real world contexts are inherently more motivating for students as it allows them to see how the L2 is used to connect complex ideas (Morrow, 1977). Valentini (1988) and Ibba (1988) seem to echo this notion in describing how authentic documents expose students to a variety of literary forms of their discipline while showing them

how the language is often used. Even with low level students or in multi-level classes authentic texts can prove useful, as long as certain considerations are made to preserve the quality of the text while simultaneously catering to the language skills of low-level learners (Guariento & Morley, 2001; Villez, 1994).

Trimble (1985) insists that instructors have multiple possibilities for providing authentic documents; texts can be offered in their original form or slightly adapted, they may be a combination of several texts, or they may be texts made from zero by the teacher with careful consideration to the structure normally found in real texts. The most important consideration is simply that the document must include the same linguistic forms that students will eventually need to use (Waters, 1977).

Ferguson (1994) presents a suggestion of how these documents can be used to the benefit of the student in his description of a Medical ESP course. In his course, students received case conference materials including a patient's clinical problem along with questions regarding the diagnosis and treatment options. First, the teacher prepared students with numerous vocabulary input activities, followed by a guided reading of the conference text. Students were then made to debate possible treatment options. This type of document, along with the accompanying activities, demands a greater investment from the student, given the clear connection to their future professional lives (Ferguson, 1994). Similar findings have been noted in other fields, such as English for Public Policy (Korotkina, 2014) and French for Business (Cheal Pugh, 1997); in all cases, authentic documents consistently present an effective starting point for realistic oral and writing tasks to help students use their new words and content knowledge in context.

In addition to real professional texts, professionally-based fictional works have also been used in ESP courses to facilitate the acquisition of relevant linguistic structures and terminology. Chapon (2011) presents one example, as described in section II.1.c of this chapter, with her use of an episode of the television series *Boston Legal* in a legal English course. These professionally-based, fictional documents, even when aimed at mainstream audiences, are highly valued in an ESP classroom as they often share features with more technical scientific texts that learners need to grapple with in their academic and professional lives; the intersections between professionally-based fiction and more scientific authentic texts have been observed in several fields, including mathematics (Le Cor, 2014) and technical fields

(Le Cor, 2001), validating their use in the classroom. Furthermore, Chapon (2011) notes that using them as a starting point for discussion can provide a more motivating, engaging task for a student while still providing them with useful, domain-specific language.

Boulton (2016) proposes another possibility for employing authentic documents in his suggestions for using corpora in the classroom as part of a data-driven learning strategy. This practice allows teachers to offer students a type of mega-exposure that is not often feasible in the classroom otherwise; it provides students with numerous examples of how language appears in different context and requires them to detect patterns and deduce rules. This practice, though it may initially require significant guidance from the teacher, can ultimately lead to greater student autonomy, as learners must analyze texts themselves. An initial study of student reactions indicates that they are intrigued by this method, after previously being unsatisfied with their language courses.

The above reports present a major trend in ESP teaching: the use of authentic materials that have a direct connection with the learners' discipline. Aside from being effective teaching aids, authentic documents can also have a clear affective impact, in that they tend to spur motivation and reduce anxiety in the classroom (Di Pardo Léon-Henri, 2015). Such a statement makes these tools an important point to consider during the analysis of the classroom context in the present study.

While the above paragraphs highlight best practices and common approaches to developing ESP courses, the following subsection describes research on students' reactions and progress in various ESP class setups. By presenting student feedback, the following studies help to validate the use of the best practices described above, supporting their inclusion in the present study's analysis.

II.1.e) Case studies in ESP courses. Aside from discourse analysis and recommendations for best practices in course design and teaching strategies, reports on student reactions to specialized courses and materials constitute another key subfield in ESP. La Ganza's (2002) study illustrates how such research can be inherently complex, as many aspects of student learning can be difficult to measure. To cope with this difficulty, the following studies show how teachers and researchers have employed a variety of strategies to gauge

students' reactions to ESP materials, many of which align with the best practices described above, such as the use of needs analyses and authentic materials. Ultimately, these studies show one common theme that constitutes the foundation of the present study: learners, at least in the university contexts, are not particularly motivated by specialized language courses.

One of the major themes that emerges in analyses of student attitudes towards specialized courses is that, very often, such courses are not inherently motivating or useful for students. Khodi (2014) conducted one such study, working with Iranian graduate students taking ESP courses and courses of English for academic purposes (EAP). A questionnaire was completed by 120 students at the conclusion of their courses to determine students' learning priorities as well as the effectiveness of their university's ESP courses for meeting achieving those goals. Respondents reported that their main priorities were developing receptive language skills, like reading and listening, followed by productive skills of speaking and writing. Ultimately, they judged their ESP courses to be insufficient for helping them to reach their goals, leading the author to suggest a complete overhaul of the course structure.

Brunton (2009) provides another study casting doubt on the value of ESP courses with an English course offered to hotel employees in Thailand, of which half was specialized for the hotel industry and half was described as General English (GE). The goal of this project was to understand whether students were more motivated by specialized or general materials. The course was designed following a needs analysis conducted with the students and the hotel management; the goals and objectives of the course were continuously modified as the teacher regularly verified learners' attitudes and progress. To analyze motivation in the course, Brunton (2009) administered questionnaires and interviews to students, as well as kept track informally of their comments during and after lessons. While the initial feeling expressed by both participants and hotel managers was that the course should be more specialized, so that it equipped students with the skills necessary to perform their jobs in English, students' attitudes changed by the end of the semester; they continued appreciating having specific hotel vocabulary and role plays, but they also expressed a clear preference for a GE element. Students found the general language materials to be more empowering, offering them the ability to use the language outside of work (Brunton, 2009).

Also in the experiment described by Château (2005), students are not particularly motivated by courses adapted to their self-identified needs. Doctoral students in a French

university needed a course of scientific English to strengthen their ability to participate in international conferences. A preliminary questionnaire was conducted to determine their existing language skills and the strength of their motivation to do a scientific English course. Students were offered two in-person workshops at different points in the year, and in between they were to complete online work independently; the course was designed under the belief that students would be motivated by a setup that allowed them significant autonomy and was adapted to their needs. Researchers measured student progress at the second in-person workshop and found that no student had completed any online work, and attendance at the second workshop was lower than at the first. Château (2005) used this information to conclude that one cannot trust a student's expressed initial motivation to last over the long-term nor, does it seem, can one suppose that a specifically adapted course is necessarily motivating.

These results are echoed by Fehti & Feriel (2016) in a business course offered to university students in Algeria. The course was part of the curriculum for students in their first year of business studies. At the end of the term, students were given a questionnaire with six open questions to determine their satisfaction with the structure of the course. Surprisingly, many students expressed having problems with the course, particularly difficulties with the grammar, understanding the professors, and pronunciation. Questionnaire data revealed that students would have liked a stronger foundation of general English before working with specialized materials.

Though using a different research strategy, Lavinal, Décuré & Blois (2006) propose another way for understanding student satisfaction with specialized material; in an English course aimed at university students in a French technological institute, researchers administered a questionnaire both at the beginning and the end of a course to determine how motivation for learning English changed as a result of the course. Though the course was meant to be specialized for students in a technological department, questionnaire results indicated that students mostly appreciated English for more personal reasons, such as traveling and pop culture interests. Furthermore, students indicated that the quality of the professor, and not course content, was the most important factor in determining if a course would be motivating. Lastly, both in the pre and post questionnaire, students reported that the hardest tasks were those that dealt with spoken language, both in expression and comprehension. In the end, Lavinal et al (2006) found that motivation was essentially unchanged by the ESP

course; some weaker students seemed to appreciate it for the novelty that the authentic contexts represented, but the researchers ultimately suggest that perhaps it would be better to focus on students' weaker oral skills, as that responds best to their stated needs.

Lastly, Doucet (1997) describes students' reactions to an English course offered to students at a technological institute in France; at the end of the course, students had to complete a one-on-one oral exam with the professor. Students started with generally negative attitudes towards English and low motivation. In this course, however, learners did not study in a traditional way through weekly lessons, but rather through autonomous activities of their choosing coupled with language workshops in which they could discuss difficulties and progress with an instructor. As such, although the personalized nature of these courses left the possibility for them to be highly specialized to students' academic discipline, most often students chose activities that helped them develop greater oral expression skills. Doucet (1997) noted that many students arrived to the final test having done quite a bit of preparation for the oral exam, suggesting that they responded positively to being able to complete the activities that they deemed most appropriate for them. Moving forward, students approached their next English course with much greater motivation and a stronger interest in English (Doucet, 1997).

While in many contexts students have expressed negative opinions regarding ESP materials, Setzler (2013) presents an exception, with a study showing a positive student evaluation of ESP courses, Setzler (2013) describes his experience teaching business English to university students and business professionals in Thailand. The instructor designed two separate courses adapted to these two groups, using the same textbook but with different supplementary materials, based on each group's expressed needs. At the conclusion of the courses, students were asked to complete questionnaires indicating whether the course helped them meet their needs and whether the materials were appropriate. Results indicate that students were relatively positive about the choice of learning materials, noting that all of them were acceptable.

The above studies provide a number of factors that need to be explored in the present study. While it seems that in many contexts specialized materials are not necessarily motivating, Doucet (1997) and Brunton (2009) show that this does not necessarily translate to an unchangeable lack of motivation for learning English. Furthermore, the student's stage in life seems to have some impact on how he or she views a language course; in Brunton's (2009)

and Setzler's (2013), studies, the participants were professionals and already working in their fields; these participants, at least initially expressed a preference or a positive reaction to specialized materials. These two points suggest that the classroom environment as well as identity factors play significant roles in determining student motivation in specialized language courses. Keeping in mind the findings on student reactions in the above case studies, the present study seeks to further explore students' actions in ESP lessons and how they evolve during a course. Indeed, this subfield serves an important purpose in the field of language didactics because, as Paltridge & Starfield (2013) explain, ESP practitioners have trusted needs analyses so much that teaching and learning in the classroom often go unstudied.

II.1.f) Gaps in ESP research. Despite the numerous directions work on specialized language has taken over the years, researchers continue to describe problems that render developing effective ESP programs a difficult pursuit. Part of the issue here, as Paltridge & Starfield (2013) point out, is a paucity of research on teaching and learning in ESP courses. Indeed, Widdowson (1983) claims that, even with all the work done on specialized language structures and needs analyses for students in language classes, it is very hard to identify any clear practical applications that teachers can insert into their classroom practice. The following paragraphs expand on this problem, as it is crucial for understanding the observations of the ESP courses in the present study.

One of the major complications that one is likely to face when implementing a specialized language program relates to teaching and the lack of a universal definition for ESP didactics (Sarré & Whyte, 2016). This issue becomes immediately clear when one realizes that it has traditionally been difficult to define a focus for ESP courses; Dudley-Evans (1997) points out that courses are often either based strictly on specialized language or strictly on content, but that both of these are too narrow to allow for effective learning. Widdowson (1983) echoes this by warning teachers not to focus too much on language structures, as students cannot learn to communicate by studying isolated language chunks.

Another element to this debate is who exactly is supposed to teach ESP (Howard, 1997). Language teachers would need to accept a new role in their classrooms as they are no longer the experts; students have the content knowledge, so teachers must depend partially on them (Howard, 1997). Conversely, content teachers lack the necessary background in

language acquisition, so they also would require additional training (Howard, 1997). Villez (1994) describes one response to this question in legal English courses at a university in France; legal professionals teach the content-heavy language courses for students with an advanced language proficiency, while language teachers work with students with lower levels to allow a greater focus on language. Further research would be needed to determine the effect of such a practice on student attitudes and progress.

Aside from teaching, the learning element of ESP research also has several unanswered questions. The most pressing of these appears to be a debate concerning the language proficiency level that students are able to cope with ESP; Cigada (1988) suggests that starting at the first low proficiency levels is not worth it, while others suggest that, with some modifications from the teacher, even beginners could benefit (Preece, 2008). The question becomes even more complicated in the university context; Ibba (1988) explains that many of these students do not have the necessary content language in their native language yet if they are still in the early years of their degree.

While the present study cannot seek to completely answer these questions that have troubled ESP teachers for years, it can offer necessary insights giving way to concrete recommendations for classroom practice. To do so, the following considerations are made: first, a comparative element of learner motivation for students in different levels of ESP courses. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (for a description, see COE, 2001) is used to distinguish students' levels. Second, the role of teaching and learning materials is also considered, to understand how different teaching practices can influence classroom motivation; the classroom clearly has the capacity to influence behaviors and attitudes, as illustrated by the increased motivation expressed by the participants in Doucet (2007).

The following subsection responds in detail to another gap in studies in ESP didactics: the lack of research on language courses for students of artistic disciplines (ESP Arts). Common directions in ESP Arts are presented along with their implications for the present study.

II.1.g) English for Arts Purposes. As the above sections provide a general background of ESP research, the goal of this section is to offer similar insight specifically regarding English

for Arts Purposes (ESP Arts), which is the focus of the current study. ESP Arts refers to the language of art, design and related fields; it is taught in both second and foreign language contexts throughout the world and it, ideally, equips learners with the language necessary to participate in the international artistic community (Preece, 1996).

Historically, ESP Arts has received relatively little research attention in the field of specialized language study and has also seen relatively little work done in terms of course development and student needs analyses. In her description of the evolution of French publication on specialized Englishes, Mémet (2013) seems to confirm this by placing artistic English in a category of subfields with limited publications. Daloiso (2007a) and Preece (1994) point out this subfield is often ignored in favor of the more popular fields of scientific and business Englishes. Various factors explain this phenomenon, one of which is the art professors; through an interview with Kate Griffeath, director of the ESP Arts program at an art institute in San Francisco, Preece (2008) describes that, initially, art professors were uninterested in developing programs catering to non-native speakers of English, due to the potential linguistic and cultural barriers that could arise in the classroom. While Griffeath goes on to explain that the professors eventually changed their mind after seeing the new and interesting perspectives foreign students brought to their courses, their initial attitude offers some explanation as to why developments in this field have been slow. Another reason may simply be a practical matter; more students are enrolled in business- and scientific-related programs, so it is to be expected that these domains are much more developed (Preece, 1996). Also, it remains rare to find ESP Arts courses in traditional universities, as many are taught only in specialized arts institutes (Preece, 1997); it is possible therefore that due to the smaller size and elite nature of the such establishments, knowledge about language teaching practices is not very widespread. Lastly, the lack of research on ESP Arts may be the result of attitudes towards this type of language. Throughout history, the language of artists has been considered rather snobby, using flowery, ambiguous language to intentionally isolate others; consequently, its community of speakers remains small and attracts little new interest (Crețiu, 2013).

As a result of the limited work done in ESP Arts, Preece (1996) explains that few widely used textbooks or didactic materials exist, forcing teachers and learners to be more creative. Daloiso (2007a) describes the potential pitfalls of such a situation, using Italian art

institutes as an example. Often, the English classes offered in these institutes have ambiguous objectives with only a vague insistence that the course be adapted to the art world; courses are created without consulting the students and generally without any verification that the instructor has an appropriate teaching background (Daloiso, 2007a). Consequently, many art institutes provide General English (GE) courses, or some form of combined ESP Arts and GE courses, with only a small percentage offering purely ESP courses (Daloiso, 2007a).

All hope is not lost, however, as the field of ESP Arts is slowly but surely growing (Preece, 2008). Indeed, Ferguson (2007) attests to its increasingly large role in academia in speaking about an Arts faculty in a Finnish university in which more than half of all graduate theses are written in English. Therefore, this section is dedicated to the developments in ESP Arts both in terms of the language analysis and teaching experiences, given its relevance to the present study.

II.1.g.i) Language Analysis in ESP Arts. The technical language used in artistic domains holds a special place in ESP research, partly because the cultural element that is inherent to art, and other fields in the humanities, means it is more likely to be connected to the work of English studies scholars (Gould, 2001); while such a connection is less obvious when it comes to Medical or Legal English, for example. Some suggest that artistic language is difficult to describe, since the majority of publications are aimed at a non-expert audience, such as the captions often accompanying a work of art; these texts might be analytical or expository, describing movements and new tendencies in art (Daloiso, 2007a). Still, Daloiso (2007a) describes that, although no specific grammatical structures are unique to the art world, one does notice a frequent use of the passive voice, short sentences, and an abundance of descriptive terms for speaking of colors, tools, and forms; also, certain everyday terms, like "frame" or "space" take on different meanings when describing art. Art English also contains certain French language structures, notably long adverbial phrases and the use of definite and indefinite articles in instances not typical of common English (Crețiu, 2013).

Still, with the growth of the internet, researchers have noticed that Art English is rapidly evolving and gaining importance. Gould (2001) offers one striking example of technology influencing Art English in her assertion that this specialized language must include both the content of a given piece, as well as the medium through which it is presented; the internet has

brought about new ways to describe art, specifically in pieces incorporating new technologies. One example Gould (2001) gives is a work by artists Jon Thompson and Alison Craighead entitled *CNN Interactive Just Got More Interactive*; this piece shows what appears to be the CNN website's homepage projected against a wall. The spectator can then choose a specific type of music to play along with the news, such as "festive" or "melancholic," thusly creating interesting and sometimes shocking juxtapositions of music and news, blurring the line between news and entertainment. These newer art forms demand an evolution in the explanatory language that allows for descriptions of modern media.

Another way that the internet has influenced ESP Arts language is through the creation of art blogs; these online platforms, though in a sense similar to personal diaries, allow and encourage input from outside readers and have become increasingly popular in the artistic community for increasing one's visibility and soliciting feedback on projects (Crețiu, 2013a). To understand the structure of these blogs, Crețiu (2013a) selected 30 art blogs written in English based on a set criteria. These blogs were then analyzed based on their structure, length, formality, and purpose. She concluded that generally, this particular genre represents an important form of communication for artists, as many update their blogs regularly as means to market themselves and their work, describe their processes, and get feedback from readers. Regarding the structure, the blogs were often short and informal, using many pictures and headlines and tags (Crețiu, 2013a). As Daloiso (2007a) would predict, these blogs were heavy in descriptive language, with some influence of analytical speech.

Crețiu (2016) illustrates the role of the internet has in Art English, through an analysis of a corpus of online texts related to 21 art department graduates from a Romanian university; the corpus consisted of documents of various genres, including students' descriptions of their own works, professional websites, press releases from museums and galleries regarding the graduates, and critiques of their works from journalists. Crețiu (2016) found that, of these documents, almost all of them were written either exclusively in English, or an English translation accompanied the original version. Such a finding attests to the importance of English as an international language in artistic domains as well as the need to analyze it through a modern perspective, as technology impacts it further.

This section highlights that, similar to other fields, language analysis makes up an important of ESP Art research. It also shows an important trend that is relevant to the present

study: modern technologies are creating a situation in which Art English is in constant evolution. Aside from the common linguistic features described by Daloiso (2007a) and Crețiu (2013), the professional uses of the English by the artistic community described by Crețiu (2013a) and Crețiu (2016) represent an important consideration that needs to take into account in the development of specialized language courses in this domain.

The following subsection presents a description of teaching practices and research typical in the ESP Arts classroom, with the goal of establishing what strategies students are likely to find motivating or relevant to their goals.

II.1.g.ii) ESP Arts didactics. In line with ESP research in other domains, ESP Arts practitioners have identified a number of strategies and materials for conducting an effective course that incorporates the principal uses of English in artistic domains. As in other contexts, the first step is a thorough needs analysis. Kaur & Baksh (2010) indicate one possibility for doing this, using a questionnaire at the conclusion of a specialized English course at a design institute in Malaysia along with interviews with teachers and students; these tools aimed at gathering feedback on the usefulness of the course content and the effectiveness of the teaching strategies. Data was then used to offer suggestion for future courses. Labetoulle (2017) outlines an even more extensive needs analysis for students in a musicology degree at French university; the group of teachers in charge of the course conducted a thorough literature review regarding student needs in musicology, they reached out to both language and content teachers, and used interviews and questionnaires to collect feedback from current and former students.

Based on the needs analyses, as well as the descriptions of Art English described in the previous subsection, a number of course recommendations have been made. First, Daloiso (2007a) and Labetoulle (2017) stress the importance of understanding the students' future objectives when designing course activities; both researchers point out that even in a specialized course, one cannot assume student objectives are similar. In Labetoulle's (2017) musicology class, some students were hoping to work abroad as professional musicians, while others were looking to stay in France teaching music in the public school system. Regarding art institutes, Daloiso (2007a) also stressed that even if, generally speaking, all students have the common goal of making their work reach a wide audience, not all students concentrate on exactly the same fields or the same media. To address this large variety in student needs,

Daloiso (2007a) recommends that teachers and students work together to develop a course that encourages significant learner autonomy so that the learning activities always respond directly to the learners' constantly evolving needs. Preece (1996) suggests as number of possibilities for doing so, including directing students in the selection of artistic magazines and publications, recommending audio files or podcasts they can listen to, or helping learners to organize conversation partners with whom they can practice speaking in English.

Crețiu (2016) also provides some insight on how to adapt a course, in recommending that the teacher focus significantly on professional needs. Given that her study revealed that art texts often included professional documents produced by artists themselves, courses should equip students with the language skills necessary to produce CVs in English, personal and professional webpages, as well as artistic statements; she also notes that while students may not need to be able to produce the type of journalistic or marketing texts that critique or advertise art, an ESP Arts course should, at the very least, allow students to effectively interpret them (Crețiu, 2016). Furthermore, courses also need to reflect the current uses of English by artists; Crețiu (2013a) speaks specifically about art blogs, as many artists consider updating blogs to be a necessary part of their work.

In addition to making blogs and professional webpages, Preece (1996) suggests having students go to different events, exhibitions, or cultural centers and having them describe in detail the different things they saw; such an activity not only prepares students for the type of presentation they are likely to have to make in the future, but it is also brings a large amount of vocabulary to the foreground in an authentic context. In a similar vein, after presenting the necessary vocabulary, Preece (1997) recommends an activity that he calls collaborative design projects; these projects require students to work together to develop a new work, while imposing certain constraints, such as materials they must use or linguistic elements they must include in their descriptions.

Preece (1994) presents a detailed, concrete example of an ESP Arts course offered at an American University to help prepare foreign students taking courses in an art department. Just as Crețiu (2016) describes the importance of preparing students for the future professional uses for English, Preece (1994) describes catering to students future academic uses for English, given the urgency in this context; students perform reading comprehension exercises of historical art texts and also practice listening to lectures and taking notes of sample art courses.

Communicative skills are also developed as students keep a portfolio of art that they must describe orally and in writing, as well as visit local museums and sights around their new city. Such a course helps to create the level of autonomy recommended by Daloiso (2007a) while also making sure the course is very carefully geared towards students' needs, as recommended by Crețiu (2016).

Despite the fact that, as Preece (1994) says, little information exists describing ESP Arts programs, some researchers have collected data providing crucial information for understanding student reactions to these courses. Such data is particularly interesting for the present study as it creates for a basis for forming hypotheses about students' attitudes and collecting data. While reiterating the dearth of research in this particular ESP subfield, Mémet (2003) presents the results of a questionnaire study on student motivation in an English course for students in a media and culture degree program; the aim of the study was to determine how learner motivation would be influenced by a course that asks students to work with the language in context, instead of focusing on the structure of the language, a common course setup in French university ESP courses. Questionnaires were administered at the beginning and the end of the course to measure the change in students' attitudes. An analysis of the data indicated that students were largely extrinsically motivated to learn English, feeling that it would help them get a job after their studies, though intrinsic motivation was also present with many students appreciating what they were learning in the course. Still, a comparison between data from the two questionnaire administrations indicated that motivation to learn English remained largely unchanged by their specialized language course (Mémet, 2003).

While Mémet (2003) proposes that student motivation may have been relatively unaffected by the specialized language course because the duration was so short and that motivation should perhaps be studied over a longer period to see changes, Schug & Le Cor (2017) offer an alternative perspective with their comparative study of motivation in ESP and GE courses. They used questionnaires and interviews in GE courses and ESP Arts courses at a French university to determine the elements of a course that students find motivating, offering the initial results of the present study. Consistent with findings in other ESP studies, they observed that motivation did change somewhat over the semester, but that students were indifferent to the specialized elements of their ESP courses, with many ESP students citing the general language skills and activities as being the most motivating. This finding is reinforced

by Fadavi & Ershadi's (2014) questionnaire study with students in an Iranian art institute; while students reported appreciating the specialized activities in their ESP courses, they also expressed a desire for additional activities to boost their general language skills. Although such a finding represents just a preliminary result and requires additional analysis, it offers another lens through which to view Mémet's (2003) results, calling into question the motivating value of specialized courses and establishing the foundation for this study.

It is in this context that the present study has found fertile ground. Despite Far's (2008) claims that ESP courses should inspire greater levels of motivation, the above experiments confirm Brown's (2007) call to further analyze the motivating capacity of ESP courses. In the following chapter, the concept of motivation found in Mémet's (2003) and Schug & Le Cor's (2017) reports is expanded on further in order to clarify its potential in ESP courses and the impact it has on student behavior.

Summary

Part I of this chapter presents major developments in the field of ESP research, broadly at first, then narrowing the focus to the subfield of English for Arts Purposes (ESP Arts), which is analyzed in the present study.

In France and Italy, the two countries analyzed in this thesis, the establishment of effective ESP courses has proven difficult, making these countries an ideal context for the present study. This problem largely stems from a lack of standardization of teaching practices and also the fact that teachers rarely receive adequate training for working with non-language majors (Ibba, 1994; Van der Yeught, 2014); such difficulties have a direct impact on classroom learning and engagement. Still, the situation remains promising, as ESP research in these two countries continues to expand and attract interest; in France the *ASp, La Revue du GERAS* and in Italy, *ESP Across Cultures* have been in existence for several decades, reflecting a wide range of research in the two countries (Maglie, 2004; Mémet, 2013).

Regarding the history of ESP, Hutchinson & Waters (1987) tell us that specialized language courses were developed in the period immediately following World War 2, as an increase in international cooperation created a need for a lingua franca to facilitate communication between people of different cultures in very specific contexts. The need for such specific forms of language had a significant form of language didactics, leading to the

development of a variety of ESP courses in different domains. These courses distinguish themselves from General English (GE) courses in several regards. First, perhaps most obviously ESP courses are specific; they generally do not provide learners with an extensive overview of English, but rather very targeted training in a single domain, relying on certain forms of the language (Braz Viana, 2014). As such, Sarré & Whyte (2016) note that ESP teachers rely heavily on specialized materials that are connected to students' disciplines; such materials are rarely systematically used in GE courses (Wright, 1992). Moreover, specialized language courses are ideally developed based on data from a meticulous needs analysis (Far, 2008); as such, these courses are adapted directly to the needs and objectives of the learners and other stakeholders.

Generally speaking, ESP research has been concentrated in two subfields: the analysis of linguistic structures in specific domains and didactics. In the former category, researchers have studied language use in a variety of fields. Chen & Ge (2007) analyzed academic word use in medical articles published in English, while Crețiu (2016) worked on a corpora of different artistic texts in English. Using her course of legal English as an example, Chapon (2011) illustrates how these reports have important didactic implications; not only do they allow teachers to make their courses more professionally-oriented by preparing students to grapple with documents that are relevant to their fields, they can also help teachers select materials that are rich in the pertinent language structures.

The field of ESP didactics can be divided further into three principal themes: conducting needs analyses, describing effective teaching strategies, and suggestions for materials and activities to use in class. Flowerdew (2013) offers a comprehensive view of important considerations when conducting needs analyses; the teacher is responsible for performing both a target situation analysis, which seeks to understand the context in which the learner will use the language, and a present situation analysis, which seeks to understand what the learner's current difficulties with the language. Teachers in a variety of context have applied in these concepts while performing needs analyses, to better adapt their courses; Ibba (1994) describes a type of needs analysis for medical English, Braud (2008) presents an example in the context of legal English, and in the artistic context, Labetoulle (2017) explains her needs analysis procedure in a course of English for musicology students. Ultimately, these

reports show one important trend: students' needs and objectives for a language course are highly variable and cannot be generalized.

Research on teaching practices has often featured recommendations for developing the four main language skills of speaking, reading, writing, and listening, and also on the acquisition of domain specific vocabulary. For writing, Hyland (2013) recommends exposing students to authentic texts so it is sure to offer students a reliable, authentic guide for their own writing. Hirvela (2013) explains how such a practice could easily be used to combine lessons on specialized reading and writing skills; it shows students the typical structure and linguistic forms of their field while also allowing them the opportunity to produce. To strengthen listening skills, Goh (2013) recommends providing students with carefully structured presentations that have clear cues to signal a change in topic. For speaking, Baines (2006) describes a course of legal French with a theatrical element, to get students to focus on intonation, accent, and pronunciation. Together, these recommendations are helpful to the present study in that they facilitate an evaluation of the classroom environment; classroom observations can be compared with what are considered to be best practices in specialized language teaching in an attempt to understand student behaviors.

For teaching materials, most reports highlight the value of using authentic documents. These tools are thought to highly useful for presenting students with the vocabulary and grammatical structures most often used in their respective fields (Ibba, 1988; Valentini, 1988). Chapon (2011) provides several examples of authentic documents for Legal English, including courtroom transcripts and newspaper articles, but also an episode of an American TV series, highlighting the value of professionally-based fiction.

Similar course recommendations appear also in the ESP Arts, the context of the present study. Crețiu (2016) recommends that these courses focus on the students' future professional uses for English and offers several examples, including CVs, artists' statements, and webpages; students can analyze these various media in preparation of creating their own versions in English. Preece (1997) echoes the importance of a professionally-oriented ESP Arts course with a description of collaborative design projects; students must work with their peers to develop and present an artistic piece that meets certain conditions.

Suggestions for best practices and teaching strategies in ESP generally show one common theme: effective courses should be carefully adapted to the needs and the objectives

of the learners, hence the focus on authentic materials and exposing students to a wide variety of texts in their fields. Nevertheless, research on students' evaluations of their ESP courses have been fairly consistent in showing that students are relatively indifferent to specialized materials and specialized courses. Mémet (2003) showed that students' motivation was mostly unaffected by a semester-long ESP course for culture mediation. Brunton (2009) taught a combined ESP and GE course to hotel employees in Thailand and found that learners reported being more motivated by the GE activities than the specialized elements in the course. Château (2005) found students enrolled in English for academic purposes course to not even be motivated enough to complete required course activities.

Despite the large body of research on best practices in ESP teaching, students remain relatively indifferent to the specialized elements of their language courses (Schug & Le Cor, 2017). The present study seeks to explore this mystery further by conducting a close, detailed analysis of motivation in ESP Arts courses to understand precisely what students find motivating about them. This analysis, ideally, can lead to more concrete didactic implications that can be applied across various disciplines.

The following subsection of this data gives an overview of research in language learning motivation. This subsection seeks not only to define this concept but highlight how it is analyzed in the present study.

II.2) Motivation for Language Learning

As the previous chapter on ESP didactics and learning illustrates, a large variety of aspects must be considered when developing specialized language courses and language courses in general, including needs analyses (Flowerdew, 2013), materials selection (Waters, 1977), and teaching strategy (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). While an abundance of studies exist in each of these domains, Paltridge & Starfield (2013) claim that learning in ESP courses has received considerably less attention. Given that specialized university language courses represent a unique case in the fields of language teaching and learning; this study therefore seeks to offer a novel approach for understanding a factor consistently found to be a fundamental predictor of success in these courses: learner motivation (Horwitz, 2010).

Historically, researchers have failed to agree on how to define and measure motivation in language learning contexts (Dörnyei, 1998). In the classroom, it might appear obvious to say that a student who regularly participates in class activities and works beyond the learning objectives is motivated; indeed, Ushioda (1996) explains that motivation has generally been measured in terms of effort and behaviors. Dörnyei (1998), however, suggests that such a view might be too reductive, as L2 motivation is multifaceted; it includes both the desire to master a linguistic code as well as an interest in developing an L2 identity, itself constructed of many components. Furthermore, behaviors and effort might not be readily observable; Daloiso (2009) explains that, in tertiary education, language courses are often taught with a traditional approach, in which learners are relatively passive in class and unquestioningly adhere to the program set forth by the teacher. As such, an otherwise motivated learner may have only rare opportunities to demonstrate his eagerness and show few behavioral differences from a disengaged classmate.

To complicate things further, Mata (2011) tells us that motivation is not a stable construct, as students often start learning with a strong desire to succeed and high levels of intended effort, but eventually disengage as they reach higher levels or become more inhibited. Numerous factors account for these changes including, but not limited to, a student's choice in selecting learning activities, the learner's general competence, language proficiency level, and teacher feedback (Balboni, 2014; Byman & Kansanen, 2008; Little, 1991). To understand the various manifestations of motivation and the factors that influence them, further research is needed (Cooter & Perkins, 2011).

In light of Strevens' (1978) comment that motivation in specialized language courses cannot be taken for granted, the present study seeks to analyze the elements of a course that elicit student engagement. This section serves to define learner motivation by presenting the different ways that it has been analyzed and measured through different L2 motivation theories as well as descriptions of motivated learning behaviors and motivational teaching. Aside from establishing the background of the present study, this chapter includes information that is highly relevant to a discussion on the visible and invisible manifestations of motivation and their origins. The section is divided into four major subsections: 1) A description of the Socioeducational Model and Self-Determination Theory. A significant amount of research attention in the field of L2 motivation has focused on these two theories, leading to the development of the L2 Motivational Self-System, a primary focus of this thesis. 2) A description of some more dynamic theories of motivation, that focus on the capacity of motivation to change at various timescales. These theories, though less present in motivation research than the two previously mentioned, contributed significantly to the Complex Dynamic Systems approach employed in the present study. 3) A presentation of motivated learning strategies and behaviors. These behaviors illustrate potential visible forms of learner motivation that can be observed in the classroom (for a description of the classroom observation sessions, see the chapter on this project's methodology); these behaviors are crucial for conducting classroom observation sessions as they allow the researcher to see changes in student engagement. 4) A presentation of motivational teaching strategies and teacher qualities. Understanding the qualities generally accepted as being associated with motivational teachers informs the analysis of the classroom environment to evaluate its motivating capacity; this element of the study helps focus the classroom observation sessions while still allowing for a thorough study of student behaviors.

II.2.a) The SM and SDT: major trends in motivation research. To shed light on factors thought to influence student motivation, this subsection outlines two theoretical frameworks of motivation that have been relevant to this study. First, perhaps one of the most seminal L2 motivation theories to date is presented, Gardner's Socioeducational model (SM). This model presents motivation as being constructed of three principal components: the intended effort for learning a language, the reason one has for wanting to learn it, and attitudes

towards the learning process (Ushioda, 1996). Gardner applied this definition to his work with various communities in Canada, which ultimately led to a body of research that guided motivation studies for decades. Simply put, his theory posits that students with a high aptitude for learning and whose main drive for learning the language is a desire to be associated with the target culture would be most likely to put forth the necessary effort to master a language. Other factors, such as the learning context, also could play a role in learning success, but this desire to identify with speakers of the L2 was thought to be key to creating long-term, durable engagement (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). This supposition is present in other frameworks as well, including Freddi's Venetian Language Teaching Methodology, which groups motivation and attitudes towards the L2 community as two of the many affective elements in language learning (cited in Caon, 2006). Moving forward, Gardner's notions would be applied to macro-level contexts, often using questionnaires, allowing researchers to make broad, general statements about the attitudes of entire learner communities, always tied to a one's desire to identify with the L2 culture (Dörnyei, 2003; Ushioda, 1996). Later on, however, this construct would be modified, at least as it applies to studying English; as English is not closely related to a single culture, a learner's motivation more often stems from an interest in being part of an international community (Ushioda, 2006).

Next, the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is described along with its novel approach for analyzing student engagement. This theory emerged partly as a call for motivational research that could be more readily translated into classroom practice and account for factors other than feelings towards the L2 community (Ushioda, 1996); it defines motivation as the result of the learner's competence, his autonomy in selecting learning strategies, and the relevance of a learning task to his goals (Birdsell, 2013).

As mentioned earlier, this project was carried out principally through the lens of the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) and the L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS). So while the theories mentioned above are not the main focus, Larsen-Freeman (2015) points out the pertinence of these models for establishing a well-rounded view of learner motivation. CDST and L2MSS both insist on the importance of all factors in one's learning experience, including not only the classroom but also one's background and attitudes, and measuring changes in these elements over various timescales. As such, the following subsections

describes these key motivation theories in more detail and provide examples of past studies that helped to inform the current project.

II.2.a.i) Motivation in Gardner's Socio-educational Model. For decades, Gardner's definition of motivation has dominated language acquisition research. Essentially, he explains motivation as being characterized by one's efforts to master a language, combined with an internal desire to learn it and a positive attitude toward the L2 learning process (Ushioda, 1996). Moreover, Gardner (2005) posits that motivation is more than just one's reasons for learning a language; it is a multi-faceted concept that should not be reduced to one or two measures. It is the result of one's goals, attitudes, actions, and experiences with the L2.

According to Gardner (2007), two principal types of motivation exist, language learning motivation (LLM) and classroom motivation (CM). The former is relatively stable; it is based on one's attitudes towards the language, reasons for learning it, and openness to new cultures and ideas in general. The latter, however, is a bit more dynamic, as it can be influenced not only by one's long-held beliefs, but also by the immediate classroom context; one's peers, the teacher, learning activities, and the setup of the classroom are just a sampling of the factors that might influence one's attitudes towards the L2 and the amount of effort put into learning. Gardner (1996) explains that while CM does not seem to have a significant impact on L2 learning, LLM has a strong, positive correlation with L2 success, particularly when related to positive attitudes towards the L2 community.

Using this perception of motivation, Gardner (1960) developed a Socio-educational Model (SM) to help explain its role in foreign language mastery. He insisted that, prior to this model, numerous equations and tools had been created to study aptitude as the only important variable in language acquisition, while ignoring the innumerable other variables that might influence a student's L2 success. Consequently, the SM is meant to explain how a learner's attitudes and beliefs, referred to as orientations, are mediated by motivation to influence learning.

From the beginning, Gardner's main focus was on a concept known as integrativeness; students with a strong integrative orientation have a powerful admiration for members of the L2 community, potentially to the point of wanting to adopt some of their traits and identify with them. It is this feeling that, when mediated by motivation, pushes students to seek

exposure to the target language and employ a variety of learning strategies, resulting in greater proficiency (Gardner, 1960; Sadighi & Zarafshan, 2006). Ushioda (2006) and Yashima (2000) describe this orientation as being unique to L2 motivation research, as it is a phenomenon that cannot be experienced in other academic fields.

In addition to integrativeness, Gardner & Lambert (1959) discuss an instrumental orientation, also capable of stimulating motivated learning behaviors. Contrary to integrativeness, the instrumental orientation is experienced when learners study a language for external motives, often for academic or professional advancement, rather than for a personal interest. Researchers point out that, although both of these orientations can influence students' motivation, integrativeness, when coupled with aptitude, seems to have the strongest positive correlation with student achievement.

Notions similar to integrative and instrumental motivation have been used in a variety of contexts to describe what pushes a student to choose a language. Pavesi (1994), for example, presents findings from a series of questionnaires in different Italian universities, asking students the reason for their choice of foreign language course. Data show that students largely chose English because of its importance in the professional world, with only a small portion expressing personal interest. While Pavesi does not refer specifically to Gardner's two constructs, the similarity is striking and shows the importance of these concepts in L2 research.

To more precisely identify learners' attitudes, orientations, and learning behaviors, Gardner devised an Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner, 2004). Masgoret & Gardner (2003) explain the various constructs this battery seeks to measure; first, it analyzes motivation separately from integrative and instrumental measures. Motivation is measured using items relating to one's language learning behaviors. Integrativeness, on the other hand, is measured according to one's attitudes towards the L2 community or foreigners in general. Finally, one's general attitudes towards learning the L2 are measured as being either instrumental or integrative.

It is important to note that, despite some confusion on the use of instrumental and integrative orientations, Gardner (2007) insists that these constructs are not part of his definition of motivation. Through his SM, he illustrates how learners can be pushed by an instrumental orientation, integrative orientation, various factors in the learning environment,

or any combination of these variables. These orientations are then processed by motivation to push students' behaviors relating to their language learning.

Moving forward, the integrative and instrumental constructs would be singled out from the SM and applied to numerous contexts to understand the reasons students chose an L2. Chen, Warden & Cheng (2005) present one such study, focusing on Taiwanese students learning English; they used the SM to ascertain which orientations were the most present amongst learners at different levels. Other researchers use these two constructs to make general comments about L2 motivation in a society; Cecioni (1994), for example, explains how L2 motivation in Italy becomes increasingly instrumental as students progress in their studies, particularly among university students majoring in business and sciences. Finally, Ibba (1994), illustrates how knowing students' orientations has been used in curriculum development; in the Medical ESP course she cites, for example, students are thought to be both instrumentally motivated, desiring to present at conferences and publish research papers in English, and integratively motivated, wanting to be part of a larger international community. Knowing these uses for English informed the creation of learning activities and course objectives.

In the following subsections, several studies that use the SM and Gardner's various constructs are presented to illustrate the research trends that have informed the present study. The subsections are organized as follows: The first presents studies that have isolated integrative and instrumental orientations from the SM, given their strong presence in the literature. Next, more comprehensive studies are presented to illustrate a wider array of variables that can influence learning outcomes. Finally, critiques and limitations of the SM are discussed to better establish the theoretical context of the present study.

II.2.a.i.1) Integrative motivation, instrumental motivation and L2 success. Despite Gardner's (2005) insistence on the multifaceted nature of motivation, a number of studies isolate two orientations from the Socioeducational Model (SM), integrative and instrumental, and focus on them as the sole attitudes capable of guiding student behaviors; researchers generally seek to determine either which type of motivation has the strongest presence in a group of learners, or which orientation is most closely connected to L2 learning effort and achievement. One tendency in SM research measures trends in student attitudes; often, questionnaires are administered for the purpose of determining with which orientation,

integrative or instrumental, participants most strongly identify. Beyond identifying types of student motivation, some SM research has also gone a step further and attempted to correlate motivation type with L2 learning behaviors. The following studies are therefore interesting for the present project because they offer crucial insight on general student attitudes, which has helped to guide the methodology of this project.

Vaezi's (2008) questionnaire to undergraduates studying English in an Iranian university presents one such example; this analysis reveals that that, at least in certain contexts, instrumental motivation for learning English can be significantly higher than integrativeness. As with Ghazvini & Khajehpour (2011), learners reported being initially motivated by integrative measures or cultural interests while in high school. Vaezi (2008) reports, however, that this orientation changed upon entering university, an event which brought to the foreground the importance of study abroad programs, reading academic articles in English, and understanding new technologies; these new elements caused learners to think more about practical needs for English, thereby increasing instrumental motivation. Similar findings appear in several contexts even where students have significant daily contact with the L2, including students in an international university in Thailand (Wimolmas, 2012) and students enrolled in a Turkish university where English was the medium of instruction (Kirkgöz, 2005); in all cases, students thought of English only in terms of helping them get a good job with a high salary after graduation.

Though the above studies show that instrumental motivation often prevails at the university level, numerous other analyses indicate that a clear dominance does not always exist. Though this phenomenon has been noticed largely with English majors, notably in Iranian universities (Chalak & Kassaian, 2010; Choubsaz & Choubsaz, 2014), Moiinvaziri (2007) broadens the scope to include students who take English only as an elective course. Students in this experiment reported having high levels of both integrative and instrumental motivation. Irie (2003) reports similar findings from a meta-analysis of many studies conducted in Japanese universities; while students in many reports claimed that they appreciated the professional advantages obtained by having a high English proficiency, many still reported an equally strong interest in English speaking communities and a desire to visit them.

While the aforementioned studies are useful for identifying general patterns in student attitudes, they fall short of describing the implications of these orientations on learning effort.

Some researchers have attempted to fill this gap by correlating SM orientations to learning behaviors and success. This trend in SM research is crucial, as Liu's (2007) study illustrates; she worked with students majoring in business and engineering, enrolled in English classes at a Chinese university. She found that most participants studying English acknowledged the its instrumental usefulness, in terms of facilitating international tourism and achieving their professional goals, but very few expressed integrative attitudes. This information was used to explain why so many of the students stopped taking English after passing the required number of credit hours.

Just as Liu's (2007) study shows the pitfalls of having too low a measure of integrativeness, numerous others have shown the positive outcomes of having a high level of integrativeness, such as higher motivation and greater persistence in L2 learning (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977). Coleman's (1995) study of foreign language majors in British universities highlights how a high measure of this orientation leads to greater L2 success; Coleman consistently found that integratively motivated students received higher course grades. Similarly, Sadighi & Zarafshan (2006) reinforce the positive role of integrativeness; they consistently found that integratively motivated students tended to use a wider range of different strategies.

Surprisingly, the value of integrativeness is not universally accepted. Particularly in the ESP context, instrumentality has been found to have a strong effect on learning effort and desire to master L2 English. Responding to the dearth of research on language learning amongst non-language majors, Lozinguez-Ben Gayed & Rivens Mompean (2009) conducted an L2 motivation study in an ESP course at Tunisian university. Researchers administered questionnaires before and after students completed a class project about internet etiquette, a project well aligned with their technology-related degree programs. They found that students reported increased levels of instrumentality following the activity, feeling that it helped them develop necessary professional and academic skills. The questionnaire also revealed that this stronger instrumental orientation ultimately led to greater motivation and greater desire to master English. These findings are echoed in Al-Tamimi & Shuib's (2009) study with learners in an ESP course in a Yemeni university. Questionnaires and interviews revealed largely instrumental reasons for learning English, with many reporting that they studied English only because it was required by the university, or because they felt it would help them obtain a job

later on; personal uses for English were also present, such as listening to anglophone music or watching foreign films. Integrative measures, however, were weaker, with only some expressing an admiration for anglophone societies. Still, motivation remained high amongst students, who reported a desire for additional hours of English instruction in their degree program.

Other studies suggest that both integrativeness and instrumentality need to be encouraged to allow for a maximum level of student motivation. Shaaban & Ghaith (2000), for example, found that, for students enrolled in a pre-University English for Academic Purposes course, integrativeness was strongly associated with a strong instrumental orientation. Students exhibiting both orientations together were found to have higher levels of motivation than those identifying with just instrumentality. Al-Qahtani (2013) reinforces these sentiments in his study with students completing an ESP course as part of their medical studies in a university in Saudi Arabia. His questionnaire analysis determined that students felt both instrumental and integrative orientations at similar levels, leading them to employ a variety of learning strategies to achieve greater proficiency.

The studies in this subsection represent a major trend in SM research; they indicate that students' attitudes and orientations may have a powerful role in determining how much effort a learner will put forth. Liu (2007) suggests that low measures of integrativeness lead students to abandon their English studies, while Sadighi & Zarafshan (2006) show that those with high levels of integration use a wider array of learning strategies. In other contexts, an instrumental orientation seemed associated with motivated learning behaviors (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009; Lozinguez-Ben Gayed & Rivens Mompean, 2009).

Despite the value of these findings, it is important to note the uniqueness of the results of studies focusing on ESP courses; students in the studies referenced above all reported strong instrumental orientations, which were at least partly related to higher levels of motivation. These findings are important to the present study's analysis on learner motivation in university ESP courses, as they suggest that factors other than one's orientation may affect learning behaviors. Though Gardner (2007) does stress that numerous elements need to be considered when measuring motivation, such elements do not consistently appear in SM studies. The following subsection will therefore present some studies which take the SM a bit further, taking

into these account additional factors and explaining their impact on L2 learning; such studies attest to the dynamic nature of motivation, providing a basis for the present study.

II.2.a.i.2) Towards a dynamic view of motivation in the Socio-educational Model. Although integrative and instrumental orientations have received the bulk of SM research attention, Gardner (1996) insists that these orientations should be considered only as parts of the larger Socio-educational Model, to be measured separately from motivation. Orientations are antecedents of motivation, and can include any combination of instrumental or integrative orientations, and attitudes towards the learning environment, just to name a few (Gardner, 2007). These orientations are crucial for understanding motivation, as Masgoret & Gardner (2003) found that they are all individually connected to L2 success, but motivation has a stronger correlation than any orientation alone. The following studies therefore provide deeper analyses using the SM, with the same reliance on the integrativeness and instrumentality, but also an inclusion of other factors.

Yashima's (2000) experiment with students enrolled in English courses at a Japanese university give an idea of other orientations that can exist. Instrumentality and integrativeness were both featured in students' responses with varying impacts on motivation, but so the desire to have international friends; this construct had one of the strongest positive correlations with motivation. Chen, Warden & Chang (2005) added another orientation from a project conducted with Chinese learners: Chinese Imperative. This construct represents a desire to succeed on the high-stakes tests that are less often found in other cultures. They found that this orientation, with its inclusion of items on family obligation and university admission measures, resulted in higher levels of motivation for learning English.

Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant & Mihic (2004) took a more dynamic approach in their analysis and revealed additional factors, including the classroom environment and experiences with L2 success also influence learners' enthusiasm and level of effort they put in to learning; contrary to integrativeness, these classroom orientations were subject to change throughout a course, as students' questionnaire responses differed from the beginning of their course to the end of the course. This study highlights the dynamic nature certain orientations and their power to influence student motivation in real time.

The above studies underscore the notion that a myriad of factors influence learner motivation and engagement. Students of different foreign languages, at various stages of learning and in different contexts show the importance of culture, family attitudes, and success rates in determining learning behaviors (Gardner, 1960; Gardner et al, 2004). Still, as Masgoret & Gardner (2003) said, many individual studies fail to reliably prove the importance of any one orientation or measure in language learning. Yashima (2000) reinforces this notion, with the finding that all orientations are positively correlated with motivation. Still, Gardner et al's (2004) results provide a direction in which to continue for the present study; though stable orientations like integrativeness remained constant across the two questionnaire trials, the learning environment showed a much large fluctuation. The study highlights the need for a deeper analysis of classroom motivational changes in real-time to more precisely understand the factors that have greatest impact on student engagement and learning behaviors; such an analysis was not performed in the SM studies referenced above. The following subsection outlines how the present study builds on current SM research by offering a more comprehensive approach to studying motivation.

II.2.a.i.3) The Socio-educational Model and the present study. Though not the main theoretical framework guiding this study, the Socio-educational Model (SM) and its corresponding research has provided several important implications for the present study. Perhaps the most important consideration is that of integrativeness, a construct claimed by Gardner (1960) and Yashima (2000) to be a major element in stimulating motivation and leading to L2 success with a wide body of research to support it. Sadighi & Zarafshan (2006) and Clément, Gardner & Smythe (1977) reinforce this notion with studies in different contexts showing integrativeness leading to more intense learning effort and wider strategy use. Still, its value has been called into question as Al-Tamimi & Shuib (2009) also illustrate the power of the instrumentality in generating learner motivation. Therefore, for the purposes of the present study, the concept of integrativeness needs to be reconsidered.

