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Exploring the links between Motivation, Self-Regulated Learning, Growth Mindset and Foreign Language Acquisition through Future Self-Guides using Electronic Portfolios

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PhD Programme: Language Acquisition in Multilingual Settings (LAMS)

Department of English and German Philology and Translation and
Interpretation

PhD Dissertation
Vitoria-Gasteiz, 2020

Abstract

Motivation and self-regulated learning (SRL) have consistently been shown to be major factors in explaining learner success in foreign language (FL) acquisition (Dörnyei 2009). They are widely recognised as significant variables in human learning that affect goals and directions pursued, levels of effort invested, depth of engagement, and degree of persistence in learning (Ushioda 2014a). For this reason, scholars continue to investigate these pivotal concepts, so as to unravel optimal pedagogical environments that are auspicious to FL acquisition gains. Numerous studies have presented theoretical frameworks to measure these constructs, and in this way, contribute empirically to narrowing the extant gap that exists in regard to how both dimensions can be enhanced during the foreign language learning (FLL) process. Two notable theoretical frameworks that have been significantly conducive to the scientific community's further understanding of these constructs are Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) and Zimmerman's (2000) Self-Regulated Learning model. These frameworks have proved fertile in the quest for empirical evidence that underpins motivation and self-regulation as crucial to FL development, namely through an approach that places the learner's self-concept firmly at the centre of understanding what drives individuals and directs their actions.

An association is generally assumed in the literature between the concepts of motivation and self-regulation, the most recent being the L2MSS proposed by Dörnyei (2009) and centred on possible selves. Markus and Nurius (1986) propose one of the most powerful mechanisms to describe how the self regulates behaviour by setting goals and expectations through their concept of 'possible selves', a concept introduced in social psychology to explain human motivation, which they define as the ideal selves that we would very much like to become, the selves we could become and the selves we are afraid of becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954). Through the selection and construction of possible selves, individuals can be viewed as active producers of their own development and conceptualisation of their as-yet unrealised potential, drawing upon their hopes, wishes and dreams. In this sense, possible selves function as future self-guides that shed light on how individuals are moved from the present towards the future, forming an explicit link between the current self-system and self-regulated behaviour (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009).

Theoretically, it would appear that future self-guides cannot be fathomed without the symbiotic complicity of motivation and SRL. An observation also presented in a study by Oyserman et al. (2004), which concluded that improved academic outcomes were likely only when a possible self could plausibly be a self-regulator. This ability to guide and regulate behaviour was ascribed to the provision of mapping strategies that connected self-directed goals to specific strategies that led to action. Indeed, for future self-guides to be effective, they need to come as part of a package that comprises an imagery component and a repertoire of appropriate plans, scripts and self-regulatory strategies (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 21).

Given the ubiquity of technology and e-learning in the current educational landscape, it would seem pertinent to examine whether digital learning environments can serve to enhance FL motivation and SRL through future self-guides. The use of portfolios has been broadly discussed and praised in relation to identity construal, self-assessment and goal attainment in education (Barrett, 2009), all of which supports the aims of future self-guides. Established as a field of research within the wider field of portfolio research is the electronic portfolio or ePortfolio. A system that may serve to deepen students' learning experiences by scaffolding essential metacognitive skills such as goal setting, identifying strategies, and reflecting on one's learning (Abrami et al., 2013) in a manner that parallels their digital understanding of the universe. It is on this premise that studies (e.g. Attwell, 2007; Barrett, 2009; Meyer et al., 2010) recommend that ePortfolios be used as a personal learning environment or to represent one's digital identity of the 21st century, which would also extend to the construction of future self-guides in FL acquisition.

For ePortfolios to be beneficial to both the academic curriculum and students' development, they need to be student-driven and clearly linked to academic goals (Nguyen, 2013; Richards-Schuster et al., 2014; Tonogbanua, 2018). Individual and curricular objectives need to be balanced in structure, so that learners can make connections between their personal experiences and academic components, engaging continually in the recalibration of current and new understandings about themselves and their academic intentions (Nguyen, 2013). Robinson and Udall (2004) argue that allowing learners to record their own process and to reflect critically upon their development over time leads to better engagement with curricular objectives. However, whether these same gains can be attained over a short period of time, or whether they can be applied to the context of FL acquisition requires further investigation.

On these assumptions, this thesis aims to shed light on whether motivation and SRL can be enhanced through curricular future self-guides using digital learning environments. The dynamic nature of motivation, SRL and FL acquisition is examined through the application of digital L2 future self-guides, an empirical construct that embeds the theoretical frameworks of the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009), SRL (Zimmerman, 2000) and ePortfolio (Barrett, 2000). Accordingly, a digital FL future self-guides' intervention programme was integrated within the curricular objectives of a 6-week English for Academic Purposes (EAP) pre-sessional course at the University of Northampton (UoN). The sample comprised 205 undergraduate students and 18 teachers, of which 120 students and 10 teachers comprised the experimental group and the remainder were part of the control group. The experimental group underwent a curricular intervention based on FL future self-guides using electronic portfolios. A quasi-experimental, mixed-methods research design was employed that included questionnaires, focus group interviews and teacher feedback.

Findings reported that digital FL future self-guides proved to be statistically significant in the increment of FL listening acquisition and the L2MSS motivational dimensions of English self-concept, intended learning effort, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and attitudes to English, with experimental male participants reporting significantly more favourable scores than their female counterparts on the last two dimensions. Overall, it was observed that digital FL future self-guides had a positive impact on motivation, SRL and FL acquisition gains. However, FL gains did not extend to the EAP curricular project in which the intervention was integrated. Even though these results were not statistically significant, this negative outcome was attributed to time constraints and plausibility. The fact that the aforementioned motivational dimensions reported strong positive correlations with SRL, consequently suggested that both motivation and self-regulation had augmented through digital FL future self-guides. Qualitative data also identified various positive states that fostered motivation and led to self-repair and regulation strategies. These were, on the whole, triggered upon reflection of students' visible evidenced work and their current English ability through digital FL future self-guides.

Keywords: electronic portfolios, foreign language acquisition, future self-guides, motivation, self-regulated learning.

Acknowledgements

To begin with, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Professor David Lasagabaster, for his perennial patience, encouragement, guidance and insightful knowledge throughout this lengthy and challenging endeavour.

Secondly, to my family and friends, I would like them to know that it is thanks to their unconditional support, both emotionally and financially, throughout these itinerant doctorate years that I have been able to complete this personal goal unscathed.

And lastly, a special thanks to all those who enabled the implementation and execution of this study. Indeed, my investigation would not have been accomplished without the support, collaboration and commitment of my students and academic peers. First of all, I would like to thank Magdalena Barrett at Royal Holloway, ISC, University of London, and Susie Cowley-Haselden at the University of Northampton for authorising and allowing me to undertake the pilot study and final study of my investigation at their institutions, respectively. Next, I would like to thank all the EAP tutors and students on the summer 2017 pre-session course at the University of Northampton that took part in this project, and to all my second and third term 2017 foundation students at Royal Holloway, ISC, that took part in the pilot study, all of whom, unfortunately, cannot be named for ethical reasons. Last but by no means least, a final thank you to Saray Ugarte at SK Datos, specifically, for her assistance, patience and support in the verification and accuracy of the statistical data analysis that have contributed to the findings and results of this study.

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Index of Acronyms

ARC	Academic Reading Circle
CoD	Coefficient of Determination
DLE	Digital Learning Environment
DMC	Directed Motivational Current
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EMHE	English Medium Higher Education
FL	Foreign Language
FLL	Foreign Language Learning
IMRaD	Introduction, Methods, Research and Discussion
L1	Native Language
L2	Second Language
L2MSS	L2 Motivational Self System
MPSSRQ	Motivation, Possible Selves and Self-Regulation Questionnaire
RHUL	Royal Holloway, ISC, University of London
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SLedS	Student-led Seminar
SRL	Self-Regulated Learning
TL	Target Language
UoN	University of Northampton
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

Resumen

La motivación y el aprendizaje autorregulado siguen siendo dos dimensiones difíciles de descifrar e implementar dentro del aula de aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras (ALE), aunque innegablemente necesarias para lograr un aprendizaje exitoso. Además, la relación entre ambas dimensiones y su rol dentro del proceso de adquisición de una lengua extranjera (LE) genera todavía muchos interrogantes. Por esta razón, los estudios perseveran en la investigación de estos dos conceptos enigmáticos, con el fin de desentrañar el misterio que conduce a un entorno pedagógico en el cual se fomenta la motivación y la autorregulación entre los estudiantes de una LE, lo que, al menos en teoría, es propicio para la adquisición de dicha LE. Numerosos estudios han presentado marcos teóricos para medir estos conceptos y, de esta manera, han contribuido empíricamente a reducir la falta de datos existente con respecto al funcionamiento de estas dimensiones dentro del proceso de ALE. Dos marcos teóricos importantes que han ayudado significativamente a una mejor comprensión por parte de la comunidad científica de estos conceptos son el modelo del Sistema Motivacional del Yo (L2MSS) de Dörnyei (2009) y el Aprendizaje Autorregulado (SRL – Self-Regulated Learning) de Zimmerman (2000). En principio, estos marcos teóricos han demostrado ser fecundos en la búsqueda de evidencia empírica que confirma que la motivación y la autorregulación resultan fundamentales para el ALE. Además, estos hallazgos han confirmado una relación inextricable entre estas dos dimensiones. Ambos marcos han aportado robustas razones empíricas para la reexaminación de la motivación y la autorregulación en el ALE a través de un enfoque que sitúa el autoconcepto del alumno firmemente en el centro con el objetivo de obtener un mejor entendimiento sobre lo que impulsa a un individuo y orienta sus acciones.

El Sistema Motivacional del Yo de Dörnyei (2009) hace resaltar la importancia del autoconcepto para poder comprender las disposiciones motivacionales del individuo mediante el estudio de los yoes posibles (possible selves) y las autoguías del futuro (future self-guides). El Sistema Motivacional del Yo define la motivación como compuesta por tres elementos: el yo Ideal (Ideal L2 self), el yo deóntico (ought-to L2 self) y la experiencia del ALE (FLL experience). Dentro de las autoguías futuras, se considera que el yo Ideal es el componente central y tiene una función orientadora definida en las metas establecidas y por alcanzar (Dörnyei, 2009). En oposición, el yo temido (feared self) regula el comportamiento desviando al individuo de algo por lo que siente temor, mientras que el yo deóntico concierne a

nuestra comprensión de lo que otros quieren que seamos y hagamos, por ejemplo las expectativas de la sociedad deóntica. En general, el yo deóntico no se considera tan influyente como una autoguía del futuro y, suele no estar correlacionado con el comportamiento motivado en el ALE. Cuando nos referimos a los yoes posibles, esto incluye los yoes ideales, es decir, los que nos gustaría llegar a ser, los yoes que podríamos llegar a ser, y los yoes en los que tememos convertirnos (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Es decir, los yoes posibles se comprenden como la conceptualización individual de un potencial aún no realizado y, por esta razón, funcionan posteriormente como autoguías futuras que esclarecen cómo un individuo se mueve del presente hacia el futuro para lograr dicho potencial, formando un vínculo explícito entre el yo actual y el comportamiento autoguiado (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), que los vincula explícitamente al aprendizaje autorregulado. Para que las autoguías futuras sean efectivas deben constar de un componente significativo de imágenes y un repertorio de planes adecuados, guiones y estrategias de autorregulación (Dörnyei, 2009). Teóricamente se podría deducir que las autoguías futuras no pueden ser concebidas sin la complicidad simbiótica de las dimensiones de los yoes posibles y el aprendizaje autorregulado, ya que el concepto de los yoes posibles se propuso como concepto dentro de la psicología social para explicar la motivación humana y la autorregulación.

Por esta razón, el objetivo primario de esta tesis consiste en continuar explorando los conceptos interrelacionados de la motivación y la autorregulación a través de las autoguías futuras. Una idea que se presentó por primera vez en una investigación de Oyserman et al. (2004), donde los autores concluyeron que la mejora de resultados académicos solo era probable cuando el yo posible también fuese un autorregulador viable. Esta capacidad para guiar y regular el comportamiento se atribuyó a la provisión de estrategias de mapeo que conectaban objetivos autodirigidos con estrategias específicas que llevaban a la acción. No obstante, es importante recalcar que dichas estrategias no deben ser estáticas, ya que requieren una calibración continua que se ajusta a la realidad, particularmente con respecto a los umbrales del aprendizaje durante el proceso de ALE. La mentalidad de crecimiento (growth mindset) de Carol Dweck (2006), mantiene que las creencias de autocompetencia de las personas son maleables, y como consecuencia, el comportamiento y el rendimiento académico de un alumno, particularmente en contextos de aprendizaje desafiantes, puede cambiar y mejorarse a través de programas de intervención, o de autoguías futuras en el caso de esta investigación, que abordan la mentalidad de crecimiento.

Dada la ubicuidad de la tecnología y el aprendizaje digital en el entorno educativo actual, parece pertinente examinar si los entornos de aprendizaje digitales pueden servir para aumentar la motivación y la autorregulación en el ALE a través de autoguías futuras. En este sentido, los avances pedagógicos en tecnologías web han recomendado la implementación de portafolios digitales (ePortfolios) en el aula, como una opción viable para un entorno de aprendizaje personal y académico (Attwell, 2007; Barrett, 2009) o para representar la identidad digital de los estudiantes del siglo XXI (Meyer et al., 2010). Una funcionalidad que giraría en torno al autoconcepto del alumno, a través del cual esta investigación puede seguir examinando los conceptos de los roles posibles, la motivación y la autorregulación en el ALE.

Basada en estas premisas, esta tesis pretende esclarecer la naturaleza dinámica de la motivación, el aprendizaje de autorregulación y la adquisición del inglés como LE a través de las autoguías futuras digitales, una dimensión empírica que integra los marcos teóricos del Sistema Motivacional del Yo (Dörnyei, 2009), del Aprendizaje Autorregulado (SRL, Zimmerman, 2000), de la mentalidad de crecimiento (Growth mindset, Dweck, 2006) y del portafolio digital (ePortfolio, Barrett, 2000). En consecuencia, se integra un programa de intervención de autoguías futuras digitales dentro de un curso preuniversitario de inglés con fines académicos (EAP pre-sessional course), durante un período de seis semanas, en la Universidad de Northampton (Reino Unido). La muestra de investigación se compone de 205 estudiantes de grado y 18 profesores, de los cuales 120 alumnos y 10 profesores forman parte del grupo experimental y el resto forma parte del grupo de control. El grupo experimental se vio por tanto sometido a una intervención educativa basada en autoguías futuras digitales.

La presente tesis comprende un estudio basado en un diseño de investigación cuasi experimental y de métodos mixtos, en el cual se incluyen cuestionarios cuantitativos, entrevistas de grupos focales cualitativas y cuestionarios con preguntas abiertas sobre la experiencia de los docentes durante el programa de intervención. Mediante la implementación de un proyecto de investigación con fines académicos que integra una intervención sobre el marco teórico propuesto en esta tesis de autoguías futuras digitales, los objetivos de esta investigación pretenden contribuir a responder a cinco preguntas que todavía no han encontrado respuesta en la literatura existente con relación a la motivación, la mentalidad de crecimiento, el aprendizaje autorregulado, y los portafolios digitales en el ALE.

La primera pregunta concierne a las características individuales de los estudiantes en las que la aplicación efectiva de los principios teóricos y las estrategias del Sistema Motivacional del Yo (Dörnyei, 2009) pueden ser contingentes (Lamb, 2017) a través de una perspectiva de Corriente Motivacional Dirigida (DMC, Dörnyei et al., 2016). Los resultados, generalmente moderados, obtenidos en la investigación de motivación de LE subrayan la relevancia de las diferencias individuales del alumno, ya que las innovaciones pedagógicas raramente obtienen la aprobación universal: lo que funciona para un alumno puede no funcionar para otro. Además, aunque se ha proporcionado evidencia empírica (véase la Tabla 2) que ciertas combinaciones de autoguías futuras con imágenes mentales y planes de aprendizaje bien diseñados pueden generar poderosas corrientes motivacionales que combaten la apatía y la desmotivación en diversos entornos educativos, esta evidencia es escasa en relación con los estudios que la combinan con el comportamiento autorregulador y la competencia lingüística. A pesar de que las estrategias motivacionales y de aprendizaje autorregulado generalmente conllevan beneficios para el alumno, no está claro si estas estrategias aumentan el dominio de la LE. Por esta razón, este estudio intenta proporcionar evidencia empírica sobre la interrelación entre el Sistema Motivacional del Yo, la autorregulación y el ALE.

La segunda pregunta trata las críticas al Sistema Motivacional del Yo (Dörnyei, 2009) y su aspecto del yo orientado hacia el futuro, que ignora las consecuencias motivacionales de otros autoconceptos e identidades más relevantes en el presente (Lamb, 2017). Henry y Cliffordson (2017) afirman que la medición del yo Ideal en LE de forma aislada puede ser inexacta en el entorno de la lengua meta o donde la LE tenga una presencia destacada. Una premisa que actualmente puede extenderse a todos los contextos digitales a nivel mundial, dada la omnipresencia del inglés como *lingua franca* digital. Por esta razón, es necesario que el marco teórico del Sistema Motivacional del Yo incluya una dimensión del yo presente, el cual se integra en este estudio a través de la dimensión del autoconcepto de LE en inglés (English self-concept), y de esta manera proporcionar evidencia empírica que mida la influencia respectiva del yo Ideal y del yo presente sobre el estado motivacional de alumnos de ALE en un entorno de lengua meta.

Aunque el panorama dinámico y fecundo de los espacios digitales de aprendizaje (DLEs) está contribuyendo a la alfabetización (Chan y Herrero, 2010), continúa siendo un contexto poco investigado (Ziegler, 2015a, 2015b) y, por tanto, se convierte en la tercera pregunta de investigación que aborda este estudio. La

mayoría de los estudiantes en las aulas de hoy interactúan continuamente con los medios digitales. No obstante, la pregunta sigue siendo cómo extender este nexo a la práctica pedagógica, sin que se convierta en otra moda pasajera educativa (Carney, 2005). Dado que la evidencia actual de los fundamentos teóricos educativos en cuanto al impacto de los portafolios digitales en el aprendizaje y en su éxito es escaso (ej., Meyer et al., 2010), esta investigación aborda la necesidad de muestras empíricas robustas que informen concienzudamente sobre la práctica pedagógica de los portafolios digitales y su efectiva implementación, con el fin de proporcionar más evidencia sobre su viabilidad e idoneidad en un contexto curricular educativo. Es más, durante la revisión de la literatura realizada para este estudio no se ha podido localizar ninguna investigación anterior que examine las dimensiones del Sistema Motivacional del Yo (Dörnyei, 2009), aprendizaje autorregulado y rendimiento académico y lingüístico a través de los portafolios digitales. Además, los estudios existentes siguen siendo poco concluyentes con respecto a la dosis y la frecuencia de exposición a los portafolios digitales óptima.

Aunque existen varios estudios que han aportado los beneficios de una mentalidad de crecimiento en entornos educativos desafiantes (ej., Blackwell et al., 2007), pocos extienden esta afirmación al proceso de ALE. Un estudio reciente realizado por Lou y Noels (2017) demostró que los estudiantes de LE con una mentalidad de crecimiento tenían una reacción más constructiva al fracaso en el logro de los objetivos de aprendizaje. Sin embargo, el vínculo entre una mentalidad de crecimiento, el Sistema Motivacional del Yo (Dörnyei, 2009), y el aprendizaje autorregulado, permanece sin analizar en el ámbito de ALE. Mantener el pensamiento positivo y la creencia en la capacidad personal es fundamental frente a las experiencias negativas (Ushioda, 2014a). Los cursos preuniversitarios de inglés con fines académicos pueden resultar abrumadores por su nivel de dificultad e intensidad, por lo tanto, la cuarta pregunta de investigación que aborda este estudio es al análisis de autoguías futuras digitales con respecto a su capacidad de atenuar o mitigar dicha situación desafiante, así como también corroborar si una mentalidad de crecimiento atribuye favorablemente a este proceso dentro del marco teórico de esta investigación.

Los efectos de la variable género son la quinta y última incógnita que esta investigación intenta esclarecer. Por lo general, las diferencias de género se han presentado como favorables para las mujeres en los estudios de motivación (ej., Henry, 2009, 2011a, 2011b), los cuales aducen que las creencias del autoconcepto en el ALE dependen del género. Sin embargo, una revisión reciente sobre los

estudios de intervención realizada por Rosenzweig y Wigfield (2016) concluyó que las diferencias de género eran inconsistentes en la mayoría de los estudios y, de hecho, resultaron no ser significativas. Esta contradicción requiere un mayor análisis, particularmente en lo que respecta a la mentalidad de crecimiento, así como a sus repercusiones posteriores en la motivación, la autorregulación, el ALE y la utilización de los portafolios digitales.

Es por tanto a través de la base teórica del profesor-investigador que este estudio pretende contribuir con nueva evidencia empírica a dar respuesta a estas cinco cuestiones. Como docente e investigador, este estudio no solo facilita la integración de la investigación fundamentada en el aula, sino que amalgama la teoría y la praxis mientras contribuye al crecimiento continuo del desarrollo profesional. Esta forma de abordar la investigación en el aula es un catalizador para que los pedagogos apoyen la innovación y la averiguación didáctica dentro de los entornos educativos. La práctica metodológica intuitiva puede producir el efecto deseado, pero solo a través de la implementación de una investigación empíricamente sólida puede convertirse en una práctica basada en hechos. Por consiguiente, esta investigación formula las siguientes preguntas:

- I. ¿Existe una relación positiva entre la motivación, la autorregulación, la mentalidad de crecimiento y la adquisición de la LE?
- II. ¿Tendrá un efecto positivo la intervención sobre la motivación, particularmente con respecto al autoconcepto del inglés como LE (English self-concept)?
- III. ¿Tendrá un efecto positivo la intervención sobre la mentalidad de crecimiento y la autorregulación?
- IV. ¿Tendrá un efecto positivo la intervención sobre la adquisición de la LE?
- V. ¿Tendrán un efecto positivo los portafolios digitales sobre la motivación, la autorregulación, la mentalidad de crecimiento y la adquisición de la LE?
- VI. ¿Influirán las diferencias de género sobre la motivación, la autorregulación, la mentalidad de crecimiento, la adquisición de la LE y la utilización de portafolios digitales?

La estructura de este estudio se organiza como sigue. El capítulo 2 proporciona una breve reseña de la literatura de investigación en los campos de motivación, posibles roles y autorregulación del aprendizaje en el ALE, y de esta manera presentar el fuerte nexo que existe entre los tres conceptos. Históricamente, la investigación sobre motivación de LE ha llegado a un período sociodinámico que reconoce la

naturaleza socialmente construida y dinámica del alumno, el contexto de aprendizaje y la LE. Se recalca la posición actual de la lengua inglesa como idioma global o *lingua franca*, y se presta especial atención a la situación actual en los cursos preuniversitarios de inglés con fines académicos en universidades británicas. También se analiza esta situación con respecto a el objetivo final de obtener una calificación universitaria de un país de habla inglesa, la cual se percibe generalmente como un catalizador hacia la movilidad ascendente y externa, denominado capital cultural (Bourdieu, 1980), pero que no parece disminuir la apatía entre los estudiantes durante los cursos preuniversitarios de inglés con fines académicos.

El capítulo 3 emprende un análisis más extenso sobre la interrelación entre los conceptos presentados en el capítulo anterior, en el cual se establece un posible marco teórico de investigación a través de las autoguías futuras digitales. Un marco de referencia compuesto sobre autoguías futuras, el aprendizaje autorregulado (SRL), la mentalidad de crecimiento y portafolios digitales. En esta asociación, las autoguías futuras se presentan como el denominador común y como marco conceptual que confiere una estructura ordinal a esta conceptualización. Un marco basado en creencias del autoconcepto, la mentalidad de crecimiento, mapeos futuros y autorregulación. También se pone de relieve el impacto positivo de los espacios digitales de aprendizaje, y el rol de los portafolios digitales dentro de este marco teórico como plataforma digital que proporciona un nexo natural al entorno digital del alumno fuera del aula. Para concluir, se aborda la implementación e integración efectiva del marco teórico de las autoguías futuras digitales dentro del currículo institucional con respecto a la investigación pedagógica, y a su validez como marco teórico de esta tesis. Tras esta revisión del marco conceptual, se presenta una intervención que integra el marco teórico de las autoguías futuras digitales dentro de un módulo de proyecto de investigación del curso de inglés con fines académicos. Asimismo, se detalla cómo una intervención que integra las autoguías futuras digitales dentro de los objetivos curriculares puede proporcionar una estructura para verificaciones de la realidad, a través de una plataforma visual y digital que evidencia el rendimiento del alumno de manera continua.