One of the main issues with integrativeness, as it exists in the SM, is that it is perhaps only relevant in rare cases, such as Canada and other bilingual societies, given the larger role the L2 has in everyday life (Dörnyei, 2003). Integrativeness is unlikely to exist in many other contexts, however, as learners have little exposure to the L2; as a result, their opinions and

attitudes regarding the L2 community are unlikely to be developed or specific enough to have an impact on their learning behaviors (Yashima, 2000). This point is important for the officially monolingual countries considered in the present study, France and Italy. Furthermore, integrativeness is complicated in the case of English learning, because English is rarely associated with one specific culture; consequently, learners do not have a target L2 community on which to base their orientation, as they often just learn English to develop a more international persona within their own communities (Ushioda, 2006). As the previous subsections illustrate, studies in the ESP context indicate a large presence of instrumental motives, suggesting that students are mostly thinking about their professional uses for English, and less about their admiration of the culture; consequently, a deeper analysis of learner motivation needs to take the concept of integrativeness and broaden it so that it also includes some instrumental-type measures that are personally valued by the learner. The present study has therefore chosen a different measure, the L2 Ideal Self (explained in detail in the following chapter on the theoretical framework); this construct focuses on one's self concept, insisting that motivation is dependent more on how one sees the L2 fitting into his or her future life, rather than a strict identification with a specific culture (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Such a construct allows for highly-valued personal goals, even professional or academic, can be powerful motivators.

With regard to its view of L2 motivation, research under the SM often focuses solely on integrativeness and instrumentality, even if it allows for other orientations. For the purposes of the present study, such a limited perspective oversimplifies L2 motivation. Birdsell (2013) and Burstall (1978) explain that many orientations and types of motivation can exist; they can come from a desire to have foreign friends, wanting to learn a language for the prestige associated with multilingualism, the classroom environment, or numerous other factors. These different orientations are crucial for a well-rounded approach to studying learner behaviors because a learner very rarely identifies with only one orientation, but rather combinations of each. Thus, data should reflect the strength of the various orientations, instead of suggesting the presence of a single one. This point is a defining element of the dynamic approach taken in this study; as Gardner et al (2004) found that both classroom factors and stable attitude orientations can affect motivational intensity, the present study seeks to offer a comprehensive approach towards analyzing the causes of learners' behaviors.

Ushioda (1996) and Campbell & Storch (2011) suggest that the SM is overly simplistic and too much of its research ignores the learning context and its potential to influence motivation in real time. They explain that SM research is mostly quantitative in nature, with motivation and orientations being measured with the same questionnaire items. While useful for identifying students' long-held attitudes, such findings fail to shed light on how learners feel about the immediate learning situation. This study therefore responds to calls for a fuller analysis of the learning experience to understand motivation as a dynamic phenomenon.

The SM has often been critiqued for the simplistic way that motivation is described and the fact that many of its constructs are not easily adaptable to classroom practice; whereas many studies show a correlation between certain orientations and student engagement or L2 success, it remains relatively rare to see specific teaching strategies recommended or analyzed in SM studies (Dörnyei, 1994; Ushioda, 1996). While these critiques do not seek to deny the validity of the SM in certain contexts, they do provide points to consider in the present study. The following section describes the Self-Determination Theory. This framework addresses elements not often found in SM research in supposing that motivation is dynamic and can change according to numerous factors. This step towards a more complex approach is demonstrative of the trend in L2 motivation research and provides useful information for the present study.

II.2.a.ii) The Self-Determination Theory. Though not devised specifically for the language learning context, the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) has nevertheless become a principal framework for analyzing L2 motivation; given its capacity to identify factors that lead to intense learner engagement, the SDT has proven to be practical when analyzing the reasons for student behaviors (Dörnyei, 2005). Unlike the sharp distinction often made between the SM's integrativeness and instrumentality, the SDT considers that motivation exists on a continuum, falling somewhere between amotivation, extrinsic and intrinsic, with several motivation levels between stages (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

On the least motivated end of the SDT continuum is amotivation; amotivation occurs when learners are completely disinterested and disengaged in a task. This state is often brought about when the learner has no say in the choice of the task, does not feel competent to complete

it, and does not view the task as being valuable. It is generally characterized by a complete lack of action, often with learners not intending to complete the task (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Following amotivation, the middle of the continuum presents different phases of extrinsic motivation; simply put, extrinsic motivation occurs when a person completes a task that is imposed on them by an outside force, such as a boss or a teacher; this feeling can initially inspire intense engagement, but it is likely to subside significantly once the task is completed. This state is divided into four sublevels, each becoming progressively stronger in terms of engagement, desire for success, and internalization of the goal by the learner. The first sublevel is called external regulation; at this level learners are highly conscious of the fact that they are performing an action solely to satisfy an external force. In general, they wish to avoid negative repercussion or embarrassment, and so they do a task solely as a matter of compliance. Following this sublevel is introjected regulation; at this stage, tasks are slightly more personal, as they are generally completed to boost or protect one's ego. To that end, the social and external pressure still exists, meaning the individual is not necessarily satisfied when working towards the goal. In these two sublevels, motivation is likely to subside when the desired outcome is obtained or the negative effect has been avoided (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Moving closer towards the intrinsic end of the spectrum, though still external, Ryan & Deci (2000) describe identified regulation. This state distinguishes itself from external and introjected regulation in that the learner attaches some personal value to the task and, at some level, understands its importance. Finally, the last type of extrinsic motivation defined by Ryan & Deci (2000) is integrated regulation. Under this state of motivation, the learner is likely to feel that the task is highly congruent with their personal goals and that he or she had a significant role in choosing the task and how to complete it.

Lastly, at the other extreme of the SDT continuum is intrinsic motivation; this type of engagement occurs when a person completes a task because he or she finds it personally rewarding and valuable. It is separate from even the highly internalized forms of extrinsic motivation in that learners do not feel at all obligated to complete a task to meet a goal, but rather they complete it for enjoyment; as such it is thought to be an ideal form of motivation, predictive of high levels of long-term learner effort and engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2002). This form of motivation is considered highly personal, in that learners feel complete freedom in choosing their task and deciding the strategies to do so (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Three different types of intrinsic motivation (IM) have been described under the SDT: IM knowledge, IM accomplishments, and IM stimulation. Learners motivated by IM knowledge are excited by the idea of learning in general; they feel empowered by exploring new ideas and concepts. Those pushed by IM accomplishments are stimulated by being able to show off their knowledge and affirm their perceived competence. The IM stimulation is experienced by learners who appreciate the learning process; they revel in the social and cognitive challenges offered by a learning environment (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Brière, Senécal & Vallière, 1992). These different forms of IM do not occur on separate levels of the continuum, but rather represent just distinct versions of the same powerful intrinsic motivation.

The SDT has several useful implications for the present study, notably in that it has clearly implications for classroom practice (Dörnyei, 1994). As the SDT supposes that intrinsic motivation is key to unlocking learner enthusiasm and learning effort, it offers three ways that teachers can foster higher stronger IM: offering greater levels of learner autonomy, providing learning materials that are relevant to the learner, and creating activities with an optimal level of difficulty (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Autonomy is important because, as described in the SDT continuum, if students feel the choice to complete a task does not come from them, they are likely to possess higher levels of extrinsic motivation (Dörnyei, 2003); however, by allowing learners to choose their goals and delineate steps to achieve them, they are likely to feel more in control of their learning and invest greater energy. In regards to relatedness, students are thought to put forth more effort and experience greater satisfaction with their learning, if the task is connected to their interests. Teachers can therefore make an effort to adapt learning materials to students' lives (Weisman, 2012). Finally, with regard to the level of task difficulty, teachers need to provide activities that are not too difficult and not too easy. When students feel tasks are too easy, they see them as waste of time. On the other hand, tasks that are too difficult will be overwhelming and discouraging (Busse, 2013). Consequently, the SDT insists on an optimal level of challenge that is both cognitively stimulating but within a learner's capabilities. Contrary to the Socio-educational Model, whose research tends to focus on students' long-held attitudes, the SDT provides a clear framework for observing what happens in the classroom. By focusing on certain actions taken by the teacher, combined with the behaviors of the learners, the SDT offers information that is useful in the real-time analysis employed in the present study.

Underlining the SDT's capacity to analyze L2 motivation from a more dynamic perspective, Cowie & Sakui (2011) illustrate its usefulness in classroom research; their study uses questionnaires and interviews with English instructors at a university in Japan. Without prompting, participants immediately described their motivational teaching strategies using SDT terms. They discussed the importance of a keen awareness of students' interest and skills, setting achievable subgoals to make the task more manageable, and improving students' self-concepts. Such findings attest to the value of SDT in the field of language learning and shed light on necessary factors to consider in a study on classroom behaviors.

Given the value of intrinsic motivation in promoting student learning behaviors, the SDT has been applied to numerous contexts, including young learners and ESP, in an attempt to identify the factors most conducive to creating motivation (Brunton, 2009; Dörnyei, 1994; Ushioda, 1996). The different sublevels of the SDT have also been found to be highly applicable to other L2 motivation frameworks, including the construct of Directed Motivational Currents, and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory that guides this study (Dörnyei, Ibrahim, Muir, 2015; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). In the following subsections, different experiments are presented that highlight the versatility of this theory, the significant role its tenets have played in L2 research and its relevance to the present study.

II.2.a.ii.1) Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation. Just as research conducted under the SM often focused on integrativeness and instrumentality, a significant portion of SDT work has sought to measure the levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of learners in different contexts, sometimes seeking correlations with greater learning effort. Such studies show trends regarding dominant student attitudes that are relevant to the present study.

In his study on undergraduate English majors at universities in Thailand and Cambodia, Chumcharoensuk (2009) used a questionnaire to determine what type of motivation had the greatest presence in each of the two countries. Despite frequent reports that English majors are likely to be more intrinsically motivated, participants' responses in this case revealed that students in both countries were highly extrinsically motivated, with many claiming to be studying English to have job security in the future. Conversely, while working with non-English majors in a Chinese university, Wang (2008) found that students reported high levels of intrinsic motivation, in the form of wanting to increase their general knowledge base and

seek out new challenges, as well as extrinsic motivation, in the form of wanting to pass important tests and obtain their degrees, and intrinsic motivation. The findings of these studies also highlight the necessity of considering different motivational orientations, as participants may report multiple motives pushing their behaviors simultaneously, of which some may differ than from what is expected.

Additionally, work done under the SDT has attempted to discover which forms of motivation are have the strongest correlations to student engagement and effort. De Naeghel, Van Keer, Vansteenkiste, & Rosseel (2012) present one example, in a study focusing on young learners' L1 reading habits. Students in an elementary school were given a questionnaire regarding their reading habits and attitudes, both for reading for school and reading for pleasure. While both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations were found, results indicated that those reporting more extrinsic motives, such as feeling compelled to read for school, were found to have high academic reading frequency, but low personal reading frequency. Conversely, those who expressed more intrinsic motives reported high levels of both personal and academic reading frequency and much more positive attitudes towards the activity. Artelt (2005) reinforces the value of intrinsic motivation, even across cultures; he conducted a questionnaire study with students in 26 different countries to understand motivation for L1 reading. His results demonstrate that students in all countries, when intrinsically motivated, consistently use more learning strategies, such as searching for the definitions of unfamiliar words and reviewing new concepts. These conclusions point to the value of intrinsic motivation in establishing more powerful forms of engagement.

Also in the situations of L2 learning, Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand (2000) report similar results in a study of anglophone students completing a French immersion course in a Canadian university. A questionnaire revealed that while many students expressed a mix of extrinsic and intrinsic motives, those with a higher level of the latter expressed more desire to persist in the French learning and greater satisfaction with the choice to study the language.

Though research in the ESP context is limited, SDT notions have appeared in several English language courses at the university level. In a report on student attitudes in an ESP course at a technical university in France, Brown (2007) used SDT to determine what elements of a language exam make it more motivating. Students in the experiment were divided into three groups and given a listening exam. In one group, students had the freedom to choose

between several different listening subjects for the test, with only one being an audio related to their majors. In another group, students were explicitly told that, as opposed to the other group, they were being denied a choice and had to accept what was given to them. Finally, a control group was not informed about any choice.

Their analysis found that students in the choice group very rarely chose audios relating to their majors, but instead preferred documents relating to university life. These students went on to report the highest levels affective engagement and intrinsic motivation. This finding presents an important consideration for the present study as it calls into question the value of ESP elements in a course. While any cause for this finding is only speculation, it is possible that students felt the specialized audio would be too difficult for an exam setting, or perhaps university students, given their young age and lack of experience in their respective fields, do not feel a strong connection to their fields of study.

The lower intrinsic motivation for ESP courses is echoed in Brunton's (2009) analysis of Thai hotel employees taking a combined GE and ESP course related to their jobs. While interviews and questionnaires revealed that students were generally satisfied with their combined course, they largely expressed a preference for the GE elements. As the SDT would predict, they felt the GE lessons were more empowering and offered them language that could be used outside of their work; they thought the ESP was needed in that it would be more likely to meet the demands of their employer. This latter point helps explain the lower satisfaction in ESP courses; motivation is likely to be low on the extrinsic end of the SDT spectrum, as participants interpret these lessons as being necessary to satisfy their bosses. The GE elements, on the other hand, appear to inspire a form of engagement closer to the intrinsic end of the SDT spectrum; learners might feel the course is important to their jobs, but they also feel that it is useful for more personal goals.

The above studies, particularly those conducted in ESP courses, illustrate the importance of considering SDT elements in the dynamic approach used in the current study. Participants in both analyses show higher levels of intrinsic motivation when completing GE tasks, sometimes characterized by greater motivational intensity and more positive emotions. Such results underline the need for a fuller analysis of the effect of classroom activities in studying ESP motivation. The following subsection sheds some light on the SDT has been

used to provide this type of comprehensive analysis through identifying factors that impact motivated learning behaviors.

II.2.a.ii.2) The Self-Determination Theory and Motivation Dynamics. Aside from identifying patterns in student attitudes, a common theme in SDT research is to focus on what classroom elements most often lead to the highest levels of strong, internalized forms of motivation (Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 2001). This subsection describes how such studies show the versatile and dynamic nature of motivation, and the various factors that influence it.

Several studies have focused on some of the recommendations of SDT work, notably to encourage learner autonomy and to offer an appropriate level of challenge with learning tasks (Wu, 2003). Busse (2013) and Busse (2014), for example, highlight the importance of providing an optimal level of difficulty when designing learning tasks; these studies present questionnaire and interview data showing the changing levels of engagement of first-year students majoring in German in British universities. The latter study explains that while students start the year with high levels of intrinsic motivation and intense effort, these positive feelings almost inevitably subside as the year goes on. The former study sheds light on the main causes of this decrease, as students report that their writing and reading lessons are too difficult and their grammar lessons move too quickly. Others complained that some of their courses were too easy because they were not conducted in German, and so did not allow students to develop interactional skills. Consequently, as students felt less capable of achieving their ideal level of German proficiency, they lost confidence in their language skills, and they either drop out of the program or put forth significantly less effort. Such findings underline the importance of providing an appropriate level of challenge in learning tasks, finding a balance between not overwhelming the learners and not boring them.

With regard to autonomy, the SDT also maintains that the learner's perceived freedom in choosing a goal plays a key role in their learning engagement. Birdsell (2013) presents results from a group of students taking a mandatory English class at a Japanese university. Using students' creativity in completing a course assignment as an indication of engagement, this experiment used an SDT questionnaire to identify what type of motivation was most correlated to creativity. Students completed a task which was later evaluated by designated creativity experts and given a score. They found that students who reported the most

internalized types of SDT motivation, identified regulation and intrinsic motivation had the highest levels of creativity, while those who felt an external obligation to study English had lower levels. These creative students were, at least in part, motivated by feeling that the choice to learn the L2 was more internal, rather than imposed, illustrating the usefulness of the learner's high level of perceived autonomy.

Other studies support the role of autonomy but suggest the teacher is responsible for creating it. Noels (2001), for example, presents data from a questionnaire study conducted in an American university with students in a various sections of an elementary Spanish class. Students were asked to comment on the teacher's communicative style and how much he or she encouraged autonomy and learner independence; this information was later compared with data on students' motivation. In the end, she found a negative correlation between reports of the teacher being too controlling and intrinsic motivation; high levels of perceived autonomy, however, were positively correlated to intrinsic motivation and perceived competence. Noels, Clément & Pelletier (1999) conducted a similar study with questionnaires to anglophone students taking a French immersion course in a Canadian university. Again, researchers found high levels of intrinsic motivation amongst students who felt their teacher offered them high levels of autonomy.

While the studies described above focus specifically on learner autonomy and the level of difficulty presented by the learning task, they are indicative of a trend in motivation research to analyze elements in the learning environment. Their findings represent a necessary step towards a more dynamic approach to studying learner motivation by showing the need to study the antecedents of student attitudes and behaviors (Wu, 2003). The following subsection expands on this concept further through a discussion of the SDT's relevance to the present study.

II.2.a.ii.3) The Self-Determination Theory and the present study. As explained previously, the SDT has a major presence in L2 motivation research and has several implications for the present study, notably for its capacity to understand the factors that are most conducive to long-term student engagement and effort.

One of the most useful elements of the SDT is its reference to three different types of intrinsic motivation. Given the value attached to this construct in language learning, it is

helpful for both researchers and teachers to understand the origins of students' intrinsic motivation. The concept of IM stimulation, as described above, is of particular interest to the present study because it helps identify which stimuli in the classroom lead to the highest engagement levels.

Still, the concept of intrinsic motivation needs to be expanded in the context of this study so that it more fully encompasses possible reasons for learning effort. Ushioda (2011) criticizes the theory for focusing too much on the value of intrinsic motivation. This focus is problematic, particularly in a typical classroom environment; Byman & Kansanen (2008), for example, claim that it is impossible for intrinsic motivation to be consistently high in a classroom setting, even in the best conditions; every class will have a variety of students with widely differing goals and needs, so it is not feasible to spark everyone's intrinsic motivation all the time. Instead, teachers may find similar levels of success by catering to students' desire to obtain good grades and succeed in their studies. Williams (2002) seems to support this conclusion by expressing that certain students are primarily motivated by a strong desire to obtain good grades, even if that means working towards goals that are mandated by a school curriculum and not personal chosen. The findings of these two reports confirm Ushioda's (2011) assertion that extrinsic motives can be equally powerful. According to her, the SDT should be reoriented so that it acknowledges that one's identity goals, often related to more external, professional objectives, can be powerful motivators. Malcolm (2011) repeats this concept in a study with university students in Saudi Arabia completing a medical degree taught entirely in English. Initially, several students failed their first year due to low English proficiency. These students resolved to repeat the year, with all participants reporting greater gusto, with some having sought out experiences abroad, others having practiced with more proficient peers, and still others having found alternative ways to work autonomously on their language skills. Despite their effort to improve their English stemming almost exclusively from their desire to obtain a medical diploma, the motivation, albeit extrinsic, was sustainable over the course of their studies. The author concludes with recommendations that support a more comprehensive study of L2 learning motivation, because the decision to learn a language is almost always connected to some other goal. The present study attempts to bring these points together by focusing on the students' self-concept, allowing for a consideration of

classroom factors relating to the IM stimulation, but also to their long-term goals and beliefs about learning English.

Another useful element of SDT research is the recommendations it provides to practitioners for fostering high levels of intrinsic motivation, such as offering opportunities for autonomous learning. Still, similar to a problem cited in the Socio-educational Model, the SDT has been criticized for being difficult for teachers to apply to classroom practice. Denney & Daviso (2012), for example, found that teachers understood the importance of employing motivational strategies in the classroom, even referencing SDT terms. They did not, however, report regularly using these techniques in the classroom nor really understanding how. As this problem appears to be a recurring theme in motivation research, this study attempts to shed light on the specific strategies that stimulate effort by relying on both classroom observations and interviews with students.

In the following section, other frameworks often referenced in motivation research are presented, as they show common themes and directions that are important in this project. Though they have not necessarily dominated the field like SM and SDT, the following theories illustrate the trend towards a more dynamic approach in L2 motivation research and offer necessary notions to consider when analyzing student engagement.

II.2.a.iii) **Further Trends in L2 Motivation Research.** While it is important to discuss the SM and the SDT for their value in understanding student attitudes towards language learning, a section of this chapter is also dedicated to the various theoretical notions that highlight the importance of factors in the learning environment in shaping student motivation. Such theories include the Tripolar Model (Balboni, 2014a), the Expectancy Value Theory (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000), the Control Value Theory of Achievement Emotions (Pekrun & Perry, 2014), the Self-Regulated Learning Theory (Ainley & Patrick, 2006), and the Framework of Learning Motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). While each of these systems perceive motivation in a different way, they are similar in that they underline the crucial role of one's learning experience. They also diverge from past research in that they describe motivation as having a clear affective element, suggesting the potential for change in a student's attitudes as he progresses in his learning and has various positive and negative L2 experiences. These models have responded to a call for more detailed accounts of the factors affecting student

engagement at various timescales; Ushioda (2013) cites a need for studies that explain how motivation can change both short-term, during courses and lessons, and long-term, over several years as learning contexts and life experiences change. What these various constructs have shown is that an understanding of learner motivation cannot be limited to understanding L2 attitudes and orientations alone, as motivation is subject to constant and regular evolutions, depending on an evaluation of the learning context.

This section also explains some of the common factors that affect motivation that may not be related at all to the L2 or the learning environment. Of course, from the beginning, Gardner has talked about how the amount of effort a learner will exert in learning a language is strongly correlated to students' feelings about the L2 speaking community (Gardner, 1960). While this idea has persisted for decades, other elements seem more consistent and easier to measure. First, Burstall (1978) tells us that one's socioeconomic status could be have a determining role in creating motivation for language learning; those who have higher social status tend to receive FL courses with more positive feelings. Additionally, gender has come up several times in FL research; girls regularly report being happier to learn a new language than boys, regardless of what the language is. More recently, Brown (2007), found that giving students a choice in what learning activities to complete can lead to higher levels of engagement and general positive feelings. Together, the diverse nature of these factors, along with a myriad of others, show the importance of an all-encompassing approach to analyzing L2 learning motivation, anchored in a thorough understanding of numerous frameworks and models.

The following descriptions therefore serve to illustrate the evolution of this field to better understand the context of the present study; while the SDT and SM have been lauded for their ability to identify students' attitudes and long-held beliefs, the frameworks described below highlight a recent trend in L2 research: studying a learner's tendency to constantly evaluate the learning situation when determining how much effort to exert on a task (Dörnyei, 2005). These theories in no way constitute an exhaustive list, but they do offer some insight on the important factors to consider when studying motivation from a dynamic perspective.

II.2.a.iii.1) *The Tripolar Model*. The Tripolar Model provides a practical framework that describes the origins of motivation and how it can be generated and fostered amongst

learners. As in other models, motivation for foreign language learning is thought to be distinct from other types of motivation because of the enormous effort required to master a new language, the need to accept the inevitability of errors and potential embarrassment, and necessity to consistently prioritize language learning over other tasks every day (Balboni, 2014a).

As its name would indicate, the Tripolar Model suggests that motivation comes from one, or a combination, of three activating factors: duty, need, and pleasure. These constructs, similar to tenets present in the SM and the SDT, offer a very clear and direct way to understand what arouses learner ambition (Balboni, 2014a).

Engagement and effort activated by a sense of duty is common in many school contexts, as the course and teaching materials are often imposed on the student, rather than chosen by him or her directly. The model states that duty can be hetero-directed, in cases where the teacher designs a curriculum without allowing input from the learners. In other situations, duty can be self-directed, when the learner makes a major effort to learn a language to obtain a good mark or to be appear competent in front of his or her peers. While duty may result in powerful and substantial learning motivation, such engagement is not thought to be attached to any positive emotionality on the part of the student; as such, the motivation is not durable and is not likely to lead to meaningful learning or long-term persistence (Caon, 2006).

Learning effort activated by a sense of need occurs when students feel the language can help them achieve a set objective, such as a promotion at work or the ability to communicate while on a trip abroad. While this type of emotional state can indeed stimulate intense learning engagement, its effects are, most often, temporary; once a learner reaches his or her objective, motivation wavers and effort is decreased. Such a case is often seen with university students, who might take a language course only to the level necessary to meet their degree requirements, but often stop upon reaching a level that allows them to get by easily enough in their daily interactions (Caon, 2006).

Finally, this model discusses the element of pleasure in L2 acquisition. Pleasure is experienced when the learning activity results in positive emotions or is cognitively gratifying. Given that this type of motivation is thought to be internalized and personally valued by the learner, it is said to often result in meaningful acquisition. Students guided by pleasure are

most likely to persevere in their language studies and achieve higher levels of proficiency (Caon, 2006).

Guided by this concept of learner motivation, Caon (2012) designed a study to understand attitudes towards learning French amongst Italian elementary school students. Administering questionnaires to students and interviewing teachers throughout Italy, this project sought to understand students' attitudes towards learning French and how they impacted motivation. The questionnaires focused on what students liked about learning French, why they chose to study it, what types of learning activities they liked doing, and their experiences using French.

The study found that many students did not actively choose to study French, but rather it was forced on them as the only option by their schools; many cited both a preference for learning Spanish or German and an awareness that English would be more useful. A portion of students, however, did comment on their appreciation for the French language, noting how sophisticated it sounded and how easy it was to learn. Students also largely reported that the main motivators in the classroom were the teacher, fun and novel learning activities, and personal attitudes.

These findings are supported by the Tripolar Model, which would suppose that when students experience pleasure, either through intriguing learning activities or cognitively satisfying lessons, motivation is stronger. The model also helps to explain the low motivation and negative attitudes towards studying French; young learners are unlikely to engage with the material and make a systematic effort to learn when they are only taking French because their school obliges them to do so. These considerations are highly pertinent to the context of the present study; given that the learners in Caon's (2012) report being influenced by the teacher and the learning activities, his results indicate potential points to focus on during an analysis of student behaviors. Furthermore, the Tripolar Model describes three elements that are potentially highly relevant to an analysis of university students' attitudes during lessons; as many participants in this study take English courses either due to need or duty, given their curricular requirements and professional goals, the element of pleasure is important to analyze in real-time at the classroom level.

The following subsection describes the Expectancy Value Theory which, expanding a bit on the Tripolar Model, helps to explain how students determine which types of learning tasks generate feelings of pleasure or appeal to a sense of duty.

II.2.a.iii.2) Expectancy Value Theory. As one of the key theories explaining achievement motivation, the Expectancy Value Theory (EVT) provides a framework through which researchers analyze how an individual's decision to set a certain goal and the ensuing effort to achieve it can be explained by their beliefs regarding the goal, the learning context, and their past performance on goal-related tasks (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

This theory states that numerous factors determine the amount of effort one exerts on a task. First, learners' initial interpretation of the task is based on the sociocultural context and their past experiences with similar tasks. In the L2 classroom, these points would suggest that an L2 that has negative connotations in the local community may be perceived in a bad light by the student, to the detriment of motivation. Furthermore, learners also think about their past successes to form an opinion about their current likelihood of success; if a university student struggled and performed poorly in English courses in high school, he will doubt his ability to do well in university English courses. To that end, one's self-concept and perceived competence are also principal factors in determining motivation (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Next, the learner interprets the learning experience. Judgments are constantly made regarding the teacher, the actions of other classmates, and the relevance of learning activities. The learning activities must be considered useful in progressing towards one's personally valued goals. This evaluation is then compared with the relative "cost" of performing the task; learners who feel that completing a task will require an amount of time and effort that is incongruent with the dividends provided by the task are unlikely to complete it. Students who positively interpret these factors in a learning situation are considered likely to put forth the necessary effort to complete a task and work towards a goal (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

While not commonly seen in the L2 context, the EVT has been used in certain situations to understand how learners feel about specific tasks. Mori (2002), for example, used the EVT to interpret questionnaire responses from students learning English in a Japanese university. Participants reported high measures on all aspects of the EVT, including a positive evaluation

of the usefulness of the learning activities, their capacity to complete tasks, and the classroom environment.

In other contexts, the EVT has helped to identify reasons why individuals have chosen to persist or stop performing a specific task. Human-Vogel & Rabe (2015) used a questionnaire to understand the factors that influence student engagement and effort in an engineering program in a South African university. These researchers concluded that student needs satisfaction was one of the strongest triggers of motivation and learning behaviors; students who felt that their degree program was helping them to achieve their goal and was providing them with necessary information were most likely to exert greater effort and persevere in their studies.

Reinforcing these results is another questionnaire study conducted by Taylor, Lekes, Gagnon, Kwan & Koestner (2012), regarding high school dropout rates amongst students who held part-time jobs in the United Kingdom. Participants were asked to evaluate how useful they found their high school studies and how much they personally valued receiving an education. They also answered similar questions regarding their part-time jobs. Similar to Human-Vogel & Rabe (2015), results indicate that students who felt their studies corresponded to their needs and goals were least likely to dropout. Students who indicate such positive feelings towards their job and not their studies were more likely to dropout and feel that school interfered too much with their job.

Though the EVT includes constructs similar to other motivation theories, the results of these studies underline how often students' are evaluating the learning environment and the strong impact these evaluations can have on learner motivation. Such a finding represent an important trend in motivation research, hinting at the dynamic nature of motivation, that plays an important role in the present study. The following subsection, which presents the Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions, presents a similar approach to understanding motivation, with a more direct focus on how students' evaluation of learning tasks and the learning environment influence learning behaviors.

II.2.a.iii.3) Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions. Proposed by Pekrun, the Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions (CVT) was born out of a need to better understand how a student's emotions influence behaviors. The CVT supposes that behaviors

are guided by achievement emotions (AE) which can be either positive or negative. These AE are determined by two different types of appraisals, the control appraisal, relating to the student's perceived control over learning activities and outcomes, and the value appraisal, relating to the student's perception of the utility of the task (Pekrun & Perry, 2014).

Pekrun & Perry (2014) define three different types of AE based on what research has indicated to be the most common emotions felt in academic contexts: those relating to the activity, those relating to a prospective assumption of success, and emotions coming from the retrospection that takes place after knowing one's result after an activity. In the first category, when students evaluate an activity, they may report feelings of enjoyment while completing it, leading to high levels of engagement, or they may experience boredom or frustration while repeating a task, leading to disengagement. Regarding prospective assumptions, increased effort may be activated by optimism or a strong hope for success, while feelings of hopelessness may result in lower levels of effort. Finally, in the period of retrospection, students might either be stimulated to maintain engagement by feelings of joy and pride with their results, or deterred by feelings of disappointment.

As determinants of a student's AEs, the CVT insists on the importance of the constant appraisals being performed by the student of the learning activity and objectives, known as control appraisals and value appraisals. The former originates in a learner's perceived power over the learning outcomes; learners make an assessment of how much their effort is likely to pay off with positive results. These appraisals can occur either before the task or after the task; in the first situation, a student might prepare for exam, for example, based on how much he or she is convinced that such preparation will be worth it. In the second case, a learner's emotions are triggered by their interpretation of the task; if they felt they did poorly because the test was exceptionally difficult or because the teacher is ineffective, their AE are less likely to be negatively impacted than if they considered the poor exam result was due to their lack of competence. Value appraisals comes from a student's assessment of how relevant an activity is to his or her long-term goals; these appraisals can be based on extrinsic goals, such as obtaining a job promotion, or on intrinsic goals, such as finding task personally rewarding (Pekrun & Perry, 2014).

Though not often used in the L2 context, Pekrun, Hall, Goetz & Perry (2014) present results supporting the constructs of the CVT from a motivation study of university students

taking a year-long psychology course. At various points throughout the year, researchers asked students to complete questionnaires regarding their attitudes towards the course and compared them to their test grades. Having identified boredom as one of the most present emotions at the university level and learning contexts in general, questionnaires focused on this particular emotion. Results confirmed the role of emotions in determining student behaviors, as those who rarely described feelings of boredom in class received higher grades and reported higher levels of motivation. Their findings also lent support to the role of appraisals, as students with high test marks, continued reporting the lowest levels of boredom, and further high test scores throughout the school year.

Reinforcing these findings, Ahmed, van der Werf, Minnaert & Kuyper (2010) report findings on students' learning appraisals and AEs in secondary mathematics classes. Using daily diary entries from students' to analyze their classroom behaviors, researchers found a significant correlation between appraisals and AEs, as would be predicted by CVT. Negative appraisals of the learning activity, for example, were often accompanied by feelings of boredom. Likewise, positive control appraisals and high self-confidence were generally reported alongside positive emotions like interest.

Both of these studies support a dynamic view of the motivation and student engagement that is a relevant to the present study. Researchers concluded that a variety of emotions, both positive and negative were experienced during a lesson, and that students changed often between extremes; these changes were often linked with a corresponding change in engagement and learning effort. Such findings not only validate the constructs of the CVT, but also indicate the importance of short-term motivation fluctuations, which are a major focus of this project. The following subsection describes the Self-Regulated Theory, which reiterates the importance of the learning context in determining student learning behaviors, a crucial consideration in the dynamic approach used in the present study.

II.2.a.iii.4) Self-Regulated Learning Theory. The Self-Regulated Learning Theory (SRL) was developed to explain how students constantly analyze learning activities in making determinations of how much effort to exert. This theory takes for granted that students are regularly evaluating their learning environment and the class's objectives when deciding and modifying their own personal goals. As such, learning is very directional and intentional, with

students having a significant degree of control over their own success and learning outcomes. Based on their motivation levels and their opinions about the classroom, students may choose to adopt any number of self-regulated learning strategies to achieve a goal (Ainley & Patrick, 2006). In line with many recent theoretical frameworks, it supposes that motivation and attitudes are subject to frequent changes based on students' evaluations of their learning environment (Ainley & Patrick, 2006).

In their explanation of the SRL, Butler & Winne (1995) point out that, when faced with a learning task, students immediately make assumptions about its objective, its practical value and the steps necessary to reach it. These assumptions are based on their past experiences, competence level, and general learning motivation. Once they have fully analyzed these objectives, students set corresponding goals, complete with an action plan and the adoption of several study strategies. At every step of the plan, students reevaluate their progress, considering any external feedback, and use these evaluations to determine their effort level for future tasks.

Though not frequently seen in L2 motivation research, the SRL has been applied to many other educational settings, showing its power to understand how students' attitudes influence behavior. In a study to determine what inspired the use of learning strategies in middle school students, Ainley & Patrick (2006) present results from a questionnaire that collected data on how students felt about two separate classroom activities and the strategies they used to complete each activity. Results consistently showed that effort and motivation were highest when interest in the task was highest. Such findings support the SRL in showing the role of student's interpretations of task in determining effort. The dynamic nature of engagement and motivation is also supported by these findings, given that students reported different effort levels and interest levels for each task.

This dynamic aspect of motivation and the role of students' task evaluations is echoed in Wolters & Pintrich's (1998) questionnaire study with middle school students in various subject areas. Their results confirmed that students had different attitudes and levels of motivation towards their mathematics, English, and social studies classes; as a result, their self-regulated learning practices were accordingly different for each class. A variety of social and cognitive factors were reported as impacting motivation and learning effort; self-efficacy, test anxiety, interest, and usefulness were all regularly reported as having different levels of

influence on student engagement, supporting the notion that students are constantly making judgments about the classroom context and adapting their learning strategies accordingly.

The SRL offers numerous considerations that are pertinent to the present study. As shown particularly in Ainley & Patrick's (2006) study, individuals tasks could have significant consequences on a learner's effort; this conclusion suggests a need for an analysis of student behaviors during lessons to understand more concretely the extent of the impact an individual task can have. Moving forward, the next subsection describes the Framework of Learning Motivation, which encompasses many of the elements described in the other theories mentioned in this chapter, including students' evaluations of the task and their attitudes towards the L2; these various elements are, in a sense, united in this framework, indicating a fuller range of factors that could influence L2 motivation.

II.2.a.iii.5) The Framework of Learning Motivation. Citing a need for a new theory on L2 motivation that has more clear classroom implications and a more comprehensive motivation analysis, Dörnyei (2001) proposes the Framework of Learning Motivation (FLM). This theory suggests that motivation comes from one, or a combination, of a three different activators: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level. The FLM, however, uses these three factors to rationalize learning behaviors in real time, rather than describing students' general attitudes.

Motivation triggered at the language level relates strongly to Gardner's orientations, integrativeness and instrumentality. This level is largely based on the student's opinions about the language and its speakers, how useful it can be, and the reputation this language has in the student's home community. Such beliefs are therefore socially-constructed and dependent on the L2's role in the student's society. These are often long-held beliefs that are resistant to change and may have effects of varying consequence on learning efforts (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

Like the language level, engagement inspired at the learner level is connected to various, relatively stable personality traits developed over the course of one's life. Such traits might include L2 self-confidence and perceived competence; one who feels apprehensive or anxious about performing in the L2 may in fact be discouraged from pursuing it further. Another example could be the learner's need for achievement; some students are more pushed

by a desire to excel or reach mastery than others, thus triggering a more substantial learning effort (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

Finally, at the learning situation level, one is pushed by the teacher, relationships with other students, and elements of the course design. Regarding the teacher, the learner is constantly making evaluations about a teacher's authoritative style, personality, and ability to interact effectively with students. The construct relating to relationships with other students is influenced by group cohesion and the structure of activities, whether individual, cooperative, or competition-based. Lastly, learners are also making regular judgments about the course design, and how effectively it meets their needs, how pertinent it is to their interests, and how feasible success is (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

Using the FLM, Bier (2013) designed a study with questionnaires, interviews, and a focus group to understand how Italian middle school students felt about learning English. The data collecting devices sought to identify students' feelings about English, the frequency with which they use it, and their feelings about the classroom environment and class activities. At the language level, Bier found that students did have a stronger integrative rather than instrumental orientation; while they recognized the importance of English for work, they also reported wanting to learn the language for travel and facilitating communication. At the learner level, students did report some feelings of anxiety and timidity when speaking, but still claimed to seek opportunities to speak during in their English lessons. At the learning situation level, students reported rather negative feelings about their learning environment, with many citing a lack of group cohesion, problems with the teacher, and disinterest in the learning activities. Bier concludes by highlighting the importance of the learning situation level in inspiring student effort, as the participants' negative responses resulted in low overall learning motivation, particularly as students advanced in their studies.

To show how this theory can be inserted into classroom practice, Dörnyei & Csizér (1998) present results of a questionnaire administered to Hungarian teachers of English language at various levels. Teachers were given a list of 51 motivational strategies to use the classroom and asked to rate them based on their importance and the frequency with which the teacher uses them. Results from this questionnaire were analyzed to provide a list referred to as the "10 commandments for motivating language learners;" the key strategies identified by the teachers mostly related to present learning activities in a clear way, fostering positive

relationships in the classroom, and refining students' image of future L2 use. Such findings are in line with what would be proposed by the FLM, as several of these strategies cater to the language level in that they work to convince the students of the importance of the language. The remaining strategies cater to the learning situation level, with recommendations that the classroom atmosphere being engaging and interesting and the teacher presents pertinent materials. The learner level, however, was not represented in teachers' strategies; the researchers explain that this is perhaps not surprising, as one's attitudes regarding one's own capacities are difficult to change in a classroom context.

The FLM constitutes one of the most comprehensive models for understanding the origins of students' attitudes and efforts towards learning an L2. By taking into account elements that can influence motivation on both short and long term scales, this framework applies constructs from several past motivational theories allowing for a much fuller analysis and clearer implications for classroom practice. The present study incorporates several elements of the FLM in its analysis, but seeks to provide more concrete explanations of the learning situation level; while the FLM accepts that numerous factors in the classroom environment affect L2 motivation, this study seeks to clarify this notion through the use of observation sessions to understand patterns across different classroom setups and identify principal motivation influencers. In so doing, the present study will be able to offer broader recommendations for teaching practice that could be applied across different contexts.

The following part of this chapter focuses on recommendations for motivational teaching practice; as teachers and teaching strategies appear as important motivators in several of the L2 motivational theories described in this chapter, including the FLM and the Self-Determination Theory, the next section describes the qualities and tools used by motivational teachers. These considerations are important for informing an analysis of student behaviors and determining what classroom factors affect motivation.

Summary

This subsection presents a variety of frameworks that have guided motivation research, both for learning an L2 and other subjects. A variety of perspectives are included in order to establish the most comprehensive definition of motivation possible.

First, Gardner's Socioeducational Model (SM) is presented, given the significant impact it has had on L2 learning research. The SM explains how students past experiences and beliefs regarding the L2 culture are mediated by motivation to determine the amount of effort students put into learning (Gardner, 1960). The main construct thought to inspire learning behaviors over a sustained period of time is referred to as integrativeness, characterized as an intense appreciation and admiration of the L2 culture (Gardner, 1960). The SM also presents instrumentality as being a possible motivator, when learners chose a language for more pragmatic reasons, such as finding a job of finishing a degree (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Many SM studies have focused on these two orientations, with some reporting the superiority of one over another for determining learning success; Coleman (1995) found that integrativeness was powerful motivator, while Al-Tamimi & Shuib (2009) revealed some motivation associated with instrumentality.

Other SM studies have taken a more dynamic approach and analyzed motivation in the classroom; Gardner et al (2004), for example, found that the learning environment played a large role in determining student engagement, as did numerous other orientation not often included in SM research. Still, Dörnyei (1994) and Ushioda (1996) claim that the SM's approach to analyzing motivation was too limited, not relevant to many learning contexts, and incapable of providing guidelines for classroom practice.

Responding to some of the reported problems with the SM, the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) describes motivation somewhat differently and provides some recommendations for increasing durable forms of motivation. The SDT presents motivation as occurring on a spectrum between amotivation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. Ryan & Deci (2000) describe that amotivation is the lack of any desire to do a task, often matched by a lack of effort. Extrinsic motivation occurs when the pressure to learn something comes from the external pressures, such as one's boss or family members. Lastly, intrinsic motivation occurs when a learner fully appreciates and accepts the learning goal and feels they are important on a personal level; this type of motivation is thought to be key in stimulating effort and student engagement over a long-term. The theory has been lauded due to its explicit recommendations for encouraging intrinsic motivation, which can be incorporated into teaching practice. The SDT would recommend that teachers offer activities and courses that

are interesting and relevant to the learners, encourage learner autonomy and provide an optimal level of difficulty that avoid both feelings of boredom and being overwhelmed (Birdsell, 2013).

Research in the SDT has generally insisted on the value of intrinsic motivation, while highlighting that students can be simultaneously intrinsically and extrinsically motivated. Noels et al (2000), for example, highlight this trend with a group of anglophone students completing a French immersion course in a Canadian university; students report varying levels of both orientations, but those with a stronger intrinsic orientation reported greater learner efforts.

Despite partially responding to calls for a theory that was more applicable to classroom practice, the SDT has received criticism similar to that of the SM. Ushioda (2011) notes that it needs to be reoriented to better incorporate identity factors rather than focusing too strongly on intrinsic motivation. By concentrating so strongly on the one orientation, research has only limited classroom applicability, as Byman & Kansanen (2008) explain that it is impossible for a lesson to be intrinsically motivating for all learners, all the time.

The following part of this subsection briefly presents an array of motivational frameworks that shed some light on the notion of classroom motivation. The Control Value Theory of Achievement Emotions explains how a student's emotional state and appraisal of the classroom environment and learning activity will determine his or her learning effort (Pekrun & Perry, 2014). Similarly, the Self-Regulated Learning Theory describes how students are constantly making judgements about learning activities based on the classroom environment and their own experiences; these judgements are then used to determine the amount of effort they will put into a learning task (Ainley & Patrick, 2006).

Lastly, the Framework of Learning Motivation (FLM) incorporates notions from many different theories by explaining that learner motivation exists at three different levels: the learning situation level, involving classroom elements, the learner level, stemming from one's perceptions of one's own skills, and the language level, determined by one's opinions of the L2 (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

Taken together, these models for understanding learner engagement provide a definition for motivation that guides the present study. Essentially, this definition has been well-highlight in the FLM; motivation is not a concept that is dependent only on the learning environment, nor is it something based solely on attitudes towards foreign cultures or

obligations set by a boss or a professor. Rather, it is a combination of these factors and several others, that determine one's learning behaviors. Bearing this in mind, the present study relies on a Complex Dynamic Systems perspective for analyzing student motivation, in order to gain a fuller understanding of the many elements that can impact behaviors and learning efforts.

The following subsections describe motivational teaching practices and motivated learning strategies. These two concepts are crucial for conducting a thorough analysis of the learning context to understand what elements students find motivating and how that motivation is expressed in the classroom.

II.3) Motivational Teaching Practices

As described earlier in this chapter, some common L2 motivation theories explain how one's long-held attitudes and beliefs can determine actions and behaviors in language learning. Gardner & Lambert (1959) present the integrative motivation, which is characterized by a desire to identify with members of the L2 group and possibly adopting some of their traits. Similarly, Ryan & Deci (2000), present intrinsic motivation, occurring when a learner studies a language for their own personal interests, rather than as a result of external obligations. These orientations are determined by numerous elements in the student's life including the students' experiences with the L2, goals for the L2, general openness to new ideas, L2 media consumption, age, gender, and socioeconomic status (Burstall, 1978; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Gardner, 2007). Research shows that certain orientations described in these theories have a positive impact on students' L2 achievement (Artelt, 2005; Gardner & Lambert, 1959).

Still, Ushioda (1996) notes that early motivational theories and constructs are not readily applicable to classroom practice; indeed, by focusing only on motivational orientations resulting from personal or societal factors, we risk ignoring the elements in the classroom that are key in determining motivation (Gillet, Vallerand, Lafrenière & Bureau, 2013). Though the focus of this study is a comparison between GE and ESP courses, the complex dynamic systems approach used to analyze learner behaviors renders it necessary to consider the huge variety of factors present in the classroom. Executing such an approach is no simple task however, as the classroom environment is a chaotic situation with a myriad of elements to study (Anjomshoa & Sadighi,2015). Nevertheless, given the plethora of research conducted on best practices for teaching general and specialized language, this section focuses on the teacher and teaching strategies. These strategies and practices are key in a dynamic approach to studying L2 motivation, due to their power to stimulate or hinder engagement (Gardner, 2005; Leonardi, 2014).

Indeed, several teaching strategies have been consistently praised for their power to enhance student motivation. Offering activities that are interesting, that allow for cooperative learning opportunities and encourage autonomy to work towards one's personally-valued goals are all examples of techniques that can inspire student effort and desire to learn (Dörnyei, 1994; Nichols, 2014).

Likewise, certain teaching practices have been found to reduce motivation. Busse (2013), for example, found that the level of difficulty is an important consideration; when courses and individual learning activities were viewed as too difficult, students were likely to get discouraged and ultimately demotivated. Additionally, Mahmoudi & Amirkhiz (2011) found that students became frustrated when their teachers used the local language in the classroom, rather than the target foreign language, describing it as a demotivator. Also, affect and feelings about the teacher can play an important role, as students have been found to lose motivation when they feel that their teachers are unwilling are unsure of how to accommodate student difficulties (Csizér, Kormas & Sakardi, 2010).

As Gardner (2005) tells us that the teacher has a strong influence on student motivation orientation, this section brings together research on teaching strategies to present a description of motivational instruction. Next, data regarding the influence of these strategies on learner behaviors in the classroom are described, based on past research; these considerations provide necessary information for analyzing the student observation data of this study. Moreover, by taking into account teaching practices in an analysis on learner motivation, this study can feed into a larger discussion about motivational teaching practices (Dörnyei, 2003).

II.3.a) Qualities of a Motivational Language Teacher. Countless researchers have described the intricacies inherent to motivational teaching. Teaching language in itself is a complex process, rendering it different from other disciplines (Borg, 2006); instructors must have a thorough understanding a variety of disciplines, including linguistics, cultural studies, educational psychology, and communication, just to name a few (Balboni, 2006). The language teacher is tasked with equipping learners with a strong knowledge of the cultural context in which they will be using the target language, the ability to interact with L2 speakers, and the necessary skills to continue language learning autonomously (Balboni, 2007). Specialized language instruction adds another layer of complexity, with another range of issues to consider; teachers must make decisions regarding how and at what language proficiency levels courses should start being specialized and how much input the student should have in the selection of specialized learning activities (Cigada, 1988; Gollin-Kies et al, 2015); these considerations are important, as Busse (2013) shows, given an observed tendency for students

to drop out of their language programs when courses do not provide an adequate level of difficulty and do not respond to the needs and interests of students.

Aside from these general aspects of language teaching that are true for most contexts, many situation-specific factors can impact motivation and should be considered. The university context analyzed in this study, for instance, contains a variety of elements that can affect the teacher's ability to motivate learners. First of all, in university situations, as the one analyzed in this study, teachers may be limited in their ability to offer motivating activities if the curricular requirements of the department or institution are so demanding that they allow little room for creativity or adaptation (Dörnyei, 2001). The result of such a situation may be teaching only to prepare students for a test or relying too much on outdated approaches that focus only on grammar (Cecioni, 1994; Faez, 2011). Furthermore, though offering the student choice regarding academic requirements is thought to be motivating, learners in university contexts are often required to take language courses, so any choice would only be a pseudo-choice, limiting its capacity to motivate (Brown, 2007).

In light of the demotivating factors that tend to be present in university settings and in specialized language teaching, many practitioners have sought to outline the qualities necessary for making a language teacher more motivating and effective; understanding these qualities adds a useful element to this study's analysis of the causes of student behaviors in the classroom.

One factor that is frequently associated with motivational teaching practice is providing an optimal level of challenge (Busse, 2014; Cooter & Perkins, 2011; Daloiso, 2009). This element, often referenced as a key motivating factor in studies using the Self-Determination Theory (see Busse, 2013; Wu, 2003), can be a difficult balance. Waters (1977) warns against doing activities that are too simple, as such tasks lose their academic value; likewise, Busse (2013) illustrates the consequences of providing activities that are too difficult, with students ending up feeling discouraged and abandoning their studies. The question of challenge is of particular interest for the current study's focus on university language courses in France; as described in Terrier & Maury (2015), students are alleged to finish their high school studies with a level B2, as defined the by Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (COE, 2001), in a foreign language, often English. The fact that these students must take

university language courses designed for lower levels, specifically A2 and B1, could have important implications for how challenged they feel in the course.

Additionally, in their Ten Commandments of motivating language learners, Dörnyei & Csizér's (1998) stress the importance of catering lessons to students' needs and interests; indeed, this concept is referenced by numerous researchers and is thought to be a hallmark of effective teaching. (Byman & Kansanen, 2008; Daloiso, 2009; Mazzardi, 2005; Wiesman, 2012). Balboni (2014) and Caon (2006) explain that by adapting to the course to students' interests, instructors can activate their learning desire. Teachers seem to agree with this point, as Cowie & Sakui (2011) conducted a study with university English teachers in Japan to find out what strategies teachers used to motivate their learners; consistently, teachers reported one of the main parts of their approach was to take into account the students' passions. Such a practice is an element of teaching referenced in many contexts, as Plutzer & Ritter (2000) describe its importance when teaching a local language to immigrant populations, Petty & Thomas (2014) highlight its importance in adult literacy programs, and Ibba (1988) stresses its value when teaching ESP courses at the university level. Research backs up this teaching strategy, as Ainley & Patrick's (2006) study with middle school students completing a writing task revealed that students engaged in more learning behaviors when their interest was piqued.

In a similar vein, many researchers and teachers note the role of helping students developing their future self-images as part of motivational teaching practice (Magid, 2014; Niederhauser, 2005). To do so, Buckledee (2014) and Fen Ng & Kiat Ng (2015) suggest helping learners understand their goal for the L2 and outlining steps to achieve it; this step is crucial for reminding students of the purpose of their learning and pushing them to act even in the absence of the immediate use of the language. Magid (2014) highlights the necessity of developing students' future image in a study with young learners of English in Singapore; those whose were encouraged to write about their future uses for English showed greater gains in L2 motivation and confidence than those who did not do this activity. This factor appears in accounts of motivated teaching practices across a variety of disciplines including English for Arts courses (Preece, 1996), in which students are offered activities which correspond to their future purposes for English, and English for Science/Engineering courses (Dudley-Evans, 1977), in which students are provided activities that help them to cope with their immediate needs for English.

Other elements of motivational teacher practice largely relate to the affective element required for creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning. Creating a positive learning environment depends on the teacher establishing a good rapport with the learners, exuding enthusiasm and passion for the subject matter, and being knowledgeable about the L2 and L2 culture (Brosh, 1996; Lamb & Wedell, 2015; Solak & Bayer, 2014). Lamb & Wedell (2015) found that several of these teacher factors, including fostering positive group dynamics and offering stimulating activities were valued by students in many different contexts. Strategies for establishing the motivating classroom environment include offering well-prepared lessons, offering opportunities for small group work and organizing the layout of the chairs to facilitate exchanges between students and the teacher (Gocer, 2010; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009). The role of this affective element of teaching is reflected in its strong presence in Dörnyei & Csizér's (1998) list of the Ten Commandments of motivating language learners; the list of rules contains several items focusing on the positive ambiance in the classroom, social relationships between students and teachers and the importance of offering well-thought out learning tasks.

In addition to qualities that motivational teachers should possess, practitioners have also offered recommendations for activities and didactic tools to use to increase learner motivation. One such activity is group work; Rashed (2013) attests to the value of group work in a study with professors at a university in the United Arab Emirates. Initially, the professors had little interest or desire in learning the local language, Arabic. A new class was proposed to them, however, in which the teacher offered opportunities for group discussions and cooperative learning; as a result, students reported higher levels of class enjoyment and more positive attitudes towards learning. Such activities, according to Dörnyei (1997), are so motivating because they take the focus off of the teacher, allowing learners to take control of their learning.

Authentic documents are also considered to be an effective aspect in motivational teaching; these tools are highly valued in language education because they allow teachers to present students with the real language forms used in their domains (Little, 1997). Di Pardo Léon-Henri (2015) explains that authenticity in learning activities is frequently associated with increased motivation and reduced anxiety; this effect is especially true when the teacher couples the use of authentic documents with equally authentic and useful tasks. To do so,

Guariento & Morley (2001) recommends connecting documents to real world situations or even classroom issues to facilitate discussion following a study of the document. The use of authentic documents as a pedagogical tool to encourage effective learning and motivation appears in several contexts, including English for Medical courses (Ferguson, 1994), where students are encouraged to discuss actual medical cases and conference papers to improve their fluency, English for Science courses (Fortune, 1977), in which students are offered pre-recorded mini-lectures from specialist professors so that the language teacher can help them develop their listening comprehension, and English for Arts courses (Crețiu, 2016), in which students are exposed to various artistic texts written in English to introduce them to the language necessary for writing their own.

Lastly, other reports on motivational teaching didactic techniques often include descriptions of specific resources. Lozinguez-Ben Gayed & Rivens Mompean (2009) describe how the use of technology in the classroom was resulted in an increase in learning motivation from their students after just one activity. Another example is the use of works of fiction that are grounded in authentic professional contexts; Chapon (2011), for instance, describes showing Legal English students parts of an episode of the fictional TV series *Boston Legal*, which portrays various legal and judiciary scenarios. The author reports that such a strategy could be a good way to spark students' interest at the beginning of a lesson, given that the viewing can be a more light-hearted activity that still contains useful language and it may encourage students to search beyond to determine the accuracy of the topics addressed in the episodes.

Across cultures, age levels and contexts, some commonalities of motivational teaching practices appear. These features, which are tied to several major motivational theories, including the Socioeducational Model (Gardner & Lambert, 1959), the Tripolar Model (Balboni, 2014a), the L2 Motivational Self System, to be described in the next chapter (Dörnyei, 2009), and the Self-Determination Theory (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Brière, Senécal & Vallière, 1992), providing a useful basis for interpreting student behaviors in the classroom. Understanding the role of the instructor in determining student engagement is crucial for a dynamic approach to motivation; indeed, classroom motivation is very much open to fluctuations based on a number of factors that are at least partially in the teachers' control, such as rapport between students and the teacher and value that students attach to a learning

activity. The following subsection highlights this connection with a presentation of several studies that analyze correlations between motivation and motivational teaching.

II.3.b) The relationship between teaching and student motivation. The correlation between motivational teaching and situational learner motivation has been explored in several different contexts, highlighting the dynamic nature of motivation and the need to consider the teacher in an analysis of student engagement.

In a study with Korean middle schoolers, Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) used a mixed-method approach to determine the strength of the connection between motivational practice and learner motivation. Student participants responded to questionnaire based on their course-specific motivation, in which they were asked questions regarding their opinions of the course and how their linguistic self-confidence. Observations sessions were also conducted using a carefully piloted observation scheme in several different classrooms; the observation scheme allowed the researchers to make minute-to-minute updates regarding which motivational teaching strategy was being used, based on an established taxonomy and the estimated percentage of students actively motivated in the activity; student engagement and motivation were measured based on visible behaviors, such as sitting passively, actively volunteering answers, and participating in group work. Researchers ultimately found positive correlation between motivational teaching and both student motivated learning behaviors and course-specific motivation. Guilloteaux (2007) reiterates these findings, echoing the strong impact teachers have on real-time motivational changes and highlighting the effectiveness of mixed-methods approach including observations and questionnaires.

More recently, Nichols (2014) applied a similar approach, using the same observation scheme to analyze student and teacher behaviors in an English course in an Indonesian high school. Initially, students were given a questionnaire regarding their intrinsic motivation for learning English as well as the teaching strategies they found most motivating. The two most motivating strategies were identified and systematically applied to future lessons that were observed to measure students' motivated behaviors. Data from the observation scheme indicated that student motivation was high throughout these lessons, suggesting a connection between the teaching strategy and learning behaviors.

These above studies are highly pertinent to the present study for several reasons. Most notably, they suppose that motivation can change several times during an individual lessons and that these changes are the result of changes in the immediate learning environment; these assumptions are defining elements of the L2 Motivational Self System and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory used in the present study. Moreover, in underlining the role of the teacher, these studies help focus the present study by offering factors to consider not only in the elaboration of the observation scheme but also in the discussion about forces that influence student motivation. That said, the present study seeks to go beyond the research laid out by Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) by focusing on single contexts for longer periods of time. Despite the value of analyzing a large variety of different learning environments, a more longitudinal study would permit the researcher to see how these short-term fluctuations in the classroom can lead to significant changes in a learner's perspective on language learning. Additionally, for the present study, it has been decided to focus on only one or two learners per lesson in the observation sessions, rather than the entire group, to allow for a more in-depth analysis, in line with Henry's (2015a) recommendation; such an approach facilitates coping with the classroom which, by Anjomshoa & Sadighi's (2015) description, is already a chaotic environment with innumerable elements to consider.

The following section sheds additional light on understanding L2 motivation by shifting the focus from its origins to its manifestations. Just as a thorough understanding of dominant motivational theories and teaching practices is needed to explain where motivation comes from, the following section describes motivated learning behaviors, to explain what a motivated student looks like.

Summary

This subsection describes motivational teaching practices. Following a discussion on principal frameworks used for analyzing and defining learning motivation, this subsection describes teachers, given their impact on student motivation (Gardner, 2005). It provides both a description of motivational teaching practice as well as research affirming the correlation between motivational teaching practices and student motivation. These considerations are important for the present study as they provide a necessary element to consider when conducting classroom observations.

Many of the elements of motivational teaching are reflected in Dörnyei & Csizér's (1998) Ten Commandments of motivating language learners; teachers must adapt courses to accommodate the needs and interests of the students and create a positive ambiance in the classroom to facilitate social interactions. Additionally, the course must be appropriately suited to the students' proficiency level and provide the correct level of challenge; something that requires an effort on the part of the student, but also is not overwhelming (Busse, 2013). In terms of activities, group work and authentic documents have both been reported as being useful strategies to maximize student engagement and motivation (Di Pardo Léon-Henri, 2015; Rashed, 2013).

Highlighting the effectiveness of these teaching strategies, several researchers, including Guilloteaux (2007) and Nichols (2014) observed increased levels of motivation from students when teachers employed motivational strategies. These conclusions attest to the need for taking teaching practice into account, while also showing the tendency of motivation to change in on small timescales based on events in the classroom.

The following subsection adds another element to changes in classroom motivation with a description of language learning strategies; the use of these strategies, often indicative of learner motivation, provide a focus for the classroom observations that are necessary to this study.

II.4) Identifying and Measuring Motivated Learning in the L2 Classroom

As stated previously, a main objective of this study is to understand the dynamic nature of motivation and identify what factors influence student behaviors in real time. Of course, as section II.2 of this chapter shows, motivation is not always easy to define or measure; it is often studied as an orientation or emotional state related to one's life experiences, rather than as something that can be observed. One solution, according to Ushioda (1996), is to measure motivation in terms of behaviors and effort towards reaching a goal. This concept complements the appraisal process described in Dörnyei's (2010) description of motivational task processing; when completing L2 learning tasks, students are constantly evaluating the usefulness, difficulty and interest of the tasks and adapting their behaviors accordingly. Together, they can be taken to mean that when a student has made a positive appraisal of task and decides to make an effort towards completing it, the actions they take to do so demonstrate motivation.

Given the importance of behaviors and effort in understanding a student's motivation, this study has decided to focus on language learning strategies (LLSs) as an indicator of motivation. Numerous studies support such an approach, attesting to the strong, positive correlation between motivation and LLS use (Chang & Liu, 2013; Domakani, Roohani & Akbari, 2012; Nikoopour, Salimian, Salimian & Farsani, 2012). This connection is seen in various contexts, at different age groups and for learning across different academic subjects (De Naeghal, Van Keer & Rosseel, 2012; Sadighi & Zarafshan, 2006). Though other studies have not referred specifically to learner strategies, the notion of observing student learning behaviors and effort in the classroom as an indicator of motivation has appeared before, including Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) and Nichols (2014). These studies are important in the field of L2 teaching and learning, as Riazi & Riasati (2007) explain students and teachers are not always in agreement on what teaching strategies are most effective or most pleasing to learners.

To illustrate the connection between motivation and LLSs, this chapter's goal is to provide an outline of the various existing learning strategies along with research conducted in the domains. This information is crucial not only in defining the methodology used in the present study but also in the discussion of observed results; as Dörnyei (1994) recommended,

to study motivation at the classroom level, identifying motivated learning behaviors is key when conducting classroom observations.

II.4.a) Motivated Learning Practices and Strategies: A Definition. Due to the complex nature of language learning and the difficulties it can impose on learners, students must often incorporate a wide range of strategies to overcome difficulties and master new material. Indeed, the use of strategies is crucial for enhancing communication skills, becoming more autonomous in the learning process, and giving teachers an indication that learners are interacting and grappling with the material (Hismanoglu, 2000). To give teachers and researchers an idea of how to notice and analyze language learning strategies (LLS), numerous reports contain taxonomies and lists of different strategies present in the language classroom; though such reports categorize learning behaviors in different ways, some common themes have emerged allowing for a relatively stable definition. Lessard-Clouston (1997) unites various research perspectives by defining LLSs as intentional steps taken by the learner to enhance learning and to process new information; strategies can be visible or invisible and can also be combined to allow for more effective learning. The intentionality of LLSs makes them an important consideration in motivation research, as Choubsaz & Choubsaz (2014) explain that motivation is a combination of behaviors and desires; the choice of using a learning strategy in the classroom may therefore be indicative of a learner's explicit desire to master new material.

Samida (2004) offers some concrete examples of these LLSs in her presentation of Oxford's description of direct and indirect strategies. According to this taxonomy, direct strategies can be divided into three categories:

1) *Memory strategies*. These strategies help the learner retain new information; they include using word-plays, mnemonic devices, and visuals. Memory strategies are used often in early stages of language learning, when all information is new.
2) *Cognitive strategies*. These strategies tend to be the most popular with language learners; they involve manipulating the language by repeating or summarizing new words and concepts. One such example would be writing phonetic spellings to rationalize the pronunciation differences between the words "through, though, tough".

3) *Compensation strategies*. Learners use compensation strategies where their current language knowledge does not permit them to communicate the exact message they wish to convey. Strategies include circumlocution, giving descriptions for objects when you do not know the exact word, and using even erroneous word forms that still allow the learner to be understood.

Indirect learning strategies are not as easily visible but can be classified in a similar manner, in the following the three categories:

1) *Metacognitive strategies*. Students use metacognitive strategies when they wish to plan and organize their learning; steps include making a schedule with measurable steps towards learning goals, and then evaluating your success.
2) *Affective strategies*. These strategies are used to control the emotional element involved in language learning. They include providing self-encouragement, giving yourself mental pep-talks, and taking steps to lower anxiety.
3) *Social strategies*. Social strategies allow learners to develop their communicative competence; they include asking questions and cooperating with peers.

These strategies can be complementary and used simultaneously, maximizing learning potential (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Students' choice of which LLSs to use is based on a number of factors, some of which might be related to the learning context, and local culture (Oxford, 1994). Certain cultures, for example, encourage strict memorization, while others may prefer a more communicative approach and insist on social strategies. MacIntyre & Serroul (2015) suggest that the learning task may also influence strategy choice; they claim that individual tasks can activate either a behavioral inhibition system, which stops a learner from acting a certain way, or a behavioral activation system, which stimulates a learner to act a certain way.

Other than the learning context, individual difference factors have a strong impact on LLS choice. One's individual learning style, for instance, influences how one interprets and processes new information (Dörnyei, 2005; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990). The learning style, along with one's motivation for language learning and attitude towards the learning process,

has the potential to be a strong determinant when selecting an appropriate strategy (Oxford, 1994).

Outside the traditional lists of learning strategies, another learning behavior that has been found to be associated with learner motivation and L2 achievement is autonomy (Kashefian Naeeini, Riazi & Salehi, 2012; Menezes de Oliveira e Paiva, 2011; Mozzon-McPherson & van der Wolf, 1997). In recent years, as the demand for language courses has increased, this construct has been the subject of greater research interest (Benson & Voller, 1997). Autonomy occurs when the student takes control of his or her own learning (Ushioda, 1996); it exists in two forms: intrinsic and metacognitive (Ushioda, 2014). The metacognitive form comes from a sense of duty to complete tasks to further one's learning or address problems, whereas the intrinsic autonomy comes from doing tasks that are enjoyable and important for the learning process, but might not help overcome difficulties (Ushioda, 2014). This construct represents an important consideration in a study of student engagement and motivation, as several reports have found that many of students' main learning activities have no relation to their class work (Little, 1991). Tódor & Dégi (2016) found that many students thought the most effective way to learn a language was not always in the classroom, but rather by creating a real L2 environment, such as interacting with native speakers and watching films and TV in the target language. Similarly, Henry (2014) found that students valued their non-academic L2 use as being just as useful as their in-class learning, pushing some learners to watch L2 films and play videos games using the L2. In both of these studies, learners appear to be exhibiting intrinsic forms of autonomy, engaging in activities that, though useful, do not focus on specific language skills; nevertheless, this type of dedication towards language learning and using the foreign language for personal pursuits is clearly an important concept that needs to be considered.

Similar to other LLSs, autonomy offers a visible representation of student effort on which to base observations of classroom motivation; indeed, Benson (2002) confirms that value of autonomy as a theoretical framework comes from its grounding in observable behaviors, specifically referencing Hong Kong university students who were searching for opportunities to practice their communication skills. This concept is implicit in both the psychological approach to studying autonomy, which focuses on behaviors, and the constructivist approach, which focuses on interaction and engagement in the learning process

(Benson, 1997). To help identify autonomous learners, Breen & Mann (1997) outline a number of characteristics the student must exhibit: they show a strong desire to learn, are independent, are able to negotiate with the learning environment, interact with other learners, and define ways to learn that are conducive to the classroom environment.

Though Birdsell (2013) reports that fostering autonomy can inspire greater student motivation, several researchers point out the many pitfalls of L2 classes in autonomous learning contexts. First, students in several different contexts point out that they simply do not know how to be autonomous; they complete work during the semester without really reaching their learning objectives or overcoming difficulties (Terrier & Murray, 2015; Toogood & Pemberton, 2002). Other analyses have found that students lacked the self-control to focus on their learning without the guidance of a teacher or that, with their busy schedules, they deemed it appropriate to shirk their responsibilities for their autonomous course (Château, 2005; Zhong, 2013). Reinders & Lazaro (2011) also found that some students' did not appreciate autonomy, as they felt such an approach did not allow them to learn everything that a teacher would be able to teach them in traditional context. Still, as Prince (2005) insists that autonomy and motivation go hand-in-hand in the language learning process, it is important construct to consider when analyzing student behaviors.

In terms of research methodology, different approaches are recommended for studying LLSs and autonomy. Nguyen (2012) insists that researchers base their study on a widely applicable definition of autonomy and to employ both quantitative and qualitative tools along with devices to ensure their validity. A quantitative tool might be a questionnaire that asks students about their learning habits; qualitative strategies might include interviews or learner diaries, asking participants to report on what types of L2 learning habits they engage in (Nguyen, 2012). Oxford & Crookall (1989) give a rather extensive list for understanding students' learning strategies; they propose think aloud activities, in which learners describe their strategy use as they complete a learning task, observing students, conducting interviews, and using surveys.

The following subsection presents some research conducted highlighting the intersections and correlations between motivation and language learning strategies. These studies help to validate the use of visible student behaviors in the classroom as an indication of their effort and engagement.

II.4.b) Research on learning strategies and motivation. While not referring specifically to learning strategies, a principal theme in language learning strategy (LLS) research to is to understand how motivation influences learning effort and the actions students take to overcome difficulties and interact with the course material; this association affirms the logic of using student behaviors to measure motivation.

The connection between general learning effort and certain types of motivation has been noticed in different contexts (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Ainley & Patrick (2006), for example, illustrate the power of motivation to inspire behavioral changes in their study with middle schoolers completing a writing task. While completing the writing task, students were observed and asked questions about their interest in the task and their reactions to it. In the end, the researchers found that higher levels of interest, which they considered part of intrinsic motivation, were positively correlated to on-task learning behaviors (Ainley & Patrick, 2006).

At the university level, Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra (2011) analyzed students completing degrees through an English Medium Instruction program at a university in Spain; they concluded that students exhibited higher levels of motivation than those doing degrees conducted in their native language, as shown by their increased presence at professors' office hours and the large number of emails they sent to professors to ask clarification questions about the lessons. Hsieh (2009), Irie & Ryan (2015) and Lee (2001) reinforce this link with students of different countries studying abroad in universities in America and Canada; interviews and questionnaires with their respective participants showed that many students arrived to America ready to make a significant effort. After the initial excitement wore off, however, many learners grew frustrated with the learning process, motivation dropped along with effort to improve language skills. Some later reported that their motivation rebounded and they began to invest a greater effort. These studies, though focusing primarily on interviews and questionnaires rather than observations, provide strong evidence of the connection between motivation and visible forms of increased learning effort and strategy use.

Referring more specifically to various LLSs, Spratt, Humphreys & Chan (2002) conducted a questionnaire study with learners completing autonomous English coursework at a university in Hong Kong; questions asked students about their motivation for learning English and the types of activities they did to improve their knowledge outside of class.

Ultimately, the researchers found that students often actively engaged in autonomous learning activities, particularly those that related to communication or entertainment, and rated themselves as at least somewhat motivated; also worth noting is the fact that students stated that a lack of stronger motivation was the reason they did not do more. Researchers used these findings to conclude that motivation is an impetus to autonomous learning practices.

Domakani et al (2012) reinforce this notion with a questionnaire study conducted in English language classes in an Iranian universities; students were asked to report on their motivation and their use of different types of LLSs. Researchers found that motivation was moderately high and positively correlated to all of LLSs defined by Oxford, as outlined above. The correlation was strongest with memory and compensation strategies and lower with affective and social strategies. In another study of Iranian students in a university English course, questionnaire results determined first, that metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used LLS, and second, that intrinsic forms of student motivation was positively correlated with metacognitive and cognitive strategies, whereas more external types of motivation were not associated with any learning strategies (Nikoopour et al, 2013). These results were replicated with students enrolled in English courses at a Taiwanese university; a questionnaire study again revealed motivation to be highly correlated with frequent and varied use of LLSs. Intrinsic forms of motivation had the strongest correlation with metacognitive and cognitive strategies, while compensation strategies had weaker connections. (Chang & Liu, 2013).

While these studies might not be consistent in terms of the type of LLS that found to be associated with motivation, the notion that strong, durable forms of motivation are positively correlated with frequent strategy use appears regularly. It is against the backdrop of these results that this study has found fertile ground; as motivation research focuses on attitudes, beliefs, and feelings, as shown in Gardner & Lambert's (1959) integrative and instrumental orientations, this report can rely on LLS and autonomous learning as visible indicators of the volatile side of learner motivation. In so doing, the results from previous studies on motivation can be strengthened; in the studies referenced in this subsection, for example, most of the researchers relied on questionnaires, with Lee (2001) diverging a little through the use of interviews and some informal observations. By using a more comprehensive approach, including both close student observations and interviews allowing students to

explain their behaviors, this study can offer a deeper understanding of what inspire behaviors. Furthermore, by watching strategy use in real-time, behavioral changes can be more readily observed, thusly accounting for the dynamic nature of motivation. The research methods proposed by Nguyen (2012) and Oxford & Crookall (1989) lend themselves readily to this approach.

Moving forward, the next chapter describes the theoretical framework used in the present study. The two theories chosen as the focus of this study, the L2 Motivational Self-System and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, unite the various approaches and strategies referenced in this chapter by considering various factors that influence motivation, both over the long and short terms.

Summary

This subsection describes Language Learning Strategies (LLSs) often used by students when learning a language. These strategies are used to by students to help overcome difficulties, expand their knowledge base, or practice using the language. While different researchers have created groupings for these various strategies, the general definition remains the same: LLSs are actions that learners chose to perform to facilitate the mastery of new material (Lessard-Clousson, 1997). The element of choice is using LLSs makes them an important consideration in a study on motivation for a number of reasons.

First of all, Choubsaz & Choubsaz (2014) explain that motivation is the result of one's behaviors and desires. Relying on this definition, the present study analyzes learner behaviors in the classroom, as well as their reported behaviors outside of class, as a way to measure motivation. Versions of this practice, even if they have not always referred specifically to LLSs, have been seen in several studies, including Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) and Lee (2001). Furthermore, the link between motivation and engaging in specific LLSs has been proven in several different cases, including Domakani et al (2012) and Chang & Liu (2013). Thus, research on LLSs helps this study to focus observations sessions, by providing a clear list of behaviors students are likely to engage in during moments of classroom motivation.

Moving forward, the following chapter describes the theoretical framework of this study, highlighting the usefulness of LLS in a dynamic approach to studying language classroom motivation.

III) Theoretical Framework: L2 Motivational Self System and Complex Dynamic Systems Theory

III.1) Introduction

As described in the previous chapter, numerous theories have sought to analyze motivation for learning a foreign language. This study seeks to expand on these frameworks by offering a more comprehensive analysis regarding a language course's capacity for influencing motivation.

Given that this project concerns teaching and learning the English language, Gardner's Socioeducational Model was deemed inappropriate given the importance attached to the construct of integrativeness; research under this theory suggests that learners are motivated to learn a L2 when they wish to identify with the L2 community. Ushioda (2006) explains, however, given English's status as an international lingua franca, it is rapidly becoming detached from a specific culture. As such, learners do not have a reference L2 community to establish a strong integrative orientation (Ushioda, 2006). Furthermore, integrativeness may not be applicable in all contexts, particularly monolingual societies where the L2 does not have a strong presence (Dörnyei, 2003); this consideration is perhaps important in the officially monolingual countries analyzed in this study, France and Italy.

Many motivation frameworks have also been criticized as being too limited in their view of what stimulates student behavior; these theories focus on one aspect of a learner's attitude or personality without fully considering the entire learning environment (Ushioda, 2011). Research on the SM focuses on integrativeness and instrumentality for example, while the SDT stresses extrinsic and intrinsic motives. Though these constructs might accurately account for learner attitudes in some cases, numerous types of motivation exist that do not easily fit into such strict dichotomies (Birdsell, 2013).

Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, existing theories are often considered inadequate for analyzing student attitudes towards the classroom context; Dörnyei (1994) studies offering insight into classroom practice remain relatively rare, at least under SDT and SM. As described in the previous chapter, Byman & Kansanen (2008) claim that it is not feasible for teachers to sustain their students' intrinsic motivation over an entire lesson. Denny & Daviso (2012) highlight this problem in their interviews with language teachers showing that, very often,

teachers understand the importance of intrinsic motives, but do not know how to create or foster them in the classroom.

To respond to these gaps in existing L2 motivation research, the present study offers a more comprehensive approach to learner motivation. In keeping with recent trends, highlighted in the Framework of Language Learning Motivation, this study analyzes motivation as a complex and dynamic phenomenon, open to change and modifications as a learner progresses. The Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) has been selected as the principal theory guiding this study, with data analyzed through the lens of the L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS). These two theoretical frameworks have been applied in various contexts, at different educational levels to analyze learner behaviors and identity variables. They are particularly useful for studying two concepts crucial for the present study, the learning environment and students' goals for learning English (Dörnyei, 2009; Larsen-Freeman, 2015). The following subsections present the tenets of these two theories along with a sampling of relevant studies that helped to inform this project.

III.2) L2 Motivational Self-System.

This study uses the L2MSS to analyze students' self-concepts and determine how it influences their learning effort. Although this framework has not been widely used in the ESP context, Paltridge (2016) believes that it has enormous potential for understanding how students' attitudes shape their behaviors in specialized language courses.

The L2MSS was developed in direct response to a belief that previous motivational theories were no longer sufficient for analyzing student behaviors. This theory draws heavily from previous research by Markus & Nurius (1986) regarding one's self-concept as a potential motivator. In light of its relevance to the L2MSS, the concept of *possible selves* is outlined below.

III.2.a) Possible Selves. One notion frequently cited in L2 motivation research is that of future*, possible selves*; these mental visions people have of themselves can have a significant impact of their behavioral choices (Chen, 2012). This construct is crucial when analyzing learner's reasons for studying an L2, as their future self can determine both language choice and language effort.

Markus & Nurius (1986) describe possible selves as the result of one's past experiences combined with the current social context. They are highly individualized and are established based on a person's hopes, fears, feelings, and interpretations of events; these various factors work together to create a vision of what a person wants to become. Once a clear mental image obtained, the future self becomes an impetus for new behaviors that assist in reaching the future goal. Despite having some relative stability, these visions are susceptible to change given that they are future goals that are not grounded in real life experiences. This point is important in the context of the L2 classroom, as it suggests the possibility a teacher might have to influence student motivation by aiding in the development of a learner's future self (Murray, 2011).

Highlighting the role of a possible self-concept in motivating learning behaviors, Lamb (2009) describes, in detail, interview data procured from one highly motivated student and one minimally motivated student, both learning English in an Indonesian secondary school. The former had very clear plans for studying English; she wanted to study abroad and ultimately be a very international person with a respectable job that would allow her to work and live between Indonesia and the United States. This student regularly sought out opportunities to speak English and use English in her personal life. The unmotivated student, however, did not report any long term goals for English, outside of needing it to pass state tests; he, in turn, did not mention any interest in using English or seeking out English media outside of class. Similar findings, also with Indonesian high school students, are reported by Lamb (2011); in a study of 8 motivated students and 4 unmotivated students, those in the latter group consistently reported clear future goals for English and wide variety of strategies used to improve their English inside and outside the classroom.

While the self-concept is thought to be relatively stable, it still has clear implications on a dynamic study of motivation. Hsieh (2009) illustrates the dynamic nature of future selves through interviews with two Taiwanese students completing a graduate degree in the United States, focusing on their experiences learning English. Initially, both students had clear visions of their future uses for English; as they were studying to become English teachers, they had an obvious, professional goal for L2 mastery. With both participants, however, this vision ultimately faltered significantly in the few months following their arrival in America; they reported having major communication problems as well as difficulties in making American friends. Consequently, these students reported a decrease in effort and using English only to

pass their exams. Motivation rebounded however, as their future self-concepts became clear again, as their progress became more noticeable. The study concludes that despite the stability of future selves and their power to inspire engagement and effort, situational factors can cause students to lose focus of their possible self and, at least temporarily, abandon learning activities.

Hsieh's (2009) study shows the necessity for understanding a learner's self-vision, particularly in an analysis of the learning environment. These mental images represent a useful complement to an analysis of classroom factors influencing motivation.

III.2.b) Motivation and the L2 Motivational Self System. Drawing from the research on possible selves described above, Dörnyei (2009) explains that this theory considers motivation as coming from one of three sources:

1) **The L2 Ideal Self (L2IS)**. Students pushed by a strong L2IS are those the who can imagine themselves in the future using the language; this future vision is generally pleasing to the student and involves him or her using the target language to accomplish personally-valued goals (Dörnyei, 2009). As such, even an extrinsic orientation can be a powerful motivator; a student's future goal may in fact be a job or a promotion, but as long as it is something that is highly valued at a personal level, it is internalized enough to stimulate motivated learning behaviors (Dörnyei, 2009). Questionnaires, often used in L2MSS research, generally measure the presence of the L2IS with items asking about one's future professional and academic uses for the L2, and also one's identity and personal life, with items about one's future interactions with L2 speakers and thoughts about living in the L2 community (Safdari, 2017).

2) **The L2 Ought to Self (L2OS)**. Students pushed by a strong L2OS are those who are looking to avoid a potential negative outcome, such as failing a test, missing out on a promotion, or disappointing one's family (Dörnyei, 2009). Contrary to the L2IS, learners pushed by the L2OS are not working towards something they want, but rather working to avoid something they do not want (Hsieh, 2009). Questionnaire items measuring the L2OS focus on how students feel regarding pressure from others to learn

the L2; whether they risk disappointing or upsetting others, or how society views those who cannot speak the L2 (Safdari, 2017).

3) **The L2 Learning Environment (L2LE)**. Students pushed by the L2LE are those who have positive feelings about the learning context; these feelings may be the result of a society or culture that appreciates the L2, a good relationship between teachers and students in the classroom, interesting and relevant classroom activities, and numerous other school factors (Dörnyei, 2009). This construct is the least stable, susceptible to changes both between lessons and during an individual lesson. MacIntyre & Serroul (2015) point out that this construct has not been analyzed as much as the *Ideal Self* and *Ought to Self*, despite several studies seeming to indicate that it has the strongest impact on motivation (Azarnoosh & Birjandi, 2013; Campbell & Storch, 2011). Questionnaire items measuring the L2LE usually measure students' attitudes towards learning English, the classroom environment, and learning activities (Safdari, 2017; Tort Calvo, 2015).

At the heart of these three constructs L2MSS is the self-concept. Buckledee (2014) explains that, often, people try to resolve any discrepancy between their current self and their ideal self. Noting the clear pedagogical implications of this theory, Buckledee (2014) points out that teachers can therefore use the concepts of the Ideal Self (L2IS) and the Ought to Self (L2OS) to their advantage; teachers should help students develop a clear, detailed image of their L2IS to help inspire motivated behaviors, while appealing to their L2OS by reminding them of the consequences of failure.

The L2MSS operates under the belief that, by helping learners develop a clear and realistic ideal future self that can regularly be tapped into throughout the learning process, language instructors can help increase student motivation and effort (Dörnyei, 2009). The following subsection presents some studies conducted under the L2MSS that show the power of these self-concepts and constitute the basis of these the hypotheses of the present study.

III.2.c) Research in L2MSS. Just as with other research in L2 motivation, various experiments have been conducted under the L2MSS to measure the strength of its different

constructs in a given group. Lai (2013), for instance, found a strong presence of the L2IS, with a comparatively weaker L2OS, in a group of English majors at a university in Taiwan.

More often, however, work done under the L2MSS generally conforms to the shift towards a dynamic approach to analyzing motivation for L2 learning, by considering motivation in relation to a number of factors. To highlight the major research patterns that have informed the present study, the following three categories have been established: L2MSS studies focusing on individual difference variables (such as age, gender, field of study for university students), studies correlating different motivation constructs and intended effort, and motivation as a constantly evolving trait. Methodology and results from studies in these categories are outlined below to allow for a deeper understanding of the reasoning for the present study.

III.2.c.i) The L2 Motivational Self System and Learner Differences. A variety of individual difference factors have been considered in L2MSS studies, including gender differences, age and grade level, academic majors for university students, as well as variables relating to L2 learning tasks. These studies attest to the value of the L2MSS in showing the plethora of elements to be considered when making conclusions regarding learner engagement.

You & Dörnyei (2016) illustrate the range of factors in their application of the L2MSS at different levels of education in China, to test the theory's validity in the country. Questionnaire data were collected from over ten thousand students, of all different ages, regions, and backgrounds. Students were categorized into 36 different strata based on their responses to biographical data; these strata were the result of groupings based on gender, age, and geographical location. These groupings allowed researchers to identify patterns across different strata. Certain factors seemed to be associated with higher levels of motivation; as found in other cases, females reported higher levels of motivation than males, advanced university students were more motivated than younger learners, and those in more prestigious, rigorous academic programs were more motivated than others. These results have been supported in various contexts. Regarding gender, Azarnoosh & Birjandi (2013), reporting on students in Iranian middle schools, and Liu & Thompson (2018), reporting on students in Chinese universities, found that girls consistently reported high levels of L2 Ideal Self, often associated with greater learning effort. As for the level of study, Papi & Teimouri (2012), in

Iran, and Kim (2012), in Korea, reinforced the notion that older students, particularly in high school and university, had higher levels of learner motivation and stronger associations with the L2 Ideal Self, than middle school students.

Another factor element commonly analyzed in L2MSS studies is the students' local culture and how it influences their self-concept. By comparing motivation orientations for different languages, Csizér & Dörnyei (2005a) present results indicating how living in culturally and linguistically homogeneous Hungary affected students' learning behaviors. Students from all over the country seemed relatively motivated to learn English; as Hungarian society places some importance on English proficiency, it had become a school subject like any other, like mathematics or history. Languages that hold less importance in Hungary, such as French or Italian, often had the most motivated learners; students needed to be more committed to make an effort, as the need was not immediately apparent (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a).

Rubrecht & Ishikawa (2012) offer another example of how culture influences the self-concept in their description of a case study on a Japanese-American bilingual child raised between her two countries. When asked about her desire to learn English, the participant expressed clearly L2IS constructs; she claimed she felt more American and dreamed of living and working in America in the future. Her period living in America and experiencing American culture allowed her to create a strong self-concept that motivated her learning behaviors and attitudes long after her departure, even if her dominant language was Japanese and most of her life was spent in Japan. Her behaviors were also influenced by the L2OS, as she felt pressured to excel in her school English classes, given that she was a native speaker and would have felt embarrassed if she made a mistake. That said, her classroom effort was negatively impacted by the L2LE, as she felt her courses were too easy and did not allow her to expand her knowledge or show off all that she knew (Rubrecht & Ishikawa, 2012).

In addition to the societal culture, comparisons have also been made using the L2MSS in different types of school cultures and setups within a given country. Saleem (2014), for example, compared the strength of L2MSS constructs of students learning English in two different types of Swedish high schools, one theoretical high school for university-bound students and one vocational high school for students entering the workforce upon graduation. Questionnaire results indicated that students in the theoretical high school had stronger L2IS,

L2OS, and strong L2LE orientations than vocational school students; furthermore, the former group had stronger scores for every individual questionnaire item than the latter, with the exception of the item regarding positive feelings towards the L2 culture.

Chen (2012) reinforces the role of school culture in determining motivation; she used interviews in a L2MSS experiment to understand how Taiwanese culture, with its emphasis on standardized tests and high-stakes exams, influenced student attitudes and effort towards English learning. Students were asked about their reasons for studying English, future goals, and their thoughts about Taiwan's strict testing system. When discussing their goals and their attitudes towards English, many students cited L2OS views; they were learning English because their parents encouraged them and invested a lot of time and money preparing them for university entrance exams and because they thought it would help them to have a better life. A closer look at their responses, however, reveals that many of these goals have been internalized, thusly creating an L2IS identity; the students long for a professional stability and a high quality of life that they think English can provide. These comments show that perhaps Taiwan's exam culture creates a situation in which the L2OS and L2IS can originate from the same motive, activating learner engagement based on both constructs simultaneously (Chen, 2012).

The above studies indicate some of the major factors taken into account when analyzing motivation using the L2MSS. Grade level, gender, and culture represent just a sampling of the innumerable elements that can influence one's self concept and guide motivation. An important theme that emerges from these studies, however, is the almost universal importance of the L2 learning environment (L2LE), which You & Dörnyei (2016) found to have a greater impact on student motivation than any other construct. In many cases, this construct appears as a motivating factor regardless of other individual difference variables, including gender (Azarnoosh & Birjdan, 2013) and grade level (Azarnoosh, 2014; Papi & Teimouri, 2012). Even Rubrecht & Ishikawa (2012), whose study focused on a learner with a relatively stable, bilingual self-concept, the L2LE had a strong negative impact on her motivation, as she felt the learning activities were too easy. Given its clear importance for understanding learner motivation, the following subsection focuses more on the L2LE construct, to underline how the classroom environment affects motivation in real-time and shed light on how the L2MSS can be applied to a dynamic approach to studying motivation.

III.2.c.ii) Motivation and Intended Effort. As Byman & Kansanen (2008) explain, regardless of whether a language course is motivating, a part of learning always falls on the shoulders of the student. As such, the desire to master a new language must be coupled with an increased effort to engage in motivated learning behaviors. To reflect this notion, L2MSS studies often include a construct known as "intended effort" (L2IE), which is measured alongside the theory's other constructs; including intended effort allows researchers to determine which motivational construct has the strongest correlation with learning effort, thusly offering useful insights for teaching practice. Questionnaire items measuring L2IE generally cover learners' past and present learning activities, as well as their intentions for future language practice (Brady, 2014; Safdari, 2017).

Rajab, Roohbakhsh & Etemadzadeh (2012) present an early application of this theory with students taking English classes at an Iranian university. Questionnaires were distributed to over three hundred students at a single university and results were analyzed to identify the strength of the different L2MSS constructs and their correlation to L2IE. Data indicated a strong presence of the L2 Ideal Self (L2IS), with strong, positive correlation between L2IS and L2IE, suggesting that learners had internalized the goal of achieving English proficiency. Similarly, Tort Calvo (2015) applied the L2MSS to students taking English courses in a Spanish high school. This study compared the three L2MSS constructs to the students' learning achievement, which was thought to be indicative of their motivation and effort for L2 learning. Ultimately, questionnaire results indicated that L2 Ought to Self (L2OS) was not significantly correlated to one's achievement, while the L2 Ideal Self and learning environment both had strong, positive correlations, with the L2IS being strongest.

Although these studies fall short of fully describing the specific elements of the L2LE that assist in the creation of a learner's L2 self-concept and allow for a fuller description of student motivation, they shed light on a principal research trend under this framework and show how the self-concept is used to provide didactic recommendations. Both research underline the importance of the self-concept in stimulating learner effort (Rajab, Roohbakhsh & Etemadzadeh, 2012; Tort Calvo, 2015). Tort Calvo (2015) takes this conclusion one step further by suggesting that her results should be interpreted as evidence that teachers can play an active role in increasing student achievement by not only appealing to the L2IS, but creating

a warmer, more welcoming learning environment so that the effects of a strong L2OS do not infringe on learner performance. The following subsection expands on this point by showing how motivation and learning effort is influenced by the classroom.

III.2.c.iii) L2 Motivational Self System and motivational changes. The L2MSS is an effective complement to a study using the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory in that it allows for an analysis of the learning environment through the L2LE construct and also acknowledges that the more stable constructs, the L2 Ideal and Ought to Selves, can evolve and change based a variety of factors. You & Chan (2015) highlight this phenomenon in their study with Chinese high school and university students studying English; participants completed questionnaires regarding their future self-images, how English fit into it, and their attitudes about English. Some were selected for interviews to allow for a deeper discussion regarding how their L2IS and L2OS evolved. Results showed that students' plan for future English use was an important guide in determining their learning behaviors. Their future self-images using English evolved and became more specific as they gained more life experience and language experience; as they learned more about their interests, specific jobs began to push their learning behaviors. Initially, learners proved to be pushed largely by a L2OS, as they studied English due to pressure from their parents. Though this L2OS orientation remained, it shifted from parental pressure to societal pressure, as participants knew they needed English for their future professional lives. The L2IS was also present in learners, but evolved, as some younger learners expressed wanting perfect professional English, while older learners described just wanting good communicative English.

While You & Chan's (2015) participants reported that their motivational orientations changed as the result of life events, other researchers found motivational changes on even shorter time scales. Aubrey (2014), for example, used two questionnaires based on the L2MSS with university students studying English at a Japanese university; the same questionnaire was administered once at the beginning and once at the end of the course to determine if and how motivation changed. In the end of the course, students reported increased levels of the L2OS as well as participation in motivated learning behaviors. Though the L2OS was found to have increased, the L2LE was the strongest measure in both administrations of the questionnaire, and positively correlated to learning behaviors, unlike the L2OS. The changes these students

report over just a semester underline the need for more in-depth analyses of the motivation fluctuations.

Campbell & Storch (2011) respond to this need with a study on L2 motivation, conducted over the course of an entire semester, with students studying Chinese in an Australian university. This project focused on a small group of eight students, using interviews at different points during the semester to determine how and why their motivation changed. Generally, students reported making an effort to learn Chinese to obtain a good course grade and because it is useful on the job market, with some even reporting some specific communicative tasks they would like to be able to do; these comments indicate that motivation is coming from both the L2 Ideal Self and L2 Ought to Self, at least initially. Later interviews, however, revealed that the L2 Learning Environment had a significant impact on their motivational intensity; all students reported some demotivation during the semester, as a consequence of the course being either too difficult or too easy. All but one participant reported demotivation from factors outside the immediate L2LE, such as personal problems or the workload from their other courses. As a result of the motivational changes, students' future self-concepts changed, with some reporting no longer being convinced that Chinese would be useful to them in the future, with others being more convinced of its use. Such findings point to the power of the L2LE for creating noteworthy changes in motivation and L2 goals, even to the point of modifying one's self concept.

Even during an individual lesson, Henry (2015a) demonstrates that motivation can fluctuate greatly based on a number of factors. Focusing on a L3 French course aimed at students enrolled in a high school in Sweden, Henry (2015a) identified six students for classroom observation and interviews; interviews were guided by students' classroom behaviors and therefore conducted immediately after the lesson. Though interviews revealed that relative motivational stability occurred, some changes were noticed based on the learning environment; the difficulty of a task or the level of interest an activity offered were both factors that affected student engagement, as were social factors, such as one's partner in group or the student seating chart. Other factors outside the L2LE played a role as well; for example, many students felt the need to de-prioritize their L3 French lesson in relation to their L2 English course, indicating the lack of a future self-concept that includes French. At the end of the year, students were asked to draw line graphs to illustrate and explain their motivational fluctuations

during the year; students indicated that exams and travel experiences resulted in changes to the amount of effort they put forth. Ultimately, Henry (2015a) suggests that researchers limit the scope of their projects even further, focusing on fewer participants but conducting more in-depth observations in order to have more fruitful interviews. Still, the data he presents attest to the volatile nature of classroom motivation and the importance of considering the L2LE.

These studies confirm the dynamic nature of motivation; various elements both inside and outside the classroom lead to short term and long term changes in student behavioral patterns and self-concepts. These elements include one's L2IS and L2OS, obligations from other courses, social factors and the difficulty of learning tasks. In the following section, the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory is presented, providing an even deeper analysis of real-time motivational fluctuations which, when viewed through the lens of the L2MSS provide, a very detailed picture of what motivates students.

III.3) The Complex Dynamic Systems Theory.

The Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) posits that all parts of a system, in this case a university foreign language classroom, are constantly interacting and influencing each other; consequently, any change to one part of the system is likely to have an impact on all other parts of the system (de Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2007; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). This concept holds true also for learner motivation, which has been found to fluctuate, albeit with some predictability, based on a variety of seemingly irrelevant classroom factors (Waninge, Dörnyei & de Bot, 2014). Henry (2015) claims that even the stable orientations of the L2 Motivational Self System, such as the L2 Ideal Self, can only be described as dynamically stable, given their capacity to be modified by learning experiences; this point holds especially true in the case of young adult learners and those still in formal learning contexts, such as the participants in the current study, as their self-concepts are still vague and impressionable (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013). As such, when trying to identify elements that influence learning motivation, researchers must take a comprehensive approach; all characteristics of a system should be taken into consideration with data collection occurring across various timescales (Henry, 2015). All factors present in a learner's life and classroom context interact are constantly interacting to influence learner attitudes and behaviors.

To put into place this comprehensive approach, the present study is guided by the CDST. This framework, according to Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry (2015), allows for the consideration of a wide array of factors present in the learning environment. Moreover, results under this theory have the potential to be highly reliable, given that the CDST encourages new and innovative data collecting procedures, mixed-methods studies, and the analysis of micro-level changes over long periods (Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry, 2015).

To shed light on how the classroom context can be analyzed as a complex, dynamic system, Larsen-Freeman (2015) outlines nine characteristics of research in these systems:

1) *Different use of space.* Given the innovative and comprehensive research practices typical of CDST work, images and pictures are often used to illustrate fluctuations and changes. In the context of learner motivation for example, researchers and participants may use graphs or scatter plots to illustrate how their motivation changes during a lesson. Interviews could then be used to complement these images as participants explain these changes.
2) *Acceptance of complexity.* Variables studied under CDST cannot be isolated and no phenomenon can be analyzed as the result of a single factor. Instead, researchers must seek to identify patterns that emerge when considering all elements of the system. The present study, for example, which compares motivation in ESP and GE courses cannot consider only course content as the determining factor; the entire classroom environment needs to be analyzed.
3) *Acknowledgement of relationships*. L2 motivation research under the CDST needs to understand how different elements in the classroom environment work together to encourage or suppress motivation.
4) *Nonlinearity.* Changes in the complex systems, despite some predictability, occur in a nonlinear way. It can therefore be difficult to talk in terms of trends, as fluctuations is more appropriate.
5) *Dependence on initial conditions*. Given the relationship between all elements in a system, any change introduced to one element can have far-reaching consequences to all other elements. In the classroom, such a change might come in the form of a

changing the arrangement of desks and chairs, doing partner work, or the difficulty of a task.

6) *Openness/Non-finality*. The classroom environment cannot close itself to outside influence, as teachers and students alike arrive to each lesson with a different mental state and with a set of different experiences. Such a condition means that it is impossible for one to lock in place a "motivating environment," as the factors that would create such an environment are in constant evolution.
7) *Adaptation*. Given the variety of factors present in the classroom environment, learners find ways to adjust their motivation levels to adapt to changes and progress.
8) *Context dependent*. Complex, dynamic systems are highly dependent not only on the classroom context, but also on the institutional and local culture in which the learning takes place. Therefore, outside variables need to be considered as well.
9) *Non-Gaussian distribution*. As a result of the conditions described in this list, it is rare to find any regularity in the rate or amount of change that take place in a system in relation to all variables.

As this list illustrates, the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory represents a comprehensive tool for analyzing classroom motivation. By assuming a certain level of nonlinearity as the result of numerous factors constantly interacting, the CDST takes into account even unexpected factors and motivational changes. Valuable conclusions can nevertheless be drawn, as the CDST expects patterns to emerge. These points make this framework highly relevant to the present study whose goal is to challenge a long-held belief that specialized language courses are inherently more motivating (Brown, 2007); by considering the relationships between numerous variables present in the system, the study can make more reliable conclusions regarding what course elements students finding motivating.

Given the comprehensive nature of this framework, data collection and presentation can be a complicated process when describing results. To cope with this difficulty and identify the causes of fluctuations in students' behaviors and attitudes, however, two phenomena have been described: attractor states and Directed Motivational Currents, which are presented below.

III.3.a) Attractor States. The concept of attractor states has been developed to understand the origins of behaviors, effort, and attitudes. As mentioned above, despite student motivation being a highly dynamic phenomenon, some level predictability is possible because behaviors and engagement are guided by mental concepts known as attractor states (Dörnyei, 2010). These states are often resistant to change and push learners to repeat behaviors over an unpredictable amount of time (de Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2007).

According to Larsen-Freeman & Cameron (2008), three different types of attractor states exist. The first type is a fixed point state; these states are highly resistant to change and modification. Students acting under a fixed point attractor state are likely to continue exerting the same level of effort and attention over a prolonged period of time. Next, some learners experience cyclic states; these states occur when a learner alternates between a small range of states. Each state might inspire a different type of action on the part of the learner, but the learner is likely to go back and forth between the same states in the cycle. Lastly, the most versatile states are called chaotic states. These states are subject to very frequent and unpredictable changes; learner behaviors in these states are not stable and are likely to change even in response to minor stimuli (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Chan, Dörnyei & Henry (2015) illustrate the role of attractor states with a study on high school students taking English language classes. Students were interviewed about their experiences with English and their future self-image. Data from one student showed a variety of different attractor states guiding his behavior that shifted over the course of his English studies; the student in question initially agreed to study English at his family's insistence, without really knowing how it would serve him later. Therefore, his initial attractor state was to please others. He started to get some enjoyment from his English classes, particularly in the spirit of competition inspired by class quizzes and tests, resulting in an attractor state of stimulation. Finally, when failing the quizzes, the student resolved to do better, leading to a fear of failure attractor state. These various states occurred in something of a loop for this student, determining the amount and type of effort to put into his language learning.