El capítulo 4 sitúa el contexto de esta investigación y posteriormente, tras establecer los objetivos y las preguntas de investigación, se describe la muestra de este estudio, así como los diferentes procedimientos, métodos e instrumentos utilizados, todos ellos estrechamente relacionados con el foco múltiple de esta tesis sobre comportamiento, evaluación sumativa y actitudes con respecto a la motivación, la mentalidad de crecimiento, la autorregulación y la utilización de la plataforma

digital. Por ende, el capítulo aborda una discusión sobre las herramientas de recogida de datos (cuestionarios cuantitativos, entrevistas de grupos focales cualitativas, cuestionarios con preguntas abiertas sobre la experiencia de los docentes durante el programa de intervención, y evaluaciones sumativas oficiales), así como consideraciones varias sobre la validez de la investigación y, un resumen del procedimiento de la investigación. Para finalizar, se presentan detalles sobre el análisis de datos cuantitativos y cualitativos, antes de proceder con el análisis de los resultados en el próximo capítulo.

El capítulo 5 presenta los resultados en dos partes, considerando la división entre datos cuantitativos y cualitativos. La parte cuantitativa se centra en los diferentes participantes que componen el grupo de alumnado (grupo experimental y grupo de control), y la parte cualitativa incluye participantes del alumnado del grupo experimental y los docentes del programa de intervención. Por consiguiente, los resultados se agrupan en torno a las preguntas de investigación y a los objetivos del estudio. Los resultados se presentan en respuesta a las seis preguntas de investigación planteadas en el estudio, para lo que se examinan los resultados de los datos cuantitativos y cualitativos obtenidos por separado. A continuación, se aborda una discusión de todos los hallazgos y su correspondiente interpretación.

La tesis concluye en el capítulo 6 con las conclusiones finales sobre los hallazgos presentados en el capítulo anterior y la investigación en su conjunto. A continuación, se proporciona una interpretación concluyente sobre todos los resultados obtenidos y examinados en este estudio. Se abordan las limitaciones del estudio, las implicaciones educativas para los profesores y sugerencias para la futura investigación.

En cuanto a las conclusiones de la investigación, es necesario primero señalar que, aunque se pudo establecer una relación cuantitativa y cualitativa entre las dimensiones de motivación, autorregulación, el aprendizaje de LE, y las autoguías del futuro digitales, este no fue el caso con respecto a la dimensión de mentalidad de crecimiento. Opuesto a lo anticipado, esta tesis no pudo confirmar una relación empírica entre la mentalidad de crecimiento y los constructos bajo escrutinio en esta tesis. A diferencia de los estudios de intervención anteriores (ej., Blackwell et al., 2007), que se centraron exclusivamente en fomentar el concepto de mentalidad de crecimiento, la inclusión de un solo componente de mentalidad de crecimiento en el marco teórico de este estudio quizás no fuese lo suficiente para analizar esta dimensión con precisión en relación a los conceptos que se examinan en esta tesis.

Los datos analizados revelan que las autoguías futuras digitales demostraron ser estadísticamente significativas en el incremento de la comprensión oral de la LE, en las dimensiones motivacionales del autoconcepto en LE (English self-concept), y en cuatro dimensiones del Sistema Motivacional del Yo. No obstante, es importante subrayar que, empíricamente, este crecimiento solo resultó ser significativo sujeto al grado de implementación del portafolio digital. Es decir, aquellos participantes experimentales que terminaron y entregaron todos los componentes de la intervención íntegramente a la plataforma digital (ePortfolio). Estos alumnos experimentales registraron un aumento positivo en las medidas de criterio (criterion measures), el yo Ideal (Ideal L2 self), actitudes hacia el inglés (attitudes to English) y el yo deóntico (ought-to L2 self).

Sin embargo, estas dos últimas dimensiones (attitudes to English y ought-to L2 self) mostraron diferencias significativas de género en favor de los participantes masculinos, los cuales registraron un incremento significativamente más alto en estas dimensiones. Por el contrario, aunque las diferencias de género fueron en su mayoría inconsistentes, aunque significativas, cuando revisamos los datos en su conjunto, llegamos a la conclusión de que, en mayor medida, el grado de implementación de los portafolios digitales también fue efectivo para contrarrestar la variación de género. Desde el punto de vista de las dimensiones de motivación, solo aquellos participantes experimentales que entregaron un portafolio digital en su totalidad documentaron un incremento en el esfuerzo de aprendizaje de LE (L2MSS criterion measures).

En general, se observa que las autoguías futuras digitales tuvieron un impacto positivo sobre la motivación y la autorregulación, al tiempo que favorecieron la adquisición de la LE. Sin embargo, estos beneficios lingüísticos no se extendieron al proyecto de investigación, en el cual se integró la intervención. Aunque el resultado solo se identifica como estadísticamente significativo a través de la variable de género, esta falta de impacto se atribuye a limitaciones de tiempo y problemas de viabilidad atribuidos a la compatibilidad de los objetivos del proyecto de investigación y los componentes de las autoguías futuras digitales a lo largo de la intervención. No obstante, el hecho de que las dimensiones del Sistema Motivacional del Yo (L2MSS) arriba mencionadas muestren fuertes correlaciones positivas con el aprendizaje autorregulado indica que tanto la motivación como la autorregulación se han visto incrementadas a través de la aplicación de la intervención. Además, los datos cualitativos destacan varias corrientes motivacionales dirigidas (DMCs)

generadas durante la intervención. Estas corrientes (DMCs) se atribuyen al proceso de reflexión generado por los portafolios digitales, que posteriormente condujo a la autorreparación y regulación por parte del alumnado.

Las conclusiones del estudio contribuyen, por un lado, a proporcionar un conocimiento empírico que informa sobre la práctica pedagógica y el impacto positivo del uso de portafolios digitales y autoguías futuras en el aula con respecto al ALE. La capacidad de ofrecer al alumnado un registro visible de sus esfuerzos de aprendizaje a través de los cuales pueden medir su progreso en la LE en el momento, valida el potencial para la construcción de identidad a través de las autoguías futuras sobre esta plataforma. Un proceso que aumentó la motivación de manera perceptible, lo que a su vez fomentó un entorno que desencadenó la autorreparación, el desarrollo lingüístico y la autorregulación, lo que en consecuencia resultó en una mejora parcial en el desarrollo lingüístico de los participantes.

La principal limitación de este estudio se atribuye a la finalización parcial del programa de intervención por parte de los docentes, en la mayoría de los casos debido a limitaciones de tiempo y a problemas de compatibilidad entre los objetivos del proyecto de investigación con fines académicos y la intervención. Sin lugar a dudas, la investigación dentro del entorno de aula auténtico es una tarea compleja, particularmente cuando incluye varios grupos de profesores y alumnos. Por esta razón, es imperativo que el entorno pedagógico entienda la relevancia y la urgencia de iniciativas empíricas sólidas en el aula. La investigación es primaria, no secundaria, para el progreso pedagógico. Por lo tanto, es solo a través de la investigación-acción que el profesorado puede mejorar empíricamente, no intuitivamente, la práctica pedagógica en el aula de LE.

Palabras clave: adquisición de lengua extranjera, aprendizaje autorregulado, autoguías futuras, motivación, portafolios digitales.

Chapter 1

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

Although a late university bloomer, undertaking my first undergraduate degree approaching my thirties, my reasons for choosing this path were clear, as was my ability to sustain motivation and self-regulation throughout to attain my academic objectives. A proviso I naturally attributed to age or maturity although this was not applicable to all the late bloomers on my degree programme, some of whom dropped out, changed course or prolonged their studies perennially. This incongruence subsequently piqued my curiosity as to the defining role of motivation and self-regulated learning (henceforth, SRL) in the attainment of academic goals, regardless of age. Throughout my teaching career, which started over a decade ago in the field of foreign language (henceforth, FL) acquisition, apathy and teacher-dependency have continued to be omnipresent denominators that vitiate the learning experience and development of my students. An observation that has spurred me to continue exploring how motivation and SRL can be fostered in the FL classroom.

For many years, I have asked myself what is it that motivates some students to persevere with their academic goals while others desist. The corollary being whether it would be possible to teach these strategies to our students. As an avid advocate of learners being active participants of their academic trajectories, I believe students need to take responsibility for their academic choices and the subsequent attainment of learner objectives these ensue. Instead of learners ascribing their motivational slumps and peaks to their tutors, why not foster a learning environment that prompts students to reflect continually on their learner goals, progress and accountability as individuals, which would consequently trigger drive sustenance borne by the student. This would provide a substantially less teacher-centred and more student-centred pedagogical approach that would assume learners as active participants.

Augmenting students' awareness in regard to their academic choices and how to attain their goals effectively and realistically will empower students, motivating

them to take control of their own learning, conferring them lifelong learning skills, assigning the learner self a pivotal role in generating learner motivation and SRL. To facilitate this approach in the FL classroom, Dörnyei's (2009) L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS), which proposes a way of making sense of the complex relationship between learner motivation, the learner's concept of self and the learning context, attributes the language learner a central role through which we can investigate what heightens or abates motivation, a prerequisite for any language student. The L2MSS, often referred to as future self-guides, defines FL motivational behaviour as being composed of three components: The Ideal L2 self is the FL speaker we would like to become, and a powerful motivator to learn the target language (henceforth, TL) because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal self; the ought-to L2 self concerns the beliefs a learner has about what is expected of them, and how to avoid possible negative outcomes; and the foreign language learning experience relates to the situated, professional motives related to the immediate FL learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, or the experience of success). Within future self-guides, the Ideal L2 self is considered to be the central component, with a definite guiding function in setting to-be-reached standards. Future self-guides concern individuals' conceptualisation of their as-yet unrealised potential, and subsequently, shed light on how individuals are moved from the present towards the future, forming an explicit link between the current self-system, their desired future self and self-guided behaviour (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), which links them, inextricably, to SRL. However, effective future self-guides need to come as part of a package, consisting of a significant imagery component and a repertoire of appropriate plans, scripts and self-regulatory strategies (Dörnyei, 2009).

For many 21st century students, learning an FL will include exposure to digital learning environments (henceforth, DLEs), while for learners of English as a foreign language (henceforth, EFL), this may also entail the experience of studying in an English-speaking country. As an EFL teacher in the UK, therefore, it would be pertinent to analyse whether learner motivation and SRL can be enhanced in the EFL classroom through future self-guides using DLEs, and whether this, in turn, leads to better language learning outcomes. It is at this stage when the ePortfolio comes to the fore. Pedagogical advances in web technologies have recommended the implementation of ePortfolios in the classroom as a viable option to personal learning environments (Attwell, 2007; Barrett, 2009) or to represent learners' digital identity of the 21st century

(Meyer, Abrami, Wade, Aslan & Deault, 2010). Bolliger and Shepherd (2010) claim that under well-designed ePortfolio implementation, learners are expected to become empowered, motivated, more reflective and interactive. Thus, investment in good curriculum and learning design is essential. Theoretically, at least, an ePortfolio that underpins Dörnyei's (2009) conceptual framework of future self-guides would allow learners to construct and evaluate the development of their FL current self in relation to their desired FL future self, in a way that resonates with learners' contemporary digital identity.

It is against this background that the focus of this thesis will be to add further empirical evidence to the current literature on the constructs of motivation, SRL and language acquisition among EFL learners. To achieve this, I have chosen to design and implement a conceptual framework for ePortfolios underpinned on future self-guides using electronic portfolios, referred to as digital future self-guides. A model I have purposefully embedded into the curriculum of a 6-week English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programme for international undergraduate students at a British university. Since future self-guides and ePortfolios are ascribed the ability to foster learner awareness, self-reflection, skills development and SRL, it is expected that digital FL future self-guides will increment motivation, SRL and English proficiency among EFL learners.

1.2. Thesis Structure

After this brief introductory part (Chapter 1), this thesis is composed of five chapters. The first two chapters (Chapters 2 and 3) concentrate on the theory of this study, focussing on the theoretical aspect of the concepts under investigation, namely, motivation, future self-guides, SRL and ePortfolios. The last three chapters (Chapters 4, 5 and 6) describe the praxis of this study, addressing its implementation, results and conclusions. A brief introduction is included at the beginning of each chapter outlining its purpose, with a supportive graphic whenever it was considered suitable and ancillary to context and meaning. At the end of each chapter, a concluding summary is provided recapitulating the main themes addressed in each section, with a link to the contiguous subject to be approached. In the following paragraphs, each of these chapters is briefly put forward.

Chapter 2 addresses key concepts and theories in the literature regarding motivation, SRL and possible selves. An analysis is provided of pivotal studies

that have influenced these constructs, underscoring all areas proposed by scholars as possible future research to be undertaken, including issues that need further research or replication, or have not been previously investigated.

Chapter 3 establishes a theoretical nexus through which the concepts discussed in the previous chapter (motivation, SRL and possible selves) can be further examined. To achieve this, the construct of future self-guides is amalgamated with SRL and electronic portfolios, within which the significant roles of the self-concept, gender and digital curricular implementation are underscored. Special attention is paid to these aspects as they play a fundamental role in this investigation. Indeed, this chapter outlines how this study has analysed the concepts of motivation, future self-guides, SRL and ePortfolios under the one construct of digital future self-guides, for which a frame of reference is included.

Chapter 4 outlines the rationale of this thesis and includes a presentation of the mixed-methods study and learner intervention programme implemented. In this section details are provided on the research questions to be addressed and the methodology employed, which includes a description of the participants, the instruments and the procedure involved. Information is included on both the pilot study and the final study carried out in an EAP context within two universities in the United Kingdom. Differentiation is established throughout as to the quantitative and qualitative parts of the study.

Chapter 5 displays the results attained from the study and learner intervention programme, pinpointing the significant quantitative and qualitative data. These are consequently triangulated to render a holistic discussion on the study's outcomes based on the results, theory and observations obtained. Key findings that best answer the research questions of this study are underscored, parallel to generalisations and exceptions. In this section, attention is also paid to the limitations of this study and scope for improvement.

And lastly, chapter 6 yields a conclusion that offers a final analysis on the relationship between the results, theories and observations depicted in this study. An analysis that extends not only to the pedagogical implications of the results garnered and further research necessary in regard to digital future self-guides, but also to the universal and intangible concepts of motivation, SRL and ePortfolios concerning FL development.

Chapter 2

2. A Review of Motivation, Self-Regulated Learning and Future Self-Guides in FL Acquisition

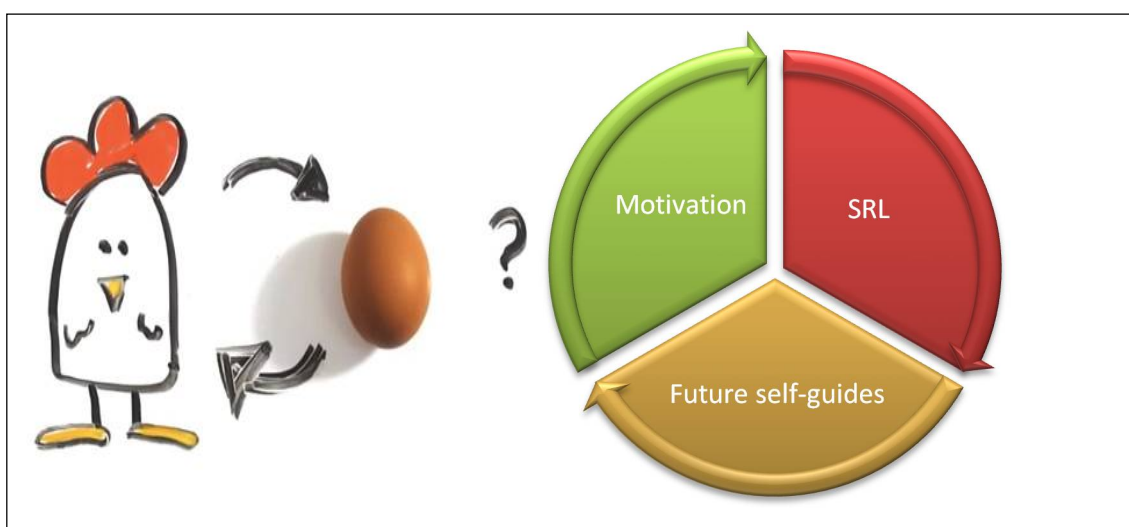
One of the main objectives of this investigation, as its title suggests, is to explore the constructs of motivation and SRL during FL acquisition through the conceptual framework of future self-guides. Since future self-guides cannot be understood without the dual function of motivation and self-regulation, it is necessary to review these three constructs, individually first, to identify their contiguity and the theoretical elements that have contributed to the focus of this study. Considered to be some of the most influential factors in learning a second (henceforth, L2) or foreign language (FL), motivation and SRL have generated a plethora of research and continue to be the oft-subject of published scholarly research. This is why, it is imperative to commence with an overview of extant literature in order to underscore the factors that have led to the predominance and interrelatedness of these dimensions in FL acquisition and how these have ensued the focal plane of this study.

Undoubtedly, the psychodynamics of language learning involve motivation and self-regulation, both of which are considered to be more of an obstacle course than an educational opportunity by many (Bensoussan, 2015). This means that if learners and professionals want to succeed in the foreign language learning (henceforth, FLL) process, it is fundamental that both know how to transform these discouraging difficulties into manageable challenges through a better understanding of these psychodynamics. Motivation and self-regulation are symbiotically related concepts that can hinder or enhance the affective and cognitive aspects of the FLL process. Learner motivation can be understood as a state or behaviour that arouses a person to action toward a desired goal. A goal that is set by the self and extends across a timeline that includes the past, the present and the future. An action that requires proactive behaviour in the sense of self-regulation. However, what remains unclear is whether a hierarchical structure exists, and if so, which one sets the ball in motion. In other words, must we first feel motivated in order to be proactive, and then subsequently reach our FL goals? Or must we first set our FL goals and believe they are attainable in order to feel motivated and engage proactively in FLL? Or, must we first be proactive and self-regulate our FLL to enable successful pursuit of goals, and this will consequently foster motivation? Indeed, the options are variegated.

To date, many theories have suggested the interrelatedness of these concepts, some even proposing an ordinal function for each dimension when grouped together. For example, Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) argue that FL learners must first visualise an Ideal L2 self before setting goals and self-regulation strategies during the FL acquisition process. Although the primary aim of this study is not to establish an ordinal structure but to explore the links between motivation and SRL when learning an FL, a framework is presented in Chapter 3 that offers a conceptual concatenation of these constructs to be employed in the investigation of this study. Beforehand, though, this chapter reviews the theoretical background that has led to this association, and the events in FL research that have facilitated the dynamic analysis of these concepts. As motivation tends to be ascribed a primary function within FL acquisition (Dörnyei, 2005), this notion is reviewed first. This is then followed by SRL and future self-guides, as we must first understand the idea of the self in order to understand the role of the latter constructs.

This chapter is divided in four parts. To begin with, the first section offers a review that canvasses the reexamination of the concept of motivation in FLL by scholars as a result of globalisation and the dynamic condition of the self, the TL and the learning environment. The subsequent section in this chapter describes the intrinsic role of SRL within the FL self. This is followed by a third section that explains the conceptuality of future self-guides as an alternative and more suitable gauge of the dynamic state of the self, motivation and SRL. And, to bring this chapter to a close, a conclusion is included in the fourth and final section.

Figure 1: Motivation, SRL and future self-guides as interrelated constructs



2.1.Motivation

Williams and Burden (1997) provide an elaborate definition of motivation:

Motivation may be construed as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals). (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 120).

Motivation has consistently been shown to be a major factor in explaining learner success in FL acquisition (Dörnyei, 2009), and much research has identified motivation as one of the two big individual difference factors (Ellis, 2004, p. 531), along with language aptitude. As Ushioda (2014a, 2014b) reminds us, motivation is widely recognised as a variable of importance in human learning that affects goals and directions pursued, levels of effort invested, depth of engagement, and degree of persistence in learning. Purposeful, controlled and effortful striving may not be sufficient in itself to regulate motivation and to engage with the day-to-day demands of language learning, particularly as the learning challenges increase exponentially in cognitive and linguistic complexity, as learners move beyond the early basic stages of proficiency. Simply applying more effort or focusing on goals and targets may have little effect when the challenges to motivation derive from not knowing how to deal with the problems and difficulties in one's learning (Ushioda, 2014b, p. 31). In fact, Lewin (1951) proposes two types of forces: driving forces (energy that is in the direction of the intended goal) and restraining forces (energy that impedes the achievement of a goal by working in the opposite direction towards a different goal). Lewin suggests that it is easier to modify a person's actions by reducing the restraining forces than by increasing the driving forces. However, more than 60 years have passed since this claim was made, yet the scientific community still struggles to accurately define these forces, hence the need for further research.

For over five decades motivation has been a major research topic within FL acquisition, stemming from a need to address the unique social, psychological, behavioural, and cultural complexities that acquiring a new communication code entail. Over the years, the field has evolved through successive phases reflecting increasing degrees of integration with developments in mainstream motivational psychology, while retaining a sharp focus on aspects of motivation

unique to language learning. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) have identified these phases as follows:

1. The social-psychological period (1959–1990), characterized by the work of Robert Gardner and his associates in Canada.
2. The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s), characterized by work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology.
3. The process-oriented period (turn of the century), characterized by a focus on motivational change.
4. The socio-dynamic period (current), characterized by a concern with dynamic systems and contextual interactions.

Although the focal plane of this study ascribes to frameworks proposed in the fourth socio-dynamic period, it is worth reviewing the events that have prompted this current phase in order to better appreciate how research has evolved within FLL motivation.

Early studies (the social-psychological period) in the field of FLL motivation focused mainly on the affective dimension, particularly on the role of students' attitudes towards a language and its culture concerning long-term achievement. Traditionally, the reasons why people learned an FL had been classified as instrumental or integrative orientations; a longstanding dual classification that stemmed from Gardner and Lambert's (1959) pioneering programme of social-psychological research on FL motivation in the 1960s and 1970s, which has strongly influenced the way we analyse people's motivational purposes in learning an FL (Ushioda, 2014a, 2014b).

Gardner and Lambert's (1959) 'integrativeness' model explored the affective and socio-psychological aspects of English-speaking senior middle school students learning French in Montreal. A study that opened the field of FLL to a distinctly socio-psychological perspective, with a focus on attitudes, affect, intergroup relationships and motives (MacIntyre, MacKinnon & Clément, 2009a, 2009b). The rationale behind this theory being that if motivation is defined as the attitudes toward learning the FL, the desire to learn the FL, and the amount of effort that is invested in learning the FL (Gardner, 2001), FL learners are inspired to learn a language either because of its 'instrumental' or 'integrative' value. Gardner (2001, p. 5) defines 'integrative motivation' as a genuine interest in learning the FL in order to come closer to the other language community, thus

subsuming attitudes toward the FL community, and an interest in foreign languages. In effect, learners are motivated to integrate into a target community and to become an in-group member. In contrast, 'instrumental motivation' is characterised as an interest in learning the language for pragmatic reasons that do not involve identification with the other language community. Learners are motivated to learn an FL in order to attain external gains such as academic, social, political and/or material rewards. Gardner and Lambert's (1959) study concluded that integratively-oriented students were more successful in acquiring French, had more positive attitudes toward members of the French-Canadian group, and were more strongly motivated to acquire French than instrumentally-oriented students.

This conclusion was further validated by Clément, Gardner and Smythe (1977) in a study that involved 304 francophone students from Montreal who were studying English in middle school. After the participants completed a questionnaire on motivation, English achievement, and attitudes toward learning English, a factor analysis was performed and resulted in the following four main factors: integrative motive, self-confidence with English, academic achievement, and alienation. As a result, linguistic self-confidence was introduced, since this factor was found to be independent of the integrative motive factor, suggesting that an individual's motivation may be mediated by the attractiveness of the culture of the TL they are learning, as well as the self-confidence they feel when speaking the TL. This study concluded that linguistic self-confidence is primarily a socially defined construct with an affective aspect (anxiety) and a cognitive component (perceived FL proficiency). Consequently, Clément, Gardner and Smythe (1980) developed a theoretical framework which incorporated the socio-cultural impact of linguistic self-confidence on the motivation toward learning an FL. An element that veers towards the construct of future self-guides as it gauges whether the degree of confidence a learner has using the TL influences FLL. A component that could be referred to as the TL self, as it is the perception the learner has of their ability to use the TL in any given situation that may refer to the past, present or future.

Although Gardner and his colleagues did not extensively examine the instrumental orientation, as McEown, Noels and Chaffee (2014) claim, it is useful to contrast it with the notion of integrativeness in order to highlight the latter's emphasis on intergroup relations and social identity concerns. Instrumental orientation involves a desire to learn the TL for practical, utilitarian reasons such

as employment mobility or edification (Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997, p. 361), and instrumentality refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits and usefulness of FL proficiency (Csizér & Dörnyei 2005, p. 21). In the educational context, a study by Kraemer (1993) found instrumental orientation to be more important than integrative orientation for 484 Jewish tenth-grade high school students of Arabic as an FL. Moreover, participants did not take advantage of opportunities to learn Arabic outside the classroom. As a result, Kraemer concluded that the perception of high status supports achievement indirectly when accompanied by favourable attitudes toward the learning situation in an instrumental orientation.

To wrap up with this first period, it must be noted that one of the earliest challenges to Gardner and Lambert's notion of 'integrativeness' came from Au (1988). Au questioned the causality hypothesis which affirms that integrative motivation causally affects FL achievement. By evaluating 27 studies which had adopted Gardner's social psychological approach, Au demonstrated that only seven of those studies yielded a positive relationship between components of integrative motivation and FL achievement. The other studies either yielded a negative relationship or no relationship at all.

The second period, the cognitive-situated period, took place during the 1990s and proved to be a decade permeated with growing dissatisfaction and ambivalence towards integrative motivation (Dörnyei, 2005), wherein a focus on the importance of goals in FL motivation began. This was a period characterised by "a more situated analysis of motivation in specific learning contexts", and "the need to bring language motivation research in line with the cognitive revolution in mainstream motivational psychology" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 46), replacing earlier concepts of drives or needs with the cognitive concept of goal. A focus that aligns with the premise of this study that establishing learner goals is the drive that leads students to take control of their FLL process.

Gardner's definition of integrativeness was criticised for being too narrow as it did not take into account contexts without a salient FL community, and calls (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994) took place during this decade to expand the FL motivation construct. Not only were there difficulties in distinguishing the labels of integrativeness versus integrative motivation, but researchers also felt that the integrative orientation could not

explain the learning experience of many FL learners residing in communities in which the TL was not spoken.

More importantly, the increasing globalisation of English (Crystal, 2003) started to question any one community laying claim to this language, as did the fact that many had insufficient experience to develop particular attitudes or integrative motivation towards a target community (Lamb, 2004). English learners no longer associated the language with only one group of English native speakers such as the British or the North Americans, but with the English media or local proficient English speakers in their own community. As Dörnyei and Csizér (2002, p. 453) remark, the process of globalisation has changed the concept of integrativeness in that English is now considered an international language that is rapidly losing its national cultural base, while becoming associated with a global culture, and as a result, the traditional definition of integrativeness has weakened. A ripple effect that also extends to EFL learners studying in an English-speaking country higher education context and will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.1.1.

Norton (2000) urged for critical re-examination of the integrative concept and questioned the assumption that language learners can be clearly characterised as motivated or unmotivated, with clear-cut target identities, since motivation and identity are socially constructed, often in inequitable relations of power, changing over time and space, and possibly coexisting in contradictory ways in the individual. Her argument being that such a simple view seriously misrepresents the complex sociolinguistic realities of language learning, where multidimensional identities and pluralism (rather than integration) are the norm. The motivation of highly engaged and enthusiastic learners cannot necessarily be explained by the construct of integrativeness, whose underlying principle, the wish to identify oneself with the community of the language being learnt, is losing relevance in a globalised context or is simply untenable for FL learners using English in a global language context (Coetzee Van-Roy, 2006, p. 447).

From the 1990s onward, increased attention was paid to cognitive theories which could better account for motivational processes, as researchers increasingly recognised that motivation is a complex, multi-faceted construct that cannot be defined adequately in terms of the instrumental/integrative dichotomy. In response, dynamic theories that drew from the fields of

educational and cognitive psychology began to acknowledge the importance of learner self-concept, goals and environment within FL motivation, namely, four theories (discussed in detail to follow): Dörnyei's (1994) three-level motivational framework that acknowledges the self, the TL and the learning environment as interrelated concepts; Deci and Ryan's (1985) Self-Determination Theory (SDT); and Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) reexamination of learner goal theory, emphasising the relevance of goal setting and attainment, subsequently, consolidated by the social constructivist model of Williams and Burden (1997).

Dörnyei (1994) addresses problematic issues surrounding Gardner's terminology, measurement and the relationship between motivation and orientation. In terms of terminology, Dörnyei argues that it is confusing to have three components at three different levels of Gardner's model of integrative motivation, which use the term "integrative" (integrativeness, integrative motivation, and integrative orientation). In regard to measurement issues, he also disagrees with Gardner's inclusion of effortful behaviour within the conceptualisation of FL motivation, since it contradicts the theory that motivation causes behaviour, which in turn causes FL achievement. Gardner (1985, p. 54) posits that an individual's motivation is separate from their orientation: motivation refers to a complex of three characteristics which may or may not be related to any particular orientation. These characteristics are attitudes toward learning the language, a desire to learn the language, and motivational intensity, whereas an orientation refers to a set of reasons for learning an FL. However, in Gardner's model of integrative motivation, orientation is not independent, since it includes integrative orientation. Instead, Dörnyei (1994) proposes the following three-level motivational framework that begins to define learner motivation as a dynamic process that comprises the TL, the learner self-concept and the learning environment:

1. The language level, which concerns ethnolinguistic, cultural-affective, intellectual, and pragmatic values and attitudes attached to the TL. These values and attitudes are, to a large extent, determined by the social milieu in which the learning takes place, and can be described comprehensively by using the traditional concepts of integrative and instrumental motivation.
2. The learner level, which concerns various fairly stable personality traits that the learner has developed in the past. We can identify two

motivational components underlying the motivational processes at this level: need for achievement and self-confidence, the latter encompassing various aspects of language anxiety, perceived FL competence, attributions about past experiences, and self-efficacy.

3. The learning situation level, which is associated with situation-specific motives rooted in various aspects of language learning in a classroom setting. According to Dörnyei (2005), the FLL experience is primarily concerned with the immediate learning environment and is concerned with the executive motives of learning situations such as the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, and the experience of success.

The SDT model proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985) defines learner motivation as a dynamic process between the learner and his/her environment, taking cognizance of individuals' desire to construct a self that is both integrated within itself, the environment, and those within it. Drawing from principles in humanistic psychology, SDT maintains that people have an innate tendency to explore and master novel aspects of their environment and assimilate these new experiences into their existing self-structures. With each new experience, a person considers other possible actions in light of their current interests, and then acts in a way that reflects the best correspondence with these interests. A person's actions are considered authentic when they are endorsed by the person and are congruent with other value commitments that a person holds. With regard to language learning, the more people feel that learning and using a language are congruent with the other values that they have, the more motivated they will be to engage in learning and using the language (McEown et al., 2014). As might be the case when learning English as a global language.

Deci and Ryan's (1985) SDT proposes that there are different types of motivation, reflecting different levels of self-determination concerning the extent to which behaviour originates from the self. Intrinsic motivation is the most self-determined form of motivation and occurs when a person engages in an activity for its own sake, for pleasure and satisfaction derived from it. Learners find intrinsic motivating tasks interesting and challenging, reducing the amount of effort with which students pursue learning tasks in the face of obstacles and failures. Extrinsic motivation involves engaging in an activity as a means to an end rather than for its intrinsic qualities. According to SDT, there are several types of extrinsic motivations, differing in their underlying level of

self-determination. From the lowest to the highest levels of self-determination, the different types of extrinsic motivation are:

- External: performed because of external demand or possible reward.
- Introjected: behaviours are partly internalised, but this internalisation is not coherent with other aspects of the self, e.g. to rid themselves of guilt, lessen anxiety, or maintain a positive self-image.
- Identified: behaviours are performed by choice because the individual considers them to be important, e.g. pursuing an uninteresting college education because it is an important step towards entering the job market in a desired field.
- Integrated: occurs when regulations are fully assimilated by the self and are included in a person's self-evaluations and beliefs on personal needs.
- Amotivation: a lack of intentionality and a relative absence of motivation, whether intrinsic or extrinsic.

An external source of motivation can progressively transform into an identified regulation (personal value) through internalisation. When a behaviour that was initially externally motivated becomes regulated by identification, it becomes as effective as intrinsically motivated behaviours in producing positive outcomes. Consequently, integrated regulation occurs when identified regulations are congruent with the individual's values and needs; therefore, Deci and Ryan (1985) posit that students are usually motivated both internally and externally.

Noels (2001) sees SDT and its ideas of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as useful predictors of individuals' attitudes towards and persistence in particular activities. She also sees in the fostering of self-regulation, competence and relatedness a means of helping learners develop more intrinsic forms of FL motivation, through which the learner's engagement in FLL (including effort in the sense of motivational intensity, persistence in learning, and willingness to communicate) can be enhanced (Noels, 2001, p. 60).

A decade later, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) proposed a varying theory on FL motivation that also stemmed from the field of educational and cognitive psychology. Tremblay and Gardner (ibid) conducted a study in a bilingual middle school, incorporating elements from expectancy-value theory (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002) and goal theories (Locke & Latham, 1990; Ames, 1992), which aimed to revise Gardner and Smythe's (1975) socio-educational model of FL

motivation and measure the following variables in relation to motivational behaviour:

1. Goal salience, which refers to the specificity of the language learners' goals and the frequency with which they use goal-setting strategies.
2. Valence, which is associated with the desire to learn the FL and attitudes toward learning it, since valence is defined in terms of desire and attractiveness toward a task (Lee, Locke, & Latham, 1989).
3. Self-efficacy, consisting of FL use anxiety, FL class anxiety, and performance expectancy, which refers to the expectancy of having the ability to perform various language activities successfully by the end of the course.

Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) study explains how goal salience is influenced by language attitudes, claiming that positive language attitudes will stimulate learners to develop specific language learning goals. They also conclude that language attitudes influence valence too, which in turn, has an effect on motivational behaviour, which suggests that when learning is valued, this leads to higher levels of motivational behaviour. Hence, the greater the likelihood perceived of attaining a given goal and the greater the value of the goal, the more motivated you will be to achieve the goal in question.

There is a similarity between goal-setting theory and expectancy-value theories in that commitment to achieving a given goal is enhanced when one believes that the goal is possible to achieve and important. According to Locke and Latham (2006, p. 265), the setting of goals is fundamentally a discrepancy-creating process, which implies discontent with one's present condition and the desire to attain a future object or outcome. Goals in Locke and Latham's (1990) goal-setting theory may differ in terms of difficulty, specificity, and goal commitment. Locke (1996) summarises the main findings of past research under five points: (i) the more difficult the goal, the greater the achievement; (ii) the more specific or explicit the goal, the more precisely performance is regulated; (iii) goals that are both specific and difficult lead to the highest performance; (iv) commitment to goals is most critical when goals are specific and difficult; and (v) high commitment to goals is attained when (a) the individual is convinced that the goal is important; and (b) the individual is convinced that the goal is attainable (or that, at least, progress can be made towards it). Locke and Latham's (1990) goal-setting theory was originally developed within the context of the workplace

but has been applied in educational settings with an emphasis on the role of proximal goal-setting. Correspondingly, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) also highlight the influence of language attitude on self-efficacy, and its consequential effect on motivational behaviour, suggesting high self-efficacy leads to high motivational levels (Bandura, 1991). A claim that resonates with the importance of self-confidence or the TL self discussed earlier in this chapter.

Self-efficacy theory, which is one of the expectancy-value theories, was formulated by Bandura (1994) and refers to people's judgements of their abilities to achieve certain tasks. This theory began as a way of understanding changes in behaviour. Bandura (1997) argued that people with problems generally know exactly what actions need to be taken to resolve those problems. However, only knowing how to behave is not enough to solve a problem. Confidence in the ability to behave in the way that is required is also necessary. An individual's sense of efficacy is related to motivation because it will determine their choice of activities, the amount of effort exerted as well as the level of persistence employed by the individual. Self-efficacy is similar to linguistic self-confidence (Clément et al., 1977), but refers to specific, concrete tasks, whereas linguistic self-confidence is used in a more general sense to describe an individual's overall perception of their ability to handle a wide range of tasks.

A few years later, Williams and Burden (1997) were among the first to emphasise the importance of finding out the explanation that people give for their success or failure in achievement settings, referred to as 'Attribution Theory' in psychology. Williams and Burden distinguished three stages of motivation in their proposed model: reasons for doing something; deciding to do something; and sustaining the effort or persisting. They argued that the first two stages are more concerned with initiating motivation, whereas the last stage refers to sustaining motivation. In addition, they assigned four sets of attributions for people's successes and failures: ability, effort, luck, and task difficulty. Consequently, Williams and Burden highlighted the conceptual distinction between motivation for engagement (reasons, wishes, intentions, decisions, and choices) and motivation during engagement (personal behaviour, feelings, and response while learning). They argued that these two aspects of motivation, also referred to as initiating motivation and sustaining motivation respectively, should be clearly differentiated, both from a theoretical perspective and a pedagogical perspective. This distinction led to the study of goals over

time, particularly the function of proximal goals and distal goals (e.g. Miller & Brickman, 2004; Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Lacante, 2004). Consequently, a shift in focus arose, giving birth to the third evolutionary phase of FL motivation research.

Ergo, the third period, the so-called process-oriented period, begins at the turn of this century and is characterised by an interest in motivational change and more process approaches to FL motivation. In regard to expanding the theoretical framework of FL motivation, Oxford and Shearin (1994) advocate that the new framework should allow for complicated changes over time in a student's reasons for learning a language. Similarly, Dörnyei (2001) argues that to account for the daily ebb and flow of motivation, a motivation construct that has a prominent temporal dimension should be developed, since language learners may experience motivational fluctuations within a single course or even on a daily basis. This period is important as it addresses the diachronic nature of motivation: an additional dynamic element that ascribes it a timeframe that extends from the past to the future as suggested in this study.

Magid (2011) posits that the most elaborate process model of FL motivation was developed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998), based on the concept of a contingent path. A construct introduced by Raynor (1974), it refers to a series of tasks where successful achievement is necessary to be guaranteed the opportunity to perform the next task, that is, to continue along the path over a period of time. In discussing vocational and career contexts, Raynor argues that it is difficult to imagine any sustained motivational disposition without some sort of a contingent path structure or timeline. Subsequently, and drawing on Heckhausen and Kuhl's (1985) Action Control Theory, Dörnyei and Ottó divide this contingent path into three main phases: (i) the preactional phase, which corresponds to 'choice motivation' leading to the selection of the goal or task to be pursued; (ii) the actional phase, which corresponds to 'executive motivation' which energises action while it is being carried out; and (iii) the post-actional phase, which involves critical retrospection either after action has been completed, or interrupted for a short period of time (e.g. for a holiday). Dörnyei and Ottó's model contains two main dimensions: an action sequence and motivational influences. The action sequence dimension represents the behavioural process whereby initial hopes, desires, and wishes are firstly transformed into goals and then into intentions. This process should gradually lead to action and then, hopefully, to the accomplishment of the goals after which

time the process undergoes a final evaluation. The motivational influences dimension includes the energy sources and motivational forces that underlie and fuel the behavioural process. Although Dörnyei has identified some weaknesses of the model, including its limited power to define actional process in a real classroom setting (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), the model does capture the dynamically changing motivation of individuals in a sequential manner, noticing a change in FL motivation as an important aspect.

The process-oriented approach also includes Shoaib and Dörnyei's (2005) qualitative study, which investigated the FL motivational changes of 25 learners of English over a period of about two decades, using retrospective interviews. The researchers identified the following six key transformational episodes which affected their participants' FL motivation: (i) maturation and gradually increasing interest in learning English; (ii) a standstill period during which the participants interrupted their English language learning because of other priorities; (iii) moving into a new life phase such as leaving school and starting work; (iv) internalising external goals and imported visions; (v) a relationship with a significant other; (vi) and time spent in the host environment. Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005) pointed out that each time their participants entered a new life phase, their language learning goals became more specific. There have been other longitudinal studies (Donitsa-Schmidt, Inbar, & Shohamy, 2004; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004) in recent years, which have also addressed the temporal dimension of motivation. A consistent finding in all these studies was that levels in FL motivation declined over the years, as language learners faced greater pressure in their life from their studies and other responsibilities.

The most recent approach to broaden the FL motivation construct is the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) proposed by Dörnyei (2009) (to be described in detail in Section 2.3.) and centred on future self-guides, which brings us into the fourth aforementioned socio-dynamic period. A period that serves as a main pillar to this study. Dörnyei and colleagues (2009, 2015b and 2016) offer three conceptual frameworks on the study of FL motivation as a dynamic process, two of which support the methodology and analysis of this investigation (to be outlined in detail in Chapter 4): the L2MSS and the Directed Motivational Current (DMC).

The L2MSS offers a synthesis of recent conceptualisations of FL motivation and research in personality psychology and is a main tenet in this study as it offers a

design based on future self-guides within FL motivation. Dörnyei (2009) defines integrativeness in a broader manner, claiming that an integrative motivational orientation concerns a positive interpersonal/affective disposition toward the FL community and the desire for affiliation with its members. It implies an openness to and respect for the other cultural group and its way of life. In the extreme, it might involve complete identification with the community and possibly even withdrawal from one's original group. In the absence of a salient FL group in the learners' environment, the identification can be generalised to the cultural and intellectual values associated with the TL. A core aspect of this integrative disposition being a psychological and emotional identification that stems from the self, the TL and the learning environment. However, MacIntyre et al. (2009a, 2009b) underscore that one of the limitations of the L2MSS may be its inability to attribute cultural variation to the concept of the self, an aspect discussed in more detail in Section 2.3. For example, Eastern and Western cultures may perceive the self very differently, as studies (e.g. Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009) have shown that Western cultures may view the self as being independent, whereas Eastern cultures may believe it is interdependent.

A DMC (Dörnyei, Henry & Muir, 2016) is also a conceptual framework that can be applied to the L2MSS and this study as it depicts unique periods of intensive motivational involvement both in pursuit of and fuelled by a highly valued goal/vision. A heightened motivational state that is maintained through the reinforcement of continual feedback, positive emotionality and the prospect of reaching a new level of mastery or FL competence. Similar to Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) theory of flow, but applicable to an FL context, Dörnyei and colleagues suggest that a DMC can energise language learners to perform beyond expectations and across several levels and timescales, including long-term engagements, acknowledging both the dynamic and diachronic nature of FL motivation.

Although not within the scope of this study, vanguard theorising presumed that the future lay along the dynamic path, the paucity of dynamic systems research, including the L2MSS, followed traditional non-dynamic research approaches. In response, Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry (2015b) initiated a large-scale project exploring the investigation of dynamic systems that could also support the L2MSS, inciting scholars to explore a more dynamic conceptualisation of FL motivation applying the principles of complex dynamic systems theory. They concluded that generalisations about individual learners are inadequate because

statistical averages cannot describe any particular individual. Enormous inter- and intra-individual differences exist even in a homogenous group and such differences can be 'concealed when averaged out' (de Bot, Verspoor & Lowie, 2007, p.17).

Effectively, the above brief review of the four distinct periods of FL motivation research outlines the varying theories that have inasmuch evolved and adapted, diachronically and synchronically to the needs of FL motivation research since the 1950s. This now takes us up to the focal plane of this study, the L2MSS and the application of future self-guides as a suitable gauge of the self within FL motivation, to be described in detail in Section 2.3. Before we review the dynamic concept of the self through the theory of SRL, however, it is necessary to briefly review the TL of this study and its learning context, as both play a significant role, as acknowledged, to some degree, throughout the four distinct periods of FL motivation:

1. In the first socio-psychological period, integrativeness assumes learners want to adopt the TL culture;
2. in the second cognitive-situated period, globalisation begins to address the ambivalence of the TL culture;
3. in the third process-oriented period, SDT associates TL congruence with other learner values to an increase in FL learner engagement;
4. and lastly, in the fourth socio-dynamic period, Dörnyei's L2MSS highlights that in the absence of a salient FL group in the learners' environment, identification can be generalised to the cultural and intellectual values associated with the TL.

Dörnyei (2005) underscores that the FLL experience primarily concerns the immediate learning environment, which includes the executive motives of learning situations. In the case of this study, the present role of English as a lingua franca may influence the relationship between the learner and the FL as English is learnt under different constraints to that of another FL, such as French or Japanese. Instead of a TL culture, learners of English are investing in an, albeit undefined, global community, which will consequently affect the internationalisation of their self-image, namely how they relate to the world and other languages. Therefore, it is necessary to review this community of interest, particularly the role of English as an international language in education, the reasons for learning this language, and how learners approach this situation.

2.1.1. Cultural Capital and Investment

Bourdieu (1980) defines cultural capital as:

Cultural capital is the accumulation of knowledge, behaviours and skills that one can tap into to demonstrate one's cultural competence, and thus one's social status or standing in society. [*l'ensemble des ressources actuelles ou potentielles qui sont liées à la possession d'un réseau durable de relations plus ou moins institutionnalisées d'interconnaissance et d'interreconnaissance; ou, en d'autres termes, à l'appartenance à un groupe, comme ensemble d'agents qui ne sont pas seulement dotés de propriétés communes ... mais sont aussi unis par des liaisons permanentes et utiles* – original text] (Bourdieu, 1980, p. 2).

It is now an established notion that how learners conceptualise the TL has major implications for the entire language learning process (e.g. Ushioda, 2011a). In fact, learners taking an international posture, opting to use English and other languages as a medium for communication rather than identifying with the TL, whether through the study of the TL as a school subject, or the use of language to interact with English speakers in a global community, has become a crucial issue. Consequently, in recent years, research on FL motivation concerning the English language is usually set against the background of language globalisation, particularly how the prevalent use of English for international purposes and questions related to the 'ownership' of Global English (Widdowson, 1997) affects students' willingness to learn this international language (Dörnyei, 2005).

Upon revision of the integrative concept and the globalisation of English, Norton (2000) develops the motivational concept of 'investment' to capture the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the TL, and their often-ambivalent desire to learn and practise it. Norton's notion of 'investment' is influenced by Bourdieu's (1977) concept of cultural capital. Bourdieu's (1986) concept of cultural capital refers to the collection of symbolic elements such as skills, tastes, posture, clothing, mannerisms, material belongings, or credentials that one acquires through being part of a particular social class. Sharing similar forms of cultural capital with others such as the same taste in movies or a degree from an Ivy League School,

creates a sense of collective identity and group position, yet can also be a major source of social inequality.

Norton's (2000) study on female immigrants to Canada learning English concluded that learners invest in a TL because they believe that they will acquire a range of symbolic and material resources, which will enhance their cultural capital, their conception of themselves, and their desires for the future. Because investment is future oriented, learners invest in complex identities that change across time and space. Individuals learn the language of others because they need to increase their capital resources and to fit into their imagined communities (Anderson, 1991; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007). A situation that is applicable to learners of English in the UK. Within their hopes for the future, these language learners have a desired community that offers possibilities to increase their capital. Hence, it is important to establish the key factors that influence learners to invest in themselves and in the task of learning an FL (Ushioda, 2008).

Oxford (2015) posits that the positive decision to invest in learning an FL is most easily made when learners perceive that the current sociocultural power relations are welcoming, and they believe that the effort will result in resources that ultimately enhance cultural capital, identity, and future desires. Alternatively, learners might choose to resist language learning when the aforementioned points do not apply.

Inevitably, certain forms of cultural capital are valued over others, as they are perceived to help or hinder one's social mobility. The TL of this study is English, and the TL context is English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in the UK, defined by Bourdieu (1986) as an institutionalized form of capital culture. According to Bourdieu, cultural capital comes in three forms: embodied, objectified, and institutionalized. An accent or dialect is an example of embodied cultural capital; a luxury car or record collection are examples of cultural capital in its objectified state; and in its institutionalized form, cultural capital refers to credentials and qualifications such as degrees or titles that symbolize cultural competence and authority. For example, almost all academic articles and books are published exclusively in English (Lillis & Curry, 2010). Warschauer (2000) emphasises that globalisation has created a new society in which English is shared by numerous groups of non-native speakers rather than dominated by native-speakers, which has led to the

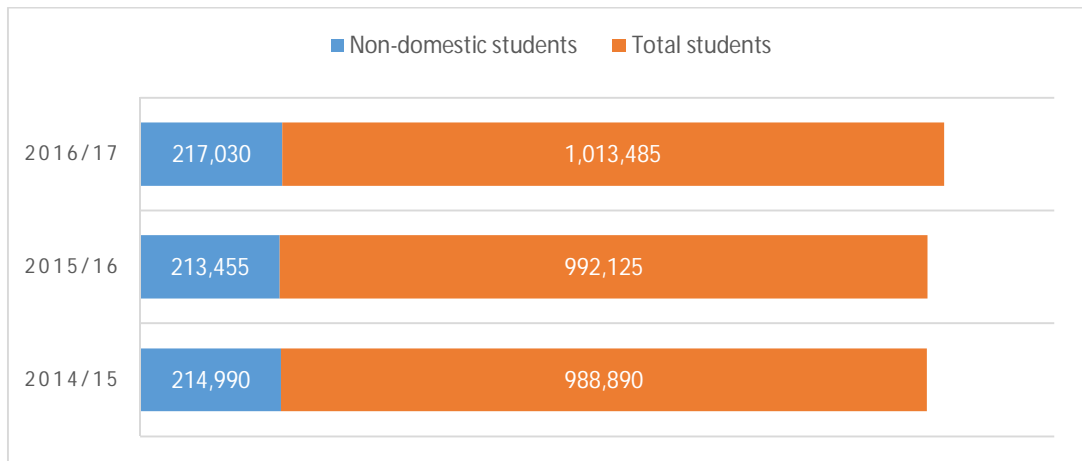
ubiquitous use of English as a medium for teaching and learning worldwide to non-native speakers.