Waninge (2015) claims that a literature review regarding students' L2 attractor states reveals four principal states that are commonly experienced in the classroom: engagement, interest, anxiety and boredom. Her experiment revealed that interest was the most common state referenced by learners, as a key impetus that pushed them to actively participate and

engage with the material. Boredom, however, was also commonly referenced by learners, as an attractor state that led to them disengaging and not putting forth learning effort. Eddy-U (2015) describes a similar range of emotional states guiding behaviors, including interest, but also disinterest, self-confidence, and classroom social dynamics. Csizér & Luckács (2010) describe another study in which they analyze the L2MSS constructs of L2IS, L2OS and L2LE as attractor states that stimulate learner behavior. In their study, they found that the L2IS in particular was found to be a powerful determining attractor state in learner motivation.

As these studies show, attractor states are useful tools for explaining behaviors. By understanding students' principal emotional states and attitudes towards different learning activities, this study can make stronger claims regarding what types of tasks result in more motivated learning behaviors. The following section regarding Directed Motivational Currents describes one way that attractor states might influence behavior, by resulting in sustained periods of learning effort.

III.3.b) Directed Motivational Currents. In an attempt to identify and analyze visible and measurable forms of motivation, the concept of Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs) has been developed. DMCs can best be defined as periods of intense motivation that push a student to reach a very specific objective; these bursts of increased effort can be sustained over long time scales under the appropriate conditions. Individuals experiencing DMCs are likely to actively seek out learning opportunities and error correction to help them achieve a personally-relevant goal (Dörnyei, Muir & Ibrahim, 2014).

Dörnyei, Muir & Ibrahim (2014) explain that several factors must be present to create and sustain long-term DMCs. First, learners need to develop a highly-detailed, personally-valued, future goal that can serve as an impetus; as people are often eager to fill any gap between their ideal self and their current self, DMCs are very vision-oriented, as the effort and engagement that they trigger must lead towards this future self (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013).

Next, Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir (2015) explain that DMCs must have what they refer to as a salient, facilitative structure. The goal that spurs the DMC must be accompanied by a series of clear, measurable subgoals so that students can see progress and understand how they should proceed. Finally, the learner must have strong, positive feelings about the goal of L2

mastery, so that even tedious tasks completed while reaching the goal result are perceived as pleasurable and inspire further action.

In various contexts, researchers have sought to identify the main characteristics of DMCs and the most effective triggers. Working with immigrant students learning Swedish in Sweden, Henry, Davydenko & Dörnyei (2015) used interviews to understands participants' studying habits and efforts. In all interviews, students were easily able to pinpoint situations in which their motivation was highest. These instances were often described in quite similar terms, with students claiming that learning Swedish completely took over their lives; all learners reported that, during these highly motivated periods, they would reserve time every day to dedicate exclusively to independent study. Even in situations where learning became difficult or required a personal sacrifice, students reported persevering with their studies. While they did not have overly detailed plans for how they would use their new language, all participants reported a desire to fully integrate into their new society and obtain steady jobs. This study validates the proposed structure of DMCs, as learners were guided by a relatively clear objective, to facilitate their insertion in their new society. Consequently, they had regular motivation bursts, with all learners claiming to have set daily tasks for themselves to progress. Lastly, the positive feelings toward the goal were clearly present with learners reporting the capacity to pursue goals despite the hardships they occasionally faced.

Even if these motivational currents have been criticized for their inability to consistently predict triggers and structures of intense learning effort, DMCs do provide a useful basis for describing fluctuations in engagement levels. Not surprisingly, they have been applied to studies conducted under numerous theoretical frameworks, including the Self-Determination Theory, the Socioeducational Model, as well as the L2MSS and CDST used in this study (Dörnyei, Ibrahim & Muir, 2015). Additionally, they constitute a visual representation of learner motivation that can be analyzed through classroom observations; just as Henry, Davydenko & Dörnyei's (2015) study showed participants actively engaging in learning behaviors during periods of motivation, this study seeks to use student behaviors in the classroom as indicators of learner motivation. The following section describes research methods often used under the CDST, illustrating how changes in learner behaviors are analyzed.

III.3.c) Research Methods in CDST. Conducting research under the CDST is different from other types of experimentation in that it does not allow for a reductionist perspective; the researcher is not seeking to identify single causes and isolated variables, but rather patterns and interactions (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Consequently, a different type of methodology is needed for collecting data in these comprehensive analyses.

Yashima & Aran (2015) outline seven different principles to consider when analyzing data collected under the CDST that have informed the present study:

1) Identify the different components in the system. In the case of the present study, the focus is on student behaviors in ESP and GE courses, so course content, motivated behaviors, classroom dynamics and the setup of the classroom are just a sampling of the factors that need to be considered.
2) Identify timescales of operations. While motivation can experience minute to minute changes in the classroom setting, student behaviors are also apt to organize into stable attractor states that resist constant fluctuation. Still, these classroom level changes could ultimately influence students' long-term attitudes and beliefs. Therefore, motivational changes in the present study are observed both in individual lessons and across the semester-long courses.
3) Describe the relationships between components. It is important to note that various factors affect learners differently. An interesting learning activity could result in greater learning effort and engagement, just as uncomfortable classroom chairs might result in student frustration and disengagement.
4) Describe how the dynamic system adapts to the context. Students behaviors are likely to be the result of their own evaluation of the classroom context, their peers, the teacher, and the learning activities; they adapt their motivation and engagement level to these evaluations. This study therefore uses interviews and observations sessions to understand students' reactions to these various elements.
5) Describe how components change. As described previously, CDST supposes a strong dependence on initial conditions. As such, it is important to note any changes in the system to allow for a more thorough analysis.

6) Identify contextual factors affecting the system. Aside from the classroom context, learners may also be affected by the local culture, their personal lives, and the academic institution that provides the course and the classroom. These factors are also considered in the present study, given their important for understanding motivational fluctuations.
7) Identify instances of coadaptation. Student motivation can be modified to accommodate the arrival of new elements into the classroom system; such a change is important to note to understand the relationship between different variables.

Given the necessity to determine variables within a system and analyze their relationships, one must understand the individual, cultural, institutional and classroom environments with their various features (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). To do so, Larsen-Freeman & Cameron (2008) have suggested several research methodologies that are easily applicable to the comprehensive data collecting procedures necessary for this CDST project. One example is ethnography; researchers might try looking for changes or phenomena over a specific timescale by observing the classroom. Longitudinal studies allow for the collection of data over a long period of time at carefully chosen intervals; this practice permits the researchers to see when and how often changes take place. Lastly, microdevelopments can be analyzed through the use of corpora data collected over smaller timescales; these data also shed light on what causes changes and when (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

The following section presents a selection of studies employing these research strategies. These studies underline the capacities of the CDST and guide the development of the present study.

III.3.d) CDST in the Classroom. As stated, the language classroom is an inherently dynamic environment, with various features in constant interaction. Larsen-Freeman & Cameron (2008) identify four tenets of the CDST that need to be considered when analyzing the L2 learning environment. First, all elements of a classroom are connected; one cannot be changed without having an impact on all other elements. Next, languages are complex, dynamic phenomena, even when presented statically in a textbook; they are subject to change and evolution, which can influence how learners view them. Third, co-adaptation regularly

occurs to accommodate changes in the relationships between teachers, students and the learning environment; it is important for researchers and instructors to understand how and when these adaptations occur in order to be able to better prepare for them. Lastly, teaching in a dynamic system involves managing the dynamics of the learning system, rather than seeking to control them (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Knowing these four tenets is necessary for understanding how L2 motivation fits into a complex system. Dörnyei (1994) explains that L2 motivation is highly classroom specific and dependent on factors relating to the course, the teacher, and the other students. Regarding the course, Wiesman (2012) and Ushioda (1996) explain that students are most motivated when the pedagogical activities are connected to their interests and help them to reach personal goals. Teachers can also influence learner motivation, as students who report that their teachers encourage autonomy are more motivated than those who feel their teachers are controlling (Dörnyei, 1994; Menezes de Oliveira e Paiva, 2011). Concerning the other students, a good relationship between classmates and a strong sense of group cohesion can also be a motivating element and encourage greater learning effort, especially when group members are working towards a common goal (Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei, 1997). Lastly, Menezes de Oliveira e Pavia (2011) explains that one's identity and personal life can also play an important role in determining the level of effort one is willing to put forth in L2 learning; learners who are busy with other projects and goals may de-prioritize their language learning in favor of other tasks. Given that all of these factors interact simultaneously during the learning process, applying the CDST to the classroom context is therefore an obvious choice for understanding which have the greatest impact on student motivation; this point is especially true as Larsen-Freeman & Cameron (2008) explain, not all factors in the learning environment are equally important and result in the same level of motivational change.

The following subsection presents L2 classroom motivation research conducted through the lens of the CDST to highlight how motivational fluctuations are analyzed.

III.3.e) Motivation research with CDST. The experiments conducted under the CDST attest to the shift in L2 learning research towards considering motivation as a dynamic phenomenon that is influenced by countless factors both inside and outside the language classroom. A careful review of the most recent literature has revealed that two principal themes

seem to emerge regarding the focus of these studies: 1) studies that discuss that frequent changes that occur in a language course or during an individual lesson and, 2) comprehensive studies that consider several factors that influence a learner's self-concept which, in turn, influences L2 motivation. A sampling of experiments from these two groups are explained below given their relevance to the present study and their usefulness in inspiring its data collecting methodology.

III.3.e.i) Motivation fluctuations in the classroom. As stated in previously, the present study operates under the belief that motivation is based on a number of factors and, therefore, subject to frequent and sometimes unpredictable changes. Research indicates that these changes are noticeable both in individual lessons and long-term, over entire courses (Guilloteaux, 2007; Nitta & Baba, 2015; Waninge, Dörnyei & de Bot, 2014). It is crucial to analyze these fluctuations, as students' attitudes and evaluations of the classroom environment have been shown to have a significant impact on their overall attitudes towards the L2 in question as well as general language learning (Csizér, Kormos & Sarkadi, 2010). The following studies help to shed light on the causes of these changes in student behaviors along with researchers' strategies for understanding them.

To establish how CDST can applied to the classroom context, Waninge, Dörnyei & de Bot (2014) present a novel approach for analyzing classroom observation data with an experiment conducted in German and Spanish foreign language classes in a Dutch high school. The goal of the study was first, to determine the existence of variability and stability in student motivation during lessons, and also to understand if the classroom context was the impetus for these states. A small sampling of students was identified and asked to complete questionnaires to establish their general motivational profile. Then, over a two-week period, students indicated their motivation levels during their language lessons at five-minute intervals using Monometers on a scale of 0-100. An analysis of the data revealed significant variation during lessons for each participant; furthermore, the motivational fluctuations appeared to be highly individualized, as participants did not seem to change in the same direction at the same time. Some stability was observed, however, notably with one student who reported really appreciating the teacher and enjoying the experience of learning Spanish; as a result, much less variation occurred in his engagement, as he always rated his motivation as very high. Such a

finding confirms the role of classroom context in influencing students' motivational changes and also highlights the need for the individualized, comprehensive approach employed by the present study.

In another example of classroom-level motivational change, Pawlak (2012) describes fluctuations during English lessons in a Polish high school over the course of several weeks; the study sought to understand how motivation levels vary between and during lessons. As recommended by CDST research principles, a mixed-method approach was used, as student engagement is not easily observable; a motivational grid was kept during the lesson and updated with student engagement data at five-minute intervals during the lesson. Interviews occurred after lessons so that students could comment directly on their observed motivational changes and describe their attitudes and interest in studying English. Overall, students were largely extrinsically motivated, with engagement and learning enthusiasm most noticeable when it was for the purpose of achieving good grades. During a lesson, and even between lessons, however, motivation did not seem to change much during the four weeks observed; the only notable exceptions Pawlak (2012) reported occurred in situations with more novel activities that encourage group work or oral practice. This latter finding study lends some evidence to the role of individual learning activities for instigating change and calls for longer-term studies.

A similar study was conducted in a vocational Polish high school over a two-week period with similar results; students reported their motives for learning English were largely extrinsic and instrumental, as they wanted good jobs, good grades, and the possibility to go to a good university. Again, classroom motivation was shown to be low, but more or less stable, with the exception of oral and interactive activities, which generated greater engagement. The researchers repeated the need for longer term studies, soliciting interview data from other students to find patterns in what stimulates behavior (Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Bielak, 2014).

Aside from the minute-to-minute changes that can be noticed during a lesson, Yashima & Aran (2015) illustrate how motivation is subject to regular ebbs and flows over an entire course, which in the university context often refers to a semester. The researchers conducted interviews with students taking an elective non-credit English course in a Japanese university; interviews were conducted at different points during the semester and students were asked to

draw a line graph to illustrate their participation and engagement throughout the semester. Results indicated that, when discussing most variations in engagement levels, participants spoke mostly about classroom factors, such as an appreciation of classmates, the teacher and learning activities. Other personal factors seemed to have an impact as well, such as career plans, obligations outside of the language class, and having foreign friends. While all students generally started the course with a high level of motivation, this motivation fell during the semester due factors outside the classroom, attesting to the fact that initial motivation is not sufficient to sustain student behaviors throughout a course and that factors outside the classroom come into play.

The above studies illustrate the dynamic nature of motivation and highlight the necessity for analyzing factors inside and outside the learning environment. Pawlak (2012) found that novel learning activities solicited greater engagement from students, while Yashima & Aran (2015) reported the importance of non-classroom factors. The following subsection details some of these non-classroom factors further to show their relevance to classroom motivation.

III.3.e.ii) Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) and culture. When analyzing learner motivation, despite the importance of classroom factors, it is also essential to account for other elements, including the national and local cultures and the institutional context individual differences (Henry, 2015a; Malcolm, 2011; Yashima & Aran, 2015); these elements can play a large role in determining how students feel about language learning in general and also their attitudes towards specific foreign languages.

Dörnyei & Csizér (2002) show the importance of culture in relation to L2 motivation with a study on middle school students in Hungary regarding their feelings towards learning different commonly studied foreign languages in Hungary and their intended learning effort. Questionnaires were sent out to students in 1993 and another group of students of the same age and from the same locations in 1999. Results indicated that, for most measures, motivation and intended effort for learning Russian was low and attitudes were generally negative in the first questionnaire and decreased in the second questionnaire; such a finding likely relates to Hungary's past cultural and political ties with Russia and language being forced on Hungarians for several years (Dörnyei & Csizér (2002). Motivation for learning English, in contrast to the

other foreign languages analyzed, was the strongest for most measures, followed by German; this pattern is likely the result of the strong importance attached to learning English, and to an extent German, as international languages in Hungarian society (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002). Together, these findings indicate how societal attitudes towards a language can have a strong impact on students' attitudes and the amount of effort they will put towards learning it; results also show that these cultural attitudes are not stable, as feelings towards Russian became more negative and feelings towards English became more positive.

Aside from local and national culture, the learning institution can also influence students' behaviors regarding their language learning. Csizér & Luckács (2010), for instance, describe high school students' attitudes towards learning English and German together and how motivation can be affected based on one language's position as the first, most important language to be studied, versus being the second foreign language, which is started later in a student's academic career; students do not always have a choice in which foreign language is first and which is second, leading to potential consequences on motivation. Results of a questionnaire study indicated that when students first choice for a first foreign language were not granted, they might be uninterested in the other language. For example, a student who wants English as a first foreign language but whose institution only allows German may, subconsciously, develop negative attitudes towards German and be less willing to put forth the necessary effort (Csizér & Luckács, 2010).

In a more dynamic perspective, Malcolm (2011) reiterates the importance of an institutional culture in shaping motivation with an experiment on native Arabic speakers completing an Medical degree in an English-medium institution. The school placed great importance on English proficiency as all classes were conducted an English; Malcolm's (2011) study concerns four students who failed their first year, attributing their difficulties to their lack of English skills. In order to start again the following year, their English learning motivation and effort increased significantly, as they sought help from outside sources, took remedial language courses or spent periods abroad. The English-speaking culture mandated by the Medical school played a large role in guiding students' behaviors to improve their English proficiency.

Henry's (2015a) study illustrates how national and institutional cultures can work simultaneously to influence students' attitudes towards language learning. In an experiment

involving class observations and interviews, Henry (2015a) analyzed students' attitudes towards learning French as a second foreign language in addition to English in Sweden. On a national level, English is widely valued in Sweden and many learners have regular exposure to English through in the media and other non-academic contexts. French, however, has a different role, as high school students can receive extra credit for continuing it in high school, but the courses are rather rigorous (Henry, 2015a). Interview data revealed that students' impressions of the lower utilitarian value of French caused them to de-prioritize it in relation to English and their other subjects; some even reported they would likely just use English if they were in France for tourism. Likewise, one student reported that, perhaps due the demanding nature of the French course, he was disappointed with his test grade and decided to drop the course; as a result, his motivation could never be more than minimal. Other students reported that doing badly on a test inspired them to try harder the next time, so motivation increased. In these cases, both the national culture, which values English above other languages, and the institutional culture, which offers only highly rigorous French courses, both influenced learners' motivation at different timescales.

Other research focuses the impact that the L2 culture can have on student learning motivation, rather than the native culture. This concept is particularly relevant in the university context, given the large presence of study abroad programs. Irie & Ryan (2015), for example, found that the idea of leaving on a study abroad term led to a surge in learning effort on the part of Japanese university students. Questionnaires revealed, however, that arrival in the country and subsequent interactions with the L2 culture had unpredictable consequences on motivation. Initial strong motivation was sometimes sustained or increased further, in the case of students enjoying the new cultural experience; in other situations, students lost motivation or abandoned their L2 studies if their experience was going badly (Irie & Ryan, 2015).

The above studies illustrate the importance of elements outside the classroom in determining students' language learning effort. Such findings not only highlight the need for the comprehensive approach used in the present study, but they also reinforce the dynamic nature of motivation. Learners in several of the studies referenced above indicate that their motivation was not static, as their level of effort fluctuated due to cultural factors (Irie & Ryan, 2015) or due to factors present in their learning institution (Henry, 2015a).

Based on the research referenced in this chapter, the following chapter outlines the research questions and hypotheses guiding this study along with a description of the methodology, applying the L2MSS and CDST to identify the presence and strength of the factors influencing student behaviors and attitudes.

Summary

This chapter presents the theoretical frameworks that guide the present study, the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST). Their respective constructs are presented along with guidelines for their use.

The L2MSS has its origins in research on the self-concept. Markus & Nurius (1986) explain that, based on our social and cultural context as well as our past experiences, we develop visions of who we can possibly be in the future; it is a function of our beliefs, fears and ambitions. These future self-visions are a highly pertinent advancement in L2 motivation research, as they have the capacity to impact behavior (Chen, 2012). Lamb (2011) highlights this point in a study with Indonesian high school students; those who had clear future visions of themselves using English in their professional lives were also the students that employed more learning strategies to master the language.

The L2MSS describes two types of self-images that stimulate learning behaviors, the L2 Ideal Self (L2IS) and the L2 Ought to Self (L2OS). The former is observed when a learner is pushed by personally-valued future goals; a student learns English, for example, because it is necessary for a job that he or she really wants in the future. The L2 Ought to Self, on the other hand, is observed when one learns for the purpose of avoiding negative outcomes, such as a failing a test or missing out on a work promotion (Dörnyei, 2009). These constructs improve on past conceptualizations of motivation in that they show how even externally imposed obligations, such as learning English for a job, can be highly motivating, as long as they assist a learner in reaching their future goals.

The self-concepts presented in the L2MSS have been shown to have an impact on language learning behaviors; Rajab, Roohbaksh & Etemadzadeh (2012), for instance, present data showing a strong correlation between the L2 Ideal Self and learners' intended effort amongst students learning English in an Iranian university. As such findings take into account various elements of the learner's identity, rather than focusing solely on his or her attitudes

towards English, they offer crucial insights for gaining a deeper understanding of the origins of motivation (Ushioda, 2011).

Additionally, the L2MSS is a powerful complement to a dynamic approach to analyzing learner motivation. Although the L2IS and L2OS are relatively stable constructs, as they are the result of one's life experiences, they are subject to some change (Dörnyei, 2009). Indeed, Murray (2011) suggests that the teacher can influence students' self-concepts, thereby impacting their learning behaviors. To better explain this phenomenon, the L2MSS also describes a construct with the capacity to describe learner behaviors in real-time, the L2 Learning Environment (L2LE); this construct explains that learner motivation can be the result of numerous factors in the classroom (Dörnyei, 2009).

The L2LE adds to this theory's dynamic dimension. Numerous researchers have noted how a variety of factors in the classroom and in society can influence learner behaviors (Henry, 2015a; Pawlak, 2012). Though MacIntyre & Serroul (2015) claim that this construct is not often the focus of the L2MSS research, it has been found to have a significant impact on real time motivation (Azarnoosh & Birjandi, 2013). In the case of Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Bielak (2014), for example, students taking an English class in a Polish high school exhibited short-term motivational bursts when novel or collaborative learning activities were used. Waninge, Dörnyei & de Bot (2014) reinforce the role of the learning environment in a study on foreign language classes in a Dutch high school; learners reported that the relationship with the teacher, the social dynamic with the peers and the type of learning activity all caused motivational changes on a minute-to-minute scale.

It is for this reason that the present study is guided in part by the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory. Though the L2IS and L2OS provide useful information regarding the types of motivation present in a group of learners, Ryan & Dörnyei (2013) point out the young adult learners, such as the university students analyzed in this study, may have not have very stable self-concepts. As such, their existing concepts can be modified by their learning experiences, resulting in changes to their learning behaviors. To understand these real-time motivational changes, a thorough focus of the learning environment is necessary. The CDST allows for such a focus by insisting on the importance of all factors present in a given system, in this case the L2LE, and supposes that even a small change in one element can have a significant, unpredictable impact on the rest of the system (Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

To conduct research under the CDST, a variety of timescales need to be studied to understand the impact of a given phenomenon. Thus, the longitudinal and cross-sectional data presented in this study both offer crucial insights on elements of the classroom environment that lead to motivational changes. Interview data and classroom observations, conducted under the CDST, allow for an understanding of when and why these changes occur (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

To describe the collected data, two constructs are often cited in CDST research: attractor states and directed motivational currents. Attractor states are mental constructs that push learners to repeat behavioral patterns (de Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2007). Chan, Dörnyei & Henry (2015) illustrate that attractor states can have many different origins, including a fear of failure, stimulation in the learning environment and conforming to family demands; each of these origins has the capacity to guide motivation and engagement in the classroom.

Directed motivational currents, on the other hand, are intense motivational surges that push learners to reach an objective (Dörnyei, Muir & Ibrahim, 2014). Understanding when these bursts of effort occur, either through interviews or direct observation, can shed light on the causes of motivation in those cases. This practice has validated in past research, as learners have proven to be capable of describing moments during the learning process where they were significantly more motivated than others (Henry, Davydenko & Dörnyei, 2015).

As the studies referenced in this chapter illustrate, innumerable aspects of a learners' life, society, and classroom environment impact L2 motivation over different timescales. The L2MSS and CDST allow for a comprehensive analysis of both stable and dynamic constructs that affect students' engagement and learning effort. Under the guidelines set forth by these two theories, the present study presents data from an individualized, longitudinal study to compare learner motivation in specialized language courses and general language courses, in terms of the type of motivation present and the factors that influence it. The following chapter explicitly outlines the research questions addressed in this study and the methods used to respond to them.

IV.) Research Questions & Methodology

IV.1) Research Questions

This study concerns two principal academic fields: L2 learning motivation and courses of English for Specific Purposes. A thorough review of literature in these domains revealed that, even if Far (2008) notes that ESP courses are supposed to be more motivating than General English courses, such an assumption cannot be taken for granted. Studies in different contexts and at different levels show relative indifference towards specialized materials, and sometimes even a preference for general language materials (Doucet, 1997; Mémet, 2003; Schug & Le Cor, 2017). Additionally, regarding L2 learning motivation, a shift in research trends indicates an increased importance of the self-concept and the learning context which has not yet been widely applied to ESP (Dörnyei, 2009; Paltridge, 2016). To conform to these recent research trends and advance research on ESP learning, the following questions have been constructed:

RQ1) How does motivation differ in terms of type (L2 Motivational Self System construct) and strength between students in courses of English for Specific Purposes and students in courses of General English?

RQ2) What classroom factors affect student motivation? Do these factors differ between students in ESP and GE courses?

Guided by these questions, the present study is able to analyze what Brown (2007) refers to as a "folk assumption" about ESP courses being inherently more motivating, at least concerning the university level. Furthermore, given the focus on the classroom environment and the inclusion of the L2 learning environment construct of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS), this study can yield data with clear implications for teaching practice in both ESP and GE.

Secondly, this study applies the L2MSS and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) to ESP and GE courses in universities in Italy and France. Until now, these theories have not widely been used in these contexts. Paltridge (2016) explains that the L2MSS has not been often used for analyzing students in ESP courses, despite its potential. Moreover,

aside from a master thesis on Italian high school students by Palombizio (2015), the L2MSS seems to have largely been applied to the Middle East, Eastern Asia and some Eastern European countries (Magid, 2014). The same can be said of the CDST, which has appeared in Northern Europe, Eastern Europe, and Eastern Asia (Henry, 2015a; Pawlak, 2012; Yashima & Aran, 2015). As such, this study offers a third research question:

RQ3) Are the L2 Motivational Self System and Complex Dynamic Systems Theory effective frameworks for analyzing L2 learning motivation in the context of French and Italian universities?

Despite the limited context analyzed in the present study, it is hoped that that results will provide pertinent information that can be applied to research and pedagogy in other French and Italian universities.

IV.2) Hypotheses

The Complex Dynamic Systems Theory insists on the relevance of initial conditions and a nonlinearity of changes (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Still, given the body of research conducted under this theory as well as the relative stability found in the L2 Motivational Self System's self-constructs, this study is able to suppose a general direction of results allowing for the establishment of hypotheses.

H1) Regarding the first research question, it is expected that little difference will be observed between the type and strength of motivation. If anything, past research suggests that motivation will be slightly stronger in General English courses, calling in to question the value of specialized language courses at the university level, in terms of increasing student motivation.

This hypothesis is based on several findings in the fields of L2 motivation and English for Specific Purposes. Most obviously, the initial findings of the present study, presented by Schug & Le Cor (2017) indicate that students in ESP courses, even if their motivation is high, seem relatively indifferent to the specialized elements of their English courses; students instead describe being intrigued by cultural lessons or interactive activities, similar to learners in the

GE courses. These findings are in line with earlier conclusions by Brunton (2009), who worked with hotel employees taking a combined ESP/GE course in Thailand. While he found that globally, students were satisfied with their course, a small preference for GE lessons was found as they allowed learners to get by in a wider variety of contexts. Additionally, Brown (2007) found that, when given in the choice during an exam set-up, students often did not choose activities that related to their majors, but rather to university life in general.

Additionally, research on the self-concept also informs this hypothesis. As outlined in the literature review, ESP courses are meant to be carefully adapted to a given field, offering the relevant language structures (Brumfit, 1978). This adaptation to learners' goals and interests are supposed to be a principal motivating element of ESP courses (Far, 2008). At the university level, however, students may be too young to have very clearly defined goals and a well-defined self-concept (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013). As such, it seems highly possible that university students do not understand how or if they will use English in their professional lives, rendering the specialization of ESP activities less meaningful; it is this point that will be analyzed in the present study.

H2) Again, patterns in past research on L2 learning motivation and ESP allow for some hypothesizing regarding the second research question.

Consistent with Azarnoosh's (2014) findings, this study expects that learner motivation will be influenced largely by the L2 learning environment, particularly the classroom. It is expected that the learning task will play the most significant role in stimulating student engagement. This hypothesis is based on Waninge's (2015) finding on the significant influence of interest and boredom in guiding learners behaviors. It is also consistent with past research, notably under the Expectancy-Value Theory, which posits that learners are constantly evaluating the value of a task in determining how much effort to put forth (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Furthermore, following the learning task, learners are expected to report that their motivation is, at least in part, based on their social relationships with their peers and the teacher. Such a supposition is in line with Dörnyei's Framework of Learning; at the learning situation level, students are evaluating their rapport with their classmates and teacher (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Additionally, the fact that oral and interactive activities regularly appear as more

motivating suggest that a strong social element is at play (Pawlak, 2012; Schug & Le Cor, 2017).

Lastly, this study hypothesizes that language proficiency level influences learner motivation. This point is particularly true in the fields of ESP and university education. Students in lower language levels, or at earlier stages of their university education, are unlikely to be able to cope with highly specialized materials; authentic documents might prove too difficult and specialized vocabulary may not yet have been learned in the native language (Cigada, 1988; Ibba, 1988). Daloiso (2009) speculates that overly difficult tasks can hinder learning motivation; therefore, this situation might result in ESP courses being too difficult for students of lower levels, thusly making them demotivating.

It is not expected that students' responses will differ much between ESP and GE courses; rather, responses will continue to mirror what Schug & Le Cor (2017) already reported: students rarely mentioned specialized elements of their language courses.

H3) As stated previously, research in various contexts have shown that the L2MSS and CDST are effective frameworks for analyzing student motivation. That said, a thorough review of literature has not revealed any experiments using these theories in French or Italian universities, particularly in ESP courses. As such, this study is somewhat novel in that it offers an analysis of these contexts. While the initial results presented in Schug & Le Cor (2017) suggest that the CDST can indeed be helpful for understanding the elements of a course that students find motivating, such as how interesting they find a given learning activity and the pace of the lesson, further analysis is needed to fully validate this claim.

Regarding the L2MSS, however, additional research is necessary. Questionnaire items measuring the L2 Ought to Self, for example, ask learners to describe how their attitudes towards learning English are influenced by societal pressures or pressures from respected authority figures, such as parents or professors (Safdari, 2017). Chen (2012), however, suggests that such items might be culturally-influenced; Taiwanese learners, for instance, did report strong L2OS associations, making an effort to learn English in order to please their parents and gain admission into selective universities. These goals, however, were often found to be highly internalized, generating a situation in which the L2OS sometimes intersected with the L2 Ideal Self. Similar findings were found with Chinese learners, as most participants

reported being strongly motivated by external pressures (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005). As universities in Italy and France have much different admissions procedures from those described in Taiwan and China, it is worth exploring whether the same factors constituting the self-concepts in other contexts are also applicable in Western European societies. Brady's (2014) results with Spanish university students suggest that at the least the L2OS construct may need to be refocused according to the context.

The following section of this chapter outlines the research methodology used for responding to these research questions and testing the hypotheses.

IV.3) Research Methodology

IV.3.a) Participants. To respond to the questions regarding the classroom elements that influence student motivation, willing student and teacher participants were identified to serve as research subjects. To do so, a convenience sampling strategy was used; participants were selected from the Université de Paris 8, France, and the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, Italy, the two establishments with which the researcher is associated. While Etikan, Musa & Alkassim (2016) note the potential downfalls of using a convenience sampling strategy, particularly that results cannot be assumed to be applicable to other contexts, such an approach was deemed necessary and useful for the present study.

The advantages of a convenience sampling are obvious; participants are readily available and it saves time and money by avoiding full population analyses to determine an appropriate random sampling strategy (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). Moreover, the nature of L2MSS and CDST research demands small-scale studies and assumes every situation is different. The self-concept analyzed in L2MSS studies, for example, is highly individualized and based on each specific learners' past experiences with a language (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Similarly, the CDST assumes that all phenomena are context dependent (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Small-scale, individualized approaches have been called for in both frameworks (Henry, 2015a; Hsieh, 2009). As such, this study responds to this call by providing thorough analyses of courses at the two different universities mentioned above. While similar findings may not be found consistently in other contexts, they nevertheless add to the ongoing

conversation about classroom fluctuations in learner engagement and motivation and provide useful considerations for teaching practice and future research.

The following subsection presents the context of the present study, including a description of the universities, teachers, and students analyzed.

IV.3.a.i) The universities. As stated above, this study used a convenience sampling strategy to select participants. Regarding the universities analyzed, the Université de Paris 8, in Saint Denis, France, was used as the principal site for data collection, with some additional data also collected at the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, in Venice, Italy. As these two universities are the home institutions of the researcher, they were deemed the most practical locations for research. Aside from already having an understanding of how classes are conducted and the academic policies, the researcher was also able to rely on the contacts and recommendations of the two thesis advisors for meeting interested English professors.

The Université de Paris 8 is a large, public university in France's Ile-de-France region. Created in 1969, this university currently has well over 20,000 enrolled students of highly variable socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds (Comité national d'évaluation des établissements publics à caractère scientifique, culturel et professionnel, 2014). It represents an interesting context for a study on English language learning because, while most of the university's courses are conducted in French, efforts have been made towards internationalization; with roughly a third of their student population being foreign, the university has openly expressed its commitment to becoming a global university and encouraging international mobility for its students, particularly for the purpose of language learning (Comité national, 2014). Research on ESP at the university is particularly relevant as well, given their applications to the professional world; like many French universities, the Université de Paris 8 has resolved to make its diplomas more professionally-oriented (Comité national, 2014; Van der Yeught, 2014). As such, this project offers an opportunity to analyze how professional goals influence students' attitudes towards their specialized language courses.

Concerning the language courses to be studied at the Université de Paris 8, all courses are organized by the institution's Language Center, referred to as the CDL, for Centre de Langues. The CDL offers courses for a variety of languages at different levels; enrollment in

language courses is generally capped at 35 students per section, with many sections being full (Université de Paris 8, 2017). Still, some sections have slightly more or considerably fewer students, particularly at the end of the semester, due to students either dropping out or switching sections.

For the purposes of this study, given what Preece (1994) described as a lack of research on specialized language courses for students in artistic fields, the courses of English for Arts Purposes (ESP Arts) have been selected. This choice is made even more relevant given the strength and strong, positive reputation of the Université de Paris 8's various arts departments. Comparisons are made with students in General English. Courses are divided based on the proficiency levels outlined in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (COE, 2001). This study includes data for the A2 and B1 levels; as the university only offers specialized language courses starting from the A2 level, comparing the motivation of students at these different proficiency levels allows the study to determine if language competence influences classroom engagement.

The courses analyzed at the Université de Paris 8 include students from a variety of different academic majors. All students in artistic domains, including musicology, history of art, plastic arts, theater, and cinema, who chose to take English for their language requirement, are required to take the corresponding ESP Arts course.

In the General English courses, a much wider and more diverse range of majors is represented; students in mathematics, computer science, foreign languages other than English, literature, education, and linguistics are just a sample of possible majors present in the General English courses.

Some of these various departments represented in the ESP and GE courses require their students to choose English for their foreign language requirement, others state that they highly recommend it, and others still allow students the freedom to choose the language they wish. For students in the artistic domains who chose to study English, however, they must take the appropriate ESP course and do not have the option of taking General English, at least the A2 and B1 levels. All English classes meet once per week for three hours over the course of the twelve-week semester; the course concludes with a final exam.

The other establishment analyzed in this study, the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia is considerably different on a number of factors. It is a large public university in Italy's Veneto

Region; established in 1868, this institution has roughly 20,000 students with new enrollment regularly increasing (Universitaly, n.d.). Though at approximately 1,100 students, their foreign population is considerably smaller than the Université de Paris 8, the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia engages in numerous activities to increase its international status. A commitment has been made to double the foreign student population and the university has opened offices at other institutions abroad to enhance their global influence. (Ca' Foscari vuole raddoppiare, 2016). Furthermore, many courses and several degree programs are taught entirely in English and students are strongly encouraged to study abroad (Universitaly, n.d.). English proficiency at the B1 level is required for admission into a Bachelor degree program, though Balboni & Daloiso (2012) explain that, as of the fall semester 2011, 40% of enrolled students had not attained it.

Specialized English courses seem to be the norm for this university, required for students of most majors. For the purpose of the study, an English course aimed at students in the artistic Bachelor's degree, Conservation and Management of Cultural Goods, is analyzed. The degree's aim is to provide students with a strong understanding of the management practices, problems, and procedures regarding the documentation and preservation of cultural goods; after their studies, students are qualified for jobs in private and public cultural institutes, notably in the promotion and organization of cultural events (Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, 2018).

The English offered to students is listed as part of the required courses for the degree (Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, 2018). The course is open to students in several humanities disciplines including Philosophy and History, though most of the students present at the time of data collection were in the Cultural Goods degree. No cap on student enrollment in the course exists, as only one section is offered and attendance is encouraged, but not required. Roughly 220 students came to the lecture-type courses; they met for three 90-minute lectures per week during the second and third quarters of the academic year. These lectures aimed at helping students translate specialized literary texts and understand common grammatical and pronunciation difficulties experienced by native Italian speakers of English. Students were also strongly encouraged, to attend small group activities taught by the native speaker teaching assistants; these courses were meant to help students develop their skills in either professional reading or writing for their perspective fields.

Comparisons with General English courses is not possible at this university, as the only existing GE courses seem to be taught at the University's Language Center, meaning they are open to everyone and not just students; such a difference would invite a whole range of factors and variables that make the two groups completely incomparable.

IV.3.a.ii) The teachers. As described in the previous chapter, teachers have been shown to have a strong impact on learner motivation (Leonardi, 2014). It is possible then that any discrepancy in learner motivation between groups is the result of the teacher and his or her practices. While it was not feasible to work exclusively with one teacher who taught both ESP and GE to control for this variable, some care was taken when choosing participants. After consultation with the two advisors of this project and other colleagues from the two universities, a number of professors were contacted for participation in this study. Although all instructors naturally have their own strategies and ways of connecting with students, the fact that those included in this study were suggested by their peers is indicative of their good reputation and positive reviews from the student population.

In the first year of this doctoral program, the initial phase of selecting language teachers proved somewhat complicated. Several instructors were unwilling to welcome a non-student observer in their lessons, while others agreed at first and later described discomfort with the idea. In the end, 5 different instructors agreed to classroom observations along with questionnaires and interviews to their students. These 5 instructors had similar profiles; all had advanced degrees (either Master or PhD) in English with several years of English teaching experience at different levels and in various contexts and institutions.

These five teachers were contacted either via email or in person when their email address was not readily accessible. The initial contact presented the purpose of this study; it was explained that the objective was to compare student motivation in ESP and GE courses for university students. As such, their teaching was not going to be directly evaluated, but rather their students' attitudes towards learning English and reactions to the classroom environment. They all had an opportunity to review the project's questionnaire before agreeing to participate to give them an approximate idea of the focus of the study. Questions and comments were welcomed, and discussions about the project continued throughout the duration of the study. Data collection started in the second or third week of the semester; this

practice allowed the teacher to establish the rhythm of the class and build an initial rapport with their students without outside interruption. If the teacher taught multiple groups of a single course, the groups to be analyzed were selected in collaboration with the teacher.

The following table summarizes the courses taught by the teachers and the number of sections analyzed.

Teacher (code name)	**Institution**	**Course Observed**
PrG1*	Université de Paris 8	1 section-General English A2
PrG2**	Université de Paris 8	1 section- General English A2 1 section-General English B1
PrE1**	Université de Paris 8	1 section-ESP Arts A2 1 section-ESP Arts B1
PrE2*	Université de Paris 8	1 section-ESP Arts A2 1 section-ESP Arts B1
PrE3**	Università Ca' Foscari Venezia	1 section-ESP Arts B1 (aimed at many Humanities students, mostly students in Conservation in Management of Cultural Goods)

Table 1: List of participating teachers with summary of strategies

* This teacher's courses provided student observation and interview data and allowed for piloting the questionnaire

** This teacher's courses provided student observation, interview, and final questionnaire data for the present study

To respect the anonymity of the teachers, code names were assigned. In any case, several sections and levels of these courses exist and teaching assignments are susceptible to change every semester.

IV.3.a.iii) The students. As mentioned above, the student participants were all asked to complete a questionnaire. In addition to questions based on the L2 Motivational Self System, the questionnaire also solicited biographical information. This data gives a general overview of the participants in the study, so that other researchers and teachers can decide if findings can be applied to similar groups in other contexts. The information is summarized below for each of the groups that were analyzed.

Course (number of participants)	**Gender (percent of group*)**	**Age Range (average)**	**Range of number of years of English instruction (mode, average*)**	**Academic year range (mode, average*[1])**
General English A2 (37)	25 Females (67.6%) 12 Males (32.4%)	18-60 (20.9)	1-20 (9, 9.2)	1st year Bachelor - 1st year Master (1.8)
General English B1 (38)	25 Females (65.8%) 13 Males (34.2%)	17-30 (20.2)	3-13 (10, 9.4)	1st year Bachelor - 3rd year Bachelor (2, 2.1)
ESP Arts A2 (40)	23 Females (57.5%)	18-32 (20.5)	3-20 (8, 9.8)	1st year Bachelor - 2nd year Master (1,

	17 Males (42.5%)			1.9)
ESP Arts B1-Paris (41)	24 Females (58.5%) 17 Males (41.5%)	18-20 (20.3)	6-17 (10, 10.1)	1st year Bachelor - 2nd year Master (2, 2)
ESP Arts B1-Venice (77)	60 Females (77.9%) 17 Males (22.1%)	18-64 (23.1)	3-40 (13, 12.6)	1st year Bachelor - 3rd year Bachelor (3, 2)

Table 2: Questionnaire biographical data about student participants.

*to the nearest tenth

[1] 1st year of Bachelor = 1, 2nd year of Bachelor = 2, 3rd year of Bachelor = 3, 1st year of Master = 4, 2nd year of Master = 5, PhD = 6

This table shows that the majority of the 233 students considered are female (roughly 67.3%). Also, in terms of the courses at the Université de Paris 8, ESP and GE students are similar in terms of age and their academic year; the former group, however, has reported more years of English instruction. Also worth noting is that students in the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia course reported being older and having more years of English instruction; this point is perhaps not surprising as Italians tend to finish high school at 19 years old, rather than 18 years old as is typical in France.

Regarding the students' academic majors, the following disciplines were present:

Course	Academic major (number, percent of group*)
General English A2	Computer Science (10, 27%), Mathematics (4, 10.1%), Education (5, 13.5%), Political Science (1, 2.7%), Spanish (1, 2.7%), Literature (5, 13.5%), Linguistics (8, 21.6%), Communication (2, 5.4%), Arabic (1, 2.7%)
General English B1	Computer Science (13, 34.2%), Social Services (1, 2.6%), Spanish (2, 5.3%), Political Science (2, 5.3%), Linguistics (6, 15.8%), Education (6, 15.8%), Mathematics (3, 7.9%), Geography (1, 2.6%), Literature (2, 5.3%), Foreign Languages (2, 5.3%)
ESP Arts A2	Music/Musicology (6, 15%), Cinema (12, 30%), Plastic Arts/Studio Arts (18, 45%), Theater (3, 7.5%), Art Mediation (1, 2.5%)
ESP Arts B1-Paris	Infographics (1, 2.4%), Music/Musicology (4, 9.6%), Cinema (14, 34.1%), Plastic Arts/Art (18, 43.9%), Theater (3, 7.3%), Art History (1, 2.4%)
ESP Arts B1-Venice	Cultural preservation (44, 57.1%), history and philosophy (16, 20.8%), art history (11, 14.3%), literary studies (5, 6.5%), and humanities (1, 1.3%)

Table 3: Questionnaire biographical data about students' majors

*to the nearest tenth

The table highlights that the participants have a wide range of academic specializations, even those enrolled in ESP courses.

In addition to questionnaires, one or two students were also selected from each group for observations and interviews throughout the semester. They too were selected using a convenience sampling strategy; such a strategy was necessary in this case given the nature of the study. As per Henry's (2015a) recommendation, it was decided to perform close observations of a couple of students and then perform interviews immediately following the lesson; such a practice would assure that the student was giving the most authentic responses

to questions about their attitudes towards learning English and the classroom environment. Thus, only students who were available directly after the lesson were able to be considered for participation; as the course in Venice was a night class and courses in Paris were often scheduled back-to-back with no break in between, many students were immediately eliminated from consideration. Added to this difficulty, no incentive was offered for participation, so students had to little reason to give up their time to participate. In the end, 1 student was interviewed for the ESP Arts B1 course in Venice, 4 students for the ESP Arts B1 courses in Paris, 2 students for ESP Arts A2, 2 students for General English B1, and 4 students for General English A2.

The following section describes the methodology in detail, including the questionnaires, observations and interviews to clarify how data was collected to respond to the three research questions.

IV.4) Methodology

To answer the aforementioned research questions, the present study has opted for a pragmatic approach, guided by the L2 Motivational Self System and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory. The basis in a pragmatic paradigm is an important part of this report; in line with the CDST, pragmatism insists on an anti-reductionist perspective and assumes that all elements of a given system are relevant (Burke Johnson & Onweugbuzie, 2004). To analyze situations, a variety of different data collecting tools need to be used; while no specific strategies are directly associated with this approach, Feilzer (2010) notes the importance of methodological flexibility: the methods needs to be devised to respond directly to the research questions. As such, in line with many other pragmatic studies, a mixed methods approach has been used (Biesta, 2010). Dörnyei (2011) notes the strengths of such an approach, most notably the increased reliability of results. Therefore, questionnaires provide the bulk of quantitative data for this report, while classroom observations and interviews constitute the qualitative portion of the study.

Past research reinforces the value of mixed-methods and supports the approach of this study. Bier (2013), for example, used focus groups, interviews, and questionnaires to determine the type of motivation present amongst students learning English in a rural, Italian middle school; she found that students found English to be professionally useful and did not

find their classroom environments to be particularly motivating. Similarly, Brunton (2009) uses questionnaires and interviews with Thai hotel employees to understand their attitudes towards their combined ESP and GE course and learning materials. In both of these cases, data collected through multiple sources provides a solid idea of what motivates students; questionnaires and interviews together give participants the opportunity to repeat and elaborate on their opinions. Likewise, Waninge, Dörnyei & de Bot (2014) used observation sessions during foreign language classes to show their utility in identifying specifically the factors that influence learner motivation in real time.

The following subsections describe the creation of the three data collecting devices of the present study plus an explanation for how data was analyzed.

IV.4.a) The questionnaire. To understand the type of motivation present in ESP and GE courses, a questionnaire was designed based on the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS). The questionnaire is the result of several rounds of proofreading and piloting with students to ensure the clarity of the questions and relevance of the items. A final version of the French version of the questionnaire can be found at https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSd1-jg8bTJI6DQ56GCDDEz5xrmrgh1fgaNH0mK6nbLfGh3cwA/viewform?usp=pp_url, while the Italian version can be found at https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSeeXMfXDY38JgxqqBpMKXNzquU8If05VVYzbHkvWeKkb8EE-A/viewform?usp=pp_url.

Several considerations were made to encourage a high response rate. First, an initial trial with the questionnaire resulted in a response rate of approximately 50%. The questionnaire was distributed online as Google Form, in English, to students taking an ESP course at the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia in the Spring 2016 semester. While 50% may be sufficient for the large courses in Venice, this response rate would prove dangerously low in the considerably smaller courses at the Université de Paris 8, the principal site of data collection for this study. Following discussions with the advisors of this project and other colleagues, two major changes were made to encourage greater participation: 1) the questionnaire was distributed in the official language of the university rather than English, meaning French for the Université de Paris 8 and Italian for the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia; these translations were proofread by native speakers to assure comprehensibility and 2) the questionnaire was

shortened and the high number of open questions were re-worked to 5-point Likert scale items. These changes are in line with recommendations by McDonough & McDonough (2004); they claim that open-ended questions can be too intimidating as they ask students to do a significant amount of writing and that long questionnaires in general are unlikely to be completed. Likert scale questions, however, give participants the possibility to give a numerical value to their opinions, making them less daunting to answer while still providing a richness that cannot be duplicated in Yes/No questions.

Additional piloting was conducted at the Université de Paris 8 in classes of GE and ESP during the 2016/2017 academic year. This process resulted a few changes in formatting and phrasing.

The final questionnaire was distributed at the Université de Paris 8 and the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia at the end of the Fall 2017 semester. As language courses at the former university last three hours, the professors of these courses allowed the researcher to distribute a paper version in class; this practice encouraged a higher response rate (100% of the 156 students) and allowed the researcher to be present in case of questions. The researcher then loaded all of these responses into Google Forms. 8 groups of students responded to the questionnaires, including 2 groups of General English A2, 2 groups of General English B1, 2 groups of ESP A2 and 2 groups of ESP Arts B1.

In the Italian university, questionnaires were distributed via email as a Google Form; 191 questionnaires were emailed, yielding a response rate of about 40.3% or 77 participants. At both institutions, the researcher presented himself and the project and reminded students that their participation was strictly voluntary and anonymous; furthermore, the researcher made himself available for questions both in person and via email. As only one section with one teacher exists for ESP Arts B1 at this university, it was the only group studied.

The final version of the questionnaire contained 27 questions. The questionnaire items were associated with the three major constructs of the L2MSS, the L2 Ideal Self, the L2 Ought to Self and the L2 Learning Environment. An additional measure was included to determine the amount of effort students put into learning English both inside and outside of their language courses. Questionnaire responses for each construct would later be combined to understand the presence of the different types of motivation in each course. The division of the items is reported below in Table 4.

Construct	**Questionnaire Items**
Biographical Information	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
L2 Ideal Self	7, 9, 10, 12, 25
L2 Ought to Self	8, 11, 24, 26, 27
L2 Learning Environment	17, 19, 21, 22, 23, (20)
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	13, 14, 15, 16, 18

Table 4: Questionnaire items associated with each L2MSS construct

Questions were chosen based on their presence in past L2MSS research, notably Brander (2013), Tort Calvo (2013), and You & Dörnyei (2016); the formulation is the result of an attempt to highlight the principal themes most often associated with each construct, without making the questionnaire so long that it would discourage participation. The only exception is the L2 Intended/Exerted Effort measure, in which some questions were created for the context of the present study. As item 18 is indicative of low exerted effort in the classroom, results are reversed when making calculations, so that, for example, a rating of 1 on the 5-point Likert scale, would be converted to 5, 2 would be converted to 4 and so on. In the table, item 20 is separated from the other items because it is the only open-ended question and therefore needs to be analyzed separately.

In order to determine the presence of each of the L2MSS constructs and L2 Intended/Exerted Effort, a score is calculated using the average of all individual responses to five questions associated with each construct. Next, an average of these averages is calculated, giving the final score for the construct. This process, completed in Microsoft Excel, is done for both levels of ESP Arts and General English courses in the French university as well as for the ESP Arts course in the Italian university. These scores help to respond to Research Question 1 in indicating the type of motivation present in ESP and GE courses, as well as its strength in the L2 Intended/Exerted Effort construct.

After determining a score for each of these constructs, individual t-tests[1] are performed using Microsoft Excel to compare results for each L2MSS construct in the ESP and GE groups. T-tests are conducted once to compare all the ESP and GE courses and again for the ESP courses and GE courses of the same level; these calculations determine if the difference between these groups is statistically significant (Pallant, 2013); in this study, the result is presented as a p-value. P-values less than 0.05 are considered statistically significant. While this study does not respond to all of the Pallant's (2013) criteria for conducting t-tests, in particular the criterion of a random sampling, she notes that such shortcomings are commonplace in real-life research. As such, it bears repeating that, regardless of statistical significance, the generalizability of these results is limited by the convenience sampling strategy used.

The effect size is then calculated to determine the strength of the association between a given course and the L2MSS construct. The use of both effect size calculations and t-tests is an important part of this research for the reason outlined by Biddix (n.d.); t-tests can tell when a difference between two groups occurs as the result of a certain treatment. In the case of the present study, the t-test indicates whether motivational differences between GE and ESP students are the connected to their language course setup. The effect size, in turn, indicates the impact of this difference; in other words, if students in GE courses are found to be more motivated, the effect size explains how much more motivated. Cohen's d is calculated to represent the effect size. While no strict rules exist to dictate when an effect is large, Biddix (n.d.) explains that generally, an effect size of 0.2 is a small impact, 0.5 is a medium impact, and 0.8 is a large impact.

T-tests and effect sizes are also conducted to compare motivation between GE A2 and B1 courses, ESP Arts A2 and B1 courses, and ESP Arts B1 at the French university and ESP Arts B1 at the Italian university. These calculations respond partly to Research Question 2 in considering the possibility that language proficiency level or cultural factors may impact motivation in ESP

[1]Pallant (2013) offers explanations for different statistical tests. Essentially, a t-test allows researchers to understand if an observed quantitative difference between two groups is statistically significant; if so, one has reason to believe that the difference is in fact due to the difference created by the two groups. These t-tests provide a p-value.

Additionally, to determine the reliability of the questionnaire in this context, a Cronbach's alpha[2] is calculated for each of the constructs using Microsoft Excel's statistical functions. This step helps respond to Research Question 3; in determining whether the items are tapping into the same variable, the Cronbach's alpha can indicate if the questions need to be modified according to the context. Perhaps the L2 Ideal Self is established as the result of factors in the Italian and French university contexts that are not present or have not been analyzed in other contexts, suggesting a need for the construct to be re-considered. In line with Parent's (2012) recommendation, missing data are not considered in the calculation of the Cronbach's alpha, though not many questions were left blank.

The following subsection describes the interviews conducted with students from each of the language courses; this data enrich the information found in the questionnaire and helps to more fully answer the research questions.

IV.4.b) The interviews. The interviews constitute an important part of the data collection of this study, in that they help to shed light on the phenomena that emerge from questionnaire and observation results. Indeed, in qualitative research, interviews have been highly valued because they allow the researcher to explore new, unexpected topics that are not limited by the constraints found in questionnaires. Moreover, they provide an extra level of authenticity to a dataset, given the inclusion of real communication (McDonough & McDonough, 2004). Drever (2003) also points out that complementing survey data with interviews generates deeper, more robust data.

To select interview participants, a convenience sampling strategy was used. At the Université de Paris 8, in the beginning of the semester, when the research project was initially presented to students, it was explained that interviews and classroom observations with individual students were a part of the data collection. For this project, it was crucial that interviews take place directly after a lesson so that students' opinions about the course and the lesson were still fresh in their minds, in line with recommendations of Henry (2015a) and Pawlak (2012). At this university, however, courses are often scheduled back-to-back with no

[2] Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency; it verifies that all questionnaire items associated with a certain construct truly measure the same thing. Dörnyei (2007, cited in Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) references 0.6 as the lowest possible valuable one can accept for a Cronbach's alpha. Below this, the validity of the construct is called into question.

pause in between. As such, many students had to be eliminated from consideration because they had to leave immediately after the lesson to go to another lesson. At the time the project was presented to students, they were asked to indicate if they were unavailable after the lesson or if they simply were not interested in participating. From the small sample of willing students left after this step, participants were selected randomly from those who were also easily observable from the researcher's discreet position in the back of the room. The random selection of potential participants is supported by Drever (2003), who warns that asking specifically for willing volunteers could skew the data; to respond to this point, the question was phrased so that students who were uninterested and/or unavailable could be identified and excluded.

A similar procedure was used at the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, though several complications were immediately apparent. First, given that the attendance requirements at this university are considerably more lax, it was not possible to rely on students coming each week; conducting regular observation sessions and interviews with observed students was therefore not always feasible. Second, as the class size was at times close to 250 students in a classroom with roughly 180 chairs, seats were at a premium and it was not always possible to be sitting in the same place to follow the same student at each lesson. Given these constraints, only one student was identified for participation.

In line with standard research ethics, the student participants remain anonymous in this study. While in some instances, language teachers were aware of which students agreed to the interviews and observations, students were aware of this and were assured that their responses would be kept confidential and anonymous.

Table 5 presents the student participants (with invented names) along with the interviews they gave and the number of hours of classroom observation.

Student	**Course (Teacher)**	**Interviews given**	**Number of hours observed**
Claude	General English A2 (PrG1)	1, first third of the semester	16.35
Elsie	General English A2 (PrG1)	1, second third of the semester	6
Elaine	General English A2 (PrG2)	1, first third of the semester 1, last third of the semester*	21
Warren	General English A2 (PrG2)	1, second third of the semester	6
Axel	General English B1 (PrG2)	1, first third of the semester 1, last third of the semester*	18
Kim	General English B1 (PrG2)	1, second third of the semester	6
Kate	ESP Arts A2 (PrE1)	1, first third of the semester 1, last third of the semester*	18
Ryan	ESP Arts A2 (PrE2)	1, first third of the semester	18
Jenny	ESP Arts B1 (PrE1)	1, first third of the	18

		semester 1, last third of the semester*	
Taylor	ESP Arts B1 (PrE1)	1, second third of the semester	7
Ashley	ESP Arts B1 (PrE2)	1, first third of the semester	16.25
Mike	ESP Arts B1 (PrE2)	1, second third of the semester	7.25
Alice	ESP Arts B1 (PrE3)	1, last third of the semester*	1.5

Table 5: List of students who participated in interviews and observations

*Interviews that took place in the final third of the semester (generally the week before the final exam) functioned as two separate interviews. One focused on the students' motivation for the individual lesson that day, while the one that immediately followed focused motivation over the entire semester.

The interviews were semi-structured; this choice assured that the interviews followed the desired direction while still allowing participants to express unexpected opinions which could be explored further. Drever (2003) insists that significant preparation is an important aspect of conducting semi-structured interviews. In preparation for the interviews included in this study, students from several different language classes agreed to participate in interviews regarding their impressions of the language and the language course. Following this procedure, a more finalized list of interview questions was developed, which can be found at https://docs.google.com/document/d/1wHAFM_HxiPVuGFoIQCtbSncfpRKkn-_Mf0fTeCRnveA/edit?usp=sharing; it is important to note that this question list is purely indicative as the semi-structured nature of these interviews permitted additional questioning depending on participants' responses. Questions focused on students' history of learning English, their opinions towards the language, their predictions for how English would serve them in the future, their feelings about the lesson and their feelings about the course as a whole.

As stated, interviews were conducted immediately after a lesson so that students' responses fully reflected their real opinions of the course and the lesson. The initial idea was to record and transcribe interviews; this procedure is common practice with interviews as it allows researchers to replay conversations (Tessier, 2012). This practice proved impossible, however, as several participants expressed discomfort with the idea, specifically regarding anonymity. As the pool of potential participants was already exceptionally small, it was deemed best to find an interview recording strategy that would alleviate their concerns while still providing a rich source of unbiased data.

The Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) provides some guidance in innovative research methods that helped to choose a recording procedure. Larsen-Freeman (2015) points out research conducted under the CDST should use visuals to illustrate motivation fluctuations in different ways. Therefore, in an approach similar to Henry (2015a), interview participants were asked to draw a line graph indicating how their motivation fluctuated during the lesson or, in the case of interviews at the end of the semester, during the entire course. Students were then asked to annotate the graph with words describing their emotional state at the moment of each major motivational change; they then explained the reasons for the changes. By having students use and record their own words in describing their motivation, the possibility of researcher bias was significantly diminished.

Throughout the entire interview, copious field notes were taken; note-taking continued immediately after the interview, in line with Zhang & Wildemuth's (2009) recommendations for strategies on taking interview field notes. Despite not being the initial plan for this study, many researchers insist that taking field notes is a more effective way of recording interview data (Glauser & Strauss,1967, cited in Oltmann, 2016). The graphs with the students' annotations along with the field notes were organized into coherent summaries of student responses; these summaries were emailed to students within 24 hours of the interview. Students had the opportunity to rectify any part of the summary or add additional details if new thoughts came to them, again controlling for the possibility of researcher bias.

The interview data regarding students' motivational fluctuations and attitudes towards learning English provide necessary information for addressing the research questions of this study. From this interview data, themes were identified in their responses to facilitate comparisons between General English and ESP courses. By analyzing responses regarding the

students' past and possible future with the English language, one can infer the type of motivation present, responding to Research Question 1; for instance, a student speaking about learning English only because it was a required subject and never really enjoying English lessons would likely correspond to the L2 Ought to Self. Likewise, a student who speaks about English in relation to a future job or desire to work in an international environment is more likely pushed by the L2 Ideal Self.

Similarly, responses regarding the lessons and the course as a whole respond directly to Research Question 2; comparisons are made between the ESP students and the General English students to understand how motivation differs between the two course setups.

Finally, by having students describe the factors that affect their motivation in the classroom, the role of the different factors in the learning environment can be determined. This last step responds to Research Question 3 by measuring the value of the CDST for analyzing the classroom motivation of university students in France and Italy.

IV.4.c) The classroom observations. The final part of data collection in the present study is classroom observations of the students who participated in interviews. The process for selecting participants and informing them about the study is described in the previous subsection on interviews. The number of hours students were observed is presented in Table 5.

Classroom observations were chosen based on recommendations from several past studies; Ainley & Patrick (2006), Costa & Coleman (2010) and Wu (2003) represent just a sample of studies that illustrate how classroom observations are useful for understanding how things work and what types of conditions result in a given outcome. Indeed, observations allow the researcher to take into account the numerous factors present in the learning environment to gain a more complete understanding of why things happen (Burke Johnson & Onweugbuzie, 2004). With these points in mind, observations were conducted to observe student motivation during lessons, in hopes of understanding what elements in the classroom environment resulted in changes in student engagement.

To conduct the observations, the researcher was seated in a discreet corner of the classroom and sat silently for the entire duration of the lesson. An observation scheme was developed, loosely based on the MOLT proposed by Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008). Rather

than focusing on the behaviors of the entire class, however, the focus was just one or two students, with only brief notes being taken about the general actions of the rest of the class. The observation scheme was piloted with various university English courses before a finalized version was established. A copy of this observation scheme can be found at https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/13s-g9kb4OV1ZKzqx9i3Lr5vlpk4zaGrWf_4pfWmGI3g/edit?usp=sharing.

The observation scheme was updated continuously every minute for the duration of the lesson. The scheme included data on the observed students' behaviors, a general remark about the rest of the class's behaviors, and a note about the type of activity that was happening in class. Students' behaviors in class were seen as good indicators of their level of motivation for a certain activity, in line with numerous past study on language learning motivation (Chang & Liu, 2013; Domakani et al, 2012; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). In line with Guilloteaux & Dörnyei's (2008) scheme, learner behaviors were coded into one of three categories: passive attention, active participation and volunteering information to the teacher. As the present study focuses on just one or two students instead of a full class, a fourth category was added, disengagement. A fifth category was also added to account for non-academic time, as classes sometimes started late or ended early; these instances occurred during the regular observation times but were not observed. Table 6 presents the type of behaviors that were coded into each category.

Passive Attention (A)	Eyes on professor, eyes on another student speaker, making or copying notes when directed, updating answers to a worksheet without participating
Participation (P)	Discussing work with classmate, completing assigned activities
Active, vocal participation (V)	Raising hand without coaxing from the professor
Disengagement (D)	Using their cellphone/laptop for non-class tasks, irrelevant chatter with other students, leaving class early
Non-academic time (N)	Class breaks, late starts, early finishes

Table 6: Coding groups for classroom engagement/motivation

The observations, which were originally recorded in a notebook, were loaded into a Google Spreadsheet to improve readability. During this process, entries were combined when appropriate; for example, in instances where the observed student was passively watching a class video for 11 minutes, only one 11-minute entry was loaded into the spreadsheet, rather than eleven 1-minute entries.

Percentages were calculated for each group to determine what percent of actual class time the different types of engagement, or disengagement, were exhibited. The time in the N-category was not considered in the calculation, so that percentages are more closely based on actual classroom time. Other observation entries were also eliminated from consideration, such as tests, quizzes and administrative announcements. Exams were not considered because all students were observed to be working diligently in all cases. Common markers of disengagement such as cell phone use and chatting with classmates would not be possible. Administrative announcements given by the teachers were not considered because they are not connected to language learning or teaching.

To process the observation data, all entries were loaded into the program FSQCA and analyzed through a crisp-set qualitative comparative analysis, described in Rihoux & De Meur (2008). This process allows a researcher to determine the consistency that a certain condition results in a specific outcome, a measure similar to statistical significance for quantitative datasets. The consistency calculation provides a value between 0 and 1. Ragin (2006) explains that, to assume a perfect correlation between a condition and an outcome, the consistency should be as close to 1 as possible and that anything below 0.75 should not be considered a strong correlation. In this case, the condition, the classroom activity, is analyzed in relation to the outcome, student motivation, to what type of activity had the highest consistency with motivation.

IV.5) A note on research quality

Given that mixed-methods research takes different forms according to the analysis required, O'Cathain (2010) outlines three elements that need to be addressed in order to assure the quality of the study:

1) Design transparency-The methods for collecting and analyzing data must be clearly described.
    a) This chapter's principal purpose has been to outline the methodology for the present study. In section IV.3, the convenience sampling strategy for identifying participants for the questionnaire, the interviews and the classroom observations was described. In section IV.4, the data collecting procedures are described; various piloting phases took place to validate and practice using tools that were developed following a thorough literature review and, at least partially, based on existing tools. Section IV.4 also outlines the steps for analyzing data. For questionnaires, composite scores are calculated for the motivation measures, Cronbach's alpha is calculated to determine the reliability of the questionnaire and t-tests are performed to determine the statistical significance of the groups. For the interviews, themes are analyzed in students' responses to understand what caused changes in their motivation. Lastly, for observations, entries from the observation scheme are analyzed in FSQCA to

determine the correlation between different classroom conditions and student motivation.

2) Design suitability-The methods used must correspond to the research paradigm and respond to the research questions.
    a) As the present study operates under a pragmatic paradigm, methods were chosen in direct response to the research questions. The questions included in the questionnaire and the interviews ask the students to indicate the type of motivation they most identify with, the strength of their motivation for learning English and the reasons for their learning motivation. In light of the data provided through these sources, the report can analyze the effectiveness of the L2MSS and the CDST in the Italian and French university context.
3) Design strength-The methods must be designed in such a way that if one data collecting strategy has a weakness, the other tools compensate for it.
    a) The present study's data collecting tools are meant to reinforce each other to provide a robust set of conclusions; it is not the case that the three different strategies each collect separate types of data. The closed nature of the questionnaire, for example, does not allow for explanations on what specifically inspires motivated learning behaviors in the classroom. The interviews and the classroom observations, however, allow for a deeper analysis of the classroom context to determine which elements stimulate behavior. Similarly, while classroom observations alone might be superficial in that they show what a student does and not how a student feels, the use of questionnaires and interviews allow for a deeper analysis for the students' history and future goals with the language, which are equally useful for explaining behaviors.

Summary

This chapter presented the research questions guiding the present study, the methods used to respond to them and the participants. In many ways, the participants in this study are typical of university language courses. The teachers all have advanced degrees in English and have many years of experience at different levels. The groups studied contain a mix of male and female students of normal university age (early 20s, with a couple of outliers) and various

majors. Many have studied English before coming to university, usually during primary and secondary school years.

As this project's main objective is to understand the motivational value of ESP courses for university students in France and Italy, a mixed methods study was designed, guided by the CDST and the L2MSS. The questions that this study seeks to answer are as follows:

RQ1) How does motivation differ in terms of type (L2MSS construct) and strength between students in courses of English for Specific Purposes and students in courses of General English?

Method) To respond to RQ1, a questionnaire has been developed featuring Likert scale items associated with each of the 3 L2MSS constructs (L2 Ideal Self, Ought to Self, and Learning Environment); composite scores from these questionnaire items will indicate the type of motivation present in the ESP and GE courses analyzed. A measure often studied in L2MSS research, L2 Intended and Exerted Effort is also included on the questionnaire as an indicator of the strength of motivation. T-tests are conducted comparing results from GE and ESP courses to determine if the differences are statistically significant.

Furthermore, students participating in interviews will also be asked to draw a line graph to show how their motivation evolved over the course of the semester. The fluctuations in their motivation, complemented by the participant's explanations, will indicate the presence of any L2MSS constructs and also provide a strong indicator of the strength of their motivation.

RQ2) What classroom factors affect student motivation? Do these factors differ between students in ESP and GE courses?

Method) The questionnaire items measuring the construct of the L2 Learning environment will provide crucial insights for what elements of the learning environment students find motivating. These questions concern the type of activities done in class, relationships between students, and the relationship between students and the teacher.

Additionally, during the interviews, participants are asked to indicate, using a line graph, the evolution of their motivation during their English lesson. They then

annotate the line graph with the emotions they felt during the lessons and provide explanations for these emotions and the reasons for the fluctuations.

Lastly, the classroom observations provide the largest source of data for this interview. With over 150 hours of classroom observations registered, this study can seek to find connections between motivated learning behaviors and various conditions present in the classroom using FSQCA.

RQ3) Are the L2MSS and CDST effective frameworks for analyzing L2 learning motivation in the context of French and Italian universities?

Method) As the L2MSS and CDST have not been widely applied to ESP courses at the university level in France and Italy, this study constitutes something of an exploratory analysis to determine their validity in these contexts.

To understand the validity of the L2MSS measures, a Cronbach alpha is calculated to determine the reliability of the different constructs in the questionnaire. The Cronbach alpha establishes whether the items associated with a given construct are in fact connected to the same variable. As the items selected for the questionnaire have been used in past L2MSS research, the questionnaire used in the present study can indicate if the constructs need to be reconsidered for the context of the present study.

In terms of the CDST, the classroom observations and the interviews will shed light on the types of learning activities that affect student motivation in the analyzed courses. As this theory insists on a comprehensive approach and the importance of relationships between all elements in a system, research into the classroom factors and personal factors in a student's life that impact their motivation for learning English helps reinforce the role of these relationships.

The following section presents the results of the present study, complete with the students' line graphs and statistical analyses on questionnaire and observation data.

V.) Results & Discussion

V.1) Introduction

This chapter presents the results acquired from the questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. Given that the present study is guided by two primary research questions and one secondary research question, as outlined in the previous chapter, this chapter is divided into three corresponding sections:

1) The first section presents the data that responds to the first primary research question (*How does motivation differ in terms of type [L2MSS construct] and strength between students in courses of English for Specific Purposes and students in courses of General English?*). Statistical analyses performed on the questionnaire results are complemented by an analysis of the major themes that emerged from the interviews. Parallels are drawn to connect interview responses with L2MSS constructs.

2) The second section responds to the second primary research question, which is formulated in two parts (*What classroom factors affect student motivation?* and *Do these factors differ between students in ESP and GE courses?*). Questionnaire items regarding the L2 Learning Environment (L2LE) are presented in addition to interview and classroom observation data.

3) The third section responds to the secondary research question (*Are the L2MSS and CDST effective frameworks for analyzing L2 learning motivation in the context of French and Italian universities?*). As this study offers something of a novel approach to analyzing motivation in general and specialized university language courses in France and Italy, this section generally describes how these two theories accounted for fluctuations and explained observed phenomena.

V.2) Motivation Type and Strength in ESP and GE courses

V.2.a) The questionnaire data. As outlined in the previous chapter, questionnaires were distributed to students of three different teachers; PrG2 for students of General English A2 and B1 in Paris, PrE1 for students of ESP Arts A2 and B1 in Paris and PrE3 for students of ESP Arts B1 in Venice. Aside from the biographical data presented in Table 2, the questionnaire contained items associated with L2 Motivational Self-System constructs, L2

Ideal Self, L2 Ought to Self and L2 Learning Environment; these data provided indications as to the type of learning motivation present in the classroom. A measure for L2 Intended/Exerted Effort was included as an indication of the strength of the motivation present in each group. The results of the questionnaire are presented in Table 7 below as composite scores out of a possible 5.

Construct (Cronbach)	**General English A2 (Paris)**	**General English B1 (Paris)**	**ESP Arts A2 (Paris)**	**ESP Arts B1 (Paris)**	**ESP Arts B1 (Venice)**
L2IS (0.77)	3.9	4.0	3.7	4.0	3.5
L2OS (0.55)	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.5	2.3
L2LE (0.78)	4.1	3.9	3.5	3.8	3.0
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort (0.58)	3.9	3.8	3.4	3.6	3.5

Table 7: L2MSS motivation composite scores and Cronbach's Alpha. Cronbach rounded to the nearest hundredth. Composite scores rounded to the nearest tenth.

While the goal of the study is to identify differences between ESP and GE courses, a quick analysis of Table 7 shows some general patterns across the different groups.

As the table indicates, the clearest finding is that the L2OS was consistently the lowest measure in every group, generally by a large margin. While this tendency can be explained in numerous ways, a closer look at responses to individual questions paints a telling a picture. In all cases, participants reported scores lower than 2.2 for questions 24 (I learn English because someone in my family thinks it's important) and 27 (Not learning English would result in disappointment from someone I respect). The other three questions for this measure, which are associated with professional (8), societal (26) and institutional (11) reasons for learning

English, received scores higher than 2.8.[3] Such findings tell us that students are more pushed by rather abstract pressures to learn English and a general consensus that it is useful, rather than by specific individuals in their lives.

In all groups, participants seem to relate more strongly to the L2IS and L2LE, with the L2IS being strongest in the ESP groups, equal to L2LE in the GE B1 groups and slightly less than L2LE in the GE A2 groups. This point holds true even upon closer inspection of individual responses; while a sharp difference was noted between different types of items in the L2OS measure, all items in the L2IS measure had average responses greater than 3, with some items topping 4.2. The L2LE measure yielded similar results; all measures were consistently above 3, with the exception of item 19, regarding their excitement about going to their English lessons. While the GE A2 students reported high levels of excitement at 3.2, other groups reported lower levels between 2.1 and 2.8. In all groups at the Paris university, students reported high scores for all other remaining L2LE measures, including the evaluation of the learning activities, the dynamic between students and the teacher's relationship with the students. The ESP B1 group in Venice reported one other low score of 2.8 in item 21 regarding the interest and utility of the activities done in class. For the L2LE, these data indicate that students in all groups have a relatively positive view of their English courses and learning environments. For the L2IS, these data suggest that students believe in the importance of learning English for their futures.

Despite these similarities between groups, it is important to note that GE and ESP composite scores often differ, with GE motivation regularly being stronger. The following tables therefore present the results of t-tests conducted on these data, using Microsoft Excel, to determine their significance at the .05 level. When less than .05, the p-value provides a strong indication that the results are generalizable and can therefore be applied to other, similar groups (Dörnyei, 2007, cited in Bier, 2018). Effect sizes are also presented to illustrate the magnitude of the difference to show how much motivation is dependent on the course being GE or ESP (Pallant, 2013, cited in Bier, 2018).

[3]Participants from Venice departed from this trend slightly by reporting a low score of 1.6 for question 26 as well.

Construct	**General English Courses (A2 + B1)**	**ESP Arts Courses (Paris A2 + B1, Venice B1)**	**P-value**	**Cohen's d**
L2IS	3.9	3.7	.02*	0.25
L2OS	2.7	2.5	.01*	0.27
L2LE	3.9	3.3	1.7^-9*	0.92
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	3.9	3.5	.001*	0.67

Table 8: Test of significance for all GE vs all ESP

*Statistically significant differences

Table 8 provides a comparison of all GE courses in the study and all ESP Arts courses in the study. It shows that students of GE have stronger L2 Ideal and Ought-to self-concepts motivating their English learning, find their L2 Learning Environment to be more motivating and report stronger levels of learning effort. As the table shows, all of these differences are statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Such findings are indicative of the motivating power of GE courses in universities.

That said, the effect size indicates that the type of English course, whether GE or ESP, has a relatively low impact on the two self-concepts, L2IS and L2OS and a very high impact on the motivating power of the L2 Learning Environment. Such findings are perhaps not surprising, given that the L2IS and L2OS are self-concepts developed over the course of one's life and more resistant to change during a semester-long course. The course would therefore naturally have a smaller impact on these constructs than on the L2LE construct, which is experienced in real-time.

Additionally, Table 8 shows that the strength of student motivation, measured as their learning effort, is significantly stronger in General English courses; the type of course appears to have a medium-level impact on this item.

While Table 8 compares data from all GE courses with all ESP courses, the following series of tables compares questionnaire results from similar groups. GE A2 is compared with the ESP A2 and GE B1 is compared once with all ESP B1 groups, then again with just the results from the Université de Paris 8.

Construct	**General English A2 (Paris)**	**ESP Arts A2 (Paris)**	**P-value**	**Cohen's d**
L2IS	3.9	3.7	0.21	0.22
L2OS	2.7	2.9	0.41	0.27
L2LE	4.1	3.5	.0001*	0.92
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	3.9	3.4	.003*	0.77

Table 9: Test of significance for A2 level courses

*Statistically significant differences

Table 9, which compares results from GE and ESP courses at the A2 level, shows that students in GE courses have stronger motivation measures than students in ESP courses, with the exception of the L2OS. Differences between the two groups with regard to the L2IS and L2OS are not statistically significant and the impact of the course type on these motivation scores is small. These figures suggest differences between these two constructs might be due to chance or other factors that are not associated with the type of language course.

The L2LE and the measure for learning effort are both significantly higher in GE courses. In both cases, it appears that the type of language course, rather GE or ESP, has a strong impact on this finding.

Construct	**General English B1 (Paris)**	**ESP Arts B1 (Paris)**	**P-value**	**Cohen's d**
L2IS	4.0	4.0	n/a	n/a
L2OS	2.8	2.5	0.57	0.42
L2LE	3.9	3.8	0.25	0.18
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	3.8	3.6	0.11	0.29

Table 10: Test of significance for Paris B1 Courses

*Statistically significant differences

Table 10, which compares the motivation measures between the GE and ESP B1 course at the Université de Paris 8 only, again shows that motivation is higher in the GE courses than in the ESP courses. The one exception is the L2IS measure, which is equal across the two groups. Contrary to the A2 level courses, however, none of these differences are statistically significant. These figures indicate that the reported differences are not due to the type of language course, but to other factors or random chance. As such, the fact that GE motivation is higher should not be considered generalizable to other contexts and requires further research.

Construct	General English B1 (Paris)	ESP Arts B1 (Paris + Venice)	P-value	Cohen's d
L2IS	4.0	3.7	0.03*	0.39
L2OS	2.8	2.3	0.003*	0.71
L2LE	3.9	3.3	2.6^-7*	0.85
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	3.8	3.6	0.06	0.29

Table 11: Test of significance for ALL B1 Courses

*Statistically significant differences

Table 11 compares the questionnaire results between GE B1 courses and all ESP B1 courses (both at the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia and the Université de Paris 8). Similar to results in the A2 course, all motivation measures are higher in the GE course; only the learning effort measure falls slightly out of the range of statistical significance. Results also indicate that being in a GE course rather than an ESP course has a strong impact on students' motivation with regard to their evaluation of the L2 Learning Environment.

Still, given that the majority of ESP participants were from the Italian university, it is important to keep in mind the likelihood that various cultural and institutional factors greatly swayed these results.

V.2.b) The interview data. Responses from the interviews were analyzed and coded for answers that were indicative of an L2IS, L2OS, and L2LE. Although the 13 interview participants constitute only a small portion of the 233 questionnaire respondents, data from the interviews echoes and complements questionnaire responses in many ways.

Regarding similarities between ESP and GE students' answers, interview data reinforces the concept that the L2OS has the smallest presence across all language courses.

Out of 17 interviews, only 8 contained comments that could be attached to an ought-to self-concept, while 13 contained comments indicative of the L2IS and all 17 had references to the L2LE. The L2OS responses were related to perceived institutional and professional pressures; students in both ESP and GE courses reported that their effort to learn English stemmed from the fact that the course was obligatory, they needed to do the work to perform well on an exam and knowing that English, though uninteresting to them, could lead to more career opportunities. As such, the responses support the questionnaire finding that the L2 Ought-to Self is more tied to an abstract belief that English is important; the only indication of a specific person pushing the students' efforts were occasional comments about the teacher insisting that students pay attention and make an effort.

Like the questionnaire findings, the interview responses highlighting a L2IS or L2LE orientation cover a much broader range of responses. Students in both ESP and GE report L2IS motives such as plans to move abroad to pursue their career, a desire to communicate with family members abroad in English and the need for English to understand foreign media and publications for school and pleasure. Similarly, students in both course types report a wide range of L2LE factors spurring their motivation, including the level of interest in a given activity, an appreciation for the course setup and positive evaluations of the teacher and other students.

Aside from these general patterns, interview data also revealed that motivation differed in many ways between GE and ESP students. First, of the 4 participants who completed interviews for GE A2 courses, 3 of them described forms of L2IS motivation, with the remaining student almost describing a lack of L2IS motivation in claiming that English would never be useful to her. Of the 3 students claiming an L2IS, a variety of factors were mentioned. All three referenced professional goals, with one saying that he dreamed of being a bilingual business man, another saying that learning English is important in his field, even if it is not exactly his favorite subject, and another noting that it was an important requirement for her dream job of becoming a teacher. Other motives include the fact that English facilitates the understanding of media, like foreign television series and music, as well as academic articles in their studies. These responses are in stark contrast with those of the 2 students who completed interviews for the ESP A2 courses; while both students mentioned the relevance of

English in their future professional lives, their responses were rather vague and did not cite a specific context for using the language.

Similar to the questionnaires, the other motivational construct that was frequently mentioned in the A2 interviews was the L2LE. Responses from both GE and ESP students revealed similar themes. First, students reported being interested in the theme of the course; the 4 participants in GE and 2 in ESP reported finding the course topics and activities interesting or useful, noting particularly grammar and vocabulary exercises. Although the 2 ESP students did point out that they were happy to be in a specialized language course, as it assured that the lessons would be useful to them, it is interesting to note that at least 3 of the GE students offered similar responses; 2 explicitly stated that the GE course material was directly relevant to their future career, while another noted that the wide range of vocabulary offered by general courses would allow her to get by in numerous contexts. Responses from both groups appreciated the small class size as well as a social aspect to learning, either in the form of group activities or positive interactions with friendly peers. No major differences with regard to the L2LE construct were noted in the interview responses at this level.

Regarding interview data at the B1 level, the 4 ESP and 3 GE respondents echo what was found in the questionnaires; Concerning the L2IS, while the students differ in their specific professional objectives, little significant difference was found in the way in which they spoke about their future use of English. All 3 GE and all 4 ESP participants referenced travel as primary motivator for learning English. Others referenced personal interests, such as family living abroad (GE), a passion for English language media (GE), and an intrinsic interest in the language (ESP). Still, career objectives dominated students' L2IS responses, with B1 level students being more specific than their A2 level counterparts, particularly in ESP. For the GE students, one claimed he planned to look for a job that required a good level in English, perhaps even in England, while another stated that English was a requirement for becoming a primary school teacher. Similarly, the ESP students in Paris mentioned detailed plans to move to England and Australia after their studies to look for work; their goals were often quite specific, with one referencing the high quality film houses in England and another describing a desire to be a screenwriter in Australia. The one ESP student from Venice acknowledged that English was an important part of being the international person she wanted to be while living abroad.

Several responses for students at the B1 level were indicative of a motivation coming from the immediate L2 Learning Environment. Students in both groups spoke of specific activities that they found interesting, fun or useful. In the ESP courses, such activities included the teacher's powerpoint presentations, a film, group work and general language activities (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation). In the GE groups, these activities included listening to other students' oral presentations, videos and general language activities. Students in both courses reported appreciating the themes and concepts presented in the course. Two students also reported motivation coming from their outside L2 Learning Environment, mentioning their family members living abroad and a past language course they took that they had found interesting.

The following section presents interview data in further detail to analyze the classroom factors that play a role in determining a students' motivation, thereby addressing the second research question of this study.

Summary

This section presents data responding to the first research question regarding the type and strength of motivation present in GE and ESP courses at the university level. Questionnaire and interview data informed the analysis.

As shown in Table 8, the questionnaire indicates that all L2MSS constructs and the measure for learning effort are stronger in GE courses than ESP, though in both groups the L2 Ought-to Self is the weakest type. These differences are significant in all cases, though the difference in course setup type seems to have the strongest impact on the L2 Learning Environment measure.

Tables 9, 10 and 11 show a comparison of the questionnaire data, separating the groups by language proficiency level. Table 9 contain GE and ESP level A2, Table 10 contains GE and ESP level B1 from Paris only, while Table 11 presents GE and ESP B1 from both Paris and Venice. Table 10 did not have any significant differences between ESP and GE, while Table 11 did; this finding suggests that the cultures of Italy and France may have an impact on student motivation, which is explored in section V.5. Table 9, however, shows that the higher L2LE and L2 effort measures in the GE A2 are statistically significant.

The interview data tends to reinforce the findings of the questionnaires. The L2OS continued to appear the least in all students' responses, while the L2IS and L2LE were referenced with relative frequency. At the B1 level, students' L2IS responses were similar in GE and ESP; many participants knew English was important for their professional lives and even had specific plans for how it would be useful. At the A2 level, however, the L2IS appeared to be stronger amongst GE students; these students often had, albeit slightly, more detailed plans for their future use of English compared to the ESP learners' general agreement that English and working abroad could be important.

Regarding the L2LE, students across levels and course types generally commented on a wide variety of similar elements in their classroom. They spoke of activities being useful, fun and interesting. While several ESP participants noted that they were happy to be in a specialized language course, specifying that it could be more useful to them, GE students also discussed several learning activities that were relevant to their personal and professional interests. Furthermore, while ESP students tended to say simply that they were happy with being in a specialized course, the GE participants explained a bit further, noting that the language they were learning expanded their general cultural knowledge and allowed them to get by in a wide variety of contexts.

To summarize, questionnaire and interview data indicate stronger, more defined measures of motivation in GE courses than ESP courses, particularly at the A2 level; questionnaire measures are stronger and interview responses contain greater detail. Though across groups, some similarities do occur, such as the weak presence of the L2OS compared to the other constructs.

The type of course seems to have a large impact on the L2LE construct; as such, the section V.4 discusses classroom factors that potentially have an effect on learner motivation.

V.3) Discussion

Section V.2 represents questionnaire and interview data comparing the type and strength of motivation in GE and ESP courses at the A2 and B1 levels. One similarity appears across the two course setups: the L2OS consistently has the lowest presence in all groups. This finding is not particularly revolutionary, as Lai (2013) noticed a similar pattern in her study, though the reason for this trend is not entirely clear. It is important to note that with a

Cronbach's alpha of 0.55, the L2OS cannot be thought of as a completely reliable measure for this study, as it falls below Dörnyei's (2007, cited in Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) recommended minimum of 0.6; this result should be considered purely indicative. While Brady (2014) encountered similar issues with the L2OS measure in her study, the possible reasons for this phenomenon are discussed in section V.7.

Overall, however, it appears that all measures of motivation, including both the self-concepts of the L2IS and L2OS and the classroom construct of the L2LE, are higher in GE courses than ESP courses. Several possible explanations seem plausible for this trend. First, it may be a result of one's self-concept. Markus & Nurius (1986) explain that our possible, future selves can be strong motivators for present behavior. It seems possible that, as university students, many of whom are in only in their first or second year of the undergraduate degree, may not have stable self-concepts that are related to their career or domain of studies. Art students, therefore, might not be actively thinking about themselves as artists who may need to work in international contexts in the future, but rather as simply university students; thus, a specialized language course would not have the desired effect on one's self-concept or motivation. GE courses, on the other hand, which might focus on anglophone cultures, university life and topics of general interest, could very well be more relatable to students without significant professional experience in their fields.

The low self-concept measures are directly related to the L2LE and L2IE measures. Hsieh (2009), for example, points out that having a vague self-concept results in lower motivation, hence the lower the L2IE measure for the ESP Arts courses. Regarding the learning environment, research from the Self-Determination Theory helps to explain why GE would have higher measures that ESP courses. Ryan & Deci (2000) explain that for a classroom environment to be motivating, two main elements to consider are providing an optimal level of difficulty and offering materials that are relevant to student interests. If it is true that if university students in art programs do not have strong self-concepts as artists, they will find their specialized language courses irrelevant or boring.

Likewise, GE students, who may also have weak self-concepts related to their respective disciplines, may find their general language courses motivating because they allow them to explore interests outside their majors. This point is particularly true in the context of France and Italy. In some universities, students are unable to enroll in their first, or even

second, choice majors due to limited enrollment. Students may in fact be in these artistic programs against their will or as a last resort, meaning a specialized language class could not possibly be catered to their primary interests.

Similarly, given their limited background in their artistic fields, they may find their ESP courses too difficult; if they do not yet have the background knowledge in their native languages, it could be very hard to participate in conversations and activities conducted in English. GE may therefore be more accessible to students at this stage in their lives. Additionally, with regards to the learning context, Lavinal, Décuré & Blois (2006) found that student motivation was more dependent on the teacher than on the course content; this point may be relevant in this study, as it suggests that university students may in fact be indifferent to specialized courses.

Lastly, this difference may be a result of one's present uses for English. Again, Lavinal, Décuré & Blois (2006), in their project on students taking a technical ESP course in a French university, found that students' main uses for English were personal, such as pop culture consumption and traveling. If that is the case in this study as well, it is true that GE courses would provide students with language skills that could be applicable in a wider range of contexts.

In addition to the overall comparison between ESP and GE students, Tables 9, 10 and 11 divide the students by proficiency level to allow for comparisons between similar groups. Table 9, comparing GE and ESP A2 groups, for example, show that the L2IS, L2LE and L2IE measures are all higher in GE courses by a relatively large margin, the latter two being statistically significant. One possible explanation for this finding may be found in Fethi & Feriel's (2016) study with students completing a technical ESP course in an Algerian university. Even if students might appreciate the idea of a specialized language course, those with a weaker language level were found to desire having a stronger foundation in GE before having highly, potentially difficult, specialized materials. This point appears relatively frequently in ESP research, begging the question of whether a student with an A2 level is capable of dealing with such activities.

The difference between GE and ESP seems to disappear at the B1 level; although Table 10 shows that GE B1 students report higher measures for the L2OS, L2LE and L2IE, the differences are much smaller and none are statistically significant. This shift could be to the

fact that, as Table 2 shows, most B1 students are in year 2 of their studies, rather than in year 1 as is the case of A2 students. Their self-concepts are likely more defined, they have a greater background in their area of specialization and perhaps even have a first professional or internship experience. These changes thusly render the specialized language course more pertinent to these students.

Table 11 shows that adding the Venetian university students to the equations yielded very different results. In this table, GE students have much higher scores for all measures, all of which are statistically significant except L2IE. Csizér & Dörnyei's (2005a) provides some potential insight here, as it highlights the powerful role of the local culture in determining how a learner views a language and language learning in general. While the change between Table 10 and Table 11 could add to the argument that ESP courses are less motivating than GE courses, it does seem more likely that culture and learning context are the main factors here. The Parisian and Venetian universities had several major differences that likely impacted students in their reviews; for instance, the course in Venice lasted 90 minutes, met three times per week and had well over 200 enrolled students, while the courses in Paris were much smaller, lasted three hours per week and had only 1 weekly meeting.

All things considered, it does appear that GE students report higher scores of motivation, particularly for the measures of the L2LE and L2IE, with this difference being particularly pronounced at the A2 level. Several possible explanations exist, some relating to the self-concept and the learner' age and life experiences, while others relate to the learning context, both at the institutional and cultural levels.

V.4) Contextual Factors Affecting Motivation

V.4.a) The questionnaire data. Just as the questionnaire data provided data regarding the participants' motivational orientations, their responses can also be analyzed to better understand factors in the learning context that influence their motivation. The previous section highlighted one important difference with regard to course setup, ESP versus GE. Table 10 shows no statistically significant differences in motivation between these two courses setups at the B1 level in Paris, while Table 9 shows that General English students had higher motivation measures than ESP students at the A2 level.

In addition to course setup, the questionnaire allows for an analysis of two other contextual factors commonly referenced as influencing student motivation: culture and language proficiency level. Although Nichols (2014) describes that motivational processes are similar across cultures, Chen (2012) and Pennycook (1997) point out that motivation and learning behaviors are not universal concepts; students' attitudes and actions towards language learning are influenced by the cultural context in which they are raised. As the present study considers courses from both Italy and France, Table 12 and Table 13 compares motivation across these different cultures.

Construct	**Université de Paris 8 (France)**	**Università Ca' Foscari Venezia (Italy)**	**P-value**	**Cohen's d**
L2IS	3.9	3.5	0.02*	0.48
L2OS	2.7	2.3	5.3^-6*	0.59
L2LE	3.8	3.0	1.02^-12*	1.2
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	3.7	3.5	0.36	0.14

Table 12: Test of significance for all Paris vs Venice

*Statistically significant differences

Construct	ESP Arts B1 (Venice)	ESP Arts B1 (Paris)	P-value	Cohen's d
L2IS	3.5	4.0	0.004*	0.61
L2OS	2.3	2.5	0.11	0.33
L2LE	3.0	3.8	1.9^-10*	1.28
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	3.6	3.6	n/a	n/a

Table 13: Test of significance for Paris vs Venice ESP Arts B1 Courses

*Statistically significant differences

Table 12 provides an overall comparison of all the participants from Paris with the all the participants from Venice. These figures show that, for the three L2MSS orientations, students from Paris have significantly stronger motivation than their Venetian counterparts. The medium and high Cohen's d measures indicate that the learning context of these two countries has an important impact on motivation for learning English.

Table 13 reinforces this point, through a comparison of only the similar groups in Paris and Venice, of B1 level students taking an ESP Arts courses in each city. All three L2MSS measures are higher with the Parisian students, with the L2 Ideal Self and L2 Learning Environment being significantly higher. The high values of the Cohen's d in these categories indicate that the learning culture in Paris does indeed have a strong impact on the learners' motivation in this case.

Aside from culture, another contextual factor often discussed in ESP research is the language proficiency level at which to begin specialized courses. Different opinions exist, with some researchers insisting that specialization be reserved for higher level students, while others believing that ESP could be made accessible even for students with weaker language skills (Cigada, 1988; Ibba, 1988; Preece, 2008). As Tables 12 and 13 show relatively

consistently that the Venetian students' motivation for learning English is lower than the Parisian students, the following tables consider only the Parisian students, comparing the motivation levels of ESP Arts courses at the A2 and B1 levels, then General English courses at the A2 and B1 levels.

Construct	**ESP Arts A2 (Paris)**	**ESP Arts B1 (Paris)**	**P-value**	**Cohen's d**
L2IS	3.7	4.0	0.12	0.36
L2OS	2.9	2.5	0.005*	0.62
L2LE	3.5	3.8	0.02*	0.50
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	3.4	3.6	0.30	0.29

Table 14: Test of significance for Paris ESP A2 vs ESP B1 courses

*Statistically significant differences

Construct	General English A2 (Paris)	General English B1 (Paris)	P-value	Cohen's d
L2IS	3.9	4.0	0.89	0.14
L2OS	2.7	2.8	0.87	0.13
L2LE	4.1	3.9	0.24	0.34
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	3.9	3.8	0.59	0.14

Table 15: Test of significance for Paris GE A2 vs GE B1 courses

Table 14 compares ESP students at the A2 and B1 levels, showing that motivation is consistently higher for the latter group with the exception of the L2 Ought to Self measure. While the low Cohen's d shows that the proficiency level has only a weak association for some measures, the association is much stronger for the L2 Learning Environment measure. This point suggests that B1 students are more motivated by the learning environment than A2 students due, in part, to their stronger language level.

Table 15 tells a different story for the students of General English; two motivational measures are stronger for the A2 level groups and the other two are stronger for the B1 groups. In all cases, these differences are small and not statistically significant.

Together, these two tables show that while language proficiency may be an important factor for ESP students, it plays a much smaller role in the determining of engagement and motivation in GE students.

Given that this section is dedicated to contextual factors relating to student motivation, the following table gives a more detailed look at the L2 Learning Environment measure, outlining the composite score for each item in all groups analyzed. Given the specificity of

these items to the learning environment, this table presents only mean values rather than statistical comparisons of the groups.

Item Number	General English A2 (Paris)	General English B1 (Paris)	ESP Arts A2 (Paris)	ESP Arts B1 (Paris)	ESP Arts B1 (Venice)
17	4.7	4.6	4.3	4.2	3.6
19	3.3	2.8	2.6	4.1	2.1
21	4.3	4	3.6	2.7	2.8
22	3.9	4.1	3.4	3.8	3.1
23	4.2	4.1	3.5	3.0	3.2

Table 16: L2 Learning Environment measures from the questionnaire (composite score, rounded)

The closer look at individual L2LE items provided by Table 16 is in line with the data presented in previous tables. For almost all measures, the GE students report more positive evaluations of their courses than their ESP counterparts at both the A2 and B1 levels; this point appears to be true both with regard to the activities (21) as well as the teacher and other students in the group (17, 23 respectively). Furthermore, more often than not, A2 students had more positive evaluations than B1 students in the same course setup. The Venetian students had generally more negative reviews of their classroom environment than the Parisian students for almost all measures.

For the one open question about the L2 Learning Environment, #20, participants described an activity that they found interesting or useful from their language course. While this was the only question that did not receive a near 100% response rate from all groups, many participants did provide thorough answers, shedding light on students' preferences in the different course setups.

In the GE A2 courses, 33 students responded to question 20 out of 37 total participants. The vast majority of these respondents, 24 in total, reported appreciating the oral activities, group projects and presentations done in class. The next most popular, with 4 responses, was grammar lessons; students reported appreciating being able to finally master certain grammar rules that they had struggled with. This response was followed by oral comprehension activities, which received 2 mentions. Other activities each receiving one mention included writing activities, pronunciation practice of vocabulary and a general appreciation for the teacher's skills.

The GE B1 courses, which included 33 responses out of the total 39 participants, featured a similar pattern of responses. The majority of respondents, 24 in total, reported liking the oral activities such as presentations and debates. This preference was again followed by grammar with 6 mentions, oral comprehension with 2 mentions and a writing activity with 1.

The ESP A2 courses, which included 34 responses out of 40 participants, contained many similar responses to the GE courses. Again, oral comprehension and speaking activities, such performing sketches, giving presentations, partner work and debates were mentioned 14 times. These specialized courses did, however, bring to light a new category which appears to bridge a gap between speaking and listening comprehension, film analysis. This activity, which was mentioned 7 times, was appreciated for different reasons, with some students referencing the lively discussions following a viewing and others describing the benefit of listening practice. Again, grammar and vocabulary practice were mentioned 4 times, as was the use of activities that expanded students' cultural knowledge. Other activities which were referenced with less frequency included text analysis and a speech from a visiting artist. One student specifically mentioned appreciating activities that provided greater knowledge of artistic language, while one stated no activity in the course was particularly interesting or useful.

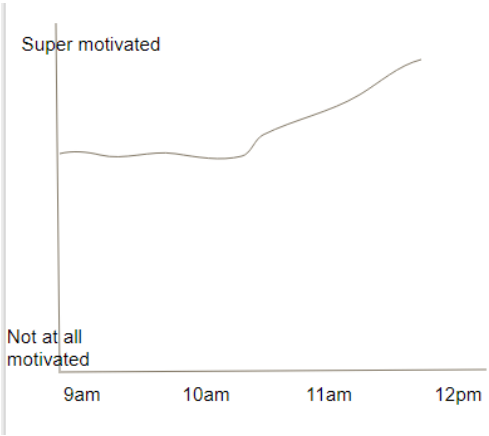
The ESP B1 courses from Paris, which had 31 responses out of the 41 participants, again focused heavily on activities that developed oral comprehension and expression skills; 19 answers fell into these categories, with 4 mentioning listening comprehension and 15 describing different oral activities, such as partner work, presentations and debates. The next most popular activities, with 7 mentions, were those that gave students increased cultural

awareness. Four students referenced art-related tasks, such as analyzing a work of art in English, with 1 final response referencing documentaries.

Lastly, the ESP B1 course from Venice, which offered 33 responses out of 77 participants, featured responses that were much different from the Parisian groups. Though oral activities did have some presence in these answers, with 10 mentions to pronunciation practice and 3 to interacting with peers, it appears text analysis was the favorite activity of this group; 11 students mentioned reading while 4 others referenced text translation. Three participants stated they did not like the course at all, while one participant said they liked each of writing, art language activities, general language skill development and learning new things in general.

V.4.b) The interview data. In addition to the questionnaire data, interviews were also conducted immediately following lessons with several students selected according to a convenience sampling strategy. Their responses shed light on the factors in and outside of the classroom that affect learner motivation in A2 and B1 level courses of GE and ESP.