Ball and Lindsay (2013) question whether this growing presence of English constitutes evidence of its institutional hegemony or popular reception as a form of 'linguistic capital'. English is widely perceived as an indispensable asset in terms of gaining access to higher education institutions or the ranks of professionals. A mastery of English aids upward and outward mobility, and the use of English as a medium for teaching and learning in higher education, referred to as English medium higher education (EMHE), is generally perceived as a catalyst toward that goal, particularly when undertaken in an English-speaking country (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013a, 2013b). Critical linguists may regard this as proof of the global hegemony of English, but far more societal evidence points toward English being embraced as a form of linguistic capital which is crucial for sustaining the economic vitality of countries and has great potential for enhancing the future prospects of university graduates, and the international standing of universities. For example, participants in a study by Cots (2013), investigating students' acceptance of English as part of their academic profession, acknowledged learning English as pivotal to subsistence in the academic environment. Moreover, his results concluded that English is accepted as the default FL and is one of the keys to internationalisation. However, politically and socially, English in higher education programmes may generate increasing controversy in that graduates will belong to an elite who are well paid, communicate regularly through English with international colleagues, discuss matters of global significance, in a way that differentiates them from the others of society (Wilkinson, 2013).

EAP refers to the language and associated practices that people need in order to undertake study or work in EMHE. The objective of an EAP course is to provide students with the linguistic and cultural, mainly institutional and disciplinary, practices involved in studying or working through the medium of English. EAP learners need to learn English and pass their EAP course in order to go on to higher education and succeed in their academic endeavours. Most EMHEs in the United Kingdom offer EAP courses to prospective students who want to undertake undergraduate or postgraduate study in their institution, but do not have the entry-level requirement of English. The most recent figures published by HESA (n.d.), experts in UK higher education

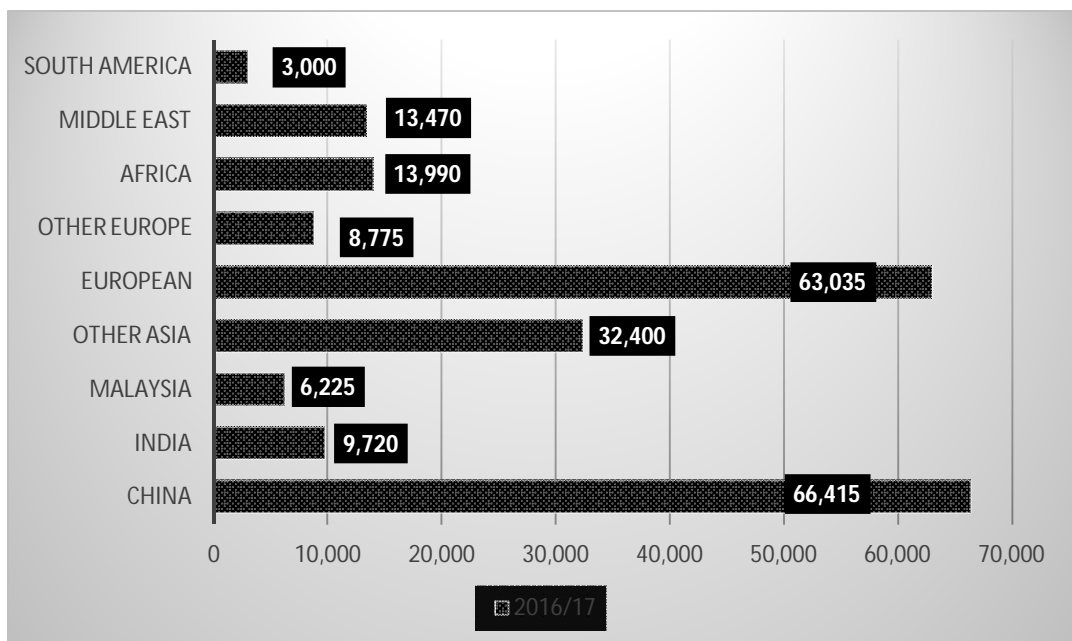
data and analysis, state that first year non-domestic students studying wholly overseas for a UK higher education qualification comprised 21 per cent of the total intake of students in 2016/2017, the majority of which were Chinese (see Figures 2 and 3). Consequently, Chinese students attract the lion's share of most EAP courses, and for this reason compose the bulk of participants in this study.

Figure 2: First year non-domestic students studying for a UK higher education qualification



Source: <https://www.hesa.ac.uk/data-and-analysis/students/international-study>

Figure 3: Nationalities of first year non-domestic students studying for a UK higher education qualification in 2016/2017



Source: HESA (n.d.) <https://www.hesa.ac.uk/data-and-analysis/students/international-study>

EAP is an interesting context to study FL motivation, as it appears to be an ideal motivational context in which the stakes are generally high, and the goals are clear as to what is required to succeed in gaining entry into a UK university. However, some students struggle to maintain focus and continue to lose momentum, a response some learners attribute to having to complete an additional process that may hamper their truly desired goal, an EMHE qualification. Having to surpass what may be deemed as an intermediary encumbering objective is not only a pedagogical challenge for both the teacher and the learner, but also a non-negotiable pre-requisite to enter a British university.

Overall, the previous brief diachronic review of FL motivation research over the past 60 years (Section 2.1.) intends to highlight the main events that have caused a reexamination of this concept as a result of its dynamic structure and globalisation, and how these circumstances have enabled this study to further understand the symbiotic process between the FL learner and motivation. A dynamic process that inextricably links the self, the TL and the learning environment. Indisputably, cultural investment is a significant driving force for FL learners in EMHE, many of whom will have to pass an EAP programme successfully beforehand. Inevitably, in this situation, onus reverts to the learner self to increase the investment in a future asset. In other words, the mastery of English as an academic language to attain an EMHE qualification and gain social mobility.

Accordingly, the next section focusses on the learner self in relation to SRL. Current literature on theories and research is reviewed that supports this study in its efforts to increase FLL investment through self-regulation. As defined at the beginning of this section, if learner motivation can be understood as a state or behaviour that arouses a person to action toward a desired goal, it is this objective that is ascribed to the self, extending across a timeframe that includes before, during and after. Ushioda (2014a, 2014b) accurately underscores that the bulk of research on FL motivation, during the four periods reviewed in this section, has effectively focused on a future-oriented dimension of motivation based on the largely extrinsic goals and purposes shaping people's engagement in FLL. Goals and objectives that are fully internalised or self-determined are likely to sustain motivation better than those that are less internalised or those that are externally imposed and regulated by others. Without a personal long-term objective of this kind, it may be difficult to sustain motivated engagement

in FLL. Indeed, an additional element is required to put this mechanism into practice, namely, SRL. So how exactly does SRL contribute to the FLL process? To follow, a brief review of the composition of SRL in relation to FL motivation and future self-guides.

2.2. Self-Regulated Learning

Self-Regulated Learning (SRL) is defined by Zimmerman (1989a, p. 4) as, 'the degree to which individuals are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active participants in their own learning process.' Self-regulation describes the ways in which individuals activate and sustain the cognitions, affects and behaviours that are systematically oriented to learning goals (Schunk & Zimmerman 2008; Zimmerman 2000), linking the self with action, forming an intriguing interface between motivational psychology and future self-guides.

The concept of SRL developed in the 1980s and began receiving widespread attention in the 1990s (Dinsmore, Alexander, & Loughlin, 2008). Boekaerts (1999) attributes the current understanding of SRL to three schools of thought: research on learning styles, research on metacognition and regulation styles, and theories of the self (including goal-directed behaviour). At the first self-access language learning centre at CRAPEL (Centre de Recherches et d'Applications Pédagogiques en Langues / Center for Research and Applications in Language) it was argued that in order to carry out effective SRL, adult learners would need to develop skills related to self-management, self-monitoring and self-assessment. Although learners might draw on the support of counsellors, teachers or other learners, the important thing about learner training was that it should be based on the practice of SRL itself. Self-regulation was understood as the key to learning languages and to learning how to learn languages. Lennon (2010), similarly, argues that self-regulation is relevant for understanding academic outcomes because it refers to a student's ability to marshal individual resources toward achieving academic goals, and when fostered can augment academic performance. These claims undoubtedly support further research in the field of fostering SRL in the EAP classroom.

Based on the premise that learners who lack self-regulation are capable of developing it given appropriate conditions and preparation, self-regulation is considered a cyclical process in which learners plan and set their goals, perform activities and reflect on the efficiency of the learning techniques they use. As a

result, self-regulated students can be described as intrinsically motivated, aware of their preferred learning styles, and persistent in pursuing their goals (Zimmerman, 1994). In other words, self-regulated individuals regard themselves as agents who make choices and act on their choices (Martin, 2004). According to Zimmerman (1998), self-regulated learners, whether historic or contemporary, are distinguished by their view of academic learning as something they do for themselves rather than as something that is done to or for them, an approach that would address an overreliance on teacher dependency among learners. Zimmerman's (2000) model of SRL, which will be applied to the theoretical framework employed in this study, has the three following cyclical phases, corresponding to before, during, and after SRL takes place:

1. The Forethought phase refers to the processes preceding learning performance and is composed of two components: (i) Task Analysis, which includes goal setting and strategic planning; and (ii) Self-Motivation Beliefs, which includes self-efficacy, outcome expectations, task value/interests, and goal orientation.
2. The Performance or Volitional Control phase concerns the processes occurring during the learning performances and is characterised by two types of processes: (i) Self Control, which includes task strategies, imagery, self-instructions, time management, environmental structuring, and help seeking; and (ii) Self Observation, which includes metacognitive self-monitoring, and self-recording.
3. The Self-Reflection phase refers to an individuals' self-evaluation of their effort and outcomes, followed by adjustment and implementation of the first and second phases. This final phase is also composed of two components: (i) Self Judgement, which includes self-evaluation and causal attribution; and (ii) Self-Reaction, which includes self-satisfaction/affect, and adaptive/defensive.

Zimmerman's model reflects Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, underlining social foundations of thinking and behaviour, in which SRL is defined as a goal-oriented process, emphasising its constructive or self-generated nature. Monitoring, regulating and controlling one's own learning includes cognitive but also motivational, emotional and social factors, and takes place during the performance phase, whereas feedback occurs in the appraisal phase. In other words, SRL proceeds from some kind of a preparatory or preliminary phase, through the actual performance or task completion phase to

an appraisal or adaptation phase. A cyclical process, in that those appraisals influence subsequent preparatory processes (Puustinen & Pulkkinen, 2001). It is this course of action that establishes an explicit link between the learner's self-system and self-guided behaviour, which allows future self-guides to shed light on how individuals are moved from the present towards the future.

Cognitive strategies are operations carried out directly on the material to be learned, whereas metacognitive strategies make use of knowledge of cognitive processes to regulate the learning process. To develop and apply metacognitive know-how, learners need to feel motivated to do so. To be motivated, they need to experience a sense of personal agency in this process. McCombs (1994) suggests that an essential precondition for the exercise of will and skill is learners' awareness of their own agency in constructing the thoughts, beliefs, goals, attributions and expectations that shape their motivation. Unless learners understand their own cognitive agency in this regard, they cannot realise their potential to exercise control over their thinking and thus control over their motivation and learning (Ushioda, 2014a, 2014b).

The self-regulated learner is essentially one who is capable of reflection at appropriate moments in the learning process and of acting upon the results (Benson, 2011, 2013). Galileo Galilei (1564-1642) said that you cannot teach a man anything, you can only help him find it within himself. In this sense, reflection plays a pivotal role within the self-regulated learner, and is a determining factor in the substantiation, regular activation and maintenance of effectual future self-guides (Sherrill & Hoyle, 2006).

From a Vygotskian perspective, the notion of inner speech can assist in our understanding of how reflection functions as a bridge between social interaction in learning and self-direction (Benson, 2011, pp. 41-42). An association that originates from the silent expression of conscious thought to oneself, inextricably linked to the concept of self, from which future self-guides ensue. Within the framework of sociocultural theory, the goal of all learning is what Vygotsky (1978, p. 86), refers to as 'independent problem solving'. This goal is achieved through the social-interactive process of joint problem solving with others such as parents, teachers or more capable peers. A central principle of this theory is that the interior language of thought developed by the learner to achieve this metacognitive control is internalised from the social-interactive

discourse of joint problem solving with more capable others, during which various strategies and solutions are discussed and talked through.

By actively participating in the social speech (Vygotsky 1987) of problem-focused interaction, the learner gradually internalises these vocalised strategic processes as the inner speech of metacognition, which may also occasionally surface as audible private speech, talking aloud to oneself to regulate one's thinking and concentration during a complex task. This is more than just a question of providing support to learners, since the purpose of scaffolding is not simply to help learners solve a problem, but rather to develop their willingness and metacognitive ability to think through the problem for themselves. Oxford (1990, p. 140) argues that good language learners are often those who know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning by using affective strategies such as lowering anxiety, encouraging themselves and taking their emotional temperatures. As in the employment of imagery techniques in future-self guides, namely, mental simulations and guided and scripted imagery advocated in various studies outlined in Section 3.2.2., a study carried out by Hurd (2007) concluded that one of the strategies language learners can employ to control their emotions involves self-talk or reassurance.

Psychologists Sheila Harri-Augstein and Laurie Thomas (1991) developed an approach to the development of self-organised learning known as the 'learning conversation', which enables the learner to challenge his or her personal myths about themselves as a learner and to convert these into a viable, systematically validated set of myths that warrant the title 'personal theory' (1991, p. 27). This approach can assist in the plausibility of future self-guides, in that learners are required to offset realistic and unrealistic ideals and fears through the ongoing review of their development and attainment of goals. Harri-Augstein and Thomas posit that we do not necessarily learn from life's experiences, only through awareness, reflection and review of such encounters from within a conscious system of personal beliefs, values, needs and purposes. Little (1991, p. 21) adds that 'the crucial trigger to total self-organisation in learning' occurs at a stage of reflection at which the focus of attention shifts to the process of learning itself, a situation which is entirely applicable to academic future self-guides, as this reflection is intricately linked to the attainment of an FL and academic objectives. However, as Harri-Augstein and Thomas observe, most learners find it difficult to attain this stage on their own without professional assistance. For this reason, it is crucial that a conceptual framework is designed

for future self-guides that fosters the practice of reflection through an ongoing dialogue with the self, the skilled assistance of practitioners and peers.

A recent review of self-regulation studies, between 1997 and 2008, by Lennon (2010), concluded that this field of research is still struggling to develop a widely accepted assessment of SRL and suffers from a number of measurement issues, predominantly self-report. The sheer number of measures being used makes it difficult to compare results across studies and confounds efforts to further refine a model of SRL. Lennon concludes that behavioural, emotional, and cognitive self-regulation all likely play a role in influencing a student's learning and performance, and to date, the relationship of each of these two outcomes has not been specified satisfactorily, akin to whether self-regulation is subject-specific due to variations in motivation or past experiences with a certain type of task.

During the 1980s, researchers crystallized an expanded model of SRL through the development of several instruments that included metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural assessments. These included the Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (Weinstein, Schulte, & Palmer, 1987), a self-report measure of 10 subscales and 80 items; the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1993), another self-report measure consisting of 81 items and two major subscales; and the Self-Regulated Learning Interview Scale (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986), in which students' open-ended responses to six problem contexts are coded into 14 self-regulatory categories that reflect the metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural components. Additionally, a variety of observational measures have been developed, especially for use in younger samples.

To date, many measurement approaches have relied on students to report whether and how they are engaging in self-regulation, so the very act of measuring self-regulation intervenes in the student's learning environment and may affect the skill being investigated (Lennon, 2010). When SRL is seen as an aptitude, it is abstracted over multiple self-regulation events and measurement formats, whereas, when SRL is seen as an event, as in this study, it is a more localized phenomenon that is defined with a beginning and end point in time (Winne & Perry, 2000).

This study intends to present a refined measure of SRL, described in Section 4.5.1., which expands in the direction of domain-specific models of FLL

motivation such as future self-guides, based on Zimmerman's (2000) SRL model. The aim is to offer convincing empirical evidence that matches practitioners' experience-based intuitions that the practices associated with fostering SRL are effective either in helping learners to take greater control over their learning or in improving FL learning.

Before we conclude this section, it is necessary to address whether the questionable area of the centrality of the self-regulated learner as a motivational construct seems only appropriate when discussing motivation in Western societies, where individualism is a strongly held cultural value. According to cross-cultural psychologists (e.g. Hofstede, 2001), people from Western societies tend to hold relatively individualistic values, which emphasise the importance of self-determination and achieving personal goals, along with independent self-constructs, which involve a sense of oneself as self-sufficient and separate from the social context (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Concerns about the cultural appropriateness of the idea of the self-regulated learner in non-Western contexts, applicable to the context of this study, were first raised by Riley (1988), who asked whether a concept that is largely grounded in Western discourses on philosophy, psychology, and education can be relevant to non-Western contexts. Although cultural appropriateness is often seen as the Achilles' heel of motivational dimensions such as SRL, Little (1999) argues that they are not culturally-specific as they are grounded in assumptions about the psychology of learning, which validates its ongoing investigation among Asian learners, as in this study. However, Little underscores that the ways in which teachers foster SRL should be contextually appropriate, an element considered in the conceptual framework of this study and discussed in Section 4.3.2.

Having outlined the motivational and SRL theories that have influenced and brought about the conceptual notion of FL future self-guides, it is now necessary to review this construct in its own right. Only then, will it be possible to design a conceptual framework that supports and fosters motivation and SRL among EFL learners, in the hope of improving FL learning. So how exactly can future self-guides ignite motivation, SRL and FL gains? The subsequent section in this chapter offers a broad outline of the different aspects required to nurture these outcomes, inasmuch as it explains the proposal of future self-guides as an alternative and more suitable gauge of the dynamic state of the self.

2.3.Possible Selves

Markus and Nurius (1986) provide the following definition for possible selves:

Possible selves are the ideal selves that we would very much like to become. They are also the selves we could become and the selves we are afraid of becoming. (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954).

In order to understand the construct of future self-guides, first it is necessary to explain the overarching role of possible selves within this framework. Pajares and Schunk (2005, p. 105) define self-concept as, 'a self-description judgment that includes an evaluation of competence and the feelings of self-worth associated with the judgment in question' in a specific domain. This self-related construct embraces both affective and cognitive dimensions and is defined broadly to capture sets of beliefs related to a specific domain and across a range of contexts. Burden (2010) adds that the interaction between our self-image and our self-esteem is usually considered to lead to the construction of our self-concept.

Many ideas of the early self theorists (e.g. Allport, 1943; Kelly, 1955; Krech & Crutchfield, 1948; Snygg & Combs, 1949) argued that the self-structure is the most important in the psychological field as it organises the individual's interpretations of the world. Traditionally, self-concept has been viewed as a hierarchical, multidimensional model (Marsh & Shavelson, 1985), and discussions in psychology-based research have centred originally on whether self-concept should be considered a stable personality trait or a dynamic situational construct (Pelham, 1991). Over the years, research has provided conflicting evidence which has led some researchers to conclude that self-concept is likely to be composed of both dimensions. Academics have attempted to provide an explanation of this issue by proposing that change could be understood in terms of continuity, or what Giddens (1991) terms as a biographical continuity: an ongoing narrative project in which we tell stories of ourselves by weaving events from the past and present with projected events from the future to create an array of possible stories. For example, the tripartite model proposed by Sedikides and Brewer (2001) suggests that self-concept consists of three fundamental self-representations: individual, relational and collective. In this model, the 'individual self' is formed through processes of social comparisons through which one seeks to establish ways in which one is

unique and distinguishable to others. The 'relational self' relies on processes of reflected appraisal from significant others in relationships, and the 'collective self' identifies with a larger social group and considers ways in which one has the characteristics of the group based on comparisons of one's own group with others. However, this study agrees with Kashima, Kashima, and Aldridge (2001) and Mercer (2011b, 2011c) in that the self can always be conceptualised in relation to something else and, therefore, determined relationally. Indeed, the self should be considered as a complex dynamic system that cannot be understood independently from its setting and is not solely connected to one specific context.

Markus and Nurius (1986) claim, as proposed in this study, that a focus on the self-knowledge that accompanies an individual's goals, fears, and threats, is a natural extension of a cognitive approach to the study of the self-concept. In this approach the self-concept is viewed as a system of affective/cognitive structures (also called theories or schemas) about the self that lends structure and coherence to the individual's self-relevant experiences. In particular domains, these well-elaborated structures of the self shape the perceiver's expectations. Self-definitions are construed primarily as goals or ideals and are described as conceptions of the self as having a readiness to engage in certain classes of behaviour, conceptualising goals as a vital part of the self-concept.

In their seminal paper, Markus and Nurius (1986) propose one of the most powerful mechanisms to describe how the self regulates behaviour by setting goals and expectations through their concept of 'possible selves'. Through the selection and construction of possible selves individuals can be viewed as active producers of their own development. Markus and Nurius's notion of 'possible selves' concerns how people conceptualise their as-yet unrealised potential, and as such, it also draws on hopes, wishes and dreams. A concept that presents three possibilities:

1. Ideal selves that we would very much like to become.
2. Selves that we could become.
3. Selves that we are afraid of becoming.

The first possibility refers to the best-case scenario: the ideal or hoped-for self, which might include the successful self, the creative self, the rich self, the thin self, or the loved and admired self. The second is the default option, and the third

relates to the worst-case scenario: the feared self, which could be the depressed self, the incompetent self, the alcoholic self, the unemployed self, or the bag lady self (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 954). However, it is the integration of dreams within the self-concept construct that marks Markus and Nurius's possible selves as truly innovative (Segal, 2006).

The mechanisms in translating possible selves into actions depend on whether these self-representations are employed in one's working self-concept: the set of self-conceptions that are presently active in thought and memory (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 957). The working self-concept can be viewed as a continually active, shifting array of available self-knowledge. The array changes as individuals experience variation in internal states and social circumstances. The content of the working self-concept depends on what self-conceptions have been active just before; on what has been elicited or made dominant by the particular social environment; and on what has been more purposefully invoked by the individual in response to a given experience, event, or situation (ibid). Both recent and classic literature of the self (e.g. Greenwald, 1980) highlight the individual's apparent tendency to distort information or events so as to verify or sustain the prevailing view of self. When a possible self is active in the working self-concept, we may often appear to be behaving in ways that are inconsistent, erratic, or seriously at odds with what others perceive to be our usual selves. The importance of possible selves in self-definition is thus critical in explaining the frequent lack of agreement between individuals' self-perceptions and how they are viewed by others (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

While Markus and Nurius' work posits multiple possible selves, including, for example, more than one Ideal self, the theoretical premise of this study aligns with their contemporary Higgins (1987), who conceives future-oriented self dimensions as a single ideal and a single ought-self for each individual. Higgins views these dimensions as composite self-guides that sum up all the relevant attributes, albeit accepting that there are several other types of self-representations beyond the ideal or ought-self concepts. Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory, which drew on Rogers (1951), wherein the two key components are the ideal self and the ought-self, postulates that people are motivated to reach a condition where their self-concept matches their personally relevant self-guides (the ideal self, the ought-self, or feared self). Discrepancy between these and the actual self, initiates distinctive self-regulatory strategies with the aim to reduce the discrepancy. Ideal self-guides have a promotion focus,

concerned with hopes, aspirations, advancements, growth and accomplishments. Ought self-guides have a prevention focus, regulating the absence or presence of negative outcomes associated with failing to live up to various responsibilities and obligations. As Higgins emphasises, this distinction is in line with the age-old motivational principle that people approach pleasure and avoid pain (Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006).

The premise of this study, and for much scholarly research at present, focusses on the importance of self-concept and possible selves as a result of Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2MSS, proposed in response to a need to reconceptualise the construct of integrativeness, so that it would be both compatible with the changing global profile of FLL and would incorporate research theories from motivational psychology. Dörnyei speculated that the process of identification theorised to underpin integrativeness might be better explained as an internal process of identification within the person's self-concept, rather than identification with an external reference group. The stimulus for Dörnyei's L2MSS was his research with Kata Csizér and Nóra Németh (2006) in which they conducted a repeated stratified national survey between 1993 and 2004 on the motivation of 13,391 middle school students in Hungary toward studying five TLs (English, German, French, Italian, and Russian) (Magid, 2011).

The L2MSS is proposed as a way of making sense of the complex relationship between motivation, the learner's concept of self and the learning context. Instead of viewing learners with integrative orientation, it reconceptualises this notion, and learners are seen to have an open respect for the FL speaking community. Based on the concepts of 'possible selves' from social psychology (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and Self-Discrepancy Theory (Higgins, 1987), Dörnyei identifies two aspects of the learner's self-concept, the Ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self. To which Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) add there are two distinct types of instrumentality: promotional and preventional. The former they argue pertains to regulating positive outcomes, while the latter relates to controlling negative outcomes. When our ideal self is associated with being professionally successful, instrumental motives with a promotion focus, such as learning English for the sake of professional/career advancement, are related to the Ideal L2 self. In contrast, instrumental motives with a prevention focus, such as studying so as not to fail an exam or not to disappoint one's parents, are part of the ought-to L2 self.