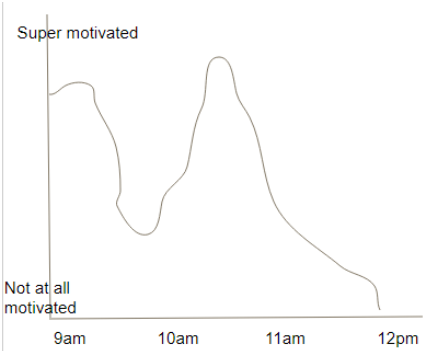
V.4.b.1) General English A2. As described in the Methodology chapter, 3 students were interviewed once regarding their motivation over the course of a single lesson, while 1 student completed 3 interviews, 2 about lesson-level motivation and 1 about semester-long motivation changes. The following graphs present how their motivation evolved over the lessons and the semester along with the explanations they provided in their interviews. As a reminder, all students' names have been changed.



Graph 1: Claude's motivation during a 3-hour GE A2 lesson.

Claude explains that his motivation and level of engagement during his English class relates very little to the learning activities or the classroom environment, but rather on his physical state. Indeed, when asked to describe the emotions he was feeling during the 3-hour lesson, he mentioned first fatigue and hunger. The change arrived halfway through the lesson when the teacher offered students a break; he was able to eat and recover, allowing his motivation to increase substantially in the second half of the lesson.

He explains also that, although the course is not specifically adapted to his needs as student majoring in Information Technology, the course's focus on music and song analysis is, at times, relevant to his career goals. He also notes that, while he does not always feel comfortable participating orally in class as he does not know the other students, he usually remains attentive to the lessons and does the assigned work.

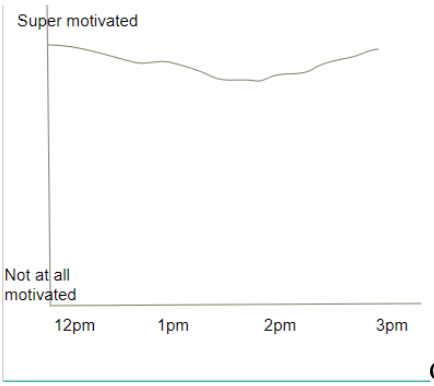


Graph 2: Elsie's motivation during a 3-hour GE A2 lesson.

Similar to Claude, Elsie highlighted that she really struggled with the timing of the course. When asked about her emotional state during the 3-hour lesson, she claimed that she was tired because the lesson started so early, and impatient because, by the end of the 3-hours, she just wanted to leave. Such a situation resulted in the motivational dips shown in the graph, combined with feelings of boredom and minimal, short-lived interest in the learning activities.

While Elsie notes that English has minimal importance in her life, as the course is just a small part of her overall grade point average, she recognizes its importance in helping her appreciate English-language television series and music.

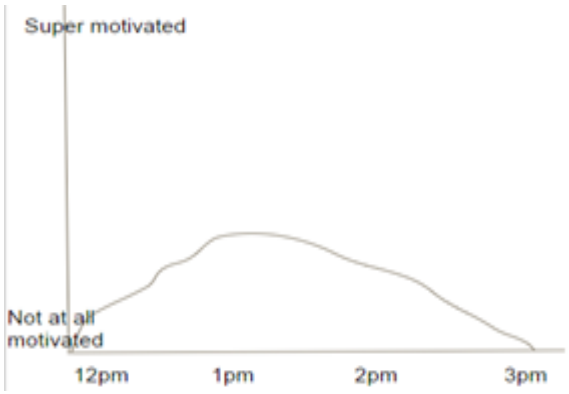
Still, Elsie does specify that English remains one of the courses which keeps her engaged the most. This point is partly due to the fact that the teacher enforces a strict no cell phone policy and partly because moments of disinterest are rare and short-lived.



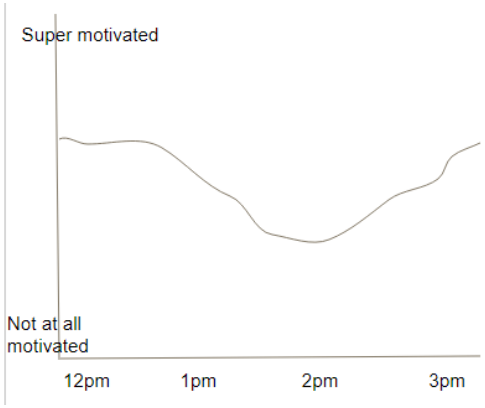
Graph 3: Warren's motivation during a 3-hour GE A2 lesson.

Warren stated that he always enters in English courses with a very high level of motivation, with just a small dip about halfway through because three hours is such a long time. Hence why he did report some feelings of fatigue during the lesson. This feeling was accompanied by a moment of distraction; he mentally checked-out for a period because an activity was too difficult, causing him to lose focus. The rest of the lesson, however, saw feelings of happiness and intense concentration, because Warren has always loved English and finds the activities highly useful and interesting. He did report some exceptions to his usually high levels of motivation, such as a previous lesson when he received a poor test grade and a period in the past where he was unable to focus on English in light of his other obligations.

Regarding the activities done during the lesson, Warren notes that, while he would appreciate a more specialized language course, he recognizes that all the language they cover in this course will be highly useful in the future.



Graph 4: Elaine's motivation during a 3-hour GE A2 lesson (2)

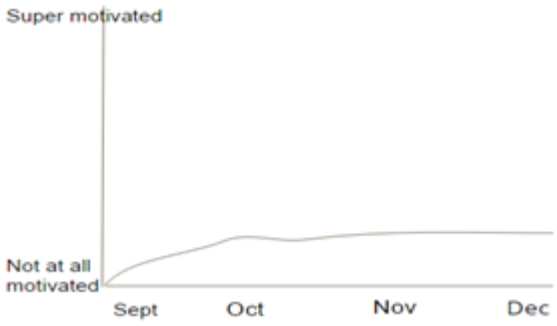


Graph 5: Elaine's motivation during a 3-hour GE A2 lesson

In the beginning the lessons, Elaine shows low or medium levels of motivation; she explained that it was because she was tired from having to get up early for a three-hour lesson. However, her motivation increased in Graph 4 once they started working a bit, coupled with a feeling of amusement during the group work activities. This higher motivation did not last, however, as a grammar exercise led to feelings of indifference and a listening comprehension resulted in feelings of boredom.

Graph 5 can be described similarly; the motivation was high at the beginning because they were listening to student presentations on various subjects, which Elaine found interesting. This point was followed by another listening comprehension activity, resulting in lower motivation. Finally, motivation increased again as the class worked on a grammar activity, which Elaine states was not particularly interesting, but it did force students to make an effort and be engaged.

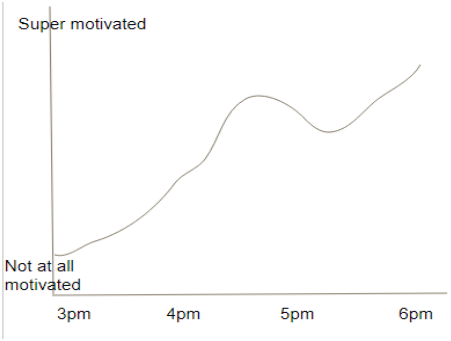
Generally, Elaine states that she tries to always remain engaged throughout the lessons, but it becomes difficult when the activity is not interesting or is too difficult. Furthermore, she has some trouble investing time in the course, as she does not believe English will ever be important to her in whatever career she ends up choosing.



Graph 6: Elaine's motivation throughout her semester-long GE A2 course

Elaine also described her semester-long motivation, stating that she entered the course with a relatively negative attitude. She blamed this on her past teachers, who did not inspire her to continue learning English. This semester, however, was a bit different; the professor forced students to participate and be engaged, while offering interesting learning activities and themes throughout the semester. The greater interest in the lessons resulted in an overall increase in Elaine's desire to learn English. She did specify, however, that her motivation would never be very high, given that English would never have an important role in her life.

V.4.b.2) General English B1. At the B1 level, three students were studied in the GE courses. Two students each gave one interview about their lesson-level motivation, while the third participant gave two interviews about lessons plus one interview about his semester-long motivation.

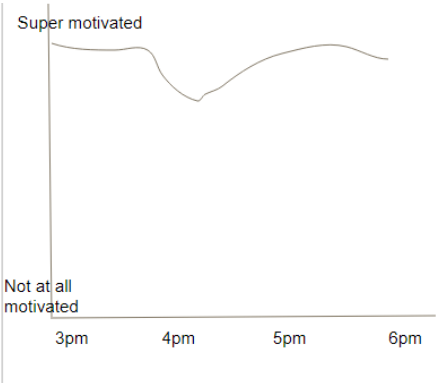


Graph 7: Kim's motivation during a 3-hour GE B1 lesson

Kim reported that her motivation was exceptionally low at the beginning of this lesson; she had to present in the first part of the lesson, resulting in such a high level of stress that she could not even bring herself to listen to the other presenters. Following her presentation,

however, she described feelings of relief and interest, resulting in higher motivation, as she listened to the other students' presentations. Still, the initial stress influenced her later on, as she was so tired from worrying about her presentation, that she struggled to focus on other activities; the presentations were followed by a written document with comprehension questions, which she said was difficult and boring, resulting in demotivation. Finally, she reported being happy at the end of the lesson, when they watched a video that she found funny.

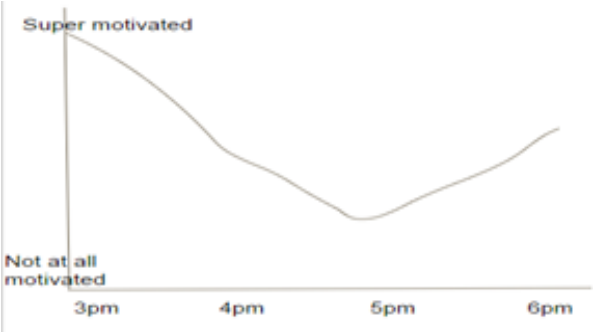
Generally, Kim feels that the course is highly useful; she does not need a very advanced level for her future job, but she does use English to speak with family in other countries and watch English-language television series. The vocabulary studied in this course is so vast that it equips her with the language necessary for these purposes. Furthermore, she reports that she is almost always engaged during the lessons because the activities are so interesting and also because it is difficult to catch up if one stops paying attention.



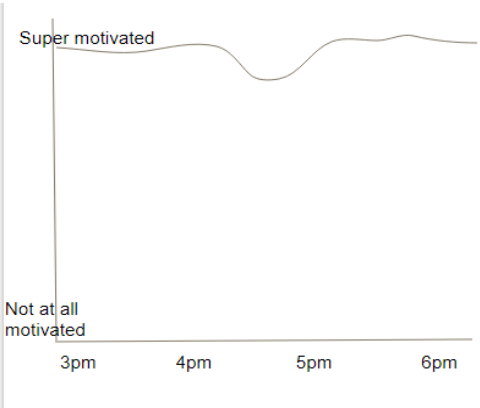
Graph 8: Tiffany's motivation during a 3-hour GE B1 lesson

Tiffany reported being super motivated in the beginning; she was happy that the course is so late in the day and that the professor started the lessons with student presentations. The motivation stagnated and fell in the first half, however, because the students were supposed to analyze photos and answer questions; Tiffany felt they spent too long on that activity. Following the break halfway through the lesson, Tiffany regained some of her engagement as they did a listening comprehension activity with videos, which she found interesting and entertaining. Ultimately, she finished the lesson with a feeling of fatigue and some disengagement because three hours, in her opinion, is too long to remain concentrated in a foreign language.

Generally, she felt the course is highly useful. She feels the teacher does a good job in providing a variety of activities that develop a wide range of language skills. Additionally, Tiffany claims that all of the resources offered by the teacher can be useful also in future projects and jobs.



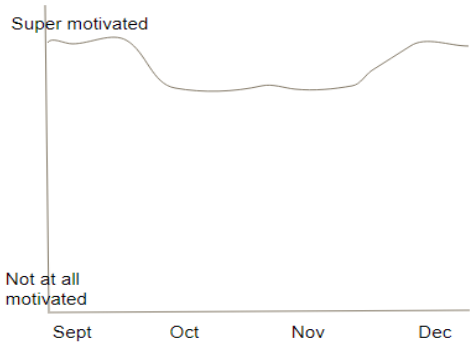
Graph 9: Axel's motivation during a 3-hour GE B1 lesson



Graph 10: Axel's motivation during a 3-hour GE B1 lesson (2)

In both of his lesson interviews, Axel reported entering the class with a strong level of motivation because he has always loved his English courses. In Graph 10, it is also due to the fact that he was quite confident in his ability to perform well in class that day as he had carefully prepared his homework. Graph 9, however, was a bit of a struggle; he had been sick for several days and therefore struggled to stay focused, resulting in him not even completing all the assigned tasks during the lesson. He was able to re-engage at the end a bit, however, as they were doing a translation activity that was relevant to their final exam.

In Graph 10, he was unable to explain why his motivation fell slightly halfway through the lesson, though it was possibly related to the break in the middle of the lesson breaking the rhythm of the course. Otherwise, he reported high levels of interest at the beginning while listening to other students' presentations and at the end during the fascinating listening comprehension activity and the review of the homework that he had so meticulously prepared.

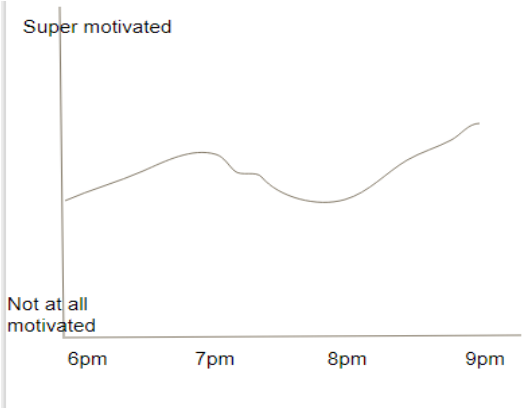


Graph 11: Axel's motivation during the semester-long GE B1 course

Generally, Axel stated that he started the course with a high level of motivation because he has always loved language learning and English in general. In October and November, however, he struggled to maintain his normally high level of motivation because he was so busy with his other courses that he did not have time to focus on English. Also, he received a low mark on his midterm exam, which shook his confidence in his English. By December, he was able to regain his confidence and find more free-time to dedicate to English, resulting in a higher level of motivation.

Generally, Axel stated that he found this course incredibly interesting. He felt the teacher presented highly fascinating themes that, while not directly applicable to his professional goals, strongly reinforced his language skills and expanded his general cultural knowledge. At times, he found himself so captivated, that he would participate regularly just to express opinions, even forgetting that he was in a language course.

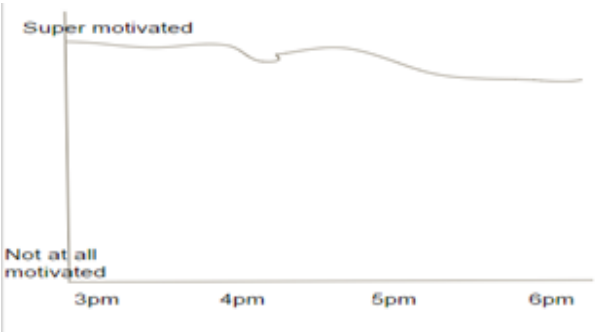
V.4.b.3) ESP Arts A2. Two students gave interviews in ESP Arts courses at the A2 level. One student gave one interview based on lesson-level motivation, while the other student gave 2 interviews regarding lesson-level motivation and one based on semester-long motivation.



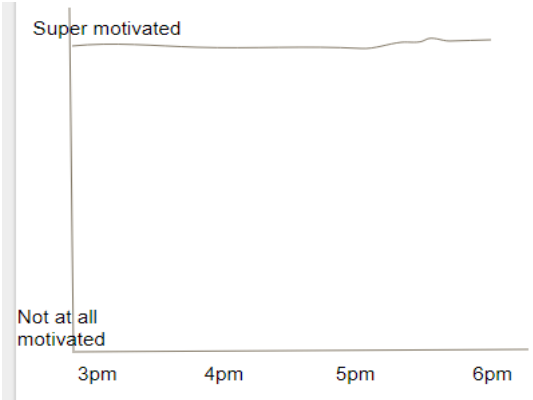
Graph 12: Ryan's motivation during a 3-hour ESP Arts A2 lesson

Like several of the students in the GE courses, Ryan reported starting out the lesson with a strong feeling of fatigue, which impacted his initial mental state. The situation quickly improved however, with reported feelings of interest, as the class began reviewing their grammar homework; Ryan had found this activity funny, interesting, and useful. Moving forward, Ryan became more disengaged during the break; he explained that it was too long, so no one knew when they would start again or what they would be doing. Still, a final activity that allowed the students to analyze a text and learn new words, resulted in Ryan finishing the lesson with a higher level of engagement.

Generally speaking, Ryan claims that the course is interesting, in part because it is adapted to the needs of arts students. He expects that this type of English will be useful in his future, but he does not know exactly how or what type of job he will look for.

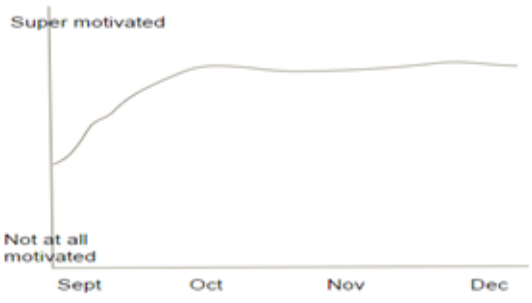


Graph 13: Kate's motivation during a 3-hour ESP Arts A2 lesson



Graph 14: Kate's motivation during a 3-hour ESP Arts A2 lesson(2)

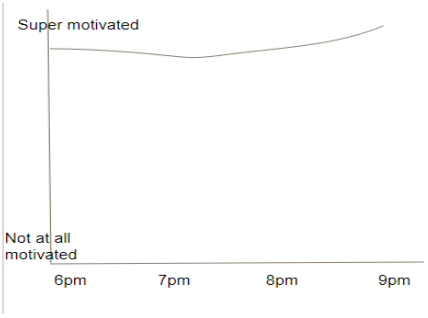
Kate explained, during both lessons, she entered with a high level of motivation, as is her habit for all of her courses. This positive feeling quickly wavered in Graph 13, however, with Kate reporting feelings of frustration at the initial activity; it was a grammar activity that they had already completed the previous week, so she felt the repetition was boring. Additionally, the motivation continued to fall towards the break, as the student mentally checked-out in anticipation of the down time; adding to this, was her general fatigue, due to all of her personal and academic obligations. Despite recuperating some of her initial engagement, Kate said she did grow frustrated with the final activity, which involved reading a text in small groups and answering comprehension questions, because the class spent too much time on it. The motivation remained consistently high throughout both lessons, however, as Kate reported that she generally enjoys the course, the teacher, and her classmates. Graph 14 illustrates this point as well, with Kate explaining that the entire three hours were filled with interesting activities.



Graph 15: Kate's motivation during the semester-long ESP A2 course

In Graph 15, Kate reflects on her semester-long motivation fluctuations in her ESP A2 course. She reported that, at a personal level, English is not very important for her, though she does recognize its value for work and travel. Moreover, she was not very interested in this course at the beginning of the semester, due to her past negative experiences in high school; she felt the teachers were not very good. Still, she said, as this course is a specialized course, it is relevant to her cinema studies. Specifically, she appreciated the small group activities done in-class as well as the passion the teacher brought to the all the lessons. At the end of the semester, she described being much happier with studying English and searching for English-language media in her free-time.

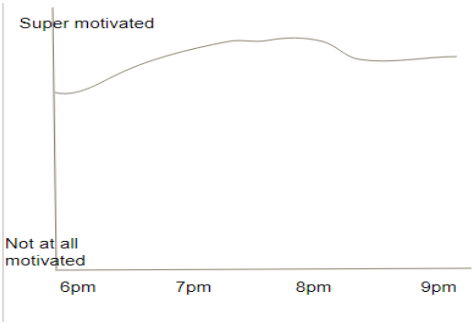
V.4.b.4) ESP Arts B1 (Paris). Four students gave interviews in ESP Arts courses at the B1 level in Paris. Three students gave one interview based on lesson-level motivation, while the other student gave 2 interviews regarding lesson-level motivation and one based on semester-long motivation.



Graph 16: Ashley's motivation during a 3-hour ESP Arts B1 lesson

While Graph 16 shows a consistently high level of motivation throughout the lesson, Ashley noted that it did dip a little bit about halfway through; she explained that this change was the result of her realization that she was still going to be in the class for another 90 minutes so late in the day. It stayed lower because the class was doing small-group work and Ashley does not like having to speak English. Motivation increased again, she claimed, as she began to see the end of the three-hour lesson was drawing near. Still, the positive emotions she felt during the lesson allowed her to maintain a relatively high level of engagement; she reported feelings of amusement, interest and joy. She stated that not only are the activities all generally interesting, but also that her classmates and teacher are quite nice, making the experience more pleasant.

Regarding the course in general, Ashley believes it is nice to have a specialized language course. She knows that English is important for her future, as she would like to do something in an artistic field abroad; an artistic language course, therefore, offers her more concrete objectives. As such, though she does not really enjoy participating in class, she does spend a fair amount of free-time watching English language media.

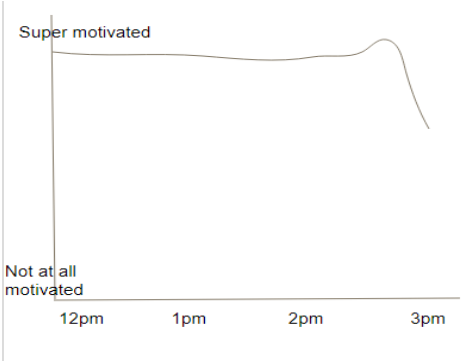


Graph 17: Mike's motivation over a 3-hour ESP Arts B1 lesson

Mike said he was tired at the beginning of the lesson; it was his only one for the day and he had just come from a sports practice. Nevertheless, he quickly became much more engaged as the class started doing small group activities, giving him the opportunity to speak English with his peers. This motivation fell by the end, however, as they started a listening comprehension exercise that Mike felt was too long and cognitively demanding.

Still, as Graph 17 shows, Mike's motivation was generally quite high. He states that this was due to the fact that he was generally interested in all the activities throughout the lesson; he was also happy as the course combines his two main interests: learning English and the arts. Still, the fluctuations and occasional decreases in engagement were due to his fatigue and also moments of boredom which came from disruptions caused by the other students.

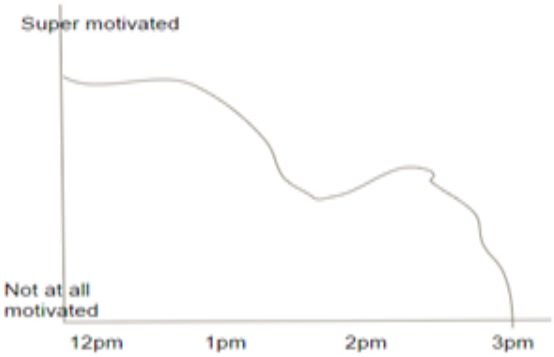
Generally, regarding the course, Mike says he appreciates having an artistic course because he knows that the activities will be of interest to him; his plan is to finish his degree and look for a job in the film industry abroad, so learning English would greatly facilitate this project. That said, he notes that, given his strong intrinsic desire to learn English, he would be equally invested in a more general language course.



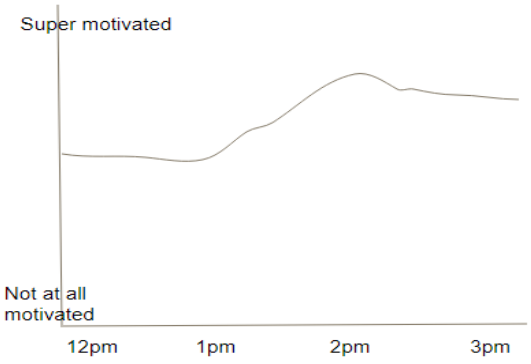
Graph 18: Taylor's motivation during a 3-hour ESP Arts B1 lesson

As Graph 18 illustrates, Taylor was intensely motivated at the beginning of the lesson; she claims this was the result of her strong concentration as they started the lesson with an exam. Her concentration faltered, however, and experienced a slight decrease, as she became agitated with what she felt was an impossibly difficult test question. Finishing the test allowed her to recuperate her motivation a little, but this improvement did not last long; she claimed the final activity, in which the professor presented a note sheet about Canada, was boring and she just could not bring herself to pay attention.

Generally, however, Taylor claims she appreciates having a specialized language course, as it provides her with language that is directly applicable to her field of study. Still, she does not participate much in class, due to her embarrassment about her strong accent, and prefers instead to experience English outside of class through watching series and reading articles. She knows English will be important for her and will offer her greater opportunities for work and travel in the future.



Graph 19: Jenny's motivation during a 3-hour ESP Arts B1 lesson

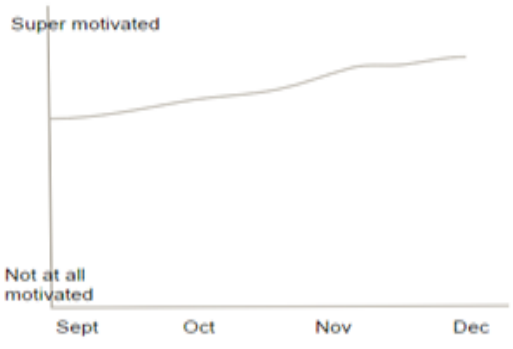


Graph 20: Jenny's motivation during a 3-hour ESP Arts B1 lesson(2)

Graph 19 illustrates a relatively high level of motivation upon entering the lesson; still, Jenny claimed it was somewhat limited by fatigue and hunger. It remained so high in the first hour because the professor was presenting a powerpoint about the culture of South Africa; Jenny stated that this activity was captivating. It fell however, again due to her tiredness, and shot down in the second half of the class as they were working on a news article accompanied by comprehension questions, which Jenny found too easy.

Graph 20 shows a lower level of motivation at the beginning of the lesson; Jenny claimed this was due to the fact that they were correcting a past exam, which she found too

frontal and not interactive enough. This initial boredom inhibited her also from fully engaging with the powerpoint on the culture of Australia which followed; she stated that she found it interesting enough but that she was so demotivated by the exam correction that it was not possible for her to pay attention. The lesson continued with a film, which saw Jenny's motivation greatly increase until the final activity, a correction of a past grammar activity, which Jenny found boring.

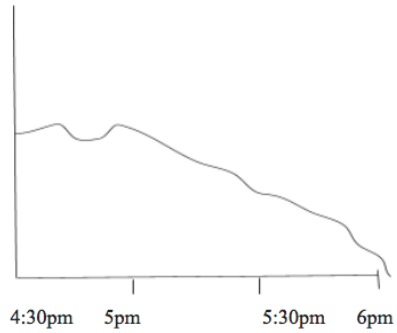


Graph 21: Jenny's motivation during a semester-long ESP Arts B1 course

Throughout the semester, as Graph 21 indicates, Jenny's motivation steadily increased. She explained that initially, she started with just a medium level of motivation, not knowing what to expect from the course. It slowly, but steadily, increased during the semester largely because her relationships with her peers improved; these relations facilitated their exchanges and made class activities much more enjoyable.

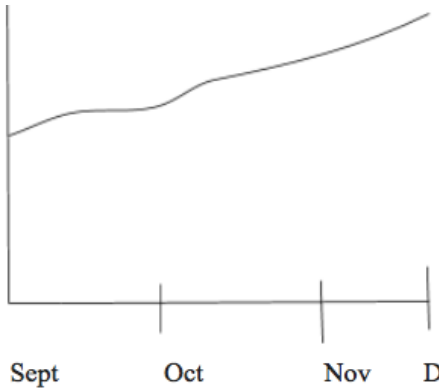
Regarding the course, it was these interactions that Jenny valued the most; while she did admit acquiring some new specialized language, her improved oral skills were her main take-away from this course.

V.4.b.5) ESP Arts B1 (Venice). One student gave interviews in ESP Arts course at the B1 level in Venice. This student gave one interview regarding lesson-level motivation and one based on semester-long motivation.



Graph 22: Alice's motivation during a 90-minute ESP Arts B1 lesson

Alice reported entering the class with only a medium level of motivation, as was the norm for her with this course. She noted that her attitude about the course is rather negative; she feels the class has too many students so that it is impossible to really participate and practice. That said, the early grammar and pronunciation activities taught her a lot of new and useful information, so she was interested and engaged at the beginning. This engagement was sustained in the first half of the lesson as they continued onto a whole-class text analysis of a literary text; Alice claimed that such exercises provide her with useful new vocabulary. That said, by the end of the lesson, Alice reported feeling almost zero motivation; she stated that the course was too late in the day and that she was sometimes frustrated by how the teacher would stress unimportant or unnecessary things.



Graph 23: Alice's motivation during a semester-long ESP Arts B1 course

Regardless of her negative feelings about the course, Alice reported that her motivation greatly increased throughout the semester. She acknowledged that the course itself did have some role in this, as the teacher was very knowledgeable and their text analysis exercises gave her a lot

of new vocabulary that was relevant to her major. Still, she claimed the major reason for the increased motivation was her personal experience living in Venice as a foreign student; she realized that English was an important part of her daily life. This realization resulted in a greater interest in English grammar and greater consumption of English language media.

V.4.c) The observation data. The observation data collected in this study allows the researcher to notice what types of activities are found to be most motivating by learners. As explained in the methodology chapter, all students who participated in interviews were also observed during lessons. The focus of the observation sessions was the behaviors described in Table 6, as indicators of student engagement or disengagement.

To understand correlations between learning activities and motivation, all observed lessons were coded in two ways before tests were conducted through FSQCA. First, student behaviors were coded according to the groups described in Table 6 to identify instances of motivated learning behaviors. Next, the classroom activity was coded; after a review of literature and a preliminary analysis of observation and interview data, the following categories were created for the lessons:

1) *ESP*. As the present study seeks to understand the influence specialized language courses have on motivation, a category was created to differentiate ESP lessons from GE lessons; the former category was coded with a 1 and the latter with 0.
2) *B1*. As ESP research often discusses the language proficiency level at which to begin specialized courses, a category was created to distinguish the observed B1 lessons from the A2-level lessons; the former category was coded with a 1 and the latter with a 0.
3) *Authentic Documents.* Frequently lauded in ESP courses and language courses in general, authentic documents were used in all observed lessons and referenced often in the interviews. A category was dedicated to the use of authentic documents as opposed to learning tools that were conceived for purely didactic purposes. Class discussions, debates and written comprehension activities surrounding films, newspaper articles, songs and recordings are just a

sampling of the types of activities included in this category. Their presence is coded with a 1.

4) *Oral Expression.* Given a focus on communicative competence in language courses and its frequent presence in the questionnaire responses and the observations, a separate category was established for activities that required oral expression, such group/partner activities. Often, teachers would ask students to work with a partner to discuss questions, perform role plays or complete worksheets; these types of activities are included in this category. Also included in this category were student presentations; while classroom presentations did not appear in this study's literature review, they were mentioned a lot in both questionnaires and interviews; participants often said they were useful and interesting. The presence of oral activities is coded with a 1.
5) *Grammar/Vocabulary.* The teaching of grammar and specialized vocabulary and terminology is widely studied in ESP didactics. Many students also referenced these activities in their questionnaires and interviews. Thus, this category is for activities whose aim is to expand or practice vocabulary or review grammar rules. Their presence is coded with a 1.
6) *Lectures.* This category was created to account for moments in the lessons when the students were meant to be passive and the teacher presented either a note sheet or a powerpoint. In several lessons, this type of activity had a large presence and received some mention in the interviews and questionnaires. Lectures are coded with a 1.
7) *Answer Reviews.* Error correction is a relatively common theme in language teaching research. Furthermore, the observed lessons featured numerous, extended periods of time dedicated exclusively to addressing student errors. Periods of correction and answer review are coded with a 1.

As described, the above categories were carefully selected based on existing literature and collected data. Every minute of classroom observations were coded based on these categories to show which type of activities had the strongest influence on motivation. Certain activities

could easily be coded into two groups; for example, if the teacher asked students to work with a partner to write a summary of a news article they read together, that activity would be coded under Authentic Documents and Oral Expression. Table 17 below presents the consistency between the ESP and B1, resulting from the FSQCA analysis.

ESP and Proficiency Level (conditions)	**Consistency with Motivation (outcome)**
ESP	0.565230
GE	0.434770
A2	0.555809
B1	0.444191
ESP + A2	0.856980
ESP + B1	0.708250
GE + A2	0.698830
GE + B1	0.735941

Table 17: Correlation between motivation and different class setups

With regard to motivation, Table 17 indicates that students in the ESP courses were more often engaged in motivating behaviors. Though Ragin (2006) would not say that either value constitutes a strong correlation, it does indicate the possibility that an ESP course could have a positive impact on classroom motivation. Similarly, A2 level courses had a stronger, though nevertheless weak, correlation with motivation than did B1 level courses.

Regarding the four different types of courses observed, the ESP A2 setup appeared to have the strongest correlation with motivation, even higher than ESP B1; ESP A2 represents the only condition present in Table 17 that can be reliably considered connected to motivation. Reversely, the GE B1 setup had a stronger correlation with classroom motivation than GE A2.

Table 18 shows the correlations between the classroom motivation and the different class activities outlined above for the observed ESP and GE courses.

Activity	**ESP**	**GE**
Authentic Documents	0.396073	0.416500
Oral Expression	0.307330	0.282565
Grammar/Vocabulary	0.152880	0.197395
Lectures	0.057330	n/a
Answer Review	0.319372	0.245491

Table 18: Correlation between motivation and different classroom factors

Table 18 shows that no single activity can be confidently considered to lead to motivation. Nevertheless, these figures offer some useful insights. First, in both ESP and GE courses, the use of Authentic Documents has the strongest correlation to classroom engagement while Grammar/Vocabulary activities have the weakest. Oral Expression measures are high in both groups, while Answer Review instances show a considerable difference between the two groups.

Summary

This section presented data responding to the Research Question 2 regarding factors influencing real-time motivation in ESP and GE courses. Data from questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations were presented comparing the two course setups, ESP and GE.

From the questionnaires, two significant factors were found to have an impact on learner motivation and engagement. First, culture appears to have a major impact on motivation for learning English. In many L2MSS measures, students in Venice reported lower levels of motivation than students in Paris; this finding is true both in an overall comparison between the two universities as well as a more targeted comparison between ESP B1 groups.

Next, language proficiency level appeared to have an impact on learner motivation. While no significant differences were found in GE courses, ESP B1 students were found to have more positive reviews of the L2LE and ESP A2 students were found to have a stronger L2OS.

Regarding the learning environment, Table 16 also presented results from the individual questionnaire items associated with the L2LE; these measures included an evaluation of the professor, the social dynamic with peers, the level of the course, the activities done and the level of excitement with which students went to class. It was found that, for nearly all items, GE students had more positive evaluations of the learning environment than ESP students, while A2 level students tended to be more positive than B1 students in the same course setup. In nearly all of the groups studied, students indicated that oral activities were their favorite, followed by grammar and listening comprehension activities. Students in Venice deviated from this slightly in that sense as, although oral activities were reported as being popular and well-liked, text analysis was the most appreciated activity.

In the interviews, several patterns also emerged regarding the L2LE. The graphs highlight how student motivation in susceptible to numerous changes during lessons and over the course of the semester. Many interview responses also tend to reflect what was seen in the questionnaires. Namely, oral activities and presentations were often cited as sources of increased motivation; similarly, Alice reported being somewhat disappointed that her course did not allow her opportunities for participation. Students in both ESP and GE referenced interest in their lessons, with participants from the latter group mentioning it a bit more often as well as a feeling that many activities were useful. A number of ESP participants noted that it was useful being a specialized course; three students felt that it was just more useful to have the specific objectives such courses provide, while others noted that, while it was nice, their motivation in the course was more related to other factors.

No noticeable differences in student responses were observed between ESP and GE courses regarding the types of activities they found useful. Working on authentic documents was sometimes well-received, other times no. Corrections were sometimes appreciated, other times no. Interestingly enough, however, discussions with participants were often dominated by factors that did not connect directly to what was happening in the classroom or the quality of the activity. Many students in both groups referenced being too tired, either because of the

duration of the lesson or the time of day. Others talked about how the break in the middle of the lesson either allowed them to reinforce their motivation or lose it. Still others focused on social elements of language learning, such as their relationships with their peers or with past teachers. Plans for present and future use of English, or lack therefore, also impacted students in both groups.

Finally, the observation data offered further insights into motivating factors. First, students observed in the ESP A2 groups were found to be engaging in the most motivated learning behaviors. Activities involving authentic documents were found to be the most motivating, with oral activities also receiving high ratings in each group.

V.5) Discussion

The above section presents data responding to research question 2, which sought to identify the principal factors that affected learner motivation in the GE and ESP courses studied. The mixed-method approach to this study revealed several important factors that require further explanation.

One factor found to have an impact on motivation is the country in which the courses were taught. Tables 12 and 13 show that motivation measures were consistently higher at the Université de Paris 8 (France) than at the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia (Italy). A possible explanation for this could be the cultural context; it could be that the French students simply have a higher level of motivation for language learning than the Italian students because of the way English is perceived in these countries. Wigfield & Eccles (2000) and Csizér & Dörnyei (2005a) both stress the importance of the local culture in determining how students view a foreign language and associated learning tasks. Csizér & Dörnyei (2005a), for instance, speak of how living in culturally and linguistically homogeneous Hungary has implications for how students feel about other languages; this concept may very well be relevant here. Paris is a huge, cosmopolitan city boasting large foreign communities. Venice, on the other hand, is considerably smaller and prides itself on its distinct, local culture. Consequently, it would not be a leap to consider that Parisian students are more acutely aware of the importance of learning English than Venetian students.

Still, other possibilities exist to explain the observed difference between France and Italy in this study, undermining the role cultural differences might play here. Csizér & Dörnyei

(2005a) point out that Hungarian students are so accustomed to taking English courses that they do not even view them as language courses anymore, but rather mandatory courses they are required to take, just as any other course. It seems plausible that students in Italy and France would have a similar view, given the large presence of English and the fact that the European Union insists that all students have some mastery of two foreign languages (Coonan, 2013). Additionally, Van der Yeught (2014) and Leone (2010) describe similar issues in teaching ESP in France and Italy, respectively, such as problems with identifying standard methods for teaching practice. Given this situation, culture in itself may not be the main factor at work here.

It is more likely that students' motivation in Venice is negatively impacted by the particularities of the learning context. As described in the methodology chapter, the classroom observed in Venice had well over 220 enrolled students; in most lessons, the classroom did not contain nearly enough seats for everyone, leaving some students struggling to overhear from the hallway, leaning up against the wall or sitting on the floor. Technology was also an issue here; a microphone was necessary for the teacher to be heard, but a functioning one could not always be found, meaning many students struggled to hear. Given the difficulties organizing in-class group work in these conditions, many lessons were frontal, with the teacher doing much of the talking. From the research in motivating teaching practice, we know that this type of setup can have tragic consequences on student engagement and motivation. Lamb & Wedell (2015) and Rashed (2013) both insist on the importance of group work and fostering positive group dynamics. Gocer (2010) describes an ideal setup of desks. Assuring these elements was simply not possible in the Venetian course, though they played a major part of most of the courses observed in Paris. Group work, partners and moving desks around were common elements in many of the Parisian lessons observed, quite possibly accounting for the increased levels of student motivation.

Another factor that this study considered for its potential impact on learner motivation is the language proficiency level, as levels A2 and B1 were incorporated. The level at which to begin having students take specialized language courses has been something of a polarizing debate in the field of ESP, with some saying starting at low levels could be beneficial and others saying you risk watering down the material too much (Cigada, 1988; Ibba, 1988; Preece, 2008; Villez, 1994). Tables 14 and 15, which compare courses at the Université de Paris 8,

present some telling findings. First, it appears that proficiency level does not have a large impact on student motivation in GE courses; no statistically significant differences are observed between A2 and B1 and any differences that exist are relatively small. Table 14 tells a different story, however, with ESP B1 students reporting higher motivation levels for all measures except the L2OS. The possible reason for this is described in section V.3; students at the A2 level may simply want a stronger basis in general language skills before having to grapple with highly specialized materials. This argument seems likely given that many of the observed courses used a lot of authentic documents; analyzing films and articles, at a technical level and in a foreign language may simply be more than these students can handle.

Table 16, which presents the scores for the individual L2LE measures, sheds some light on this trend. For GE courses, though the A2 level's scores are consistently higher than B1, the differences are generally relatively small. For the ESP courses, even though the students in ESP A2 have a higher score for question 21 (the activities are interesting/useful), they have a much lower score for question 22 (I feel at ease in this class). One must wonder if this is due to the fact that, despite valuing the opportunity offered by an ESP course, they are still struggling with the activities.

Lastly, another factor that found to have an impact on motivation was the classroom environment, particularly in terms of learning activities. In analyzing the motivating impact of learning activities, this study operated under Dörnyei's (1994) assertion that motivated learning behaviors good indicators of learner motivation. Guided by this principal, this study used the behaviors outlined by Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008) as well as Samida (2004). Numerous motivated learning behaviors were observed that were easily recognizable from Samida' s list and grouped into Guilloteaux & Dörnyei's (2008) categories.

Table 18, featuring data from the observation sessions, shows that no single activity can consistently predict higher student engagement, neither in GE or ESP courses; the interviews tend to support this finding. In both course setups, the use of authentic documents are most often connected to observed motivated learning behaviors, with oral activities and answer reviews/corrections also having stronger correlations. Generally, however, interviews revealed that students found a variety of activities motivating, with some being considered motivating one day and boring the next. This trend seems to be the result of other factors, not at all related to the learning activities. Some examples include students' other course

obligations, fatigue and frustration at the duration or time of the lesson; students from both course setups referenced these other factors.

Table 17 also presents data from the observation sessions but focuses on proficiency level (A2 or B1) and course setup (GE or ESP). Surprisingly, given its incongruence with the questionnaire data, ESP A2 seemed to have a greater consistency with motivation than the other groups, by a rather large margin. Consistent with other findings, ESP B1 and GE B1, and GE A2 and GE B1 have just small differences between them. One possible explanation for these findings could perhaps lie in individual differences between participants that make their cases unique in their respective groups; these differences can be analyzed through attractor states and Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs).

Upon closer inspection of the interview responses, the ESP students, both in A2 and B1, express being guided by very positive attractor states in their behaviors. Kate, Ryan and Ashley describe feelings of amusement or joy during the class activities, often times accompanied by happiness or interest. These very positive emotional states appeared to have pushed these students to continue working diligently during the lessons, despite occasional moments of frustration or boredom. Such attractor states are in stark contrast with those expressed by the GE students; at the B1 level, Tiffany and Kim report being guided by interest in some of the learning activities. At the A2 level, Claude, Elsie and Elaine do not seem to be guided by any particular attractor state; they seem to exhibit relatively passive emotional states in which they react to the classroom stimuli but are also equally guided by their own fatigue and desire for the three-hour lesson to pass by quickly. These attractor states seem to be cyclic (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008); they are much less stable than those appearing in the ESP courses, likely resulting in more instances of observed disengagement.

Nevertheless, one instance of a student experiencing a DMC was observed amongst the GE A2 participants, probably a major factor in the consistency being as high as it was. Warren described, in detail, his desire to be a bilingual professional working in international business; he described feelings of happiness and intense concentration that appear to have helped him overcome other issues, such as not being in a specialized language class, dealing with other academic obligations and receiving a bad grade on an exam. Such a declaration is similar to the DMCs described by Axel in GE B1 and Mike and Jenny in ESP B1; all discussed relatively specific plans to move abroad or work in international environments at the conclusions of their

studies. They described how these goals allowed them to work past other obstacles and maintain, or increase, their learning motivation throughout the semester. Just as Muir & Dörnyei (2013) would predict, the detailed action plans these students had served as an impetus to push their language learning behaviors.

These observation data have interesting implications for the rest of the findings in this study; while questionnaire data tend to favor GE A2 as the most motivated group and interview data shows many similarities between all groups, the observation data indicate show that ESP A2 students were more often engaged in the lessons. Such findings indicate perhaps that while feelings like interest and thinking an activity is useful are enough for students to offer positive evaluations of their L2 Learning Environments, they might need to be combined with other positive attractor states, such as amusement to result in greater learner engagement.

V.6) The Validity of the Theoretical Frameworks in This Study

V.6.a) The L2 Motivational Self-System. The L2MSS, not often used in Western European universities, and perhaps even more rarely in their ESP courses, needs to be applied in a wider array of contexts to fully understand its relevance and potential. As stated in the methodology chapter, the main criteria for evaluating the validity of the L2MSS in the context of the present study, French and Italian universities, was a Cronbach's alpha; the questionnaire is based on past studies that have validated the questions. As such, this calculation determines the measures' applicability to this context. This figure determines whether or not questionnaire items associated with a given construct truly tap into the same variable or not. While it is ideal to have as high a number as possible, Dörnyei (2007, cited in Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) explains that 0.6 should be considered the absolute lowest value accepted. Though it is true that questionnaires containing few items per construct may naturally have a lower Cronbach's alpha, 0.6 should be considered a threshold. Table 19 presents the Cronbach's alpha for the questionnaire items in the present study.

L2MSS Construct	Cronbach's alpha (rounded)
L2IS	0.77
L2OS	0.55
L2LE	0.78
L2 Intended/Exerted Effort	0.58

Table 19: Cronbach's alpha for the L2MSS constructs

As the Table shows, only the L2IS and L2LE reach the acceptable level. The other measures do indeed come close to the recommend 0.6 value, suggesting some similarity between the contexts analyzed in the present study and those from other reports. Nevertheless, the validity of data associated with these constructs is called into question.

The interview data described in section V.2 seem to reinforce the interview findings; only rare, vague references were made to the L2 Ought-to Self, while the L2 Ideal Self and the L2 Learning Environment were mentioned with much greater frequency and detail.

Given these findings, it would appear that parts of the L2MSS, notably the L2OS and the L2IE need to be reconsidered or refocused to better suit the context of the present study. Possible explanations for these low Cronbach measures are presented in the Discussion section.

V.6.b) The Complex Dynamic Systems Theory. As stated in the Theoretical Framework chapter, Larsen-Freeman (2015) outlines 9 defining characteristics of the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory. This subsection addresses how they are, or not, relevant to the present study. Given the unique nature of this theory, only examples of the data presented in the above tables and graphs are referenced rather than re-presenting everything.

1) *Different use of space*. This feature is indeed pertinent to the present study. In a relatively novel approach, interview participants were asked to draw line graphs to indicate the evolution of their motivation over the course of a lesson or the entire semester. Despite some initial hesitation from some participants,

most readily accepted the task and used to it to guide their explanations of what factors caused their motivational fluctuations.

2) *Acceptance of complexity*. As illustrated by the variety of sometimes contradictory results, the present study fully embraces complexity in the classroom environment. While observations sessions only permit the researcher to see what is happening on the surface, interviews and questionnaires prove that a myriad of factors influence student motivation. Classroom activities, the duration and timing of a lesson, one's past experiences learning English, one's future goals, one's relationship with peers are just a sampling of factors that can impact how engaged one is, even during a single lesson.

3) *Acknowledgement of relationships.* The fact that Table 18 indicated no single activity as being strongly associated with motivated learning behaviors proves the presence of highly complex relationships between countless factors inside and outside the classroom. For example, though questionnaires and interviews regularly indicated how much students appreciated oral activities, observation data did not find them to consistently correlate to motivated learning behaviors. Graph 17 highlights this feature as well; though Mike was generally happy enough with all the activities, he described his engagement as being influenced also by his annoyance with his peers.

4) *Nonlinearity.* Observation and interview data highlight that few consistent trends distinguish classroom motivation in ESP and GE courses. The line graphs, however, show that fluctuations are typical.

5) *Dependence on initial conditions.* Interview data strongly support this factor of the CDST. Participants often referenced how the break during the lesson, or changes in activity resulted in differences in their levels of engagement. Graph 18, for example, illustrates this point clearly; Taylor was initially strongly motivated by the exam. Finishing the test, however, constituted a change in the lesson's conditions, allowing her motivation to increase, albeit slightly and briefly.

6) *Openness/Non-finality.* Again, in the interviews, students frequently described the impact of past learning environments on their present level of learning motivation. Graph 6, for example, presents how Elaine started the semester with absolutely no motivation for learning English due to her past English teachers. Other factors like, career goals and family living abroad, were also referenced with noticeable frequency. The relatively strong presence of the L2IS, along with the weaker presence of the L2OS, as illustrated by questionnaire data, prove that students are clearly thinking of a variety of internal and external pressures and obligations relating to their self-concept.

7) *Adaptation.* Several examples of adaptation were found in the present study. In Graph 16, for instance, Ashley spoke of how she was uninterested in the classroom activity because she did not like the speaking aspect and she was thinking about how long the lesson was. Nevertheless, she took solace in the fact that her classmates and teacher were nice, allowing her to maintain a relatively high level of engagement throughout the lesson.

8) *Context dependent.* As Tables 12 and 13 show, students are not just influenced by the classroom, but also the cultural context as a whole. Large differences, several of which were statistically significant, were noted in the self-concepts and learning environment evaluations between the Parisian and Venetian university students.

9) *Non-Gaussian distribution.* No regularity has been observed in how often motivational fluctuations take place nor in the factors that cause them. Table 20 below shows how often, on average, each of the observed students changed from one type of motivation to another per hour (based on the engagement types listed in Table 6).

Student	**Average number of motivated learning behavior changes per hour (rounded)**
Claude (GE A2)	6.6
Elsie (GE A2)	5.3
Elaine (GE A2)	5.3
Warren (GE A2)	3.8
Axel (GE B1)	6.4
Kim (GE B1)	5.8
Kate (ESP A2)	5.4
Karl (ESP A2)	5.6
Jenny (ESP B1)	6.7
Taylor (ESP B1)	4.2
Ryan (ESP A2)	11
Keisha (ESP A2)	10.7
Ashley (ESP B1)	7.3
Mike (ESP B1)	7.4
Alice (ESP B1)	5.7

Table 20: Average number of observed motivational changes per hour

Table 20, combined with the graphs provided by the participants, show that students' learning behaviors are subject to frequent, often unpredictable changes. Some students, such as Taylor, appear more stable, while others, such as Ryan appear to be changing constantly.

Summary

This section describes the applicability of the two theoretical frameworks, L2MSS and CDST, to the present study. As these theories have not appeared widely in ESP courses or Western European universities, it is necessary to analyze how successfully their constructs were able to describe the context of the present study.