The FLL experience is also an important part of the L2MSS, as role models and other external influences can help the learners successfully conceptualize the Ideal and ought-to selves. Language learning experiences are not limited to the classroom, but instead include both structured and naturalistic language learning experiences. Interactions with other individuals, such as teachers, classmates or company employees, with artefacts and objects, as well as self-study, are subsumed under the construct of language learning experience, which is also particularly important in terms of the 'other' dimension in Higgins's work (Thompson & Vásquez, 2015). All of which play a pivotal role in the theoretical framework of this study.

Dörnyei postulates that a vivid conception of an Ideal L2 self can act as a powerful motivator in learning a language, providing a clear image for which the learner can strive. This in turn can act as a guide for the setting of intermediary goals. Although the origin of Dörnyei's L2MSS theoretical model was firmly set in previous research in the FL field, it represents a major reformation of previous motivational thinking by its explicit utilisation of psychological theories of the self. Dörnyei's L2MSS describes motivation as being composed of the following three components:

1. The Ideal L2 self: if the person we would like to become speaks an FL, the Ideal L2 self is a powerful motivator to learn the FL because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal self. Traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives would typically belong to this component.
2. The ought-to L2 self: the attributes that one believes they ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes. This dimension corresponds to Higgins's ought-self and relates to the more extrinsic (less internalised) type of instrumental motives.
3. The FLL Experience: situated, professional motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success). This component is conceptualised at a different level from the two self-guides, referring to the self aspects of a bottom-up process.

Although, to our knowledge, not tested within an EAP context in the United Kingdom, the L2MSS has been widely tested and validated (refer to Table 1 for a detailed breakdown of these studies, also contrasted and reviewed in the results

section of this study in Chapter 5) in a number of different countries such as Saudi Arabia, Hungary, Canada, China, Japan and Iran (Al-Shehri, 2009; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kim, 2009; Ryan, 2009a; Taguchi et al., 2009). In addition, these studies have relied on more than 6000 participants from three different samples: middle school students, university students (English majors and non-English majors), and working professionals. More recently, research in this area has relied on data from EFL learners in Sweden (Henry & Cliffordson, 2013), Hong Kong (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013), Hungary (Kormos & Csizér, 2014), Turkey (Thompson & Erdil, 2014), and Indonesia (Lamb, 2012). The majority of empirical studies based on this model have concentrated on EFL learners, with some focussing on alternative foreign languages (e.g. Thompson & Vásquez, 2015). These studies tested the relationship between the Ideal L2 self and integrativeness, concluding that integrativeness can be renamed as the Ideal L2 self. In fact, the Ideal L2 self had a consistently higher correlation with criterion measures than integrativeness. The following findings on the L2MSS are also pertinent to this study:

1. Current studies show that the L2MSS transcends national and culture-specific boundaries (e.g. Al-Shehri, 2009; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Ryan, 2009a; Taguchi et al., 2009).
2. It is sufficiently compatible with the emerging conceptualizations of identity, especially at the current age of globalization (e.g. Lamb, 2009; Segalowitz, Gatbonton, & Trofimovich, 2009; Yashima, 2009).
3. It is congruent with other major FL motivation theories (Dörnyei, 2009; Kim, 2009).
4. It has the capacity to explain emotional constructs involved in the FLL process (Papi, 2010).

Dörnyei (2009) underscores that while there is a confusing plethora of self-related issues, from a motivational point of view the study of possible selves and future self-guides is one area of research on the self that stands out with its relevance. Dörnyei attributes the emergence of this subfield to a direct consequence of the success of personality trait psychology in defining the major and stable dimensions of personality (e.g. the Big Five model; see Dörnyei, 2005). These advances have paved the way for paying more attention to questions about how individual differences in personality are translated into behavioural characteristics, examining the “doing” sides of personality (Cantor, 1990, p. 735).

Consequently, recent theorising on FL motivation has identified the elements of future self-guides and vision as fundamental to the construal and activation of possible selves, and therefore to the framework employed in this study. As outlined earlier, future self-guides draw attention to the importance of one's self-concept in understanding motivational dispositions. One specific aspect of this complex notion, particularly relevant to motivation research, is the future dimension of the self-concept. In other words, not so much how people view themselves in the present, but how they imagine themselves in the future (Dörnyei, 2014), and how vision facilitates the potential significance of mental imagery, especially future self-images, in energising goal-specific behaviour. So how exactly do future self-guides and vision work together in the elaboration of effectual possible selves? To follow, a brief review of the composition of these two concepts.

Table 1: Survey of selected empirical studies grounded on Dörnyei's (2009) L2MSS

Author/s and year	Focus of enquiry	L2 Learning Experience	Context	Findings
Al-Shehri (2009)	How ideal L2 self relates to visual learning styles and imagination	Saudi Arabian EFL students in Saudi Arabia	Saudi EFL learners in Saudi Arabia	Individuals with a more developed visual/imaginative capacity can develop a more potent ideal L2 self
Csizér & Kormos (2009)	The relationship between the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self as an intended L2 effort	The extent to which students like the experience of EFL	Secondary school students and university students in Hungary	Motivated learning behaviour was partly determined by the ideal L2 self, but the ought-to L2 self could not be ascertained
Kim (2009)	Investigating the interrelationship between Ideal L2, ought-to and L2 learning experience	Classroom and beyond learning experience with native speakers	Two Korean EFL students in Canada	Pragmatic L2 learning goals can be merged into the Ideal L2 or ought-to L2 selves based on internalisation, but the L2 self-image needs to align to the learner's life experiences
Lamb (2009)	The relationship between Ideal L2 and ought-to L2 selves at the micro/macro level of learning	Classroom and beyond learning experience and past learning experience	Indonesian junior high school students learning EFL in Indonesia	L2 selves can describe the way individuals identify with an FL, and is enhanced when their origins in, and impact on, the social settings and situated activity of language learning is explored
Ryan (2009a)	Empirical testing of the validity of ideal L2 self in describing L2 motivation	Japanese socio-economic and national context of EFL	Japanese learners of English in Japan	The ideal L2 self has the more direct relationship with motivated behaviour and integrativeness exists as part of a broader L2 self- concept
Taguchi, Magid & Papi (2009)	How ideal and ought-to L2 selves relate to the dimension of instrumentality	National context of EFL	Japanese, Chinese and Iranian learners of EFL in their native countries	The ideal L2 self can be re-labelled as integrativeness. Instrumentality can be classified into two distinct constructs of promotion versus prevention.
Yashima (2009)	How ideal L2 self relates to	EFL as a Japanese learner in relation to the	Japanese EFL learners in Japan	Learners who showed a higher level of international posture and frequency of

	international posture	international context of EFL		willingness to communicate endorsed the vision of ideal L2 self more strongly
Lamb (2012)	Motivation to learn English through the L2MSS lens	Secondary school EFL in a metropolitan city, a provincial town, and a rural district	Indonesian junior high school pupils, 13–14 years of age	Motivation was significantly lower in rural setting. A positive view of the EFL experience was the strongest predictor of motivated learning behaviour and L2 proficiency. Ideal L2 self was only significant among the metropolitan group
Henry & Cliffordson (2013)	Gender and Ideal L2 speaking using selves and interdependent self-construal	EFL in Swedish secondary education	Secondary education in Sweden	Gender-related variance on a measure of the Ideal L2 speaking self could be accounted for by an interdependent self-construal
Kormos & Csizér (2014)	The influence of motivation and SRL on the FLL	EFL in Hungary	Secondary school, university and adult language learners	A proactive approach to locating and using learning technology resources and affordances is necessary but not determined by time effectivity
Thompson & Erdil (2014)	Examination of the Ideal/ought-to L2 selves in regard to motivation and multilingualism	FLL motivation and multilingual status in the Turkish EFL context	EFL learners in Turkey	Significant group effect for multilingual status with the ideal L2 self, but no significant difference found between the groups with the ought-to L2 self
Thompson & Vásquez (2015)	FLL individual differences through L2MSS and dimension of psychological reactance	Non-native speaker FL teaching	FLL narratives of 3 non-native speaker FL teachers	The L2MSS underestimates the relationship between I and other. I dimension is strongly articulated in the ideal L2 self, other is strong in ought-to L2 self. L2MSS framework needs further development in a variety of settings other than EFL

Source: Asker (2012, p.62)

2.3.1. Future Self-Guides

Dörnyei (2009) offers the following definition on future self-guides:

Goals refer to desired future end-states and this definition is rather close to the definition of future-oriented self-guide. So are the ideal/ought-to dimensions merely a subset of goals? The answer is a definite no, and being aware of the difference is a prerequisite to understanding the essence of possible selves. (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 15)

Asker (2012) underscores that it is important that possible selves are not solely understood as equivalent to future goals, because possible selves are broader in their future horizon, incorporating goals as well as dreams, hopes, and fears. Perhaps the most fundamental factor that makes possible selves

different from the concept of goal lies in the role of future imagery. Possible selves concern individuals' conceptualisation of their as-yet unrealised potential. In this sense, they function as future self-guides that shed light on how individuals are moved from the present towards the future, forming an explicit link between the current self-system and self-guided behaviour (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Future self-guides have been shown to be essential for language learning, and therefore, pivotal to this study. The possible selves paradigm offers an interesting option for arousing language learners' emotional reactions, moving them in a positive-broadening direction (e.g. Higgins, 1998; Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994), with few studies concluding otherwise (e.g. Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2006; Yowell, 2002).

Although often referred to as 'future self-guides' (Dörnyei, 2009), not every type of possible self has this guiding function. The ideal-self is the central component and has a definite guiding function in setting to-be-reached standards. In a negative way, the feared self also regulates behaviour by guiding the individual away from something. The ought-to self has been shown not to be as influential as a future self-guide and uncorrelated to motivated FL behaviour (e.g. Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Eid, 2008; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Thompson & Erdil, 2014). Many studies have suggested that the guiding function of the Ideal L2 self is a significant predictor of success in FL attainment, strengthening the validity of Dörnyei's L2MSS (refer to studies presented in Csizér & Magid, 2014). For example, a study by Csizér and Lukács (2010) concluded that students' Ideal FL self proved to be the most significant component of predicting motivated learning behaviour irrespective of FL or initial choice. An observation that posits the existence of driving forces (referred to as approach and avoid tendencies by Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013, to be discussed in detail in Chapters 3 and 4), which will not only govern the changes in the system but also provide times of stability.

An approach tendency that provides a pull in the direction of persistent behaviour is the internal desire to learn an FL. Ideal selves can be considered important driving forces in language learning in the sense that the ideal self fosters motivated learning behaviour that may become an established pattern. However, as many studies (Oyserman et al., 2006; Pizzolato, 2006; Ruvolo & Markus, 1992; Yowell, 2002) have shown, in order to translate the

aroused motivational potential into action, the learner needs to have a roadmap of tasks and strategies to follow to approximate the Ideal self. These studies concluded that stimulating a desired end-state can activate the future self-guide, but it will only be effective if it is accompanied by a set of specific predeveloped and plausible action plans, which are cued automatically by the desired future image. The theoretical framework of this study agrees that without procedural schemas, learners will be unable to make specific plans, which will consequently jeopardise the achievement of their ideal selves. It is only through this procedural knowledge that the hoped-for ideal self can become a reality.

Miller and Brickman (2004) warn that a lack of sufficient knowledge or experience (e.g. no relevant role models or knowledgeable others), and/or ineffective cognitive skills for planning and problem-solving may impede an appropriate system of meaningful paths to pursue the desired selves. Therefore, as Dörnyei (2009, p. 21) insists, effective future self-guides need to come as part of a package, consisting of an imagery component and a repertoire of appropriate plans, scripts and self-regulatory strategies. For example, Hock, Deshler, and Schumaker's (2006, p. 214) training programme found it very useful to include a component that involved a thorough check-up phase, in which task completion was reviewed, goals and action plans were modified, goal attainment was celebrated, new goals were added, and hopes, expectations, and fears were continually examined. A component this study has also integrated into its theoretical and practical framework.

In contrast, other studies have analysed avoid tendencies that present an opposing force or push back to a state not preferred within future self-guides. From which, the theoretical plane of this study endorses the claims pertaining to order and balance (to be discussed in detail in Chapter 4). Csizér and Lukács (2010) warn that negative contributions from the ideal selves across languages may ensue if the preferred order of learning a language is not followed. Higgins' (1987) Self-Discrepancy theory posits that a learner first needs to perceive the difference between their desired self and their actual self in order to develop a relevant self-guide. In regard to balance, various studies (Hock et al., 2006; Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006, Oyserman & Markus, 1990) conclude that a hoped-for possible self will only have maximal motivational effectiveness when it is offset or balanced by a countervailing feared self in the same domain. It is this kind of balance that creates an

optimal motivational situation, because there is both a goal to achieve and a goal to avoid. The motivation conferred by these balanced possible selves is additive (involving both approach and avoid tendencies) and, therefore, greater than the motivation conferred by the hoped-for or feared self alone. Therefore, for optimum results, the negative consequences of not achieving a desired end-state need to be elaborated and be cognitively available to learners through the continual revision of fears.

Dörnyei (2009) states that it is the experiential element that makes possible selves larger than any combination of goal-related constructs. Possible selves are 'self states' that people experience as reality, future self-guides are the emotional part of the L2MSS, while the goals compose the system's cognitive component. The Ideal-self pulls the participants toward their goals, and the feared-self pushes the participants to achieve their goals, making them aware of the negative consequences. To allow for the motivating capacity of future self-guides to be actuated, it is important that any future self-guide employed in this study underpins the nine necessary conditions, proposed by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), and listed to follow (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 362):

1. The learner must have or create a desired future self-image.
2. This image is sufficiently different from the current self. The FL learner should be aware of a gap between his/her current and future selves in order to feel that an increased effort in learning the FL is necessary.
3. This image should be elaborate and vivid. The more specific and vivid one's positive possible selves are, 'the more one's current state can be made similar to the desired state' (Markus & Ruvolo, 1989, p. 228).
4. The image is substantiated. It is plausible and realistic in the individual's circumstances.
5. The desired self-image is not comfortably certain, and the learner perceives the need to exert effort. Oyserman and James (2009) point out that effort will not be exerted if the attainment of the future self is too likely or too unlikely.
6. The image is acceptable in the learner's environment and does not contradict the expectations of significant others. There should be harmony between the ideal and ought-selves.
7. The image is regularly activated and maintained over time as it needs to become part of the working self-concept (Sherrill & Hoyle, 2006).

8. The image can be operationalised by appropriate procedural strategies that contain plausible and specific action plans that are automatically cued by images.
9. The image is counterbalanced by awareness of the feared FL self and the potential negative consequences of failure to attain the desired future FL self.

Symbiotically, the word 'image' is the subject within eight of the nine aforementioned necessary conditions for the motivating capacity of future self-guides to be realised. Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) conclude that the dream or image of a desired future is the core content of the ideal self. Humans are driven by their imagination and their ability to see images of a desired future. Leaders, poets, writers, composers, artists, dreamers, and athletes have been able to be inspired, stay inspired and inspire others through such images. In an FL acquisition context, this study supports the claim made by various studies (e.g. Berkovits, 2005; Hall, Hall, Stradling, & Young, 2006) that creative or guided imagery techniques can be utilised to promote Ideal L2 self images and strengthen students' vision. To follow, this study outlines how recent research (Dörnyei, 2009) postulates the construal of effective future-self guides using imagery enhancement methods explored in several areas of psychological, educational and sport research in the past.

2.3.2. Vision: The Role of Imagination and Imagery

You, Dörnyei and Csizér (2016) offer the following definition on vision:

The term "vision" is closely related to imagery, but it is used in motivational contexts, that is, when imagery is associated with ensuing behaviour. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, a vision is "a vivid mental image, especially a fanciful one of the future" and it can be perceived as a future goal-state that an individual has personalized by adding to it the imagined reality of the actual goal experience. In other words, a vision involves preliving hoped-for future experiences. (You et al., 2016, p. 99)

Dörnyei (2014) claims that the attraction of using vision in our thinking of motivation is that it represents one of the highest-order motivational forces, one that is particularly fitting to explain the long-term, and often lifelong,

process of mastering an FL, as is the premise of this study. While individuals pursue languages for a variety of purposes and an equally wide array of reasons keep their motivation alive, the vision of who they would like to become as an FL user seems to be one of the most reliable predictors of their long-term intended effort.

Imagination has been related to motivation since the ancient Greeks. Aristotle defined the image in the soul as the prime motivating force in human action. Similar to future-self guides, he believed that when an image of something to be pursued or avoided was present in imagination, the soul was moved in the same manner as if the objects of desire were materially present (McMahon, 1973). In effect, Aristotle compared imagination to sensation without matter, claiming desire is impossible without imagination (Modell, 2003, p. 108).

Visualisation is a cardinal component of possible selves that involves tangible images and senses. In fact, possible selves are represented in the same imaginary and semantic way as the here-and-now self. They are a reality for the individual, people can see, hear and smell a possible self (Dörnyei, 2009). Sampson (2012) claims that fostering FL possible self-images may heighten recognition of SRL, when students are able to perceive how their FL self-image changes over the course, which assumes recognition of their own importance in the learning process and learning as an agency of self-extension. A recent report on neuroimaging studies by Kosslyn, Thompson, and Ganis (2006) indicates that visual mental imagery and visual perception activate about two thirds of the same brain areas. These results provide a neuropsychological basis substantiating Markus and Ruvolo's (1989, p. 213) claim that imagining one's own actions, through the construction of elaborated possible selves achieving the desired goal, may directly facilitate the translation of goals into intentions and instrumental actions. For this reason, Markus (2006, p. xiv) claims that we should not be faint-hearted about the imaginative capacities of the human mind, and our abilities to invent ourselves and our worlds.

Hall, Hall, and Leech (1990, p. 28) define imagery as, 'an internal representation of a perception of the external world in the absence of that external experience.' Imagery can be defined as the creation of mental images with the use of various sensory modalities, including visual, auditory,

olfactory and tactile (Weinberg, 2008). As a technical term, 'mental imagery' refers to the neural representation of imagined sensory stimulus that gives rise to the subjective experience of perception without receiving any actual sensory input (You et al., 2016). Through imagery, the internal experience of perception can be re-created in the absence of the appropriate sensory input (Wraga & Kosslyn, 2002), but imagery can also be based on actual experience (Finke, 2014).

Inspired by Paivio's (1985) influential model of cognitive functions of imagery in human performance, several studies have examined the relationship between mental imagery and sport performance, and it has been generally concluded that imagery is an effective performance enhancement technique (Gregg & Hall, 2006). Markus (2006) emphasises that virtually every successful athlete in the world applies some sort of imagery enhancement technique during training, spending an enormous amount of time envisioning their future. In support of this claim, Marilyn King, a former Olympic athlete states that it is determination and not willpower that enables Olympic athletes to work so hard. It is the vision and the power of an image that inspires great passion and excitement, so much so that you have enormous energy to do what you want (Murphey, 2006, p. 95). Likewise, Martin and Hall (1995) demonstrated the effect of imagery on beginner golfers' motivation to practise a golf putting task, concluding that the imagery group who visualised positive performance spent the longest period of time practising golf putting of their own accord. However, as Chan (2013) underscores, the applied model of imagery use in sport is only partially relevant to FL acquisition as it focuses on the enhancement of strategies and responses involved in motor skills and performance, which is not a concern of FL learners and teachers. Nonetheless, it has provided a conceptual representation of what could potentially be incorporated into the framework of imagery use in FL future self guides, as in the case of this study.

In the cognitive theory dual coding hypothesis, psychologist Allan Paivio (1975) proposes that mental imagery is distinctive from linguistic or propositional thought, and that it is a form of internal mental representation that is visual or spatial. It is the plasticity of vision and space that strengthens mental imagery, which Conway, Meares, and Standart (2004) equate to the language of goals. They add that individuals can use this plasticity to rehearse behavioural sequences and create images that represent desired and feared

parts of their selves. When images are conjured up, goal-specific information becomes accessible in our cognitive system and, in turn, provides an impetus for action, increasing people's motivation to achieve target goals (Anderson, 1983).

Martin, Moritz, and Hall (1999) identified imagining attaining goal achievement, referred to as MS imagery, as an effective strategy used by athletes in mental rehearsal to perform different functions. Unlike an abstract, cognitive goal, a vision includes a strong sensory element with tangible images related to achieving the goal. It subsumes both a desired goal and a representation of how the individual approaches or realises that goal (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). However, as the brain cannot tell the difference between an actual physical event and the vivid imagery of the same event (Cox, 2012), a clear distinction must be made between the vision of a goal and an unrealistic dream.

Levinson (1978) ascribes the 'dream' to imagined possibilities of the self as motivating forces. The 'dream' is a personal construction that contains the 'imagined self' associated with a variety of goals, aspirations, and values, both conscious and unconscious. With maturation, the Dream becomes cognitively refined and more motivationally powerful. Although daydreams can be connected to an individual's goal pursuit, Klinger (2009, p. 227) underscores that they lack a disciplined focus on working toward a goal. They do not include evaluations of how well the daydreamer is advancing toward the goal or attempts to direct the daydreamer's attention back to a problem. This unrealistic dream versus the image of a visualised possible self is what Lyons (2014) refers to as an idyllic self: learners who have an almost utopian future view of themselves. Rather than a vision, these learners transmit a wish that lacks a clear imagined future possible self, linked to a general lack of clear goal-directed behaviour. As Williams and Burden (1999) concluded nearly two decades ago, learners need to construct a vivid imagery of their future self if they want their dreams to pertain to the realm of the possible. In other words, the more elaborate the future-self guide is in terms of imaginative and visual content elements, the more motivational power it is expected to have.

Studies (e.g. Higgins, 1987; Ruvolo & Markus, 1992) have shown that there are differences in how easily people can generate an image of a possible self. Even when this image does exist, it may not have a sufficient degree of

elaborateness and vividness to be effective. People display significant individual differences in the vividness of their mental imagery (Richardson, 1994). A possible self with insufficient specificity and detail may not be able to stir up the necessary motivational response. Therefore, students' imagery ability and the techniques employed need to be considered in the vision of future goals, and consequently, within the conceptual framework of any future self-guide employed in this study. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggest that a systematic review is needed of the imagery techniques utilised, particularly concerning their potential applicability to promoting FL motivation and vision to master an FL, with the argument that a number of conditions must be met for this to happen.

Useful instructions and practical activities to help teachers design and use imagery in the classroom have been published (e.g. Arnold, Puchta, & Rinvoluceri, 2007; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). These publications advocate the employment of various imagery techniques, namely, mental simulations and guided and scripted imagery, all of which are germane to this study. Mental simulations have various cognitive functions, such as increasing the perceived probability of an event occurring (Anderson, Lepper, & Ross, 1980), and checking the viability of plans (Taylor & Schneider, 1989). For example, Knäuper, Roseman, Johnson, and Krantz's (2009) study found that participants who were asked to employ mental imagery of a task were significantly more likely to complete the task than those who did not use imagery. Hall et al. (1990) make the following distinction between scripted imagery and guided imagery: scripted imagery refers to a situation in which a script on a variety of themes, especially as a stimulus for an imagined journey, is read to an individual or group, who is usually relaxed with their eyes closed. Conversely, a guided imagery involves a person called a guide, who suggests a broad theme to an individual who is again relaxed with their eyes closed. Examples of themes could be related to a fantasy journey such as climbing a mountain or searching for a precious object. The listener reports their experience, and the guide encourages the listener to examine specific parts of the fantasy in a non-interpretive, non-directive way.

Redolent of approach and avoid tendencies in future-self guides, described in Section 2.2.1., MacIntyre et al. (2009a, p. 47) advocate the employment of both positive and negative scripted imagery, claiming that as possible selves only exist as cold cognition, they lack motivational potency if they do not

contain a strong connection to the learner's emotional system. When emotion is a prominent feature of a possible self, including a strong sense of fear, hope, or even obligation, a clear path exists by which to influence motivation and action. For instance, Hock et al.'s (2006) Possible Selves Tree, a drawing that represents one's hoped-for, expected and feared selves through scripted imagery, offers learners an activity through which they can contemplate a mental simulation of their Ideal L2 self that conveys the approach and avoid states onto a graphic representation, and is included with the future self-guide framework proposed in this investigation.

Successful applications of imagery techniques have been reported in various educational contexts. For example, some studies have shown how the use of imagery can improve listening comprehension (e.g. Center, Freeman, Robertson, & Outhred, 1999); vocabulary learning (e.g. Cohen, 1987; Shen, 2010; Stevick, 1986); and writing (e.g. Jampole, Mathews, & Konopak, 1994). A number of other studies have also explored the effects of imagined possible selves interventions on students' general academic achievements (e.g. Oyserman et al., 2006; Oyserman, Terry, & Bybee, 2002; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2006) and the results have shown that such enhancement programmes could enhance learners' future identities and their motivation in learning.