Regarding the L2MSS, it was found that the L2 Ideal Self and the L2 Learning Environment constructs are valid measures for the present study. This finding is based on the Cronbach's alpha calculation as well as the presence of these constructs in students' interview responses. Both the L2IS and L2LE had high Cronbach's alpha measures and numerous mentions in the interviews. The L2 Ought-to Self, however, appears problematic. With a low Cronbach's alpha and only rare references in the interviews, it seems that this construct needs to be reconsidered or refocused in this context. The measure for L2 Intended/Exerted Effort, meant to determine the strength of students' motivation, has less of a basis in past L2MSS studies and therefore needs further testing, or at least additional questionnaire items, to achieve stronger validity.

For the CDST, it appears that many of this theory's constructs are highly relevant to the present study. Though results viewed through the CDST do not necessarily allow for strong patterns to emerge, the theory did indeed provide a useful framework for capturing the fact that classroom-level engagement is a function of innumerable factors and experiences, both inside and outside of the classroom, over the course of the students' entire life. Under the CDST's guidelines, this study showed how motivation regularly and unpredictably fluctuates.

The following section presents a discussion of the results in further detail, so that they may be understood in light of past studies and stronger conclusions can be drawn.

V.7) Discussion

V.7.a) The L2 Motivational Self System. This study was an opportunity to analyze the validity of the L2MSS in ESP courses and Western European Universities. Paltridge (2016) explains that this theory, despite having potential has not been widely applied to ESP contexts. The Theoretical Framework chapter highlights that research has largely focused on institutions in Asia, the Middle East and, to an extent, Eastern Europe (Csizér & Luckács, 2010; Safdari, 2017; You & Chan, 2015). Therefore, a need existed to understand the applicability of L2MSS constructs to French and Italian university students in English language courses. To do so, a questionnaire was created after consulting other studies using this theory, thusly verifying if the presence of the L2MSS's constructs can be measured in the same way in different contexts.

Regarding the L2 Ideal Self, with a Cronbach alpha of 0.77, it would appear that this tenet of the L2MSS is applicable to the present context and can be measured with items similar to those that have been validated in past studies. That is to say, the questionnaire items associated in the L2IS appear to tap into the same variable in Paris and Venice as they do in other contexts.

The validity of the L2IS in these contexts confirms a number of relatively recent findings in L2 motivation research. Firstly, Dörnyei (2009) points out that external motivators, such as professional goals can in fact be internalized; this study reinforces this concept in showing that questions regarding students' desire to learn English for professional purposes and their belief that learning English is personally rewarding and enriching both are connected to the same variable. This notion is further supported through an analysis of the interview responses, notably Mike's (ESP B1), Jenny's (ESP A2) and Axel's (GE B1); these students often reported, at times, high levels of motivation, while also describing relatively specific goals for moving abroad for work after their studies.

Furthermore, the value of the L2IS in this study supports the decision to use this construct rather than the constructs present in other theoretical frameworks, such as intrinsic motivation from the Self-Determination Theory (SDT). Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Brière, Senécal & Vallière (1992) describe how three different types of intrinsic motivation exist, though none of these three incorporate one's personally-valued academic and professional goals for learning English. Such goals appear to be an important aspect of learner motivation,

even in SDT studies; Wang (2008), for example, found that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation occurs at similar levels, suggesting a possibility that some overlap exists between the two.

The L2LE questions appeared to be similarly reliable in this study with the highest Cronbach's alpha (0.78), frequent references in the interview responses and consistently among the strongest measures in the questionnaire. For this measure, the result is perhaps not so surprising; when reflecting on one's classroom, it seems natural that learning activities, the teachers and peers would all come in to play resulting in one's classroom-level motivation. Given that these factors are nearly universal in all classroom environments, it makes sense that items measuring the L2LE would be similar across different cultures. In Dörnyei & Csizér's (1998) Ten Commandments of Language teaching, they describe the importance of teachers offering activities that facilitate social interaction in the classroom, highlighting that teachers, peers and learning activities are all phenomena that work together to impact motivation.

The L2 Ought to Self, on the other hand, provided different results. The L2OS had the lowest Cronbach alpha (0.55) as well as the smallest presence in questionnaire and interview responses. This phenomenon might be due to several factors. One possibility is the influence of the local culture. The L2OS, which frequently includes questionnaire measures based on how obligated one feels to learn a language based on pressures from parents, schools, bosses and society, has been validated and found to be a present force in Asia (Aubrey, 2014; Chen, 2012) and the Middle East (Safdari, 2017). It is quite possible then that Parisian and Venetian students do not feel these same pressures; perhaps their desire to learn English is strictly personal or has been reinforced in such a way that it has become highly internalized. Such a conclusion would be reasonable given Brady's (2014) findings from a Spanish university. This study was also unable to formulate L2OS questions in such a way that the Cronbach's alpha achieved an acceptable reliability measure; it is indeed possible that students from Western European universities are simply conditioned to learn English in a different way.

It is also important to note that while questions 8 and 11 had relatively strong measures amongst the participants, questions 24, 26 and 27 were much lower; the former group deal with more general pressures instituted by the university and by society, while the latter group addresses pressures coming from specific people. This point suggests that perhaps professors and family members of students in these universities do not force students to learn English or, if they do, the students do not feel a sense of obligation towards them.

Another possibility for the L2OS is that university students are at a bit of a unique point in their lives; some might be fresh out of high school without an idea of what their career goals are and without significant life experiences or experiences abroad. You & Chan (2015) found that one's L2OS can evolve; some may start out learning English at their parents' insistence, while later shift to learning due to societal pressures. It seems plausible that the participants in the present study might be in the same sort of transition; while parental pressures might be starting to get less consideration, societal pressures are not yet being felt at 100%.

Whatever the case, it appears necessary to reformulate and reconsider how the L2OS is analyzed in similar contexts. Given that the participants are enrolled in universities, L2OS questions relating to the need for English to find internships and read academic articles might be more relevant; such questions would more directly relate to many students' current experiences resulting in a more reliable measure, yielding more trustworthy results.

Lastly, the measure of L2 Intended/Exerted Effort was meant to measure how much effort students expend, or plan to expend, learning English as way to understand the strength of their motivation. This measure, though coming close to acceptable reliability, falls slightly short at 0.58. One possible explanation for this shortcoming is that intended and exerted effort are different. Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, & Bielak (2014), for example, found that getting good grades is a principal motivator for language students; hence, some students may feel compelled to make a significant effort in class, but feel little desire to practice English outside of class. Such a concept has appeared in past motivation research, notably in the work of Gardner (2007), who claims that language learning motivation and classroom motivation are two separate constructs; moving forward, it will perhaps be necessary to refocus this construct so that it measures a more specific type of learner engagement.

V.7.b) The Complex Dynamic Systems Theory. Another theory not widely applied to ESP courses in Western European universities, the CDST, requires some additional research to understand its validity in these contexts. Essentially, the CDST's central premises are that all factors in a given system are interconnected and that change within the system is likely and unpredictable. Through a mixed-methods approach, this study has illustrated that the CDST is highly useful for understanding the different factors that influence motivation in the classroom.

Of course, the concept that motivation is susceptible to frequent, unpredictable changes is not entirely new. As outlined in the literature review chapter, Gardner's (2007) Socioeducational Model has operated under the belief that two types of motivation exist: Language Learning Motivation and Classroom Motivation. This latter type, which insists that motivation can be influenced by all factors present in the classroom, ties in very closely to what this study tried to understand through classroom observations. Indeed, it was found that learner engagement during lessons was impacted by the presence of friends in the class, the use of cell phones and the type of learning activities; such observations underline the existence of classroom motivation as its own separate construct.

Similarly, Wigfield & Eccles (2000), in the Expectancy Value Theory, describe how learners are constantly evaluating the learning context to determine how much effort to put forth towards a given activity. Table 20 certainly validates this point; numerous behavioral changes were observed during the lessons, with interviews showing that students did in fact have strong opinions about the learning activities, which ultimately affected their behaviors.

Lastly, Pekrun & Perry (2014), in their description of the Control Value Theory of Achievement Emotions, point out that students are regularly evaluating the utility of learning activities and making conscious decisions about how hard they want to work on them. Jenny's interview comments certainly seem to support this claim, as she described finding a powerpoint very interesting at the beginning of the lesson but, later on, not being motivated to work very hard on a reading comprehension activity because she found it too easy; such statements point to the fact that the learner is indeed engaging in a constant decision-making process regarding her own motivation.

What sets the CDST apart from these past theories, however, is that it insists that all factors are related (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). While Gardner (1996) might claim that classroom motivation does not have a significant impact L2 learning, the CDST insists that factors in the classroom are interconnected and constantly interacting with factors outside of the classroom to determine learning effort. Several of the student interviews support these relationships, indicating the value of a Complex Dynamic Systems Approach. Perhaps no example is better than the case of Elaine (GE A2). Elaine started the semester with no motivation for her GE course; she claimed her past teachers had bored her and that she never felt she was very good in English. Throughout the semester, her classroom motivation was influenced by the duration

of the lessons but also by the learning activities, with student presentations being appreciated for their interest and grammar activities because they forced her to participate. Elaine also found it easier to participate in this course compared to her other courses because of the fewer students and the fact that her classmates were kinder when one made a mistake. She noted that she was generally interested in the course and found the activities interesting and the teacher pleasant, resulting in the increased level of motivation that is seen in Graph 6; she explained that her motivation had increased, but would never be overly strong because English would never be useful in her life. These responses indicate that her motivation for learning English has significant influences from the learning activities, her (lack of) future goals for language learning, her past experiences in her high school English classes, an evaluation of the teacher and her social dynamic with her peers. Together, these factors resulted in the highly unpredictable changes observed across Graphs 4, 5 and 6.

The validity of the CDST is seen also in the ESP courses, most notably in the case of Alice (ESP B1-Venice). Graphs 22 and 23 combined with her interview responses show that Alice had a variety of factors working together to determine her learning effort in unpredictable ways. For her classroom motivation, Alice explained that the course was not overly motivating for her; it was too late in the day, too many students were enrolled to allow for active participation and sometimes the teacher insisted on points that Alice did not view as important. Nevertheless, she did find many of the activities interesting, particularly those that allowed her gain new vocabulary for her major. She was very direct in explaining that, although her motivation for learning English did increase significantly during the semester, the language course only played a small role in it. Her motivation was already high because of her past experiences living abroad; her current experience living in Italy as a foreign student, however, reinforced the importance of English for her, causing her motivation to increase further. Her responses show that her motivation is influenced by the classroom environment, the teacher, the learning activities and her past and present life experiences as an expatriate.

The experiences of these two students, along with several others, prove that motivation and learner engagement are the result of an interaction between countless factors and require an analysis that might only be possible through a Complex Dynamic Systems Approach, thusly validating the use of this theory in the context of this study.

VI) Conclusions

VI.1) Introduction

This thesis began with the presentation of a very specific context that required further study. While the field of student learning in ESP has received significant attention over the years, it remains rare to find comparative analyses of students in ESP courses and GE that allow for a greater understanding of the potential benefits or pitfalls of one course over another. Furthermore, Western European universities appear to have only a limited body of research based on the L2 Motivational Self System and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory. As such, the present study proposes a comparative analysis of student motivation in ESP and GE courses in French and Italian universities.

The mixed method approach allowed for an analysis of students' long-held self-concepts with regard to English as well as their more dynamic, classroom-level motivation. Three research questions guided the present study. Conclusions are presented below along with implications for future research.

VI.2) Research Question 1

The first research question asked how motivation differed in type (according to the L2MSS construct) and strength between GE and ESP courses. An analysis of questionnaire and interview responses revealed that GE students seemed to report stronger motivation for all measures.

Table 8 shows that, although the differences between GE and ESP students are not very large, they are all statistically significant. Particularly for the L2LE and, to an extent, the L2IE, the Cohen's d indicates that the type of course setup has a strong impact on these motivation measures. Table 9 shows that the trend is much more pronounced in the A2 level, where GE students have stronger scores for all measures except the L2OS; GE A2 constructs are much stronger than those of ESP A2, with the L2LE and L2IE being statistically significant. Table 10 shows a similar pattern for B1 level courses, though the disparity is much smaller and none of the values attain statistical significance. The inclusion of results from the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, presented in Table 11, had a strong influence on this data, dragging down the scores for the ESP group and rendering the GE B1 students significantly stronger for almost all measures.

Interviews confirm these questionnaire findings; L2IS and L2LE concepts were often cited more often in more detail by GE participants rather than ESP participants, particularly at the A2 level.

The logical conclusion to draw from these data is that, at least in the university context analyzed in the present study, students in GE courses express higher levels of motivation and have stronger self-concepts associated with English language use; this point is found at both the A2 and B1 levels but is more pronounced and significant in A2.

The original hypothesis supposed that the L2MSS measures would be similar across ESP and GE students with perhaps a slight preference for GE courses. To that extent, this hypothesis has been validated by the present study, though the observed difference in favor of GE courses at the A2 was admittedly greater than expected. These findings correspond to the initial data reported by Schug & Le Cor (2017) and are in line with similar reports, such as Brunton (2009) and Brown (2007) wherein students express some preference for GE.

VI.2.a) Implications and suggestions for future research. The response to the first research question has several important implications that are worth further research. First, as described in the discussion in section V.3, one's self-concept has a strong impact on identity and learning behaviors (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Section V.3 presents speculation that ESP students' L2MSS measures are lower because they do not yet have a strong self-concept as an artist; therefore, a language course adapted to artists might not have the desired effect. GE courses, however, could appeal to students' self-concepts as university students or citizens in an increasingly globalized world. Of course, this statement is purely speculation. While the interviews did procure some information about students' L2 Ideal Selves and their future goals for using English, further research should take into account students' general Ideal Selves. Future research could experiment with more ways for understanding, in detail, students' overall goals. Such findings could provide greater insight in explaining why the L2IS measures were comparatively lower in ESP.

Another possibility for future research regards the L2 Ought to Self. Dörnyei (2009) describes this concept in terms of outside pressures, such as those coming from families, professors or bosses, that have been somewhat internalized by the learner, thereby influencing his or her learning behaviors. It can be an important element in pushing L2 motivation, as

students can be reminded of the consequences of failure (Buckledee, 2014). The L2OS is clearly felt to some extent by the students in the present study, as question 6 from the questionnaire had many students listing "institutional obligation" as one of the principal reasons for enrolling in the English class. Still, it consistently appeared as the weakest measure in all groups and received a low Cronbach's alpha. This point suggests that the L2OS as a construct of the L2MSS requires further research in Western European universities. While it makes sense that one's obligations for learning English could be partly internal and partly external, further research is needed to understand more precisely what external pressures these students are feeling and how strong they are.

Another possibility for further research would be to conduct correlation studies between the three L2MSS constructs and L2 Intended Effort. Rajab, Roohbakhsh & Etemadzedeh (2012) present one such study in an Iranian university, which revealed that the L2IS had a strong, positive correlation with the L2IE. While this study's objective was to present a comparative analysis of the presence of the different L2MSS constructs between ESP and GE courses, future research could understand which of these constructs had a stronger correlation to learning effort and then compare those measures.

Lastly, the L2 motivation research has focused on individual difference variables, such as gender and age. Azarnoosh & Birjandi (2013) and You & Dörnyei (2016) indicate that some significant differences are sometimes noticed as a result of these variables. While this study sought to focus more on the classroom context and things that happened in lessons, questionnaire data could be used to find further patterns in the data to see if a difference other than course setup can explain the observed differences.

VI.2.b) Implications for classroom practice. In addition to bringing up questions for further research, the results of the first research question offer some important suggestions for classroom practice.

For starters, Buckledee (2014) and Dörnyei (2009) explain how the L2IS and L2OS can be highly useful constructs for language teachers. It appears that, in many cases, the L2IS is weaker in ESP courses. To address this, ESP teachers need to gain an understanding of how students view themselves in the future. From there, it will be necessary to help students add detail to this future image and illustrate how the L2 could help them reach that point. Different

options exist for helping students develop their L2IS. Crețiu (2013a) and Preece (1997) each offer suggestions for activities for ESP Arts students in the form of art blogs and collaborative design projects, each conducted in English; such activities allow students to better understand the type of work they can expect to do as artists while also showing how the L2 is a necessary part of their objectives.

For the L2OS, which is the weakest form in all groups, all language teachers could perhaps benefit from finding better ways to appeal to this construct. While perhaps not able to create an ideal form of durable language learning motivation, the L2OS can be used to remind students of the consequences of failure (Buckledee, 2014). In addition to offering activities that illustrate the value of the L2, teachers can also inform students of how their possibilities might be limited if they are unable to master it.

In addition to the L2IS and L2OS, it is the position of this researcher that a new concept could also be explored to inform classroom practice: the L2 Present Self. As the section V.3 discusses, the students in GE courses may have higher motivation measures simply because a GE course deals with topics of general knowledge which are more accessible and relatable to university students. If teachers have a better idea of who students are at the present time, rather than focusing only on their future goals, it seems possible that the class can be adapted in a more relevant way.

This recommendation is grounded in several theoretical frameworks. Notably, Balboni's Tripolar Model (TM) describes how L2 motivation stems from obligation, need and pleasure (Balboni, 2014a). While connecting students' language learning too much to their future professional goals may render it too close to the less desirable constructs of obligation and need, connecting the language learning to their current identities and interests may result in the more durable motivation that comes principally from pleasure. The Self-Determination Theory also supports this concept, with insistence on the relevance of classroom tasks (Ryan & Deci, 2000); by offering tasks that are strongly connected to the student's present self, rather than an abstract, distance self, the criteria of relevance will be met in a much stronger way, possibly facilitating the inclusion of the L2 into the Ideal Self.

Lastly, it is important to note the comparatively low score for the measure of L2 Intended/Exerted Effort in most groups; this score combines students' current effort to achieve a good level of English and a good grade in the course as well as their intended effort to

maintain their English in the future. To help improve this score, teachers may wish to train students in learning autonomy (Daloiso, 2007a). It was the experience of Terrier & Murray (2015) that young university students are unaware of how to be autonomous learners and take control of their own learning. It could be for this reason that students report such low levels of effort in furthering their language acquisition. Teachers should therefore present students with different ways to support their L2 work outside the classroom; this practice would offer them more control over their learning, ultimately increasing their capacity and desire to improve their level (Dörnyei, 2003).

VI.3) Research Question 2

The second research question asked about the elements of the learning environment that students found most motivating, with a focus on the classroom. From there, comparisons were made between GE and ESP students. It was hypothesized that students would be most affected by classroom social dynamics, language proficiency level and the learning context, particularly the classroom; it was also hypothesized that no major differences would be observed by ESP and GE.

To an extent, this hypothesis was validated. Classroom social dynamics, language proficiency and the learning context were found to have an impact on learner motivation. For the social dynamics, Table 17 shows that questions 17 and 23 (evaluating the relationship between the teacher/students and between students, respectively) had comparatively high scores in all groups in relation to other L2LE items. Moreover, interview responses in both ESP and GE often referenced exposes, group activities and friendly relationships with the teacher and classmates; this conclusion is in line with the hypothesis. For language proficiency, however, differences between ESP and GE were observed. It appeared that language proficiency did indeed have an impact in ESP, but not in GE. It follows then, that this part of the hypothesis is rejected, as a difference was noticed between the two groups.

Additionally, the learning context did indeed have an impact on motivation; with the learning activities having differing levels of consistency with observed motivated learning behaviors. It is difficult to say if the learning environment constitutes a major factor influencing motivation, however, as many interview participants referenced external factors affecting their engagement in the classroom; fatigue, frustration with the duration or timing of

the course, or stress from other obligations. Nevertheless, Graphs 6, 11, 16, 21 and 23 show semester-long motivation fluctuations; in all these cases, students reported some increase in motivation as a result, at least in part, of the classroom environment. As such, the hypothesis is validated to the extent that the learning context likely plays an important role in determining one's language learning motivation and that no major difference was observed between ESP and GE. These findings are detailed further in the following paragraphs.

First, perhaps unsurprisingly, proficiency level appeared to have an impact on learner motivation. A major point of debate in ESP didactics, it did appear that ESP students reported stronger motivation measures at the B1 level than at the A2 level, with the exception of the L2OS. This type of difference did not appear in a significant way in the GE courses; no statistically significant differences were observed between the A2 and B1 levels. Such findings call into question the value of specialized language courses at such a low level of proficiency.

Furthermore, it initially appears that culture had an impact on student motivation; students from the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia reported much lower levels of motivation for all measures than students at the Université de Paris 8. At first glance, one might assume that this means Italian students are less motivated than French students due to some variable present in their respective cultures. While culture has indeed regularly been shown to have a strong impact on L2 motivation, section V.5 presents a rather compelling argument that the classroom environment is the deciding factor in this difference; for a variety of reasons, the classroom observed in Italy was incredibly uncomfortable and not likely conducive to language learning. Though problems existed also in the classrooms observed in France, they were never to the same extent.

Also concerning the classroom context, it was found that the type of learning activity had varying degrees of impact on student motivation. Table 18 shows that authentic documents had the highest consistency with observed motivation while grammar and vocabulary exercises had the lowest of the activities that appeared in both groups.

One surprising finding from this section appears in Table 17; while observed motivation showed only small differences between ESP B1, GE B1 and GE 2, as was predicted by the hypothesis, the score for ESP A2 was much higher. Although this disparity is incongruent with the rest of the data, section V.5 explains that it was perhaps an attractor state created by the feelings and fun and enjoyment that pushed these students to engage and

overcome other negative forces, such as their bad past experiences with English and their fatigue.

Another unexpected result from this study is the frequency with which interview participants described variables that had little or nothing to do with their self-concepts or the classroom environment when discussing what influenced their motivation. Fatigue was referenced by nearly all participants; this feeling came from either the timing of the lesson, the duration or from some prior obligations that were particularly taxing. Also referenced were hunger, illnesses, and past experiences with English.

To summarize, the second hypothesis supposed that the main factors affecting motivation would be the learning context, social dynamics and language proficiency level; it was also hypothesized that these factors would affect ESP and GE students in similar ways. With regard to social dynamics and the learning context, the hypothesis was validated by the present study; these were two very present factors in both ESP and GE. For the language proficiency level, the impact was mostly noticed in ESP courses, with A2 and B1 students not acting significantly differently in GE. Lastly, another factor affecting motivation needs to be added to this list: outside of classroom factors. These factors, which appear to affect both ESP and GE students similarly, had a large impact on learner motivation, particularly at the beginning and end of lessons.

VI.3.a) Implications and suggestions for future research. Given the abundance of factors that can affect L2 engagement and motivation, it is clear that this study could be logically followed up with more focused research to understand the individual importance of each of these factors.

For instance, the factor of culture plays an interesting role in the present study. Past research has consistently identified culture as a key element in determining students' attitudes towards foreign language learning; this point has been proven in different countries and across different age groups (Chen, 2012; Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Goh, 2013; Henry, 2015a; Rubrecht & Ishikawa, 2012). Even Oxford (1994) explains that the type of motivated learning behaviors students engage in is dependent on their local cultures. As such, it is unsurprising that Tables 12 and 13 indicate significant differences in motivational measures between the Parisian and Venetian participants, generally with the former group being stronger. Though

the idea that this difference stems largely from the problems in the learning environment, the role of culture should not be completely dismissed. While it is often accepted that France and Italy are not known for their strong foreign language proficiency (Balboni & Daloiso, 2012; Schuetze, 2013) and similar shortcomings exist in both countries for language teaching (Leone, 2012; Van der Yeught, 2014), further research needs to be done to understand exactly how much these two cultures influence students' attitudes towards English; such reports could shed light on the reasons for the poor language skills and indicate possibilities to improve.

Next, language proficiency needs to be analyzed further for its role on learner motivation, particularly in ESP courses. As described previously, this question is the source of frequent debate amongst language teachers, with some insisting that specialized language is inaccessible to students who do not have a strong basis in general language skills, while others posit that learning activities can be modified to accommodate weaker students (Ibba, 1998; Preece, 2008; Villez, 1988). This debate has clear implications for motivation, as work done under the Self-Determination Theory indicates; one of the most important features that must be present to encourage long-term, durable motivation is an optimal level of difficulty (Ryan & Deci, 2000). As Busse (2013) shows, if the learning material is too difficult for students, they are likely to abandon their studies.

Table 14 shows that for many measures, ESP B1 students indicate higher motivation measures than ESP A2 students. Nevertheless, Table 17 shows that the observed ESP A2 participants showed a stronger consistency with observable motivated learning behaviors in the classroom. This incongruence is difficult to explain and highlights a need for further research to fully understand how language proficiency level influences motivation and learner attitudes in specialized language courses. Sarré & Whyte (2016) point out that one of problems with ESP teaching in France is the level heterogeneity amongst students in terms of their language proficiency. One possible direction for future research would be to conduct a more thorough analysis of the students' proficiency levels in a given group; students' levels are often determined at the beginning of the semester with a short placement test that does necessarily measure all language skills. A more complete determination of one's language level could lead to a more fruitful discussion about its impact on learner motivation. Another possibility would be to analyze exactly how specialized lower-level ESP courses are; it is possible that

the classroom activities are being watered down to such an extent that the specialized materials are losing their relevance.

Lastly, another direction for further research that can be taken from these results regards the use of classroom observations in data collection. First of all, past research did provide some general directions for choosing points on which to focus during these observation sessions; oral activities, topics that might be considered stimulating or captivating, transitioning from one activity to another are just a small list of examples of points that guided the observations (Lamb & Wedell, 2015; Pawlak, 2012). However, Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertlak & Bielak (2014) showed that classroom observations revealed no universal preferences for activities on the part of the student and no activities that consistently led to engagement; these findings are in line with the data presented in Table 18, which shows no single activity consistently predicts learner engagement. Future research could perhaps ask more pointed questions during the post-lesson interviews, asking students specifically why they were acting a certain way during a given activity. Such a technique was not employed in the present study out of fear that the students would feel spied on and ultimately change their learning behaviors. Other researchers may wish, nevertheless, to experiment with different lines of questioning or perhaps have students try different ways of reporting motivational fluctuations, such as filling out post-lesson journals. At any rate, given the findings in this study and those referenced by Pawlak et al (2014), it is obvious that different techniques for classroom observations must be developed.

VI.3.b) Implications for classroom practice. The patterns that emerged regarding the second research question, especially from the observation sessions and interviews, have the potential to provide several interesting implications for teaching.

Some of these implications concern the types of activities that students appear to find most motivating. First, the interview responses as well as the data from Table 18 lead us to believe that oral activities have the potential to be highly motivating; these activities include listening to and giving presentations, class and small group discussions and debates. The preference for such activities was stated explicitly by several interview participants, while others hinted at it a bit more subtly, noting that one of the main reasons they appreciated the course was their friendly peers. These findings underline the importance of fostering positive

social dynamics in the classrooms and encouraging student interaction. These findings are consistent with Pawlak's (2012) results, showing that motivation tends to spike during oral activities, and with Dörnyei & Csizér's (1998) recommendations for effective language teaching, that teachers foster positive social relationships in the classroom.

Additionally, this study reinforces the value of authentic documents. Table 18 shows that activities based around authentic documents were observed to be one of the more motivating tasks and interviews echo this sentiment; these interviews particularly stressed the value of videos. Students often discussed enjoying films, video clips and music videos. While texts were not often mentioned, they did appear to inspire motivated learning behaviors in the observations. Of course, the pedagogical and motivational value of such documents has been long accepted and supported by research (Chapon, 2011; Di Pardo Léon-Henri, 2015; Little, 1997); the findings of this study lend further support to this concept.

Aside from these specific activities, interviews from the present study also indicate certain conditions that should be present to foster motivation and learner engagement. As described in section V.5, students in ESP A2 mentioned feelings of amusement and enjoyment during their language lessons. Graph 6 shows how Elaine's motivation increased over the semester in part because of the teacher's strategies for forcing students to participate. These results point to the need for providing fun and novelty in language courses for inspiring student engagement. Although fun and novelty are often referenced in motivation research (Balboni, 2014; Caon, 2012; Daloiso, 2009; Dörnyei, 2001), this report confirms their power at the university level and with ESP students.

Table 18 also indicates that students are relatively uninterested and uninvested in lecturing and vocabulary/grammar activities. While interview participants did not go into detail on such activities, the idea that students do not enjoy more traditional, grammar-based lessons does have some support in past reports on language teaching (Bell, 1981; Busse, 2013).

Finally, the results of this study also provide interesting information for entire institutions. Notably, administrators need to take greater care in scheduling language courses. While some courses may lend themselves quite well to passive note-taking, language courses ideally require a greater level of participation and engagement from the learner. Given that nearly all interview participants mentioned fatigue as majorly detrimental to their motivation, it would be wise to offer a selection of language courses in the middle of the day or, at least,

at times that take into account students' other academic obligations. As the students in ESP courses are not language specialists, it perhaps not surprising that they find it difficult to make their English courses their top priority. As such, further care needs to be taken to create an atmosphere that caters more to their needs.

Lastly, institutions might consider adopting a more comprehensive approach to evaluating students' language level before allowing them to register. It is possible that some of the disparities between motivation of students in different groups is due to students' not being in a course of appropriate difficulty.

VI.4) Research Question 3

Knowing that the L2 Motivational Self System and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory had not been widely applied to ESP courses in Western European universities, the third research question sought to understand the validity of these two frameworks in this context. Based on past research, the present study started with the hypothesis that while the CDST would indeed be useful in this context for studying learning motivation, the L2MSS might have somewhat limited efficacy, largely for cultural reasons. This hypothesis has largely been validated by the present study.

Regarding the L2MSS, the construct of the L2OS appears to be problematic in the present study. Not only did the questionnaire, which was based on past studies, turn up a low Cronbach's alpha, the interview responses revealed very few L2OS-based reasons for studying English. The study therefore concluded that, in Western European universities, the main external pressures for studying English are rather vague notions that English is important for travel and one's professional life, rather than very present, clear pressures from authority figures. As such, it seems likely that the L2OS needs to be reconsidered and possibly divided into two different constructs to be more pertinent to the context of the present study.

Furthermore, the measure of the L2 Intended/Exerted Effort fell slightly below the 0.6 minimum Cronbach score to be considered acceptable. Again, questions related to this measure were based on questionnaire items that had been validated in the past. Nevertheless, it appears that further research is required to understand exactly how students exhibit their motivation for language learning.

Regarding the CDST, the study largely indicated its validity in the present context. The principal guideline of this theory is that a comprehensive approach, accounting for all the factors present in a given system must be considered to gain full understanding of a phenomenon. Data indicates that such a guideline is indeed crucial. Given that no single learning activity showed a strong, consistent connection to student motivation, it proved necessary to understand students' past learning experiences with learning English as well as their present experience in their language course to help explain the observed changes. The line graphs provided by the students illustrate the utility of using novel approaches for representing fluctuations. Student interviews and observation sessions revealed the importance of taking a comprehensive approach to measuring student motivation and engagement, as the factors such as fatigue, hunger and illnesses could not be easily accounted for by observations alone.

To summarize, the data tend to validate the third hypothesis. Consistent with Brady's (2014) findings, the L2MSS might need to be refocused when working with Western European university students. The CDST, however, did indeed prove effective in understanding changes in motivation, as was initially shown in Schug & Le Cor (2017).

VI.4.a) Implications and suggestions for future research. Given that these two theories have not been widely applied to ESP courses nor Western European universities, the most obvious implication for further research is to continue similar studies to verify their validity. While self-concepts and classroom factors may have played an important role in Parisian and Venetian ESP Arts courses and GE courses, this point may not prove true in other contexts. Therefore, further research is needed to verify what was found in the present study.

It is also important to continue modifying the L2OS so that it is more pertinent to students similar to those in the present study. One possibility, outlined in section V.7.a, comes from the proposal of You & Chan (2015); the self-concept, including the L2OS, is subject to changes and evolution as students enter different phases of their lives. Future research might consider following the same group of students over a period of several years. It might be possible that, as the learner ages and the self-concept becomes clearer and more stable, so too might the L2OS measure. A second administration of the same questionnaire at a different

point in the learner's life may yield different results and show that the items do indeed tap into the same variable.

Another possibility would be to develop a series of interview questions that directly connect to the types of more external pressures students feel to learn English, such as pressures from their parents, peers or professors. By asking more probing questions of this nature, researchers can gain a better idea of what factors make up one's L2OS construct and adapt the questionnaire accordingly. A similar approach could also be used for the construct of L2 Intended/Exerted Effort; future research could ask more probing questions regarding students' habits for learning English, or at least what they think they should do to improve, in order to establish a more pertinent question set.

Regarding the CDST, the most important suggestion for further research would be to conduct further, more long-term studies, in line with recommendations of Hsieh (2009) and Pawlak (2012). While all students did describe temporal changes in motivation during the lessons and more significant changes in their motivation during the semester, it would be interesting to follow students over an even longer period to see if changes continue or if a relative stability is observed. Nevertheless, such an experiment remains difficult in the university context, which is often divided into semesters. If each semester has a different teacher and a whole different group of students, CDST guidelines tell us that we have a whole different context to consider; such a change would essentially create two completely separate experiments, given how important social dynamics were found to be in the classroom.

VI.4.b) Implications for classroom practice. Despite the fact that the third research question focuses quite strongly on the theoretical aspect of this study, its findings have several implications for classroom practice.

First of all, it is important to note from the various tables, no motivational measure from the L2MSS tops 4.1 out of 5. While such a mark is still respectably high, many of the other measures are considerably lower. As such, teachers should do as Dörnyei (2009) recommends and help students develop as much detail as possible for their self-concepts; in so doing, these concepts are more likely to act as potential motivators for language learning. Teachers might challenge students to think more critically about the type of job they wish to

have or explore job announcements online to see how many require English. Such activities encourage students to associate their career goals with language learning.

Regarding the CDST, the language teacher can also find some useful information from the findings of the present study. Though the use of authentic documents and oral activities do seem to have some ability to inspire greater levels of student engagement, the study shows that no perfect, or even greatly reliable, predictors of motivation exist in the classroom. As such, teachers would be well-advised to gain an understanding of students' other obligations, goals and projects. By understanding these points, teachers can anticipate the ever-present feelings of fatigue, hunger or boredom that seem to have plagued many students in the present study at one time or another. Activities can therefore be more strategically organized to cater for the learners' apparent desire for social interaction and novelty in their language lessons.

VI.5) Limitations of the present study

Though several strategies were employed to assure the quality of the data, the present study is not without limitations. Guilloteaux (2007) explains that many such limitations are common place for doctoral students, given their limited time and resources. Nevertheless, it was deemed important to outline some of these limitations here to further inform future research.

First, as a doctoral student, the researcher was unable to provide any incentive for students to participate in the study; as such, participation was not very high in some instances. While some of the teachers did facilitate this matter by allowing for paper versions of the questionnaire to be distributed during their lessons, leading to nearly 100% participation, other groups had to rely on a questionnaire being sent via email, leading to much lower response rates.

This problem was even more pronounced with the interview participants, of which the study included relatively few. This decision was partly intentional, as Henry (2015a) recommended following fewer participants over a longer time period. Still, it was initially hoped that more students would agree to participate and, at the very least, provide second and third interviews at the end of the semester; these follow-up interviews would have helped offer more robust conclusions. Again, probably owing to the lack of incentive, many students either dropped out of the interview series during the semester or simply stopped showing up. Other

students were approached, with many refusing to participate. So, while it was originally the plan to include more students, particularly from the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia, it is reassuring to see that the findings of this study are in line with those of Pawlak's (2012) study, suggesting the validity of the data and some generalizability of the results.

Another issue in recruiting participants related to problems with the language instructors; understandably, when approached, many teachers were hesitant to have their classrooms evaluated regarding student motivation, likely out of fear that their own teaching would be called into question. Though every effort was made to assuage such concerns, it was not deemed appropriate to pursue the study with overly-hesitant teachers, out of fear that they would significantly modify their strategies in the presence of the researcher.

Lastly, it is necessary to note the limitation relating to the measures of the L2OS and L2IE, given their low Cronbach's alpha scores. As this score is a measure of reliability, these low scores call into question the validity of the data. It was indeed the purposes of this study to determine the pertinence of commonly used items in the L2MSS in a different context, so to that end, the goal was achieved. Still, future research needs to experiment with these measures further.

VI.6) Final Remarks and Conclusions

This study set out to compare student motivation in ESP and GE courses at the university level, focusing on two large, public universities, one in Paris, France and the other in Venice, Italy. The principal goal was to gain a full, detailed picture of the factors that determine learner motivation and engagement to ultimately understand the motivational value of ESP courses for students of this age group. Several noticeable patterns emerged, generating some findings that are highly pertinent to the field of ESP and university language teaching in general.

First, the study highlighted the importance of social dynamics in the language classroom, both for ESP and GE courses. Participants consistently reported positive evaluations of their peers, the teacher, group discussions and presentations. As this conclusion is consistent with past research and recommendations for best practices, the findings here reinforced this notion in the unique context of the present study.

Another finding that was common across ESP and GE factors was the powerful role of non-classroom factors influencing classroom engagements. While the number of interview and observation participants was relatively small, they consistently reported similar feelings of fatigue and stress about other obligations, suggesting that these might be present factors for other students as well.

In addition to the similarities between these two groups, the study also revealed several important differences between ESP and GE students. One such difference is the relatively stronger motivation measures found in GE students. This finding is particularly true at the A2 level; students reported stronger self-concepts, a higher score for the L2 Learning Environment, and stronger L2 Intended/Exerted Effort. These results call into question the motivating power of ESP courses for university students with lower levels of language proficiency. First, the students may not have very developed self-concepts because their career goals are still vague. Second, the specialization may prove too difficult for them to grapple with, when they are still struggling with the basics of English.

Also, contrary to GE students, the proficiency level does indeed seem to play a role in determining student motivation in ESP courses. Students in ESP B1 courses were relatively consistent in their higher motivation measures when compared to ESP A2.

Still, the fact remains that observed classroom motivation was much higher for the ESP A2 participants. The position of this study is that the specialized A2 course, being the first specialized course available to students, perhaps provided a certain level of fun or novelty, which proved to be a very powerful force in generating student engagement.

Given the small scale of this study and the convenience sampling strategy that was used to recruit participants, it would be inappropriate to over-generalize the applicability of the findings. All the same, some convincing evidence has been presented that would call into question the motivational value of ESP courses for university students, at the very least for lower levels of language proficiency. Further studies in different contexts and across different timescales are needed to reinforce what was found here.

In any case, the results of this study show the importance of taking a comprehensive approach to understanding students' current and future needs for English as well as the numerous factors inside and outside the classroom. They also support the idea that motivating

learners in ESP courses is not necessarily the same process as motivating learners in GE courses, at least at the university level.

References

Ahmed, W., van der Werf, G., Minnaert A. & Kuyper, H. (2010). Students' daily emotions in the classroom: Intra-individual variability and appraisal correlates. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 80*, 583-597.

Ainley, M., & Patrick, L. (2006). Measuring self-regulated learning processes through tracking patterns of student interaction with achievement activities. *Educational Psychology Review*, *18*(3), 267-286. doi:10.1007/s10648-006-9018-z

Al-Qahtani, M. F. (2013). Relationship between English language, learning strategies, attitudes, motivation, and students' academic achievement. *Education in Medicine Journal*, *5*(3), 19-29. doi:10.5959/eimj.v5i3.124.

Al-Tamimi, A., & Shuib, M. (2009). Motivation and attitudes towards learning English: A study of petroleum engineering undergraduates at Hadhramout University of Sciences and Technology. *GEMA: Online Journal of Language Studies*, *9*(2), 29-55.

Anderson, L. (1994). Approaches to context-based vocabulary learning in English for medical purposes. In M. Ibba (Ed). *Quaderni del centro di linguistica dell'Università Cattolica* (pp. 41-56). Brescia, Italy: Editrice La Scuola.

Anjomshoa, L. & Sadighi, F. (2015). The importance of motivation in second language acquisition. *International Journal on Studies of English Language and Literature (IJSELL), 3*(2), 126-137.

Artelt, C. (2005). Cross-cultural approaches to measuring motivation. *Educational assessment*, *10*(3), 231-255. doi:10.1207/s15326977ea1003_5.

Aubrey, S. (2014). Development of the L2 Motivational Self System: English at a University in Japan. *JALT Journal, 36*(2), 153-174.

Azarnoosh, M. (2014). When learning English is compulsory at school: Fluctuations in L2 Motivational Self System. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 3*(6), 102-112.

Azarnoosh, M. & Birjandi, P. (2013). Junior high school students' L2 motivational self system: Any gender differences?. *World Applied Sciences, 20*(4), 577-584.

Baines, R. (2006). Pratique théâtrale dans l'enseignement du français langue étrangère à l'Université d'East Anglia, notamment dans les filières Gestion et Droit. In *Cahiers*

de l'APLIUT [En ligne], *25*(1). Retrieved from http://apliut.revues.org/3208. Doi: 10.4000/apliut.3208.

Balboni, P. (2006). *The epistemological nature of language teaching methodology.* Perugia, Italy: Guerra Edizione.

Balboni, P. (2007). *Operational models for language education.* Perugia, Italy: Guerra Edizione.

Balboni, P. (2014). *Didattica dell'italiano come lingua seconda e straniera.* Turin, Italy: Loescher Editore.

Balboni, P. (2014a). Motivazione ed educazione linguistica: Dal bisogno di comunicare all'emozione di imparare. In Landolfi, L. (Ed.), *Crossroads: Languages in (E)motion* (pp.165-178). Naples, Italy: University Press Edizioni.

Balboni, P. & Daloiso, M. (2012). *La formazione linguistica nell'università*. Venice, Italy: Edizioni Ca' Foscari - Digital Publishing.

Bell, R. (1981). *An introduction to applied linguistics: Approaches and methods in language teaching.* London, UK: Billing & Son Ltd.

Benson, P. (1997). The philosophy and politics of learner autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds), *Autonomy & independence in language learning* (pp. 1-12). New York, USA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Benson, P. (2002). Autonomy and communication. In P. Benson & S. Toogood (Eds), *Challenges to research and practice.* Learner Autonomy. Dublin, Ireland: Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd.

Benson, P. & Voller, P. (1997). Introduction: Autonomy and independence in language learning. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds), *Autonomy & independence in language learning* (pp. 1-12). New York, USA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Biddix, J.P. (n.d.). Effect size (Blog post). Retrieved from https://researchrundowns.com/quantitative-methods/effect-size/.

Bier, A. (2013). The motivation of adolescent pupils to learn English as a foreign language: A case study. *EL.LE 2*(2). Venice, Italy: Edizione Ca' Foscari. Doi: 10.14277/2280-6792/62p.

Biesta, G. (2010). Pragmatism and the philosophical foundations of mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds). *Mixed methods in social & behavioral research* (pp. 95-118). London, United Kingdom: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Birdsell, B. (2013). Motivation and creativity in a foreign language classroom. Paper presented at the 3rd Conference on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching, Thammasat,Thailand (p 887-903).

Borg, S. (2006). The distinctive characteristics of foreign language teachers. *Language Teaching Research, 10*(1), 3-31.

Boulton, A. (2016). Integrating corpus tools and techniques in ESP courses. *ASp. La revue du GERAS*, 69, 113-137. Bordeaux, France: Imprimerie de l'Université de Bordeaux.

Brady, I. (2014). L2 motivation in Spanish university students: A pilot study on the L2 motivation self system. In G. Alcaráz-Mármol & MM. Jimenez-Cervantes (Eds). *Studies in Philology: Linguistics, literature and cultural studies in modern languages* (pp. 95-116). Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Brander, A. (2013). *Developing language learners with Dörnyei: A study of learning environments and motivation at a Swedish upper-secondary school* (Unpublished bachelor thesis). Halmstad University, Halmstad, Sweden.

Braud, V. (2008). L'anglais et les magistrats français, résultats d'une enquête de terrain. *ASp. La revue du GERAS,* 53-54, 141-158. Bordeaux, France: Imprimerie de l'Université de Bordeaux.

Braz Viana, A. (2014). The motivational factor in the English for specific purposes approach (unpublished bachelor dissertation). Universidade Tecnológica Federal do Paraná, Curitiba, Brazil.

Breen, M. & Mann, S. (1997). Shooting arrows at the sun: perspectives on a pedagogy of autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds), *Autonomy & independence in language learning* (pp. 1-12). New York, USA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Brosh, H. (1996). Perceived characteristics of the effective language teacher. *Foreign Language Annals, 29*(2), 125-136.

Brown, D. (2007). Language learner motivation and the role of choice in ESP listening engagement. In *ASp. La Revue du GERAS, 51*(159-177). Retrieved from http://asp.revues.org/579. doi: 10.4000/asp.579.

Brudermann, C., Mattioli, M., Roussel, A. & Sarré, C. (2018). Le LANSAD (Langues pour spécialisties d'autres disciplines). In C. Tardieu & E. Eells (Eds). *Livre blanc de la formation en études anglophones* (pp. 40-64). Société des Anglicistes de l'Enseignement Supérieur.

Brumfit, C. (1977). Commonsense about ESP. In Holden, S. (Ed). *English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Modern English publications.

Brumfit, C.J. (1978). The teaching of advanced reading skills foreign languages, with particular reference to English as a foreign language. In Kinsella, V. (Ed). *Language teaching and linguistics: Surveys*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University press.

Brunton, M. (2009). An evaluation of students' attitudes to the general English and specific components of their course: A case study of hotel employees in Chiang Mai, Thailand. *ESP World, 4*. Retrieved from http://esp-world.info/Articles_25/ESP%20world%20study.pdf.

Buckledee, S. (2014). L2 Motivation of Italian Undergraduates: Ideal Selves and Visualization. In L. Landolfi (Ed.), *Crossroads: Languages in (E)motion* (pp. 201-210). Naples, Italy: University Press Edizioni.

Burke Johnson, R. &. Onweugbuzie, A. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational researcher, 33*(7), 14-26.

Burstall, C. (1978). Factors affecting foreign language learning: a consideration of some recent research findings. In V. Kinsella (Ed). *Language teaching and linguistics: Surveys*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University press.

Busse, V. (2013). Why do first-year students of German lose motivation during their first year at university? *Studies In Higher Education*, *38*(7), 951-971.

Busse, V. (2014). Visible learning and visible motivation: Exploring challenging goals and feedback in language education. In D. Lasagabaster, A. Doiz, J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *Motivation and foreign language learning* (pp. 157-174). Philadelphia, PA, USA & Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Butler, D. & Winne, P. (1995). Feedback and self-regulated learning: A theoretical synthesis. *Review of Educational Research, 3*(65), 245-281.

Byman, R., & Kansanen, P. (2008). Pedagogical thinking in a student's mind: A conceptual clarification on the basis of self-determination and volition theories *Scandinavian Journal Of Educational Research*, *52*(6), 603-621. doi:10.1080/00313830802497224.

Ca' Foscari vuole raddoppiare gli studenti straniere: ufficio in Cina (2017). *La Nuova di Venezia e Mestre.* Retrieved from http://nuovavenezia.gelocal.it/venezia/cronaca/2017/02/27/news/ca-foscari-vuole-raddoppiare-gli-studenti-stranieri-ufficio-in-cina-1.14948188.

Campbell, E., & Storch, N. (2011). The changing face of motivation: A study of second language learners motivation over time. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 34(*2), 166-192.

Cambiaghi, B. (1988). La ricerca nell'insegnamento delle microlingue. Stato attuale. In Congresso su Le lingue di specializzazione e il loro insegnamento nella scuola secondaria e nell'università. *Il *linguaggio delle scienze e il suo insegnamento. Atti del Congresso su Le lingue di specializzazione e il loro insegnamento nella scuola secondaria e nell'università Brescia, 2-4 aprile 1987*. Brescia, Italy: Editrice La scuola.

Caon, F. (2006). *Pleasure in language learning: A methodological challenge.* Perugia, Italy: Guerra Edizioni.

Caon, F. (2012). *Aimes-tu le français?* Venice, Italy: Edizioni Ca' Foscari - Digital Publishing.

Cecioni, C. (1994). La motivazione nell'apprendimento delle lingue straniere in ambiente universitario. In G. Bernini & M. Pavesi (Eds), *Lingue straniere e università* (pp. 75-84). Milano, Italy: FrancoAngeli, s.r.l.

CERILS (2004). CERILS series. Retrieved October 2017 from http://dinamico.unibg.it/cerlis/page.aspx?p=257.

Chalak, A. & Kassaian, Z. (2010). Motivation and attitudes of Iranian undergraduate EFL students towards learning English. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies, 10*(2), 37-56.

Chan, L., Dörnyei, Z. & Henry, A. (2015). Learner archetypes and signature dynamics in the language classroom: A retrodictive qualitative modelling approach to studying L2

motivation. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning (*pp. 238-259). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Chang, C. & Liu, H. (2013). Language learning strategy use and language learning motivation of Taiwanese EFL university students. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 10*(2), 196-209.

Chapon, S. (2011). La peine capitale aux États-Unis à la croisée de la fiction à substrat professionnel et de la source primaire: Une étude comparative. *ASp*. *La Revue du GERAS*, 60, 21-39.

Château, A. (2005). La motivation, une question de mesure? *Cahiers de l'APLIUT, 24*(2), 37-52.

Cheal Pugh, A. (1997). Languages for special purposes: using information technology in a French business course. In R. Howard & G. Brown (Eds). *Teacher education for LSP* (pp. 210-224). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Chen, S. (2012). Motivation and possible selves: An interview study of Taiwanese EFL learners. *Language Education in Asia, 3*(1), 50-59. Phnom Penh, Cambodia.

Chen, Q., & Ge, G. C. (2007). A corpus-based lexical study on frequency and distribution of Coxhead's AWL word families in medical research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, *26*, 502–514.

Chen, J., Warden, C. & Chang, H. (2005). Motivators that do not motivate: The case of Chinese EFL learners and the influence of culture on motivation. *TESOL Quarterly ,39*(4), 609-634.

Choubsaz, Y. & Choubsaz, Y. (2014). Motivational orientation and EFL learning: A study of Iranian undergraduate students. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98*, 392-397.

Chumcharoensuk, N. (2013). A comparative study of English learning motivation types between Thai and Cambodian first year undergraduate English majors. Paper presented at the 3rd Conference on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching, Thammasat,Thailand (p. 1-18).

Cigada, S. (1988). Le lingue di specializzazione: problemi scientifici e istituzionali. Relazione introduttiva. *Il linguaggio delle scienze e il suo insegnamento. Atti del Congresso su le lingue di specializzazione e il loro insegnamento nella scuola*

secondaria e nell'università Brescia, 2-4 aprile 1987. Brescia, Italy: Editrice La scuola.

Clément, R., Gardner, R., & Smythe, P. C. (1977). Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of francophones learning English. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 9*, 123-133.

Coleman, J. A. (1995). Progress, proficiency and motivation among British university language learners. *Occasional paper-Centre for Language and Communication Studies*, (40), 1-38.