In an FL educational context, there have been various successful intervention studies integrating mental imagery to FLL contexts through various techniques such as mental simulations, guided and scripted imagery. In comparing the effects of imagery and verbal processing, these studies have revealed that imagery can greatly influence learners' affect, as imagery not only influences human emotion but also cognition, and that learners' Ideal L2 selves are positively associated with both visual and auditory components of imagery (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011). Overall, the results (e.g. Al-Shehri, 2009; Eid, 2008; Magid, 2011, 2014; Munezane, 2015; Murray, 2013) suggest that imagery plays a key role in the development of FL future self-guides, and that learners with a vivid FL self-image, in which imagery is an integral component, are more likely to be motivated and to take actions in language learning. However, results from a study by Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012) conducted with EFL high school students in Iran, ran contrary to theoretical expectations, suggesting that future-self guides did not influence actual classroom motivational behaviours. The researchers

explained that 'only having an imaginary picture of one's desired FL self cannot result in actual motivated behaviour unless conditions are met, and decisive steps are taken to facilitate realizing the Ideal L2 selves' (p. 590).

Asian students have been the primary focus in a number of possible selves intervention studies employing imagery techniques, as is the case in this study. The first intervention programme to apply the L2MSS using scripted imagery was conducted by Magid (2011, 2014) at a British university in China. The findings in this study supported Dörnyei's (2009) proposed dynamic tripartite framework of the motivational, emotional and cognitive, to understand the individual differences of language learners. This intervention increased learners' concern about education and helped them to develop positive communication skills, active listening, and their vocabulary expanded. The author of this study concluded that imagination could be enhanced with practice and improved through visualisation training. This visualisation intervention helped to improve participants' attitudes towards learning English, which made them want to devote more time and effort to learning English.

To further validate these claims, subsequent studies (see Table 2, below, for a detailed breakdown of recent possible selves intervention studies using imagery on Asian students, also compared and contrasted with the findings of this study in Section 5.3) also concurred with extant FL intervention study findings, concluding that Asian learners with a vivid and detailed ideal self-image that has a substantial FL component are more likely to be motivated to take action in pursuing FLL than their peers who have not articulated a desired future goal state. Results predominantly revealed several significant associations between learners' future self-guides and intended learning effort and actual grades (e.g. Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Sampson, 2012). In a British context, and germane to this study, despite studying under two different programme conditions and in two different locations, England and Hong Kong, Magid and Chan (2012) found that both intervention programmes were effective in motivating Chinese learners of English to learn English and increasing their linguistic self-confidence through strengthening their vision of their Ideal L2 Self, and making their goals clearer and more specific. In their study, Dörnyei and Chan (2013) also indicated that the Ideal-self images associated with different languages were shown to form distinct

L2-specific visions, which has various implications for future research on the potential positive or negative interaction of these images.

More recently, You and Chan's (2015) intervention study reexamined the dynamic nature of imagery, adducing that it may be far more complex than previously determined, and that a possible dynamic interaction may exist between imagery and three other factors, namely, motivation intensity, language learning behaviour and language proficiency. You and Chan claim that imagery not only affects the process of FL learning, but is itself affected by the process, placing Higgin's (1987) Self-Discrepancy Theory in a new light, in that the size and nature of the gap also interacts with the process. Although in some cases the gap is reduced by forward movement, in other cases it can be reduced by bringing the goalpost nearer. The conceptual framework of this investigation aims to contribute to the extant debate concerning the dynamic nature of imagery in FLL intervention studies and the conditions that need to be met for the effectual realisation of future self-guides.

Table 2: Possible selves intervention studies using imagery on EFL Asian students

Author & Year	Study Aims	Methods	Participants	Findings
Magid (2011, 2014)	Effects of vision enhancement on language learning effort through the Ideal L2 self and goal-setting strategies offsetting the feared self	Mixed-methods 4-month intervention visualisation training. First intervention programme to apply the L2MSS using scripted imagery.	31 students taking a wide variety of courses at a British university in China, with a B1 to C2 level of English.	Learners' vision of the Ideal L2 self increased, goals became clearer and more specific, which increased motivation and confidence in a relatively short amount of time. Participants' attitudes towards learning English improved increasing time and effort spent learning English.
Magid & Chan (2012)	The effects of two L2MSS interventions on EFL motivation using visualisation strategies on the Ideal L2 self	Mixed methods longitudinal study on Chinese learners of English (4-month voluntary programme in the UK and 3-month compulsory EFL course in Hong Kong).	UK course had 4 workshops & 2 counselling sessions. HK course had 6 self-access language learning & 2 language counselling sessions.	Positive scripted imagery increased motivation and self-confidence by strengthening Ideal L2 Self, with clear, specific goals. Learners who agreed with visualisation rationale found it fun and motivating. Ability to visualise affects vividness and elaborateness of Ideal L2 self and intensity of emotions aroused during this process.
Sampson (2012)	The relationship between individual and socially constructed possible self-images, and language-learning motivation.	The study used three cycles of action research over the course of one 15-week university semester, utilizing mixed-methods data collection and analysis.	34 first year EMI female Japanese university students in rural Japan from the Faculty of International Communication, with an average age of 19.	Fostering FL possible self-images may positively affect motivation and heighten recognition of SRL. Students could perceive how their L2 self-image changed over the course, which lead to recognition of their own importance in the learning process and learning as an agency of self-extension.
Dörnyei & Chan (2013)	Learner characteristics vis-à-vis sensory and imagery aspects of	Assessed both by self-report and objective measures.	172 Year 8 Chinese students (aged 13–15) in Hong Kong, studying both	Future self-guides, intended effort and actual grades are related. Consistently positive relationship between the ideal self and criterion

	future L2 self-guides and learning achievement in English and Mandarin.		English and Mandarin at a lower intermediate level in a Band 1 secondary school.	measures. Future self-guides are multisensory with a broad imagery capacity (visual and auditory). Different languages were shown to form distinct L2-specific visions.
Chan (2014a)	Increase SRL through Self Access Language Learning using imagery techniques on Ideal and feared self and learning experiences.	Mixed-methods three-component intervention (visualisation using guided imagery, Ideal Selves Tree and language counselling). Part of a 12-week compulsory English course.	Eighty second-year Chinese university science students in an English-medium university in Hong Kong. Proficiency from B2 to C1.	Imagery strategy exerted a short-lived positive impact on students' possible L2 selves and learning experiences. Review visualisation exercises within a 3-day period and place in a prominent place. A very clear and vivid vision of the Ideal Self is central to goal attainment, as is setting realistic goals. Feared L2 self remained relatively stable. Students were sceptical of visualisation strategies
Munezane (2015)	Ideal L2 self effects of visualisation treatment and goal-setting activities on willingness to communicate.	Learners visualised themselves as future specialists in their field. Two treatment groups: visualisation alone and visualisation with goal setting activities	373 Japanese university EFL learners.	When visualisation was combined with goal setting, the increase in learners' FL willingness to communicate was significantly larger compared to the visualisation alone group, and significantly larger compared to the control group.
You & Chan (2015)	Examine the dynamic impact of L2 imagery on future self-guides and its relationship with L2 motivation	Mixed-methods investigation (survey & in-depth interviews). A comparison of learners with activated imagery skills vs those who cannot or will not engage with mental imagery.	Chinese students in two EFL high school and three university English major classes in China.	Mental imagery in L2 self-guides is not static. Changes may relate to content, elaborateness, and frequency of images evoked. Dynamic interactions between imagery and motivational intensity, language learning behaviour and language proficiency. Imagery not only affects the process of L2 learning but is itself affected by the process.

As the studies in Table 2 (above) suggest, conditional moderators of imagery effectiveness among Asian students can include the type of task being imaged, the duration and timing of the imagery practice, the individual's ability to generate and control vivid images, and learner's scepticism about the use of imagery as a motivational strategy, all of which the conceptual framework of this investigation has taken into consideration. In other words, this study concurs with the current literature (e.g. Magid, 2014; Magid & Chan, 2012) in that future interventions employing a future self-image should:

- be fully explained to students, so that they understand both the benefits and the process of imagery use;
- be elaborate and vivid;
- be regularly activated and plausible within the future self-guide. Learners should review their visualisation exercises and guided imagery on a regular basis, preferably within a 3-day timeframe to prolong the beneficial effects (Anderson, 1983; Chan, 2014a);

- include specific action plans that are automatically cued by images;
- and, the image of any hoped-for possible self should be balanced by a feared self in the same domain, as in interventions that employed Hock et al.'s (2006) Possible Selves Tree activity (e.g. Chan, 2014a).

The sustainability of a plausible imagined Ideal L2 self can only be attained if it is anchored in a sense of realistic expectation. It needs to be substantiated through effective images that evoke a curious mixed aura of imagination. Pizzolato (2006, p. 59) claims that the relationship between what learners want to become, and what they actually become, may be mediated by what they feel they can become, what Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) refer to as 'expected possible selves'. Similar to the training of professional athletes motivated by imagery and vision, the secret of successful learners is their possession of a superordinate vision that keeps them on track (Dörnyei, 2009) and grounded. In other words, the role of learner mindset needs to be considered within the framework of FL future self-guides.

2.3.3. Mindset: A Plausible Ideal L2 Self

According to Dweck (2006), mindset can be defined as follows:

A mindset is a self-theory that people hold about themselves. Believing that you are either intelligent or unintelligent is an example of mindset. Although people can be unaware of their mindset, it can have a profound effect on learning achievement, skill acquisition and many other dimensions of life. (Dweck, 2006, pp. 6-7)

Researchers have become increasingly aware of the potential impact that students' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs about the nature of knowledge have on their engagement in the classroom and their likelihood of achievement (e.g. Cassidy & Eachus, 2000; Hofer & Pintrich, 2004). One of the most prominent, the American psychologist Carol Dweck, has proposed the concept of 'mindset'. Dweck (2006) explains that students who believe that intelligence is simply a fixed trait (termed fixed mindset or entity theorist), are at a significant disadvantage compared to those who believe that their abilities can be developed (termed growth mindset or incremental theorist). Students (and their teachers) can have different beliefs about intellectual abilities. Some believe that intellectual abilities are basically fixed, people

have different levels of ability and nothing can change that. In contrast, others believe that intellectual abilities can be cultivated and developed through application and instruction. They do not deny that people may differ in their current skill levels, but they believe that everyone can improve their underlying ability (Dweck, 1999). A considerable body of research (e.g. Diamond, Barnett, Thomas, & Munro, 2007; Jaeggi, Buschkuhl, Jonides, & Perrig, 2008) is emerging from top cognitive psychology and cognitive neuroscience laboratories, demonstrating that fundamental aspects of intelligence, and even intelligence itself, can be altered through training. This study subscribes to the theory that interventions that address mindset can boost achievement and reduce achievement discrepancies, and educators play a key role in shaping students' mindset.

Dweck's (2006) findings reveal that students with a growth mindset tend to orient more toward learning goals, and students with a fixed mindset tend to orient more toward validating their intelligence. Students who have a fixed mindset may be at a disadvantage when they encounter challenges or obstacles, as the impact of mindset does not typically emerge until students face setbacks. However, those who are well prepared and do not encounter difficulty can do just fine. Her findings postulate that it is important to have teachers who adopt a growth mindset, presenting material in that framework, synchronising into students' learning styles and needs, giving feedback to students in ways that sustain their growth mindset. Therefore, it is extremely important to study ways in which the educational environment can teach and support a growth mindset over time.

Research (Dweck 2006; Cimpian, Arce, Markman, & Dweck, 2007) has also shown that giving students praise for their intelligence, as opposed to praise for process (such as effort or strategy), makes students think that their abilities are fixed, which leads to: avoidance of challenging tasks (so they can keep on looking intelligent), loss of confidence and motivation when the task becomes hard, performance impairment on and after difficult problems, and deception about their scores afterwards. In contrast, process praise (such as praise for effort or strategy) leads students to seek and thrive on challenges.

Akin to those who hold misconceptions with respect to the length of time and effort it takes to learn an FL (e.g. Horwitz, 1988; Bernat, Carter, & Hall, 2009), learners who believe they lack a gift or natural talent for learning an FL might

feel that it is pointless to put effort into learning. Present research (e.g. Ericsson, Charness, Feltovich, & Hoffman, 2006) on geniuses and/or great creative contributions is yielding findings to suggest that talent alone cannot explain these phenomena. Instead, the one thing that appears to set those who become geniuses, or who make great creative contributions, apart from their other talented peers, is the deliberate practice they devote to their field. Genius often appears to be developed over time through focused, extended effort. Dweck (2008) underscores that when the maths and science greats are accurately presented as people who loved and were dedicated to their craft, anyone who loves maths or science can be a welcome and full-fledged member of the maths-science community. However, when the greats are presented as born geniuses, only those who believe they too were born geniuses can feel like full-fledged members of the community able to make noteworthy contributions. As educators, it is important we communicate that we value and admire progress that stems from hard work, challenge, and rectification; not unchallenging, unworthy, effortless successes.

Geniuses are often erroneously portrayed as having simply been born with special talents. Learners need to know that the distinguishing feature of such people is their passion and dedication to their craft, particularly, the way in which they deal and remedy their weaknesses. As teachers our role is to ensure that students learn that passion, dedication, and self-improvement (and not simply innate talent) are the road to genius and contribution. As Dweck (2008) posits, it is important the participants in the present study be taught that every time they stretch themselves, work hard, and learn something new, their brain forms new connections and that, over time, they become smarter. In a study by Aronson, Fried, and Good (2002), university students in an experimental group were shown a film that highlighted how the brain is capable of making new connections throughout life and how it grows in response to intellectual challenge. In addition, they wrote a letter to a struggling younger student emphasizing that the brain is malleable, and that intelligence expands with hard work. At the end of that semester, participants who had learned about malleable intelligence showed greater valuing of academics, enhanced enjoyment of their academic work, and higher GPA than their peers in the control group who had not learned about it.

What is more, the dearth of research (e.g. Dweck, 1999; Meece & Painter, 2008) on gender differences in self-theories of intelligence suggests that, not only do academically-gifted girls attribute failures to a lack of intelligence and their successes less to natural talent, but in many educational domains they have lower estimates of ability and lower expectations of success, which stems from 'a diet of early success and praise' (Dweck 1999, p. 124), meaning that in subsequent stages of education, girls operate in a framework 'in which challenge is a threat and errors are a condemnation' (Dweck 1999, p. 55). To date, few empirical studies have investigated possible links between growth mindset and motivation in FLL settings. Hence, the influence of growth mindset in future self-guides requires further attention. What is more, it is necessary that our study also evaluate whether mindset, and gender variance within it, affect the plausibility and subsequent effectivity of future self-guides.

As outlined above, future self-guides are fundamental in FLL, and consequently to this study, as they underscore the importance of one's self-concept in understanding motivational dispositions in the language learning process. Future self-guides allow the self to personify learner goals, sustaining motivated engagement during FL acquisition. Although there are good theoretical reasons to suppose that motivated and self-regulated learners are better language learners, the paucity of research struggles to provide convincing empirical evidence to match practitioners' experience-based intuitions that the practices associated with fostering motivation and SRL are effective either in helping learners to take greater control over their learning, or in improving their language learning. With this in mind, this study aims to add further empirical findings to the current literature in this field, designing and implementing a conceptual framework that amalgamates the aforementioned dimensions of possible selves, imagery and mindset within the structural composition of future self-guides.

2.4. Conclusion

This second chapter provides a brief review of research literature, pertinent to this study, in the fields of motivation, SRL and future self-guides, and has attempted to present a primary outline of the intertwinement of these three concepts, depicting the strong nexus that currently exists among them.

Historically, and as outlined in Section 2.1., FL motivation research has now reached a socio-dynamic period which recognises the socially constructed and dynamic nature of the learner, the learning context and the TL. Several studies (see Table 1 above) have validated Dörnyei's L2MSS construct, adducing strong empirical findings for the reexamination of FL motivation through the L2MSS and the application of future self-guides as a suitable gauge of the self. Most modern researchers have placed the self-concept firmly at the centre of understanding what drives individuals and directs their actions. Some researchers have gone even further, suggesting that 'the self lies at the very core of human experience and must be part of any theoretical formulation in the field of human motivation' (Weiner, 1986, p. 286). Although the self plays an indisputable, pivotal role in the theoretical framework of this study, this section also underscores the importance of the learning context and the TL within the dynamic nature of FL motivation.

Briefly described in Section 2.1.1., are the role of English as a global language, the use of English as a medium for teaching and learning in higher education in the UK, the predominance of Chinese students within this type of learning context, and their part in this study. Particular attention is paid to the contradictory situation between EAP classes in British universities and the attainment of an EMHE qualification from an English-speaking country, which although generally perceived as a catalyst toward upward and outward mobility, referred to as cultural capital and investment in this section, does not seem to diminish apathy among EAP students.

The relationship between the self-regulated learner and future self-guides is discussed in Section 2.3., in which Zimmerman's (2000) cyclical SRL model is proposed as a suitable framework to continue investigating these dimensions. In this section, onus is placed on the role of reflection within the theoretical composition of the self-regulated learner, offering various theoretical frameworks (e.g. Harri-Augstein & Thomas' learning conversation, 1991; Vygotsky's inner/social speech, 1987), which this study claims are analogous to the conceptual framework of future self-guides. Emphasis is placed on the importance of fostering SRL in a culturally appropriate manner, as learner ownership or perceived behavioural control is unlikely to develop alone through reflection, requiring the skilled assistance of practitioners.

The last section in this chapter, Section 2.3., describes how from a motivational point of view, the study of possible selves is one area of research on the self that stands out with its relevance. Markus and Nurius' (1986) construct of possible selves is introduced to explain human motivation and self-regulation, prompting a discussion on the prominent role of self-regulation within the theoretical and practical framework of future self-guides, namely, through the development of metacognitive know-how and students' sense of personal agency and control.

Self-concepts within the L2MSS are dynamic, entailing a personal and a social component. A person's self-concept is not solely dependent on the perception of the individual, but it is also potentially substantially influenced by the immediate environment, and the TL. These possible selves have a timeframe that include the past, the present and the future. A future that is shaped by specific goals, targets, or an individual's conceptualisation of an as-yet unrealised potential. In this sense, possible selves function as future self-guides that shed light on how individuals are moved from the present towards the future, forming an explicit link between the current self-system and self-guided behaviour (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). It is on this premise, that future self-guides have been shown to be essential for language learning when certain conditions are met and include more than a professed desire to learn the TL.

Recent research, as described in Section 2.3.2., has specifically developed effective future-self guides based on the construal of possible selves using methods of imagery enhancement explored in several areas of psychological, educational and sport research. Learners need to be able to visualise concrete images that link to reasons for learning the FL and need to know how to envision an Ideal L2 self and a feared FL self that simultaneously attain a future-looking dimension that disables any negative cumulative experiential perspective that may impair FLL. An analysis of possible selves intervention studies employing imagery techniques in Asian contexts (see Table 2) concludes that conditional moderators of imagery effectiveness among learners can include the type of task being imaged, the duration and timing of the imagery practice, and the individual's ability to generate and control vivid images. Without such clear future self-guides, the learner seems unlikely to exhibit motivated learning behaviours (Dörnyei, 2009). Difficulty visualising either situations in which learners may need English or a specific, well-defined need for the language appears to feed into a lack of goal-directed behaviour on the part of many learners. A further crucial issue is that learners must see themselves as capable

of fulfilling the different tasks and activities carried out in the classroom, what is referred to as the plausibility of future self-guides in Section 2.3.3. A condition that can be accomplished through the concept of growth mindset, the belief that intelligence, or in this context FL acquisition, can be developed and improved through effort, dedication and hard work.

Although the abovementioned associations appear to provide a peripheral explanation of the interrelationship among these three concepts, the structure of future self-guides remains unclear, as do the strategies employed in its activation and sustainability. Establishing effective correlations will be complex as many conceptual areas within FL motivation and SRL overlap, so it is difficult to delineate where or when one ends and the other begins. The objective of this investigation is to determine effective associations within the tripartite conceptuality of motivation, SRL and future self-guides that will lead to greater FL acquisition gains. In the following chapter, I will undertake a more detailed analysis of this interrelationship, particularly in relation to their structural arrangement, and how and/or whether this could lead to better FL acquisition gains. In other words, establishing a conceptual framework for future self-guides that may potentially enhance FL development.

Chapter 3

3. Establishing a Conceptual Framework for Future Self-Guides

The background offered in Chapter 2 frames future self-guides as a multi-faceted concept that comprises affective, cognitive and metacognitive behavioural elements built upon the theoretical concepts of possible selves, FL motivation and SRL. The following premises can be drawn about future self-guides from the review presented so far:

1. Future self-guides are socially constructed and dynamic in nature.
2. Cumulative experiential perspectives and future-oriented perspectives of possible selves can shape learner motivation and SRL when vivid future self-guides are construed upon vision, imagery and mindset.
3. Learner self-concept must be allowed and able to appropriate the FL process through future self-guides to foster FL motivation, SRL and language development during the FLL process.

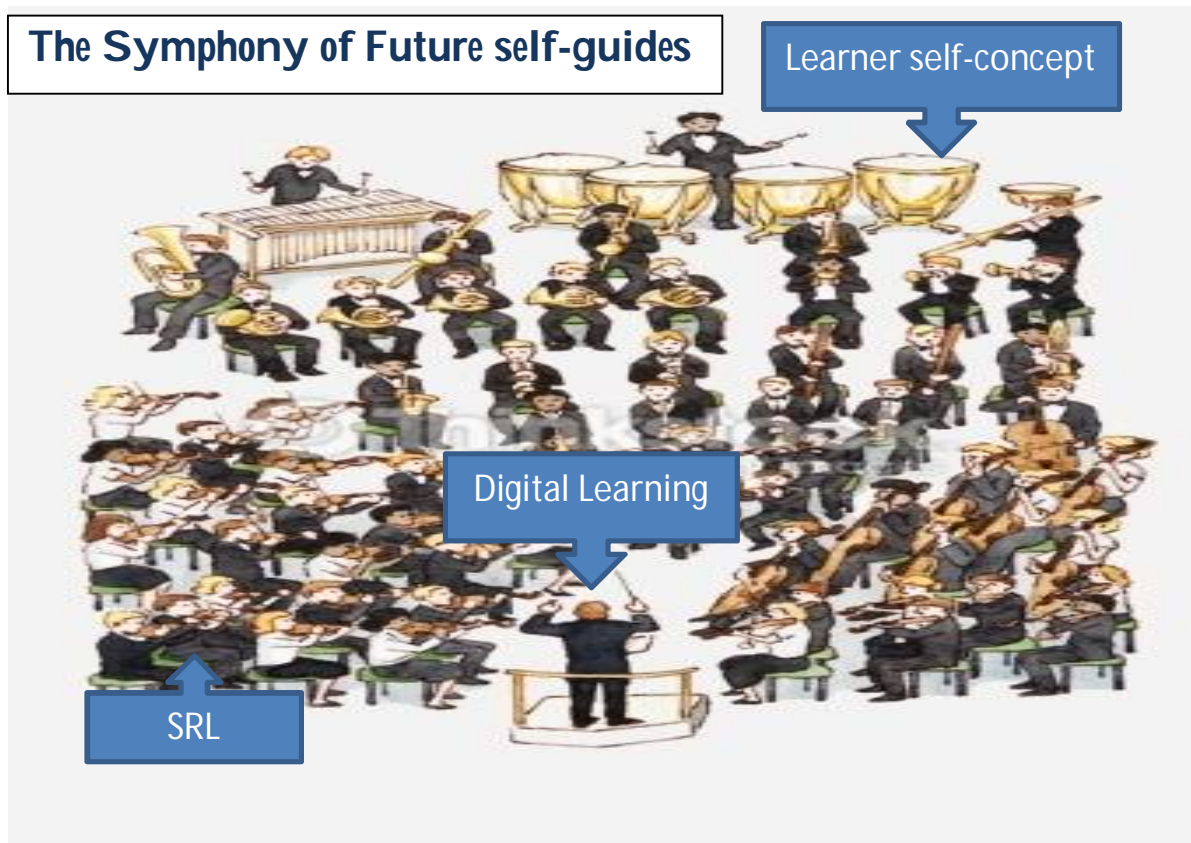
In other words, and as shown in several studies (e.g. Chan, 2014a; Taguchi et al., 2009), future self-guides appear to be central to the conceptualization of FL motivation and SRL. Furthermore, a recent proliferation of studies, particularly in regard to exploring the perception of future self-states in FL motivation literature, highlights, unambiguously, that the self plays a significant role in underlying motivational behaviours, which Magid (2014) attributes to the human race's long-standing interest in who we are and what we aspire to become in the future. The extant dilemma is that worldwide concern with accountability in education is increasingly obliging teachers to demonstrate the effectiveness of their practices in terms of proficiency gains. For both practical and theoretical reasons, there is a pressing need for empirical research on the relationship between the development of future self-guides, motivation, SRL and FL proficiency gains (Dafei, 2007). Although the link between SRL and motivation is well-established at a theoretical level, the precise nature of this association continues to be a focus of empirical activity (Benson, 2007). As Mezei (2014) underscores, there is a need for future research to target various aspects of the students' self-concept and their self-regulation in the hope of higher levels of achievement.