Cooke, R. (1993). Learning to publish in English: How can French researchers bridge the gap? *ASp, 1,* 463-474.

Coonan, C. (2013). Higher education in language teaching: Challenges and prospects. *EL.LE, 2*(3), 531-544. Venice, Italy: Edizioni Ca' Foscari.

Cooter, J. B., & Perkins, J. H. (2011). Much done, much yet to do. *Reading Teacher*, 563-566. doi:10.1598/RT.64.8.1.

Costa, F. & Coleman, J. (2010). Integrating content and language in higher education in Italy: Ongoing research. *International CLIL Research Journal*, *1(3),* 19-29.

Comité national d'évaluation des établissements publics à caractère scientifique, culturel et professionnel (2014). *Rapport de l'évaluation de l'Université de Paris 8 Vincennes - Saint Denis.* Paris, France: Comité National d'évaluation.

Council of Europe – COE (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cowie, N. & Sakui, K. (2011). Crucial but neglected: English as a foreign language teachers' perspectives on learner motivation. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds). *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 212-228). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Coxhead, A. (2013). Vocabulary and ESP. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 115-132). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Crețiu, A. (2013). "Artspeaking" about art. Discourse features of English for art purposes. In S. Munteanu & B. Bretan (Eds). *Diversitate Culturală și Limbaje de Specialitate* (pp. 40-50). Cluj-Napoca, Romania: Casa Cartii de Stiinta.

Crețiu, A. (2013a). The blogging artist: A genre analysis approach to teaching English for art purposes. *Tarih Kültür ve Sanat Araştırmaları Dergisi, 2*(2), 1-29.

Crețiu, A. (2016). English as a practical tool for increasing visibility in the art world. *Synergy, 12*(1), 54-71.

Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *Modern Language Journal*, 89, 19–36.

Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005a). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behaviour. *Language Learning*, 55(4), 613-659.

Csizér, K., Kormos, J. & Sarkadi, À. (2010). The dynamics of language learning attitudes and motivation: Lessons from an interview study of dyslexic language learners. *The Modern Language Journal, 94*(3), 470-487.

Csizér, K. & Luckács, G. (2010). The comparative analysis of motivation, attitudes and selves: The case of English and German in Hungary. *Systems 38,* 1-13.

D'Albora Calabrese, M. (1994). A case study in ESP. In M. Ibba (Ed). *Quaderni del centro di linguistica dell'Università Cattolica* (pp. 105-110). Brescia, Italy: Editrice La Scuola.

Daloiso, M. (2007). *Early foreign language teaching.* Perugia, Italy: Guerra Edizione.

Daloiso, M. (2007a). *Apprendere ed insegnare l'inglese per l'arte*. Perugia, Italy: Guerra Edizioni.

Daloiso, M. (2009). *I fondamenti neuropsicologici dell'educazione linguistica.* Venice, Italy: Libreria Editrice Cafoscarina.

de Bot, K., Lowie, W. & Verspoor, M. (2007). A dynamic systems theory approach to second language acquisition. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 10*(1), 7-21.

Deci, E. & Ryan, R. (2002). Overview of Self-Determination Theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. In E. Deci & R. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 3-33). Rochester, NY: The University of Rochester Press.

De Naeghel, J., Van Keer, H., Vansteenkiste, M., & Rosseel, Y. (2012). The relation between elementary students' recreational and academic reading motivation, reading frequency, engagement, and comprehension: A self-determination theory perspective. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *104*(4), 1006-1021. doi:10.1037/a0027800

Denney, S.C., & Daviso, A.W. (2012). Self-Determination: A critical component of education. *American Secondary Education*, *40*(2), 43-51.

Di Pardo Léon-Henri, D. (2015). L'apprentissage de l'anglais de spécialité : de l'authenticité au développement d'une identité authentique. *The Journal of Languages for Specific Purposes*, *2*, 61-74.

Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J. M. (2011). Internationalisation, multilingualism and English-medium instruction. *World Englishes*, *30*(3), 345-359. doi:10.1111/j.1467-971X.2011.01718.x.

Domakani, M. R., Roohani, A. & Akbari, R. (2012). On the relationship between language learning strategy use and motivation. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies, 18*(4), 131-144.

Domingo, M. (2013). Need-based course content for the English Bridge Program (EBP). Paper presented at the 3rd Conference on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching, Thammasat,Thailand (p. 423-436).

Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *Modern Language Journal, 78*, 273-284.

Dörnyei, Z. (1997). Psychological processes in cooperative language learning: Group dynamics and motivation. *The Modern Language Journal, 81*(4), 482-493.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, *31*(03), 117-135. doi: 10.1017/S026144480001315X.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom:* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. In Z. Dörnyei (Ed.), *Attitudes, orientations and motivations in language learning* (pp. 3-32). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Dörnyei, Z. & Ushioda, E. (Eds). *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 9-42). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z. (2010). The relationship between language aptitude and language learning motivation: Individual differences from a dynamic systems perspective. In E. Macaro (Ed.), *Continuum companion to second language acquisition* (pp. 247-267). London, UK; Continuum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2011). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methodologies*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. & Clément, R. (2001). Motivational characteristics of learning different target languages: Results of a nationwide survey. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds), Motivation and second language acquisition (pp. 399-432). Honolulu, Hawaii, USA: Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research, 2*(3), 203–29.

Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K. (2002). Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey. *Applied Linguistics, 23,*421-462.

Dörnyei, Z., Ibrahim, Z. & Muir, C. (2015). 'Directed motivational currents': Regulating complex dynamic systems through motivational surges. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 95-107). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P., & Henry, A. (2015). Introduction: Applying complex dynamic systems principles to empirical research on L2 motivation. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning (pp. 1-9)*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., Muir, C. & Ibrahim, Z. (2014). Directed motivational currents: Energising language learning by creating intense motivational pathways. In D. Lasagabaster, A. Doiz, J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *Motivation and foreign language learning* (pp. 9-30).

Philadelphia, PA, USA & Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Doucet, P. (1997). Évaluation, motivation, et formation. In *ASp* [online], (p15-18). Retrieved from http://asp.revues.org/3156. doi: 10.4000/asp.3156.

Drever, E. (2003). *Using semi-structured interviews in small-scale research: A teacher's guide.* Glasgow, UK: Scottish Council for Research in Education.

Dudley-Evans, T. (1977). Planning a courses for sciences and engineering students. In S. Holden (Ed). *English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Modern English publications.

Dudley-Evans, T. (1997). Five questions for LSP teacher training. In R. Howard & G. Brown (Eds). *Teacher education for LSP* (pp. 58-67). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Eddy-U, M. (2015). Motivation for participation or non-participation in group tasks: A dynamic systems model of task-situated willingness to communicate. *System, 50*, 43-55.

Ehrman, M. & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *The Modern Language Journal, 74*(3), 311-327.

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A. & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5*(1), 1-4. doi: 10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11.

Fadavi, M. & Ershadi, A.R. (2014). Evaluating the position of ESP for art students in university of Tehran art schools. *Journal of novel applied sciences*, *3*(10), 1151-1162.

Faez, F. (2011). English education in Italy: perceptions of teachers and professors of English. *Canadian and International Education / Education canadienne et internationale, 40*(3), 30-44. Retrieved from http://ir.lib.uwo.ca/cie-eci/vol40/iss3/4.

Far, M. (2008). On the relationship between ESP & EGP: A general perspective. *ESP World*. *1*(7). Retrieved from http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_17/issue_17.htm.

Feak, C. (2013). ESP and speaking. In Paltridge, B. & Starfield, S. (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 35-54). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Feilzer, M.Y. (2010). Doing mixed methods research pragmatically: Implications for the rediscovery of pragmatism as a research paradigm. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 4*(1), 6-16.

Fen Ng, C. & Kiat Ng, P (2015). A review of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of ESL learners. *International Journal of Languages, Literatures, and Linguistics, 1*(2), 98-105.

Ferguson, G. (1994). Case conference materials in the teaching of medical English. In M. Ibba (Ed). *Quaderni del centro di linguistica dell'Università Cattolica* (pp. 81-92). Brescia, Italy: Editrice La Scuola.

Ferguson, G. (2007). The global spread of English, scientific communication and ESP: Questions of equity, access and domain loss. In *Ibérica, 13*, 7-38.

Fethi, G. & Feriel, D. (2016). Evaluation of 1st year business English courses at Annaba Economics and Management School. In *ESP world, 50*(17). Retrieved from http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_50/Guerid_Fethi.pdf.

Flege, J.E., Yeni-Komshian, G.H. & Liu, S. (1999). Age constraints on second-language acquisition. *Journal of Memory and Language, 41*, 78-104.

Flowerdew, L. (2013). Needs analysis and curriculum development in ESP. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 325-346). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Fortune, A. (1977). Making courses in science and technology more relevant to the needs of the student. In S. Holden (Ed). *English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Modern English publications.

Frame, A. (2006). Les Français, mauvais élèves de la classe de langue? De la communication pour sortir du mythe. In *Cahiers de l'APLIUT*, *25*(1), 91-107. Retrieved from http://apliut.revues.org/3221.

Gardner, R. (1960). Motivational variables in second language acquisition (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). McGill University, Montreal, Canada.

Gardner, R. (1996). Motivation and second language acquisition: Perspectives. *Revue de l'ACLA/Journal of the CAAL, 18*(2), 19-42.

Gardner, R. (2004). *Attitude/Motivation test battery: International AMTB research project* [Measurement instrument]. Retrieved from http://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/docs/englishamtb.pdf.

Gardner, R. (2005). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. Retrieved from http://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/docs/caaltalk5final.pdf.

Gardner, R. (2007). Motivation and second language acquisition. *Porta Linguarum, 8*, 9-20.

Gardner, R. & Lambert, W. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology, 13,* 266-272.

Gardner, R. C., Masgoret, A.-M., Tennant, J. & Mihic, L. (2004). Integrative motivation: Changes during a year-long intermediate-level language course. *Language Learning, 54*, 1-34.

Ghazvini, S. & Khajehpour, M. (2011). Attitudes and motivation in learning English as a second language in high school students. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 15*, 1209-1213. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier.

Gillet, N., Vallerand, R., Lafrenière, M., & Bureau, J. (2013). The mediating role of positive and negative affect in the situational motivation-performance relationship. *Motivation & Emotion*, *37*(3), 465-479. doi:10.1007/s11031-012-9314-5.

Gocer, A. (2010). A qualitative research on the teaching strategies and class applications of the high school teachers who teach English in Turkey as a foreign language. *Education*, *131*(1), 196-219.

Goh, C. (2013). ESP and listening. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 55-76). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Gollin-Kies, S., Hall, D., & Moore, S. (2015). *Language for specific purposes.* Hampshire, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Gould, C. (2001). L'art internet ou la médiation esthétisée: contribution à la réflexion sur l'anglais dans filières artistiques. *ASp [online], 31-33.* Retrieved from http://asp.revues.org/1884.

Guariento, W. & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal, 55*(4), 347-353. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Guilloteaux, M. J. (2007). Motivating language learners: a classroom-oriented investigation of teachers' motivational practices and students' motivation (unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK.

Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(1), 55-77.

Henry, A. (2014). Swedish students' beliefs about learning English in and outside of school. In D. Lasagabaster, A. Doiz, J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *Motivation and foreign language learning* (pp. 93-116). Philadelphia, PA, USA & Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Henry, A. (2015). The dynamics of possible selves. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 83-94). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Henry, A. (2015a). The dynamics of L3 motivation: A longitudinal interview/observation-based study. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds). *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 315-342). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Henry, A., Davydenko, S. & Dörnyei, Z. (2015). The anatomy of directed motivational currents: exploring intense and enduring periods of L2 motivation. *Modern Language Journal, 99*(2), 329-345.

Hirvela, A. (2013). ESP and reading. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 77-94). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Hismanoglu, M. (2000). Language learning strategies in foreign language learning and teaching. *The Internet TESL Journal, 11*(8). Retrieved from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Hismanoglu-Strategies.html.

Horwitz, E. (2010). The language learner. In C. Blyth (Ed), *Foreign language teaching methods*. Austin, Texas: COERLL, The University of Texas at Austin.

Howard, R. (1994). Teaching medical English vocabulary systematically. In M. Ibba (Ed). *Quaderni del centro di linguistica dell'Università Cattolica* (pp. 31-40). Brescia, Italy: Editrice La Scuola.

Howard, R. (1997). LSP in the UK. In R. Howard & G. Brown (Eds). *Teacher education for LSP* (pp. 41-57). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Hsieh, C. -N. (2009). L2 learners' self-appraisal of motivational changes over time. *Issues in Applied Linguistics, 17,* 3-26.

Human-Vogel, S., & Rabe, P. (2015). Measuring self-differentiation and academic commitment in University students: A case study of education and engineering students. *South African Journal Of Psychology*, *45*(1), 60-70. doi:10.1177/0081246314548808.

Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centered approach*. New York, USA: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2013). ESP and writing. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 95-114). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Ibba, M. (1988). L'inglese della medicina. In Congresso su Le lingue di specializzazione e il loro insegnamento nella scuola secondaria e nell'università. *Il *linguaggio delle scienze e il suo insegnamento. Atti del Congresso su Le lingue di specializzazione e il loro insegnamento nella scuola secondaria e nell'università Brescia, 2-4 aprile 1987*. Brescia, Italy: Editrice La scuola.

Ibba, M. (1994). A turning point in Italian higher education: foreign languages challenge the medical faculties. In M. Ibba (Ed). *Quaderni del centro di linguistica dell'Università Cattolica* (pp. 13-30). Brescia, Italy: Editrice La Scuola.

Irie, K. (2003). What do you we know about the language learning motivation of students in Japan? Some patterns in survey studies. *JALT Journal, 25*(1), 86-100.

Irie, K. & Ryan, S. (2015). Study abroad and the dynamics of change in learner L2 self-concept. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 343-366). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Johns, A. (2013). The history of English for specific purposes research. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 5-30). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Kashefian Naeeini, S., Riazi, A. & Salehi, H. (2012). The role of social factors in Iranian university students' predispositions towards autonomous language learning. *Advances*

in Language and Literary Studies, 3(2), 41-51. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.3n.2p.41.

Kaur, S. & Baksh, A. (2010). Language needs analysis of art and design students: Considerations for ESP course design. *ESP world.* Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/262278303_Language_Needs_Analysis_of_Art_and_Design_Students_Considerations_for_ESP_Course_Design_Introduction.

Kerr, L. (1977). English for specific purposes. In S. Holden (Ed). *English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Modern English publications.

Khodi, A. (2014). From an appraisal of Iranian ESP courses to curriculum development. *Iranian journal of research in English language teaching, 3*(2), 13-20. Isfahan, Iran: Islamic Azad University, Khorasgan Branch.

Kim, T. (2012). The L2 motivational self system of Korean EFL students: Cross-grade survey analysis. *English Teaching, 67*(1), 29-56.

Kırkgöz, Y. (2005). Motivation and student perception of studying in an English-medium university. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *1*(1).

Klimova, B. (2011). Motivation for learning English at the university level. *Procedia social and behavioral sciences, 15,* 2599-2603.

Kloppman-Lambert, C. (2018). Specialised aspects of architectural discourse: Metaphors in the British magazine *The Architectural Review*. *ASp, 73*, 25-51.

Korotkina, I. (2014). English for public policy: ESP course design in the changing social science education in Russia. *English for Specific Purposes SIG Journal, 43*, 24-29.

Krashen, S., Long, M. & Scarcella, R. (1979). Age, rate and eventual attainment in social language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 13*(4), 573-582.

Labetoulle, A. (2017). Dynamic and complex systems approach to needs analysis, course development, and evaluation of LANSOD course in a French musicology undergraduate programme. In C. Sarré & S. Whyte (Eds). *New developments in ESP teaching and learning research* (pp. 31-50). Research-publishing.net.

La Ganza, W. (2002). Rethinking a topic: challenges in researching learner autonomy and creativity in language teaching for business students. In P. Benson & S. Toogood

(Eds), *Challenges to research and practice.* Learner Autonomy. Dublin, Ireland: Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd.

Lai, H. T. (2013). The motivation of learners of English as a foreign language revisited. *International Education Studies*, *6*(10), 90-101.

Lamb, M. (2009). Situating the L2 Self: Two Indonesian school learners of English. In Z. Dornyei (Ed). *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 Self* (pp. 229-247). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Lamb, M. (2011). Future selves, motivation and autonomy in long-term EFL learning trajectories. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds). *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 177-194). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Lamb, M.V. & Wedell, M. (2015). Cultural contrasts and commonalities in inspiring language teaching. *Language Teaching Research, 19*(2), 207-224.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2015). Ten 'lessons' from complex dynamic systems theory: What is on offer? In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 11-19). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Larsen-Freeman, D. & Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex systems and applied linguistics.* Oxford Applied Linguistics. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Lavinal, F., Décuré, N., & Blois, A. (2006). Impact d'une première année d'IUT sur la motivation des étudiant/es à apprendre l'anglais. In *Cahiers de l'APLIUT*[En ligne], *25*(1). Retrieved from http://apliut.revues.org/2599. doi: 10.4000/apliut.2599.

Le Cor, G. (2001). La fiction à substrat professionnel comme médiation du milieu professionnel, étude du cas: *The Hunt for Red October* de Tom Clancy et son adaptation cinématographique. *ASp (online)*. Retrieved from https://journals.openedition.org/asp/1970#quotation.

Le Cor, G. (2004). Ecrire la voile: les frontières mouvantes entre écrits spécialisés et littérature. *ASp. La revue du GERAS, 43*, 47-56. Bordeaux, France: Imprimerie de l'Université de Bordeaux.

Le Cor, G. (2014). Les "fleurs mathématiques" de la poésie et la fiction américaine contemporaine: enjeux d'une intersection littéraire-mathématiques pour l'étude de

l'anglais mathématiques. *ASp (online)*. Retrieved from https://journals.openedition.org/asp/4605#tocto1n3.

Lee, J. (2001). Exploring dynamic perspectives on L2 learning motivation: A qualitative inquiry of three adult Korean ESL learners (unpublished master thesis). Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada.

Leonardi, V. (2014). Demotivating factors among EFL students of economics. In L. Landolfi (Ed.), *Crossroads: Languages in (E)motion* (pp. 201-210). Naples, Italy: University Press Edizioni.

Leone, H. (2010). Outlooks in Italy: CLIL as education language policy. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics, 30(1)*, 43-63.

Lessard-Clouston, M. (1997). Language learning strategies: An overview for L2 teachers. *The Internet TESOL Journal*. Retrieved from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Lessard-Clouston-Strategy.html.

Little, D. (1991). *Definitions, issues and problems.* Learner Autonomy. Dublin, Ireland: Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd.

Little, D. (1997). Responding authentically to authentic texts: a problems for self-access language learning? In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds), *Autonomy & independence in language learning* (pp. 1-12). New York, USA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Liu, M. (2007). Chinese students' motivation to learn English at the tertiary level. *Asian EFL Journal, 9*(1), 126-146.

Liu, Y. & Thompson, A.S. (2018). Language learning motivation in China: An exploration of the L2MSS and psychological reactance. *System 72*, 37-48.

Lozinguez-Ben Gayed, L. & Rivens Mompean, A. (2009). L'impact d'une cyberquête sur la motivation d'apprenants en anglais de spécialité. *Lidil*, *40*, 89-104.

MacIntyre, P. & Serroul, A. (2015). Motivational on a per-second timescale: Examining approach-avoidance motivation during L2 task performance. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 109-138). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Mahmoudi, L. & Amirkhiz, S. Y. (2011). The use of Persian in the EFL classroom--The case of English teaching and learning at pre-university level in Iran. *English Language Teaching*, *4*(1), 135-140.

Magid, M. (2014). An application of the L2 motivational self system to motivate elementary school English learners in Singapore. *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 2*(1), 228-237.

Maglie, R. (2004). From 'une langue une' to linguistic varieties: an overview of ESP studies. *ESP across cultures, 1,* 7-21.

Makamri, B. (2010). Motivation and attitude of Saudi university's learners of English for specific purposes (unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Kansas, Kansas, USA.

Malcolm, D. (2011). 'Failing' to achieve autonomy in English for medical purposes. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds). *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 195-211). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Markus, H. & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist, 41*, 954-969.

Masgoret, A.M. & Gardner, R. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning, 53*(1), 123-163.

Mata, L. (2011). Motivation for reading and writing in kindergarten children. *Reading Psychology*, *32*(3), 272-299. doi:10.1080/02702711.2010.545268.

Mazzadri, M. (2005). *La qualità nell'insegnamento delle lingue straniere.* Perugia, Italia: Guerra Edizioni.

McDonough, J., McDonough, S. (2004). *Research methods for English language teachers*. London, UK: Arnold.

Mémet, M. (2003). « L'enseignement à contenu intégré augmente la motivation pour l'apprentissage de la langue » : Vrai ou faux ? Étude portant sur des cours d'anglais de spécialité en médiation culturelle. *ASp. La Revue du GERAS,* 39-40, 131-142.

Mémet, M. (2013). Historique de ASp. *ASp (online).* Retrieved from https://asp.revues.org/607.

Menezes de Oliveira e Paiva, V. (2011). Identity, motivation and autonomy in second language acquisition from the perspective of complex adaptive systems. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds). *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 57-73). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Moiinvaziri, M. (2007). Motivational orientation in English language learning-Summary: A study of Iranian undergraduate students. Retrieved from http://www.usingenglish.com/articles/motivational-orientation-in-english-language-lea rning.html.

Mori, S. (2002). Redefining motivation to read in a foreign language. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 14*(2). Retrieved from http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/October2002/mori/mori.html.

Morrow, K. (1977). Authentic texts and ESP. In S. Holden (Ed). *English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Modern English publications.

Mourlhon-Dallies, F. (2008). *Enseigner une langue à des fin professionnelles.* Paris, France: Les Éditions Didier.

Mozzon-McPherson, M. & van der Wolf, M. (1997). The LSP teacher and independent learning strategies. In R. Howard & G. Brown (Eds), *Teacher education for LSP* (pp. 176-185). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Mudraya, O. (2006). Engineering English: A lexical frequency instructional model. English for Specific Purposes, 25, 235–256.

Muir, C., & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). Directed Motivational Currents: Using vision to create effective motivational pathways. *Studies in second language learning and teaching, 3*(3), 357-375.

Murray, G. (2011). Identity, motivation and autonomy: Stretching our boundaries. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds). *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 247-261). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Nesi, H. (2013). ESP and corpus studies. In B. Paltridge & S. Starfield (Eds). *The handbook of English for specific purposes* (pp. 407-426). West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Nguyen, L. T. C. (2012). Learner autonomy in language learning: How to measure it rigorously. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics, 18*(1), 50-68. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1283739860?accountid=17274.

Nichols, R. (2014). Motivating English language learners: An Indonesian case study (unpublished master thesis). Dordt College, Sioux Center, Iowa, USA.

Niederhauser, J. S. (2012). Motivating learners at South Korean universities. *English Teaching Forum*, *50*(3), 28-31.

Nikoopour, J., Salimian, S., Salimian, S. & Farsan, M.A. (2013). Motivation and the choice of language learning strategies. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 3*(6), 1277-1283.

Nitta, R. & Baba, K. (2015). Self-regulation in the evolution of the ideal L2 self: A complex dynamic systems approach to the L2 motivational self-system. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 367-396). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Noels, K. (2001). Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication style. *Language Learning, 51*(1), 107-144.

Noels, K., Clément, R. & Pelletier, L. (1999). Perceptions of teachers' communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *The Modern Language Journal, 83*(1), 23-34.

Noels, K., Clément, R. & Pelletier, L. (2001). Intrinsic, extrinsic and integrative orientations of French Canadians learners of English. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 57*(3), 424-442.

Noels, K., Pelletier, L., Clément, R. & Vallerand, R. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational variables and the Self-Determination Theory. *Language Learning 50*(1), 57-85.

Noom-ura, S. (2008). Teaching listening-speaking skills to Thai students with low English proficiency. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly. Conference Proceedings Edition: Innovation and Tradition in ELT in the New Millennium, 10*(4), 173-192.

Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL quarterly, 34*(4), 589-614. Doi: 10.2307/3588214.

O'Cathain, A. (2010). Assessing the quality of mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds). *Mixed methods in social & behavioral research* (pp. 531-555). London, United Kingdom: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Oltmann, S. (2016). Qualitative interviews: A methodological discussion of the interviewer and respondent contexts. *Forum: Qualitative social research, 17*(2), 1-16.

Oxford, R. (1994). Language learning strategies: An update. Retrieved from https://www.ericdigests.org/1995-2/update.htm.

Oxford, R. & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings and instructional issues. *The Modern Language Journal, 73*(4), 404-419.

Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS Survival Manual, 5th Edition.* Berkshire, UK: Open University Press.

Palombizio, C. (2015). *The L2 Motivational Self System among Italian learners of English in the context of Italian public high school. An examination of the different facets of integrativeness in an EFL context.* (Unpublished master thesis). University of Brighton, Brighton, UK.

Paltridge, B. (2016). Developments in English for specific purposes research. *OnCue Journal, 9*(2), 73-85.

Paltridge, B. & Starfield, S. (Eds.) (2013). *The handbook of English for Specific Purposes.* Boston, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Papi, M., & Teimouri, Y. (2012). Dynamics of selves and motivation: A cross-sectional study in the EFL Context of Iran. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *22*(3), 287-309. doi:10.1111/j.1473-4192.2012.00312.x.

Parent, M, (2012). Handling item-level missing data: Simpler is just as good. *The Counseling Psychologist, 41*(4), 586-600.

Pavesi, M. (1994). La scelta della lingua straniera all'università: dati di un questionario. In G. Bernini & M. Pavesi (Eds), *Lingue straniere e università* (pp. 51-64). Milano, Italy: FrancoAngeli, s.r.l.

Pawlak, M. (2012). The dynamic nature of motivation in language learning: A classroom perspective. Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching 2, 249-278.

Pawlak, M., Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A., Bielak, J. (2014). Another look at temporal variation in language learning motivation: Results of a study. In M. Pawlak & L. Aronin (Eds.), *Essential topics in applied linguistics and bilingualism: Studies in honor of David Singleton* (pp. 89-109). Heidelberg, New York: Springer.

Pekrun, R., Hall, N. C., Goetz, T. & Perry, R. P. (2014). Boredom and academic achievement: Testing a model of reciprocal causation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *106*(3), 696-710.

Pekrun, R. & Perry, R. (2014). Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions. In R. Pekrun & L. Linnenbrink-Garcia (Eds). *International handbook of emotions in education* (pp.120-141). New York, NY: Rutledge.

Pennycook, A. (1997). Cultural alternatives and autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds), *Autonomy & independence in language learning* (pp. 1-12). New York, USA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Petty, T., & Thomas, C. C. (2014). Approaches to a successful adult education program. *College Student Journal*, *48*(3), 473-480.

Plutzar, V. & Ritter, M. (2000). Language learning in the context of migration and integration--Challenges and options for adult learners. Paper presented at the Council of Europe Seminar on the linguistic integration of adult migrants. Vienna.

Porcelli, G. (2013). *Principi di Glottodidattica*. Milan, Italy: Editrice La Scuola.

Preece, R. (1994). Art English. In *ESP news, 3*(1), 1-3.

Preece, R. (1996). English for art and design: Suggestions for an independent study [gues t lecture transcript]. Retrieved from https://www.artdesigncafe.com/english-for-art-and-design-independent-study-1996.

Preece, R. (1997). Modelling language instruction on collaborative design projects. *The journal of imagination in language learning, 4,* 108-110.

Preece, R. (2008). English for art purposes. *Sculpture, 27*(9). Retrieved from http://www.sculpture.org/documents/scmag08/nov_08/englishart/englishart.shtml.

Prince, P. (2005). Un ménage à trois fragile : Autonomie, Motivation et Apprentissage dans un Centre de Langues. *Lidil, 40,* 71-88.

Ragin, C. (2006). Set relations in social research: Evaluating their consistency and coverage. *Political Analysis Advance Access, 14*, 291-310.

Rajab, A., Roohbakhsh, F. & Etemadzadeh, A. (2012). The relationship between L2 motivation self-system and L2 learning among TESL students in Iran. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 66*, 419-424.

Rashed, H. (2013). The evolutions of interest and beliefs about Arabic as a foreign language: A case study on three western learners. *Education*, *134*(1), 50-61.

Rees Franzinetti, J. (1994). English for medical purposes. In M. Ibba (Ed). *Quaderni del centro di linguistica dell'Università Cattolica* (pp. 111-119). Brescia, Italy: Editrice La Scuola.

Reinders, H. & Lazaro, N. (2011). Beliefs, identity, and motivation in implementing autonomy: The teacher's perspective. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds), *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 125-143). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Resche, C. (2009). The Economist: discours de spécialité économique ou discours sur l'économie? *ICLEA (online)*. Retrieved from https://journals.openedition.org/ilcea/64#quotation.

Riazi, A. & Riasati, M. (2007). Language learning style preferences: A students case study of Shiraz EFL institutes. *Asian EFL Journal 9*(1), 97-125. Tortola, British Virgin Islands: Asian EFL Journal Press.

Rihoux, B. & De Meur, G. (2008). Crisp-set qualitative comparative analysis (csQCA). In B. Rihoux & C. Ragin (Eds). *Configurational and comparative methods. Qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) and related techniques*(pp. 33-68). London, United Kingdom: Sage Publications Ltd.

Rossi, M. (2007). Didactique des langues de spécialité au niveau universitaire: L'apport de la terminologie. Description de deux expériences didactiques. *Synergies Italie,* 3, 46-56.

Rubrecht, B. & Ishikawa, K. (2012). Language learning motivation: Applying the L2 motivational self system. *International journal of language studies, 6*(4), 71-96.

Ruiz-Garrido, M. & Fortanet-Gomez, I. (2015). Needs analysis in a CLIL context : A transfer from ESP. In D. Marsh, P. Mehisto, D. Wolff, R. Aliaga, T. Asikainen, M.J. Frigols-Martin, S. Hughes & G. Langé (Eds). *CLIL practice. Perspectives from the field* (pp. 179-188). Jyväskylä, Finland: University of Jyväskylä.

Ryan, S. (1997). Preparing learners for independence: resources beyond the classroom. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds), *Autonomy & independence in language learning* (pp. 1-12). New York, USA: Addison Wesley Longman.

Ryan, R. & Deci, E. (2000). Self-Determination Theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *The American Psychologist, 55*, 68-78.

Ryan, S. & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). The long-term evolution of language motivation and the L2 self. In A. Berndt (Ed.), *Fremdsprachen in der Perspektive lebenslangen Lernens* (pp. 89-100). Frankfurt, Germany: Peter Lang.

Sadighi, F. & Zarafshan, M. (2006). Effects of attitude and motivation on the use of language learning strategies by Iranian EFL university students. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities of Shiraz University, 23*(1), 71-80.

Safdari, S. (2017). Validation of a tailored L2 motivational self system questionnaire through confirmatory factor analysis. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching (IOJET), 4*(2), 174-183.

Saleem, J. (2014). *The attitudes and motivation of Swedish upper secondary school students towards learning English as a second language. A comparative study of vocational and theoretical programs.* (Unpublished bachelor thesis). Malmö University, Malmö, Sweden.

Samida, D.K. (2004). Language learning strategies. Retrieved from http://libro.do-bunkyodai.ac.jp/research/pdf/treatises05/01Samidaa.pdf.

Sarré, C. & Whyte, S. (2016). Research in ESP teaching and learning in French higher education: Developing the construct of ESP didactics. *ASp. La revue du GERAS*, 69, 139-164. Bordeaux, France: Imprimerie de l'Université de Bordeaux.

Savaş, B. (2009). An application of extensive reading to English for academic purposes programs at tertiary level for functional academic literacy: A Turkish case study. *ASp [online]*, *55*. Retrieved from http://asp.revues.org/254#tocto2n2.

Schuetze, C. (2013). English proficiency falters amongst the French. *The New York Times.* Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2013/11/11/world/europe/english-proficiency-falters-among-french.html?_r=1.

Schug, D. & Le Cor, G. (2017). Towards a dynamic approach to analyzing motivation in ESP courses. In C. Sarré & S. Whyte (Eds), *New developments in ESP teaching and learning research* (pp. 73-91). Research-Publishing.net.

Setzler, F. (2013). Tailoring business ESL classes to suit student needs. Paper presented at the 3rd Conference on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching, Thammasat, Thailand (p. 523-536).

Shaaban, K. & Ghaith, G. (2000). Student motivation to learn English as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals, 33*, 632-642.

Shishavan, H. B. & Sadeghi, K. (2009). Characteristics of effective an English language teacher as perceived by Iranian teachers and learners of English. *English Language Teacher, 2*(4), 130-143.

Solak, E., & Bayer, A. (2014). The factors influencing the motivational strategy use of non-native English teachers. *International Journal of Education and Research, 2*(2).

Spratt, M., Humphreys, G., & Chan, V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: Which comes first? *Language Teaching Research, 6*, 245-266. doi:10.1191/1362168802lr106oa.

Strevens, P. (1978). Special purpose language learning: A perspective. In V. Kinsella (Ed). *Language teaching and linguistics: Surveys*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. (1977). ESP in the Middle East. In S. Holden (Ed). *English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Modern English publications.

Tarantino, M. (1994). Corsi di inglese per scienze e tecnica: esigenze del mondo accademico e del mercato del lavoro. In Bernini, G. & Pavesi, M. (Eds), *Lingue straniere e università* (pp. 85-120). Milano, Italy: FrancoAngeli, s.r.l.

Taylor, G., Lekes, N., Gagnon, H., Kwan, L., & Koestner, R. (2012). Need satisfaction, work-school interference and school dropout: An application of self-determination theory. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *82*(4), 622-646. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8279.2011.02050.x.

Terrier, L. & Maury, C. (2015). De la gestion des masses à une offre de formation individualisée en anglais-LANSAD : Tensions et structuration. *Recherche et Pratiques Pédagogiques en Langues de Spécialité*, *34*(1), 67-89.

Tessier, S. (2012). From field notes, to transcripts, to tape recordings: Evolution or combination? *International journal of qualitative methods, 11*(4), 446-460.

Tódor, E. & Dégi, Z. (2016). Language attitudes, language learning experiences and individual strategies: What does school offer and what does it lack? *Acta Universitatis Sapientaie, Philologica, 8*(2), 123-137.

Toogood, S. & Pemberton, R. (2002). Integrating self-access language learning into the curriculum: A case study. In P. Benson & S. Toogood (Eds), *Challenges to research and practice.* Learner Autonomy. Dublin, Ireland: Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd.

Tort Calvo, E. (2015). *Language learning motivation : the L2 motivational self system and its relationship with learning achievement* (Unpublished bachelor thesis). Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain.

Trim, J.L.M. (1978). Languages for adult learners. In V. Kinsella (Ed). *Language teaching and linguistics: Surveys*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University press.

Trimble, L. (1985). *English for science and technology a discourse approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge university press.

Università Ca' Foscari Venezia (2018). Corso di Laurea in Conservazione e gestione dei beni e delle attività culturali. Retrieved May 2018 from http://www.unive.it/pag/1525/.

Universitaly (n.d.). Scheda Ateneo – Università "Ca' Foscari" Venezia. Retrieved May 2018 from https://www.universitaly.it/index.php/ateneo/31#null.

Université de Paris 8 (2017). Centre de Langues - Université de Paris 8. Retrieved February 2017 from http://www2.univ-paris8.fr/cdl/.

Ushioda, E. (1996). The role of motivation. *Learner Autonomy.* Dublin, Ireland: Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd.

Ushioda, E. (2006). Language motivation in a reconfigured Europe: Access, identity, autonomy'. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 27*(2), 148 — 161.

Ushioda, E. (2011). Motivating learners to speak as themselves. In G. Murray, X. Gao & T. Lamb (Eds). *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 11-24). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Ushioda, E. (2013). Foreign language motivation research in Japan: An 'insider' perspective from outside Japan. In M. T. Apple, D. Da Silva & T. Fellner (Eds.), *Language learning motivation in Japan* (pp. 1-14). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (2014). Motivation, autonomy and metacognition: Exploring their interactions. In D. Lasagabaster, A. Doiz, J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *Motivation and foreign language learning* (pp. 31-50). Philadelphia, PA, USA & Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Vaezi, Z. (2008). Language learning motivation among Iranian undergraduate students. *World Applied Sciences Journal 5*(1), 54-61.

Valentini, A. (1988). L'inglese dell'amministrazione. In Congresso su Le lingue di specializzazione e il loro insegnamento nella scuola secondaria e nell'università. *Il *linguaggio delle scienze e il suo insegnamento. Atti del Congresso su Le lingue di specializzazione e il loro insegnamento nella scuola secondaria e nell'università Brescia, 2-4 aprile 1987*. Brescia, Italy: Editrice La scuola.

Vallerand, R., Pelletier, L., Blais, M., Brière N., Senécal, C. & Vallière, E. (1992). The academic motivation scale: A measure of intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation in education. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 52,* 1003-1017.

Van der Yeught, M. (2014). Développer les langues de spécialité dans le secteur LANSAD – Scénarios possibles et parcours recommandé pour contribuer à la professionnalisation des formations. *Recherche et pratiques pédagogiques en langues de spécialité, 33*, 12-32.

Van der Yeught, M. (2016). A proposal to establish epistemological foundations for the study of specialised languages. *ASp (online)*. Retrieved from https://journals.openedition.org/asp/4788#quotation.

Villez, B. (1994). Jouer avec l'anglais juridique. *ASp [online]*. Retrieved from http://asp.revues.org/4103. doi: 10.4000/asp.4103.

Wang, F. (2008). Motivation and English achievement: An exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of a new measurement for Chinese students of English learning. *North American Journal of Psychology*, *10*(3), 633-646.

Waninge, F. (2015). Motivation, emotion, and cognition: Attractor states in the classroom. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 195-213). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Waninge, F., Dörnyei, Z. & de Bot, K. (2014). Motivational dynamics in language learning: change, stability, and context. *Modern Language Journal*, *98*(3), 704-723. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Waters, A. (1977). Some characteristics of English for sciences programmes. In S. Holden (Ed). *English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Modern English publications.

West, R. (1997). Needs analysis: state of the art. In R. Howard & G. Brown (Eds). *Teacher education for LSP* (pp. 68-79). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Whyte, S. (2016). Who are the specialists? Teaching and learning specialised language in French educational contexts. *Recherche et pratiques pédagogiques en langues de spécialité* [online], *35*(1). Retrieved from http://apliut.revues.org/5487.

Widdowson, H. (1983). *Learning purpose and language use*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Wigfield, A. & Eccles, J. (2000). Expectancy Value Theory of Achievement Motivation. *Contemporary educational psychology, 25*, 68-81.

Wiesman, J. (2012). Student motivation and the alignment of teacher beliefs. *Clearing House*, *85*(3), 102-108. doi:10.1080/00098655.2011.653016.

Wigfield, A. & Eccles, J. (2000). Expectancy Value Theory of Achievement Motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*, 68-81.

Williams, C. (2014). The future of ESP studies: building on success, exploring new paths, avoiding pitfalls. *ASp. La Revue du GERAS,* 66, 137-150. Bordeaux, France: Imprimerie de l'Université de Bordeaux.

Williams, M. U. (2002). 'French is the Language of Love and Stuff': student perceptions of issues related to motivation in learning a foreign language. *British Educational Research Journal*, *28*(4), 503-528.

Wimolmas, R. (2012). A survey study of motivation in English language learning of first year undergraduate students at Sirindhorn International Institute of Technology (SIIT), Thammasat University. Paper presented at the 3rd Conference on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching, Thammasat,Thailand (pp. 904-915).

Wolters, C. & Pintrich, P. (1998). Contextual differences in student motivation and self-regulated learning in mathematics, English, and social studies classrooms. *Instructional science, 26*, 27-47.

Wozniak, S. (2015). Étude des domaines spécialisés et de leurs discours en diachronie : le cas des genres spécialisés de la littérature d'alpinisme aux États-Unis. *ASp* [En ligne]. Retrieved from http://asp.revues.org/4659. doi: 10.4000/asp.4659.

Wright, C. (1992). The benefits of ESP. Cambridge Language Consultants. Retrieved May 31, 2009 from http://www.camlang.com/art001.htm.

Wu, X. (2003). Intrinsic motivation and young language learners: the impact of the classroom environment. *System, 31*(4), 501-517.

Yashima, T. (2000). Orientations and motivation in foreign language learning: A study of Japanese college students. *JACET Bulletin, 31*, 121-133.

Yashima, T. & Aran, K. (2015). Understanding EFL learners' motivational dynamics: A three-level model from a dynamic systems and sociocultural perspective. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds), *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 285-314). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

You, C. & Chan, L. (2015). The dynamics of L2 imagery in future motivational self-guides. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds). *Motivation dynamics in language learning* (pp. 397-418). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

You, C. J. & Dörnyei, Z. (2016). Language learning motivation in China: Results of a large-scale stratified survey. *Applied Linguistics, 37*(4), 495-516.

Zhang, Y. & Wildemuth, B. (2009). Unstructured interviews. In B. Wildemuth (Ed.), *Applications of social research methods to questions in information and library science*(pp. 222-231). Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.

Zhong, Q. (2012). An Investigation of Non-English major Undergraduates' Net-based Autonomous College English Learning. *CETL Journal, 1*(1). Retrieved from http://www.cetljournal.co.uk/article/view/11235.

Università
Ca'Foscari
Venezia

DEPOSITO ELETTRONICO DELLA TESI DI DOTTORATO

DICHIARAZIONE SOSTITUTIVA DELL'ATTO DI NOTORIETA'
(Art. 47 D.P.R. 445 del 28/12/2000 e relative modifiche)

Io sottoscritto …Daniel Patrick SCHUG……

nat o. a …Utica, New York, USA…… (prov. ……) il …06/04/1990……

residente a Cergy, Francia…… in .Ruelle Lévêque …… n. .2ter..

Matricola (se posseduta) ……956261…… Autore della tesi di dottorato dal titolo:

……English Courses Across Disciplines: A Question of Motivation ……

……

……

Dottorato di ricerca in ….Scienze del linguaggio……

(in cotutela con …Université de Paris VIII Vincennes-Saint-Denis ……)

Ciclo ….31……

Anno di conseguimento del titolo ……2019……

DICHIARO

di essere a conoscenza:
1) del fatto che in caso di dichiarazioni mendaci, oltre alle sanzioni previste dal codice penale e dalle Leggi speciali per l'ipotesi di falsità in atti ed uso di atti falsi, decado fin dall'inizio e senza necessità di nessuna formalità dai benefici conseguenti al provvedimento emanato sulla base di tali dichiarazioni;
2) dell'obbligo per l'Università di provvedere, per via telematica, al deposito di legge delle tesi di dottorato presso le Biblioteche Nazionali Centrali di Roma e di Firenze al fine di assicurarne la conservazione e la consultabilità da parte di terzi;
3) che l'Università si riserva i diritti di riproduzione per scopi didattici, con citazione della fonte;
4) del fatto che il testo integrale della tesi di dottorato di cui alla presente dichiarazione viene archiviato e reso consultabile via internet attraverso l'Archivio Istituzionale ad Accesso Aperto dell'Università Ca' Foscari, oltre che attraverso i cataloghi delle Biblioteche Nazionali Centrali di Roma e Firenze;
5) del fatto che, ai sensi e per gli effetti di cui al D.Lgs. n. 196/2003, i dati personali raccolti saranno trattati, anche con strumenti informatici, esclusivamente nell'ambito del procedimento per il quale la presentazione viene resa;
6) del fatto che la copia della tesi in formato elettronico depositato nell'Archivio Istituzionale ad Accesso Aperto è del tutto corrispondente alla tesi in formato cartaceo, controfirmata dal tutor, consegnata presso la segreteria didattica del dipartimento di riferimento del corso di dottorato ai fini del deposito presso l'Archivio di Ateneo, e che di conseguenza va esclusa qualsiasi responsabilità dell'Ateneo stesso per quanto riguarda eventuali errori, imprecisioni o omissioni nei contenuti della tesi;
7) del fatto che la copia consegnata in formato cartaceo, controfirmata dal tutor, depositata nell'Archivio di Ateneo, è l'unica alla quale farà riferimento l'Università per rilasciare, a richiesta, la dichiarazione di conformità di eventuali copie.

Data 11/12/2018 **Firma** D. Schug

AUTORIZZO

- l'Università a riprodurre ai fini dell'immissione in rete e a comunicare al pubblico tramite servizio on line entro l'Archivio Istituzionale ad Accesso Aperto il testo integrale della tesi depositata;
- l'Università a consentire:
  - la riproduzione a fini personali e di ricerca, escludendo ogni utilizzo di carattere commerciale;
  - la citazione purché completa di tutti i dati bibliografici (nome e cognome dell'autore, titolo della tesi, relatore e correlatore, l'università, l'anno accademico e il numero delle pagine citate).

DICHIARO

1) che il contenuto e l'organizzazione della tesi è opera originale da me realizzata e non infrange in alcun modo il diritto d'autore né gli obblighi connessi alla salvaguardia di diritti morali od economici di altri autori o di altri aventi diritto, sia per testi, immagini, foto, tabelle, o altre parti di cui la tesi è composta, né compromette in alcun modo i diritti di terzi relativi alla sicurezza dei dati personali;
2) che la tesi di dottorato non è il risultato di attività rientranti nella normativa sulla proprietà industriale, non è stata prodotta nell'ambito di progetti finanziati da soggetti pubblici o privati con vincoli alla divulgazione dei risultati, non è oggetto di eventuali registrazione di tipo brevettuale o di tutela;
3) che pertanto l'Università è in ogni caso esente da responsabilità di qualsivoglia natura civile, amministrativa o penale e sarà tenuta indenne a qualsiasi richiesta o rivendicazione da parte di terzi.

A tal fine:
- dichiaro di aver autoarchiviato la copia integrale della tesi in formato elettronico nell'Archivio Istituzionale ad Accesso Aperto dell'Università Ca' Foscari;
- consegno la copia integrale della tesi in formato cartaceo presso la segreteria didattica del dipartimento di riferimento del corso di dottorato ai fini del deposito presso l'Archivio di Ateneo.

Data 11/12/2018 **Firma** D. Zeleng

La presente dichiarazione è sottoscritta dall'interessato in presenza del dipendente addetto, ovvero sottoscritta e inviata, unitamente a copia fotostatica non autenticata di un documento di identità del dichiarante, all'ufficio competente via fax, ovvero tramite un incaricato, oppure a mezzo posta

Firma del dipendente addetto ……

Ai sensi dell'art. 13 del D.Lgs. n. 196/03 si informa che il titolare del trattamento dei dati forniti è l'Università Ca' Foscari - Venezia.
I dati sono acquisiti e trattati esclusivamente per l'espletamento delle finalità istituzionali d'Ateneo; l'eventuale rifiuto di fornire i propri dati personali potrebbe comportare il mancato espletamento degli adempimenti necessari e delle procedure amministrative di gestione delle carriere studenti. Sono comunque riconosciuti i diritti di cui all'art. 7 D. Lgs. n. 196/03.

Estratto per riassunto della tesi di dottorato

L'estratto (max. 1000 battute) deve essere redatto sia in lingua italiana che in lingua inglese e nella lingua straniera eventualmente indicata dal Collegio dei docenti.

L'estratto va firmato e rilegato come ultimo foglio della tesi.

Studente: Daniel Patrick SCHUG

matricola: 956261

Dottorato: Scienze del Linguaggio

Ciclo: 31

Titolo della tesi :

English Courses Across Disciplines: A Question of Motivation

Abstract (English)

This thesis presents a comparative study on student motivation in General English courses and courses of English for Specific Purposes. While these latter courses are often lauded as being inherently more motivating for learners, little research seems to exist supporting this claim. Guided by the L2 Motivational Self System and the Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, this study seeks to better understand what motivates learners in these two different types of English courses, using questionnaires, interviews and observation sessions with students. Data was collected principally at the Université de Paris 8 in France, with additional data also being collected at the Università Ca' Foscari Venezia in Italy. While several similarities appear across all courses, such as a preference for oral activities and a dislike for courses that are too early or too late in the day, several noteworthy differences are seen, particularly regarding the students' self-concepts. These similarities and differences are discussed along with implications for teaching and further research.

Abstract (Italiano)

Questa tesi presenta uno studio comparativo sulla motivazione degli studenti in un corso di inglese generale e in un corso di inglese settoriale. Benchè quest'ultimo sia spesso considerato più interessante da parte degli allievi, esistono pochi studi a conferma di questa ipotesi. Appoggiandosi sul *L2 Motivational Self System* e sulla *Complex Dynamic Systems Theory*, questo progetto mira a capire meglio gli elementi di questi due tipi di corso di lingua che gli studenti trovano motivanti. La raccolta dei dati è stata fatta per mezzo di questionari,

osservazioni e interviste con gli studenti dell'Università Ca' Foscari Venezia (Italia) e dell'Université de Paris 8 (Francia). I risultati mostrano alcune similarità tra gli studenti dei due corsi, ad esempio una preferenza per le attività orali e per i corsi che non iniziano troppo presto alla mattina. Sono anche emerse parecchie differenze, soprattutto per quanto riguarda il concetto di sé (*self-concept*) dello studente. Queste similarità e differenze vengono quindi discusse, insieme alle sue implicazioni per l'insegnamento e la ricerca.

Résumé (Français)

Cette thèse présente une étude comparative sur la motivation des étudiants dans un cours d'anglais général et dans un cours d'anglais de spécialité. Bien que ce dernier soit souvent considéré plus intéressant pour un apprenant, très peu de recherche existe pour confirmer le pouvoir motivant d'un tel cours. En s'appuyant sur le *L2 Motivational Self System* (L2MSS) et la théorie des systèmes dynamiques complexes (TSDC), ce projet a pour objectif d'identifier les éléments motivants pour un apprenant dans les deux types de cours. Pour recueillir des données, des étudiants à l'Université de Paris 8 (France) et à l'Università Ca' Foscari Venezia (Italie) ont répondu aux questionnaires et ont participé aux entretiens et aux sessions d'observation. Les résultats montrent plusieurs similarités entre les étudiants dans les deux types de cours, telles qu'une forte préférence pour les activités orales et les cours qui ne commencent trop tôt le matin ; cependant, plusieurs différences ont aussi émergé, surtout quant au concept de soi de l'apprenant. Ces comparaisons sont discutées ainsi que leurs implications pour l'enseignement et la recherche.

Firma dello studente