Inasmuch as this study proposes, as in previous studies (e.g. Ryan, 2009a), that both FL motivation and SRL be reinterpreted and analysed from the self perspective of future self-guides, it also aims to examine embedding future self-guides within institutional curricular objectives, a process that would address pedagogical responsibility concerning academic development. Although Chapter 2 explains how future self-guides can serve as a conceptual bridge between learner motivation and SRL, I now need to define the precise nature of this ecological framework and its potential to augment FL proficiency gains. In other words, establishing a conceptual structure that aligns with the learning aims of the institutional curriculum is a prerequisite.

The Finnish composer Johan Julius Christian Sibelius (1865-1957) said that he wrote music because, 'music begins where the possibilities of language end.' Further to our brief review of events in Chapter 2, and adoption of Sibelius' music-language dichotomy, in this chapter I will attempt to compose an arrangement that lessens the current limitations and apathy among EAP learners studying in an English-speaking country. To do this, I present a conceptual framework modelled on the construct of future self-guides that extends from the self-concept and self-regulation using digital learning. A structure that intends to lead learners to a redefined euphonic learning experience that heightens motivation, SRL and FL learning. Within this ecological framework, the foundation pertains to the concept of self, ergo, the instruments of our symphony, which are played by the musicians of SRL. Both of which require the coordination and surveillance of digital learning, the director of the orchestra in this ecological platform.

This chapter is divided in four sections. The first section presents a conceptual framework for future self-guides that incorporates vision, imagery and mindset. A finer lens is employed on the learner's self-concept in the subsequent second section to underscore the fundamental role of self-efficacy, English self-concept and gender within the conceptual structure proposes. The third section focusses on the role of technology in the contemporary EFL classroom, specifically, digital learning environments (DLEs), and how these can be applied to future self-guides within the curriculum. This is followed by a final section that provides a brief conclusion to this chapter that summarise all key points addressed.

Figure 4: Orchestrating future self-guides



3.1.A Frame of Reference for Future Self-Guides

Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, and Hart-Johnson (2004) characterise self-regulatory possible selves in the following way:

Self-regulatory academic possible selves are detailed academic possible selves that contain strategies to promote self-regulation, rather than the simple presence of academic possible selves. (Oyserman et al., 2004, p. 134)

Although effective future self-guides need to come as part of a package, consisting of an imagery component and a repertoire of appropriate plans, scripts and self-regulatory strategies (Dörnyei, 2009), self-regulation is inferred but not explicitly listed within the nine necessary conditions required for the motivating capacity of future self-guides to be realised (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), outlined in Section 2.3.1. The 'Oxford Dictionary' defines the verb 'regulate' as 'to control or direct according to rule, principle, or law,' and control is perceived as the strongest predictor of motivation for attaining or avoiding a possible self (Norman & Aron, 2003). Theoretically, at least, it would seem

plausible to assume that future self-guides cannot be fathomed without the symbiotic complicity of the constructs of possible selves and self-regulation.

This idea was first presented in a study by Oyserman et al. (2004), which demonstrated how improved academic outcomes were likely only when a possible self could plausibly be a self-regulator. Possible selves and other self-directed goals were attributed to the ability to guide and regulate behaviour, providing a roadmap that connected the present to the future. Their results showed that students with plausible self-regulating academic possible selves had significantly greater chances of academic success. By focussing attention on both a self-defining goal and linking this goal to current action through the current or working self-concept, these academic possible selves preserved a positive effect, maintained behavioural focus, and ultimately propelled the self toward the goal.

These findings concurred with later studies (e.g. Asker, 2012; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) in that, only possible selves that were detailed and connected with specific behavioural strategies were able to sustain self-regulation over time and therefore be guides for self-improvement. Vague and general possible selves were unable to function and guide self-regulation, because they neither provided a specific picture of one's goals nor a roadmap of how to reduce discrepancies between the present and one's future self. On this premise, this study proposes a frame of reference for future self-guides constructed upon Zimmerman's (2000) three-stage cyclical model of SRL and Hadfield and Dörnyei's (2013) future self-guide imagery strategies.

As outlined in Section 2.2., a main feature of SRL is metacognition (Zimmerman, 1989a, 1989b, 2000), which refers to the awareness, knowledge and control of cognition. The three processes that make up metacognitive self-regulation are planning, monitoring, and regulating. Other aspects of SRL include time-management, regulating one's own physical and social environment, and the ability to control one's effort and attention. Proponents of socio-cognitive models emphasize that to develop effective SRL strategies, 'students need to be involved in complex meaningful tasks, choosing the products and processes that will be evaluated, modifying tasks and assessment criteria to attain an optimal challenge, obtaining support from peers, and evaluating their own work' (Perry, 1998, p. 716).

Zimmerman's SRL model, outlined in Section 2.2., comprises the forethought performance phase, the performance during learning phase, and the integral performance evaluation phase, to which this study integrates the following three stages from Hadfield and Dörnyei's (2013) future self-guides imagery techniques, respectively: imaging identity, mapping the journey and keeping the vision alive (discussed in more detail in Section 4.4.2.). In brief, when applied to future self-guides, the first phase of the proposed amalgamated model, as outlined below in Table 3, would entail an induction on imaging identity to initiate learner awareness and substantiate the vision, and SRL performance forethought with plausible analysis and initiation of an Ideal L2 self. The second phase would include goal mapping and the performance during learning phase strategies in order to activate the desired Ideal L2 self through realistic strategies and plans. The final phase would comprise keeping the vision alive and performance evaluation through ongoing reflection and evaluation of phases one and two.

Table 3: A cyclical model for future self-guides

	PHASE I	PHASE II	PHASE III
Zimmerman (2000) cyclical model of SRL	The Forethought phase: pre learning performance processes that include task analysis (goal setting and strategic planning) and self-motivation beliefs (self-efficacy, outcome expectations, task value/interests, and goal orientation).	The Performance or Volitional Control phase: processes occurring during the learning performance that include self-control (task strategies, imagery, self-instructions, time management, environmental structuring, and help seeking) and self-observation (metacognitive self-monitoring, and self-recording).	The Self-Reflection phase: self-evaluation of effort and outcomes. Adjustment and implementation of the first and second phases: self-judgement (self-evaluation and causal attribution) and self-reaction (self-satisfaction / affect, and adaptive / defensive).
Hadfield & Dörnyei (2013) future self-guides imaging strategies	Imaging Identity: short induction to raise learner awareness and substantiate the FL vision.	Mapping the Journey: substantiating the vision and setting long-term goals. Includes establishing short-term goals, breaking these down into precise tasks and organising them into study plans, learning about and	Keeping the Vision Alive: extend the vision and deepen the FL identity. Designed to be used in parallel with the goal-setting activities in <i>Mapping the Journey</i> , to appeal to the affective as well as the cognitive side,

		trying out a range of achievement and avoidance strategies for study, making learning contracts and affirming progress.	keeping the learner in touch with the initial vision. Includes developing identity, keeping in touch with the vision, developing it in more detail and making it real.
Proposed frame of reference for future self-guides	<i>Imaging identity and performance forethought</i>	<i>Mapping the Journey and learning performance</i>	<i>Keeping the vision alive and performance evaluation</i>

Assuming that it is highly improbable an FL learner will generate a future self-guide from a tabula rasa, through a process of reflection, in phase one of the proposed frame of reference for future self-guides, the individual considers a selection of multiple aspirations, dreams, and desires that he or she has previously entertained, while also considering powerful role models that illustrate potential future selves. In phase two, ongoing reflection is required to sustain the Ideal L2 self image through plausible strategies. Studies (e.g. Kim & Kim, 2014; Lyons, 2014) have shown that a sustained vision of an Ideal L2 self through reflection retains learners' focus on studying from distracting influences, actively managing their time and appropriate use of task strategies, formulating clear goals, which consequently facilitates the construction of relevant goal attainment strategies, distinguishing between proximal and distal goals. Of particular interest to this study is the analysis of individuals' reflection on their personal visions of their future, particularly that concerning the attainment of proximal goals in relation to distal goals, and how this affects their present motivation (Miller & Brickman, 2004). Many studies (Barnard-Brak & Lan, 2010; Locke, Latham, Smith, Wood, & Bandura, 1991) have shown the positive effects of goal setting on academic achievement and task performance, and research has indicated that when students study to achieve a specific goal, they become more self-regulated and effective (Pintrich, 2000).

The final reflective and evaluative stage derives from the critical reflection and the internalisation of meaning required to motivate action. A cognitive state referred to as the 'zone of proximal development' (henceforth, ZPD) by Vygotsky (1978). Vygotsky defines the ZPD as follows:

The zone of proximal development is the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving, and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under

adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86)

In any given ZPD, the learner is unable to function independently at present, but can achieve the desired outcome with relevant scaffolding. Applying a temporary staging arrangement to learning goals, permits for the malleability and recalibration of goals, which in turn can mitigate apathy and engage remotivation, as posited in You and Chan's (2015) study (outlined in Section 2.3.2., & Table 2). Learner scaffolds can include varying aforementioned strategies such as mental simulation, guided and scripted imagery, learning conversations (inner and social) and narrative structure. The critical reflection required to identify the ZPD requires learners to attach subjective personal meaning to conceptual imaging and evaluate the implications of their current ideas in relation to abstract future goals during the learning process, simultaneously. In other words, the ZPD requires a substantial degree of self-awareness, reflection, negotiation and action.

Fostering the aforementioned proposed frame of reference for future self-guides would prompt learners to employ the seven major groups of metacognitive strategies, which relate to the mental operations used by learners in the self-management of their learning (Benson, 2011, 2013): planning, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, self-monitoring, problem identification, and self-evaluation (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 138). This, in turn, would encourage students to reflectively engage in the construction and regulation of their learner objectives in a more personal and focussed manner. Eventually, taking full regulatory control and cognitive agency as the teacher fades into the interactive support provided (Ushioda, 2014a, 2014b). A process that would foster lifelong learning skills students can apply beyond the FL classroom, establishing a multidirectional conceptual bridge between their personal and academic development.

The combination of these strategies, however, is contingent to social and affective strategies. These refer to the actions taken by the learner to control aspects of the learning situation related to others and to self (Benson, 2011, 2013), which require the calibration of beliefs attached to the concept of self among FL learners. To allow the learner to hold responsibility for the determination of his/her objectives, to regulate the strategies of acquisition employed, and to evaluate what has been acquired to serve their own agendas,

it is crucial that the following section examine three specific dimensions of the learner's self-concept within the suggested conceptual framework of future self-guides.

3.2. Learner Self-Concept

The importance of a learner's sense of self in the learning process is indisputable and lies at the very centre of this individual's psychology, bringing together who they believe they are, what they feel, think, want and their strategies for action (Mercer, 2011a, pp. 57–58). When these components are not considered or evaluated, FL learners usually come to the classroom with unrealistic expectations of FL achievement. In other words, impractical beliefs about the self that do not tally with the realities of the FLL process. Future self-guides need to match or feel congruent with the learner self. To activate affirmative change in future self-guides, measures of the self-concept need to be framed and structured during each phase of the cyclical model outlined in Table 3. The FL learner must start by co-opting an approach grounded on the continual reflection of the plausibility of an array of scenarios in the current or working self-concept (Section 2.3.). A series of reflective processes that requires the complicity of learner self-efficacy beliefs, within which the present TL self and gender play an interactive role and are discussed in the following sections.

3.2.1. Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Bandura (1997, p. 21) defines self-efficacy beliefs as 'an individual's belief in his or her ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish a task.' If as Baumeister (1999, p. 247) claims, self-concept is the individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self is, this means that self-efficacy beliefs, or what is often referred to as self-competence beliefs, are inextricably linked to the concept of self, and consequently, need to be considered in any conceptual framework of future self-guides. Even though the examination of self-efficacy beliefs goes beyond the scope of this thesis, it is important to understand their role within the frame of reference outlined in Section 3.1. (Table 3).

The working self-concept forms the interface between self-conceptions and situated behaviour (Markus & Nurius, 1986, pp. 957-958). The image employed in a future self-guide must be regularly activated and maintained

from phase I to phase III of the proposed framework in this study, as it needs to become part of the working self-concept (Sherrill & Hoyle, 2006). What is more, to activate future self-guides, learners need to believe they can attempt and achieve a desired state or objective. As the boundless structure of the self is continually emerging and never stops forming or building new connections as learners continue to experience new challenges and encounter new contexts (Mercer, 2014), variations in internal states related to self-competence beliefs and unfolding events may require learners to readjust their self-efficacy beliefs from time to time, particularly during phase III that entails ongoing scaffolding. In other words, when learning is a matter of adding information to an existing construct of beliefs, it is likely to be relatively unproblematic. When new knowledge contradicts existing construct systems, learning is likely to be more difficult and resistance may be encountered (Benson, 2011, 2013). As a result, the composition of the working self-concept will never be entirely stable but a constant flux from one micro situation to the next, wherein self-efficacy beliefs may be challenged during the engagement of every phase within the proposed framework for future self-guides (Table 3).

To target these challenges, we need to understand how an individual approaches and manages his or her language learning and relative success in that undertaking. We also need to fully appreciate who our individual learners are and how they view themselves in relation to their FLL process (e.g. Fonseca Mora, 2001; Mercer, 2014). Actuating self-efficacy beliefs through future self-guides entails prompting learners to reflect on their FLL responsibilities and abilities, which has been shown to have a strong effect on learning outcomes (Dewaele, 2011), right from the onset. For instance, during the construal (phase I) and activation (phase II) stages, learners may misinterpret responsibility, adducing a difficult goal should be abandoned due to unreasonable difficulty (Oyserman et al., 2006). Oyserman and her colleagues suggest that difficulty be presented to learners as a normative part of the process (e.g. success is 1% inspiration and 99% perspiration), or that difficulty be interpreted as evidence of progress (e.g. the important things in life are the ones you really must work for). It is only when difficulty and failures along the way are viewed as critical to eventual success, that difficulty is proof of striving. However, targeting self-competence beliefs, in this way, demands a significant degree of individual reflection, ongoing self-regulation (Henry, Dörnyei, & Davydenko, 2015), and an adequate mindset.

Further to the brief introduction provided in Chapter 2 on reflection (Section 2.2.) and mindset (Section 2.3.3.), I will now expand on how these factors will work together to sustain self-competence beliefs during the first two phases of the proposed framework for future self-guides (Section 3.1.).

The antecedent conditions of the learner (Fukada, Fukuda, Falout & Murphey, 2011), which include the emotional baggage a learner has of him/herself and self beliefs regarding one's past successes and failures, have been shown to play an important role in the construction of self-efficacy beliefs (e.g. Chan 2014b). These studies conclude that vested interest in previously held beliefs may result in the resistance to change, as it challenges the learner's self image and their psychological capacity to deal with the fear of failure. In a recent study (refer to Table 5 in this section) by Fälth and Nilsson (2017), journals kept by participants indicated that difficulties in learning a language led to feelings of failure, causing a lack of intrinsic motivation, which led to failure on the course. Although contextually different, in an earlier study by Chan (2014a), students' display of scepticism about the use of imagery in FL learning stymied the effectivity of future self-guides and FL acquisition (refer to Table 2 above). This observation led the author of this study to conclude that only when learners agree with the rationale behind pedagogical practice will the effects of imagery be enhanced. In both situations, learners displayed insufficient confidence in their ability to overcome past failures or to engage in unconventional learning methodologies to successfully complete the task at hand.

Although, as outlined in Section 2.3.1., future self-guides require that the Ideal L2 self image be counterbalanced by awareness of the feared FL self, and the potential negative consequences of failure to attain the desired future FL self (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), this condition could be further enhanced with self-efficacy in the form of a growth mindset during the initial phase of the proposed frame of reference. According to Seli, Dembo and Crocker (2009), students who shift the reason for failure away from ability, maintain the illusion of their high ability, preserving a sense of high self-worth in detriment to their grades. Through this type of strategic manoeuvring, students attribute their failure to a lack of effort, or other controllable reasons, rather than due to a lack of ability, an uncontrollable reason. When students are successful despite employing low effort, this success is seen as

implying high ability. A form of self-handicapping that can be experienced as a no-lose situation by students with a dominant fear of failure.

Rooted in the earliest psychological formulation of self-concept, mindset provides an explanation for the gap between desired and attained outcomes (James, 1980). In Section 2.3.3., a growth mindset is defined as an approach in which learners believe that ability in FL acquisition is not static but malleable with constant hard work and effort. Incrementing self-competence beliefs through an incremental mindset would challenge their fear of failure in a reflective, rather than failure expectant, manner. This type of reflection can lead to affirmative change in a learner's self-competence beliefs that includes past experiences of FLL failure, through the development of an array of positive, language-related relationships (Mercer, 2014), furnishing the learner with a constructive selection of future possible selves and role models during the initial phase of imaging identity and performance forethought.

From the perspective of the subsequent phase included in this study's frame of reference, this means that future self-guides need to include activities that allow learners to continue reinterpreting and creating positive relationships with the past, as well as promoting optimistic relationships with future goals through visualisation and self-verbalisation strategies. Previously referred to as Vygotsky's inner and social speech theory (1987) in Section 2.2., or mental simulations, guided and scripted imagery in Section 2.3.2., Planchenault (2015) proposes the use of authentic material such as film extracts and television programmes to palliate these challenges during the activation of future self-guides (phase II). Through the power of the imagination, this type of exposure has the potential to immerse learners in countless contexts, enabling them to make meaning, to judge if the words are suitable for them, and to determine in which situations they might be able to employ these words (Murray, 2013), increasing self-efficacy through an incremental mindset.

A growing body of research suggests that an interwoven relationship exists between academic self-efficacy and implicit theories of intelligence. Komarraju and Nadler (2013) found that low self-efficacy students perceived intelligence as innate and unchangeable, while self-efficacy students worked towards mastery goals involving challenge and attaining new knowledge as

well as performance goals involving good grades and outperforming others. Puente-Díaz and Cavazos-Arroyo (2017) concluded that holding a growth mindset had a direct, positive influence on self-efficacy. In a more recent study by Zander, Brouwer, Jansen, Crayen and Hannover (2018), it was observed that the more students perceived themselves as capable to overcome future academic challenges (i.e., those with higher self-efficacy beliefs), the more they believed that intellectual talent is malleable through effort. From these findings, it would appear that it is academically advantageous for learners to adopt a growth mindset and that this is positively correlated to a student's level of self-efficacy. Said otherwise, students' self-efficacy beliefs are malleable, and learner behaviours and academic performance, particularly in challenging learning contexts, can be addressed through intervention programmes that address mindset, as this study endorses.

Two prominent studies that confirm the assumption of positive change through mindset are Blackwell, Trzesniewski, and Dweck (2007) and Oyserman et al. (2002). In a longitudinal study of 373 seventh grade students, participants were taught that intelligence is malleable during an eight-session workshop. Readings and discussions about the neural connections that are formed in the brain when it works hard were used to explain growth mindset. In their findings, Blackwell et al. assert that adolescents who endorsed more of an incremental theory of malleable intelligence also endorsed stronger self-efficacy. These students were described as adopting stronger learning goals, more positive beliefs about effort, fewer ability-based attributions, and more positive, effort-based strategies in response to failure, all of which boosted academic achievement.

To demonstrate the effect of positive change in school outcomes among children at risk of school problems based, Oyserman and her colleagues (2002) developed a 9-week after-school, small group, activities-based intervention. This study focused on enhancing youth's abilities to imagine themselves as successful adults and connecting these future images to current school involvement, applying a growth mindset. An interpretation of the experience of difficulty was presented to explain that failures along the way are normative not diagnostic. By the end of the school year, intervention youth reported more bonding to school, concern about doing well in school, 'balanced' possible selves, plausible strategies to attain these possible selves,

better school attendance, and for boys, less trouble at school. Although this intervention was brief, its effects were long-lasting, continuing over the two-year follow-up, postulating how brief interventions that highlight structural barriers and personal strengths can produce positive consequences for youth development over time and in real-world settings for individuals varying in gender, racial-ethnic, social-class and cultural backgrounds.

More recently, Lou and Noels (2017) conducted a study that supported the view that learner mindset can predict the goals learners set for language learning, which subsequently affects how learners view their learning efforts and respond to challenging academic episodes. Through an intervention, the researchers found that regardless of the level of proficiency, university language students with a fixed mindset held more negative beliefs about the usefulness of their efforts for effecting change in their language competence, were less likely to continue their L2 study, and were more fearful of failure in language learning. By contrast, students with a growth mindset held stronger positive beliefs of their efforts, were more likely to persevere with their language studies, and were less apprehensive of failure. In their conclusions, the authors of this study reinforce the importance of supporting growth mindset interventions in relation to supporting self-competence beliefs in FLL settings, a claim this study supports and implements.

If as Dweck (2006) posits, a growth mindset facilitates a bridge to 'yet', which allows learners who apply this mindset to their learning to perceive their unmet goals or objectives as yet to be accomplished, and not unreachable, this means that a growth mindset should also be taken into consideration when fostering self-competence beliefs within the proposed cyclical model for future self-guides. Addressing mindset from the initial stage of future self-guides would support learners who are at a disadvantage when they encounter obstacles, since the impact of mindset does not typically emerge until students face setbacks. In addition, it could target the receptivity of learners to adopt less conventional visualization learning strategies as an effective tool for challenging FL self-competence beliefs and overcoming FLL hurdles. Undoubtedly, maintaining positive thinking and a belief in personal ability is fundamental to the success of every phase within future self-guides, in which a growth mindset could serve as a suitable ally. However, although mindset may influence the development of self-efficacy when entertaining future self-images in the current or working self-concept (phase I), it is only

through self-regulation that these behaviours will be actualised (phases II and III). Both of which (mindset and SRL) will be measured and examined in this study.

Any procedure adopting a self-concept perspective in which future actions are subject to the learner's view of the world, needs to consider the affective aspects of the learning environment and the FL, which may significantly influence these self-perceptions during the FLL process (Fonseca Mora, 2004). As discussed in Section 2.1., the L2MSS was proposed in response to a need to reconceptualise the construct of integrativeness within the current global linguistic landscape. In the absence of TL speakers in the learner's FLL environment, identification is assigned to the cultural and intellectual values linked to the FL (Dörnyei, 2009). The question remains as to whether this affiliation remains when the FLL process takes place within the TL community, as in the context of this study. In other words, is the Ideal L2 self sufficient to underpin motivation within future self-guides among learners studying English in the UK, or do learners also need to identify with the TL reference group through English self-concept?

3.2.2. English Self-Concept

Studies (e.g. Iwaniec, 2014a, 2014b; Lau, Yeung, Jin & Low, 1999) define 'English self-concept' as the whole set of attitudes, opinions, and cognitions that a person has of himself or herself as an EFL learner in the present or current situation. To date, and to the knowledge of this study, very few studies have examined the construct of possible selves among FL students learning English in the UK. Hence, the dearth of extant research on the relevance of an English self-concept within future self-guides. Dörnyei and Csizér (2002, p. 456) suggest that a TL self-concept might not relate to a specific, or metaphorical, integration into an FL community, but as to some elementary identification process within the learner's self-concept. For this reason, Dörnyei (2009), subsequently, proposes fostering a TL self for learners to understand their role within their development of sociolinguistic competence.

Lamb (2017) highlights that one of the criticisms of the L2MSS is its future-oriented aspect of the self that ignores the motivational consequences of other self-concepts and more immediately relevant identities. For instance,

students may display 'public selves' (p. 318) in their English language classroom which are at odds with how they really see themselves as language learners, particularly in a TL setting. Henry and Cliffordson (2017) bring this discussion to the fore, reexamining the role of the Ideal L2 self in settings wherein English is a prominent language. In this study, the authors claim that measurement of the Ideal L2 self in isolation in such contexts may be inaccurate. The discrepancy students perceive between their current FL self (henceforth, English self-concept in this study) and their Ideal L2 self may not be as significant as in learning environments where exposure to English and practices in English-medium discourse are extensive and a part of everyday life. As a result, the Ideal L2 self may not be as pivotal to contributing in generating motivation as it would be in settings where English is less prominent, or the impact of globalisation is less ubiquitous. The findings of this study conclude that in the design of future research adopting a possible selves approach, it would be advisable to include measures of both English self-concept and Ideal L2 self, to which this study subscribes and adopts the dimension of English self-concept within future self-guides for the following two reasons:

1. To understand the effects of English as an FL in a TL context, in comparison to the perception of English as a global language.
2. To clearly compare and highlight the discrepancy between present and future FL selves, particularly in relation to Vygotsky's ZPD (1978), during phases II (learning performance) and III (performance evaluation) of the proposed frame of reference for future self-guides (Table 3).

The fact that globalisation has led to a growing number of contexts in which the everyday practice and use of English in social interaction is habitual, has prompted Henry and Cliffordson (2017) to reexamine the absence of a TL or integrative self-concept in future self-guides. The omnipresence of English is undoubtedly linked to globalisation, in which knowledge of English, the world's current lingua franca, is believed to assist in the attainment of cultural and social capital and economic benefits (Doiz et al., 2013a, 2013b), discussed in Section 2.1.1. Researchers need to address the question of whether English has become a basic expectation (Henry, 2010, 2014), such as the mastery of reading, writing and arithmetic, to such an extent that learning English is no longer looked upon in the same way as learning a

genuine FL. In an EMHE setting, such a connotation may have repercussions on the Ideal L2 self-concept, as learners may perceive English as primarily functional, not idealistic.

For instance, in their study, Klapwijk and van der Walt (2016) noticed that students indicated a strong disagreement with most statements that favoured assimilation with what is perceived to be an English culture to learn the language properly, which van Der Walt (2013, p. 12) refers to as English-plus multilingualism. That is, a phenomenon that privileges English as an essential element of an educated multilingual's repertoire, an academic English plus other languages, conferring both status and increased mobility in EMHE institutions. In this sense, the authors of this study compare students' use of English to the indispensable use of foreign currency for basic services and successful transactions when travelling to different countries. A temporary use of financial currency that does not make the user part of the target community or culture, which, in contrast, would take time, investment, knowledge, and real capital. Students' identification with English remaining largely utilitarian, not integral.

Bourdieu (1991) refers to this notion as the linguistic marketplace, in which different languages and varieties are hierarchically ordered and function within a market as commodities, with symbolic value attributed to them. Being able to use or access a highly valued language then implies symbolic prestige and profit. For Bourdieu, linguistic markets are simultaneously structural forces and constructions of linguistic practice and local agency. Different forms of globalisation imply variability in English language use that impacts the educational expanse. For instance, in EMHE, a symbolic value may be attributed to the academic qualification, as it confers the learner academic or professional prestige with an English-plus. Establishing clear academic and linguistic self-concepts are crucial, as an Ideal L2 self may only consider the academic, not the linguistic, while FL acquisition becomes incidental to the primal academic goal of the EMHE qualification. Both of which need to be identified and differentiated during phases I and II in the frame of reference presented in this study that include goal setting task analysis.

This sense of belonging or attachment to a perceived privileged academic cluster plays a pivotal role within future self-guides in an EMHE setting.

While the Ideal L2 self may confer the FL a future 'imagined' global identity, the 'tangible' current environment of the English self-concept may target the sense of *dépaysement*, a French term for the disorientation felt in a foreign country or culture, or the sense of foreignness and/or national ownership felt by EFL students studying in a TL context. This means that the capacity to visualise a future self-guide significantly depends on the extent to which learners can interact in TL setting based on past and present experience (Ushioda, 2011a). The substantiation of learner self-concept in future self-guides needs to be constructed and activated along a timeline that stems from the past to the future, while being aware of the present.

To do this, Henry and Cliffordson's (2017) reevaluation of measurement in Ideal L2 self suggests that a more productive strategy might be to focus on aspects of an Ideal L2 self that potentially differ from the learner's English self-concept, as this would encourage students to develop aspects of their Ideal L2 self not currently included in the English self. Such an approach would permit learners to balance their imagined and tangible TL contexts with their academic and linguistic goals in an integrative manner. Integrating strategies within future self-guides that address an English self-concept and an Ideal L2 self would not only provide learners with a clear current and future state, but also convey an accurate overview of their progression from phase I to phase III of the cyclical model proposed in Section 3.1. This means that, future self-guides that embody a separate componential element for both English self-concept and the Ideal L2 self, would allow EFL learners to gauge the ZPD between their imagined global identity and their current tangible linguistic development.

At the forethought performance phase, this study proposes that future self-guides include an EFL learner SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis. Such an inquiry would prompt learners to evaluate the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of their current and future concepts of the self from the outset. Reflection, regulation and mindset within future self-guides require a personal project that leads to self-construction. Conducting a SWOT analysis would also permit learners to identify what Gibson (1977) refers to as 'affordances' in relation to their English self-concept and Ideal L2 self. To develop academic and sociolinguistic competence, students need to be able to identify and take ownership of the contexts and elements around them, which are of benefit to their linguistic

growth. Every social ecology offers different affordances, and although learners will capitalise on each affordance in different ways (van Lier, 2010), they need to astutely compare and measure their extrinsic gains, losses, competence, relatedness, control and self-regulation (Deci & Ryan, 1987) over the utilisation of each affordance. By doing so, a learner would be able to evaluate and interpret any given self-relevant event based on the context of possibility it surrounds (Markus & Nurius, 1986). For this analysis to be personal and academic, it needs to be linked to the overall pedagogical aims of the EAP course. Given its future state, the Ideal L2 self is more likely to represent the distal goal of the EMHE undergraduate degree in the first phase of this study's intervention. Because of its present nature, English self-concept will probably stand for the proximal goals in the second phase of this study's intervention, which relate to the learners' linguistic development and needs to pass the EAP course successfully (discussed in more detail in Section 3.3.2).

Within the self, Zimmerman (1998) identifies and describes a transportable identity as one that subsumes all the factors which come together to make a person's identity unique to them, which can include their sex, race, passions, fears, hopes and dreams. For a visualisation to be truly internalised and effective from a motivational standpoint, all areas of a person's transportable identity must be embraced, creating a vision which reflects not only their personal context but all aspects of their character (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). So far, this study has reviewed all pertinent affective aspects within future self-guides. As the ethnographic composition of the sample in this study is fairly homogenous, it only remains to examine the role of gender within future self-guides.

3.2.3. Gender as a Transportable Identity

For the context and purposes of this study, the Concise Oxford English dictionary defines 'gender' as, 'either of the two sexes (male and female), especially when considered with reference to social and cultural differences rather than biological ones.' (p. 592)

Since English is being reframed as a basic must-have educational skill (Section 2.1.1.), Lasagabaster (2016) argues that the gender-appropriateness of EFL learning is less marked than is the case for other FLs. Be that as it may,

gender continues to be one of the most ubiquitous sociological aspects to be investigated in FL acquisition research literature. Not only that, Henry (2009) exhorts that it is vital that gender be included as a key variable in future research conducted within the self-system paradigm as it is central to the learner's self-concept. Gender is a core component both in global self-perceptions, as well as in the multiplicity of different sub-constructs, of which the FL self-concept is but one. As a transportable identity, gender is always present and permeates the development of self-concepts diachronically, which inevitably means gender needs to be considered within any framework that fosters future self-guides. On that ground, it is germane to this study to further explore the influence of gender on these dimensions.

Although the effects of gender on FL motivation have been investigated over the years (e.g. Dörnyei & Csizér 2002), Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) highlight that general clarification is still required on the pronounced gender variation. So far, studies have evinced that men do not do as well as women on some indicators of motivation (Gardner, 1985; Ryan, 2009a, 2009b), are less motivated (Clark & Trafford, 1995), are less accepting of the necessity to learn an FL (Powell & Batters, 1985), are more likely to drop an FL (e.g. Carr & Pauwels, 2006), demonstrate less overall commitment than girls, irrespective of the FL studied (Dörnyei et al., 2006), and weaken their Ideal L2 self-concepts over time, while girls' strengthen (Ryan, 2009a, 2009b).

Over two decades ago, Markus and Oyserman (1989) argued that both men and women can have social identities based on gender, adding that men and women may differ in the propensity to use social and relational information. Their findings concluded that men are more likely to define the self as separated from contexts and relationships, whereas for women it tends to be embedded within them. Differences that also have implications for which cognitive procedures are accessible when the self is salient, and subject to context. Various studies have continued to examine these inferences, and the impact of gender has been researched by various scholars, accordingly, in relation to possible selves.

Drawing primarily on the work of Markus and Kitayama (1991) and Cross and Madson (1997), in a review of research examining the influence of gender on the functions, development, and characteristics of possible selves, Knox (2006) argues that gender roles have a crucial impact on the

construction and construal of possible selves that females and males develop. Supporting earlier deductions made by Markus and Oyserman, her findings claim that although a male possible self may serve to define himself as unique and separate himself from others, females may be more likely to incorporate the views of others, or representations of others, in forming possible selves and in determining self-worth (Knox, p. 61). In this study, males were more prone to formulate an Ideal self that positioned them as independent of and superior to others, whereas females were more inclined to develop future selves that were characterised by interpersonal qualities.

Subsequent studies by Henry (2011a, 2011b) also support these earlier claims, concluding that female possible selves are characterized by more interdependence and interpersonal qualities than those of males. This is further argued in a follow-up study by Henry and Cliffordson (2013), which contends that women's greater concern with interpersonal interaction and investing in self-other relationships makes it easier for them to envision themselves in future FL communication situations, which in turn allows for the development of more elaborate and phenomenologically more robust motivational future self-guides.

In an L2MSS context, gender has long featured as a significant individual difference, with females generally scoring higher for integrativeness and SRL (e.g. Williams, Burden & Lanvers 2002), for having ideal L2 selves (e.g. Henry & Cliffordson 2013), for intended learning effort (e.g. Ryan 2009a, 2009b), and for participation in foreign exchange programmes (Taylor 2000). For example, in a study conducted by Ryan (2009a, 2009b), Japanese women exhibited a higher sense of Ideal L2 self as well as of integrativeness and intended learning effort. Focusing on possible selves held by Swedish schoolchildren, Henry (2009) revealed that over a three-year period, girls' FL self-concepts, particularly, notions of the ideal self, strengthened and were more robust than boys', suggesting girls' possible FL selves might be less susceptible to negative comparisons. This tendency was found in both English and other foreign languages.

This trend has also been observed among Chinese students, and of interest, since most of the participants in our study were Chinese learners. Chinese females scored significantly higher on Ideal L2 selves, while Chinese males reported higher scores on the ought-to L2 self dimension, which infers a

greater susceptibility to prescribed external obligations among Chinese males (You et al., 2016; You & Dörnyei 2016). You et al. (2016) observed a marked difference between males and females in secondary school students and university non-English majors. Although the researchers reported no gender differences in the way visualization capacity influences the components of the L2MSS, females scored significantly higher on Ideal L2 selves. Women reported stronger visualization capacity operationalized by vividness of imagery and ease of using imagery (p. 103). The researchers found that females were more amenable to FL visualisation than their male peers, except among members of the highest motivated group. Analogously, You and Dörnyei (2016) also concluded that high-level motivation superseded gender-based variation. In this study, the authors observed that females consistently outscored males among secondary school pupils and non-English majors on all assessed measures, save among English majors where the same trend was weaker. Their findings adduce that women's general superiority in FL attitudes and motivation might be linked to their better engagement with these processes.

Some authors claim (e.g. Pajares & Valiante, 2001) that these gender differences might be a function of gender stereotypic beliefs, rooted in differing educational expectations for girls and boys: boys are expected to be good at mathematics and girls are expected to be good at languages. A premise further substantiated by Henry's (2009, 2011a, 2011b) extensive work in this area, which offers a possible rationale in the form of gender-specific self-concept beliefs. He explains that theorists (e.g. Shavelson, Hubner & Stantonet, 1976; Wylie, 1979) recognise that prior to adulthood, changes are likely to be noticeable, particularly during transitional periods in development, such as early/mid and mid/late adolescence (Cole, Jacquez & Maschman, 2001). To address this phenomenon, Hill and Lynch (1983) developed the concept of gender-role intensification, arguing that the socialising influences experienced by adolescents in familial, peer-group and educational contexts mean that, as they become older, they become more stereotypical in their gender-role identities, attitudes and behaviours.

Henry (2011a) conducted a review of 21 motivation studies, in which findings reported favourable gender differences for women in 17 studies, while four did not. Overall, Henry concluded that very few studies failed to find gender differences in at least some domains and that women tend to

have stronger integrative motivation about how they identify with the FL and TL culture. The author of this study adds that while gender divergences have been found in a range of subject areas (e.g. mathematics, sport and L1 [native language] skills), it is only in language domains that initial divergences remain constant over time or increase, adducing FLL beliefs are gender dependant. Against this background, Henry recommends the need for trainers to ensure they specifically target boys when envisioning future FL selves, to challenge these behavioural stereotypes and countervail the risk of gender-role intensification.

The integration of technology as an education skill may be the key to countervailing these effects. While studies in FL learning continue to report (e.g. Ryan 2009a) higher L2 motivation and improvement of the self-concept to be more propitious among females, males appear to hold more positive attitudes towards using technology in the classroom (e.g. Plumm, 2008). Linking technology to future self-guides in a way that allows students to develop an understanding of the interrelationship between self-concept, learner aims, progress and development may allow male students' positive attitudes towards using technology in the classroom to benefit L2 learning. At the same time, this praxis would support and examine digital literacy in the L2 classroom, particularly on female students' interest in technology, which remains underdeveloped.

3.3.Digital Learning Environments in Education

Ding, Xiong and Liu (2015) offer the following definition on digital learning environments (henceforth, DLEs):

The digital learning environment is a cooperative and investigative learning system based on Internet resources. It is an open-learning space that contains abundant, diverse resources and interactive and nonlinear organization information resources in line with human cognitive characteristics. In such an environment, learners can decide when to learn, where to learn and what to learn. (Ding et al., 2015, p. 1367)

Pursuant to this interpretation, DLEs offer a fertile environment for the conductivity of FL acquisition. Although, still an underinvestigated context (Ziegler, 2015a, 2015b), the complex and rich media landscape of the Internet is

shaping literacy education (Chan & Herrero, 2010). Young people seem to engage more and in greater numbers with technological popular media (e.g. video games, computer-based activities and computer programming), developing the skills and confidence in navigating digital spaces and new technological tools. As students are becoming avid media consumers and creators by using the Internet, participatory culture has shifted the focus of literacy from one of individual expression to community involvement. In fact, the visual, even in the context of writing and composition, appears to have taken a central position within the multimodal landscape of communication. This makes it increasingly important for education to attend to the literacy practices of students and the diverse ways of making meaning, in particular the multilingual, visual and multimodal, and the digital (Jewitt, 2008, p. 56).

Building on the foundation of traditional literacy, research skills, technical skills and critical analysis skills taught in the classroom, Chan and Herrero (2010) claim that to prepare students for the challenges presented by our globalised, networked, culturally diverse world, educators should put into practice strategies and activities that underpin the new media literacies involved in accessing, analysing, interpreting, understanding and creating visual messages in a multimedia environment. What is more, these experiences with technology need to be recognised by language teachers as valuable learning tools within pedagogical practice. On the one hand, this would allow professionals to confront the existing dilemma in contemporary education surrounding the difficulties in integrating technology in classrooms (Meyer et al., 2010). On the other hand, it would allow researchers to consider the experience of FL learners in a more holistic manner that considers the learning experience beyond the classroom, as many scholars recommend (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005; Ryan, 2008; Ushioda, 2001).

Based on a growing body of research, studies have indicated that DLEs not only facilitate and support the development of linguistic (e.g. Sauro, 2009) and pragmatic skills (e.g. Sykes, 2005), but also that the benefits go beyond improved quantity and quality of language production. Digital tools have been found to have a positive effect on affective, social, and cultural factors (e.g. Müller-Hartmann & Schocker-von Ditfurth, 2010; Yamada & Akahori, 2007), with many learners preferring and perceiving them as beneficial to their learning (Steel & Levy, 2013).

Pertinent to the objectives of this investigation, particularly Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD and affordances in relation to motivation and SRL, there is substantial support for the use of DLEs in supporting and facilitating awareness. Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 2001; Schmidt & Frota, 1986) emphasises the importance of noticing. According to this hypothesis, noticing is a necessary condition of FL acquisition, with empirical studies demonstrating a direct link between the noticing of a target feature and its subsequent intake (e.g. Izumi, 2002; Leow, 2001; Mackey, Philp, Egi, Fujii & Tatsumi, 2002). Research suggests that digital-mediated contexts may promote the noticing of forms and gaps between learners' interlanguage and the TL, underscoring the potential benefits for FL development due to the increased number of noticing opportunities afforded to learners. Searching for causes, Yilmaz and Yuksel (2011) found that the use of DLEs may reduce the cognitive burden on learners during the task, thereby freeing up attentional resources to take advantage of noticing opportunities. It is this additional time to notice and to process target forms that may offer DLEs a small advantage on classroom interaction alone.

A further affordance, parallel to film and media strategies included in this study to foster self-efficacy beliefs (Section 3.2.1.) and a growth mindset (Section 2.3.3.), Herrero (2016) explains that UNESCO and the European Union (British Film Institute, 2015) have identified media education, linked to digital literacy, as a priority for the twenty-first century. This author summarises that research over the last 15 years into the impact of multimodal audio-visual texts on language learning has identified positive benefits. Within which, EFL is identified as the one with higher potential for growth. For example, short clips and recordings can help to:

- improve language skills (building vocabulary, increasing attainment in writing, and improving the aural and oral competences);
- foster visual and media literacies;
- nurture critical thinking and creativity;
- promote cultural understanding and communication across cultures;
- and support lifelong language learning.

English audio-visual media can be used to create a positive atmosphere in the classroom, which can enhance motivation. While video, film, and audio-visual media and video making are gradually achieving importance as effective tools in FL teaching, the challenge for teachers is often to find ways of successfully

integrating audio-visual media in the FL curriculum. As in previous studies (e.g. Chan & Herrero, 2010; Daly, 2016; Sánchez Vizcaíno & Fonseca Mora, 2019), this study intends to include the employment of audio-visual media as a stimulus for other activities, such as listening comprehension, role modelling of the spoken and written language, raising intercultural awareness, introducing employability themes and skills, discussing social issues, and exposing learners to authentic materials that represent the FL culture, language, current issues and challenges.

From a possible selves' dimension, studies (e.g. Lee & Markey, 2014; O'Rourke, Haimovitz, Ballwebber, Dweck & Popovic, 2014; Thorne, Sauro, & Smith, 2015) have found that the unique context of DLEs may provide learners with opportunities to construct positive FL identities, thereby supporting future self-guides. In a study by Hernández-Zamora and Zotzmann (2014), students were encouraged to use digital tools as a means for self-representation and to try out different ways of constructing their own identities and voice, as this study aims to do through future self-guides. The authors of this study observed that the design of pedagogic interventions that offer a range of alternatives to the rather rigid design of academic genres is particularly important in relation to the current internationalisation of universities. DLEs in this study had great potential to engage and motivate students, enabling them to link their experiences in and outside of the classroom. Participants entered into dialogue with their learner self, they reflected upon and expressed their values and knowledge, while they became aware of the constraints and affordances of past and alternative digital learning experiences.

Assuredly, future research should consider the use of multiple methods, to provide a more holistic and complete understanding of whether DLEs support or constrain affective factors such as motivation and SRL (Ziegler, 2016), or in the case of this study, future self-guides. To date, various studies have shown the positive impact of DLEs on learners' motivation and SRL (e.g. Kruk, 2012; McCrocklin, 2016) adducing that spending even a few minutes per week on strategy training, can help students realise opportunities for practice and become more self-regulated learners. Online resources and software are tools that can promote motivation and SRL by enabling experimentation in the classroom and through self-access work outside of class. McCrocklin (2016) adds that DLEs enable experimentation in ways that are impossible when practising with speakers of the language because the experimentation is

potentially endless (as long as the technology has power, you can practice with it) and students are freed from the language anxiety that may block them from being willing to communicate.

The possible negative effects of this perpetual digital connection, recently reviewed by Malone (2017), also need to be considered. Learners have more opportunities than ever to remain in their mother tongue environment through the Internet. Consequently, EFL students in the UK have more options to live outside the TL culture than before, thus, being in the TL environment may not be as authentic. Given this situation, Malone suggests teachers entertain how to best structure and maximise students' exposure to and use of the TL combining existing methodologies with emerging innovations. Put differently, pedagogical materials need to be adapted to the contemporary digital context of the learner.

Although possible selves are not necessarily generated in classrooms, the effect of classroom learning on keeping these selves alive, plausible and active depends on the extent to which these selves are supported by the classroom learning situation (Asker, 2012). Considering the significant role of vision and imagery ascribed to possible selves, employed effectively, DLEs could provide a suitable platform for future self-guides. A key factor in the high rate of attrition among motivated adults in DLEs is attributed to the lack of guidance and support in content delivered by technology (Nielson, 2011). Adopting a DLE for future self-guides does not simply mean leaving learners to their own devices but implies a more active process of fostering guidance and encouragement to help learners extend and systematise the capacities they already possess through reflection and action. From this perspective, two factors must be considered to foster such a process and are discussed to follow, respectively:

1. Identifying a suitable digital platform that can adopt and support the construct of future self-guides.
2. Integrating the digital platform for future self-guides within course curricula and pedagogical objectives.

3.3.1. An ePortfolio Platform for Future Self-Guides

Barrett (2000) offers the following definition on ePortfolios:

An electronic portfolio includes the use of electronic technologies that allow the portfolio developer to collect and organize artefacts in many formats (audio, video, graphics, and text). A standards-based electronic portfolio uses hypertext links to organize the material to connect artefacts to appropriate goals or standards. Often, the terms electronic portfolio and digital portfolio are used interchangeably. An electronic portfolio is not a haphazard collection of artefacts (i.e. a digital scrapbook or multimedia presentation) but rather a reflective tool that demonstrates growth over time. (Barrett, 2000, p. 1).

As discussed in Section 3.3., identifying a suitable digital platform that can embody the dynamic construct of future self-guides during FL acquisition is pivotal to this study. Fundamental to this digital framework is how students' social identities engage in their FL interactions within and beyond the classroom, as helping learners to bridge their learning experiences in the two contexts would seem to have important consequences for how they visualise themselves as users of the FL in the future (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 198). Advances in web technologies have provided new opportunities for learning, particularly life-long learning, resulting in the recommendation that Electronic Portfolios (or ePortfolios) be used as a personal learning environment (Attwell, 2007; Barrett, 2009), or to represent one's digital identity of the 21st century (Meyer et al., 2010). It is on this principle, that this study proposes ePortfolios be presented as an eligible platform for future self-guides. ePortfolios comprise two processes: general portfolio development and multimedia project development (Barrett, 2000). To follow, equal attention is paid to these complimentary processes, as both are essential for effective electronic portfolio development. The broader concept of general portfolio development is discussed first, after which ePortfolios are presented in their own right as a multimedia project that can adopt the conceptuality of future self-guides.

The use of Portfolios has been broadly discussed and praised in relation to identity construal, self-assessment and goal attainment in education. The now widely-used European Portfolio (Little, 2005) and its version for student teachers (Burkert & Schwienhorst, 2008) has been an especially useful tool in the context of self-assessment (Benson, 2011, 2013), and extremely relevant to learners' academic and professional trajectories. Admittedly, times have changed, and instability has settled in many academic and

professional contexts. It is now common practice for individuals to have to prove their skills when submitting an academic or employment application. An example of this is the California Institute of the Arts (CalArts). Founded and created by Walt Disney for students of both the visual and performing arts, this institution stipulates the submission of a student portfolio as an entry requirement. That being the case, it makes sense to integrate portfolios within pedagogical practice. Not only would this foster identity construal, self-assessment and goal attainment, but it would also provide a tool to showcase the numerous pieces of work submitted by a student throughout their academic career.

Hung (2012) provides the following definition on portfolios:

A portfolio is a purposeful collection of a student's work that documents their progress over time: a key assessment tool that enables learning, focusing on process and progress. (Hung, 2012, p. 22)

Within curricular instruction a portfolio can include essays, compositions, poems, book reports, video or tape recordings, and any other activity that teachers decide to include. Collection of these artefacts includes keeping track and working to improve drafts. An exercise that requires reflection in the form of metacognitive goal setting and reflective self-assessment practices, which is also applicable to future self-guides.

An empirical review of the literature on portfolios carried out by Burner (2014) indicates students perceive it as a positive assessment tool, which engages many pedagogical tools and skills besides self-assessment. Portfolios allow ongoing and interactive revision (Weigle, 2002) and reflection, placing the student in the centre of learning (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000; Murphy, 1997). They lead to increased SRL and a sense of responsibility for one's own learning (e.g. Apple & Shimo, 2004; Armstrong, 2011; González, 2009; Little, 2009; Nezakatgoo, 2011). Portfolios have proven to be effective for FL students' learning results (e.g. Martínez-Lirola, 2008), particularly writing skills and writing development (e.g. Aydin, 2010; Baturay & Daloğlu, 2010; Lam, 2013; Nezakatgoo, 2011; Li, 2010).

Although portfolios have been used in North America and in some European countries for over a decade, Martínez-Lirola and Rubio (2009) underscore the dearth of literature reported within the field of EFL studies. A gap in the research to which this investigation intends to add empirical data. The authors of this study conclude that portfolios are an authentic form of evaluation because they establish a link between theory and practice by helping students assume the responsibility for their own learning. Learners must be involved in the evaluation process by integrating evaluation into the learning process, and by organising and giving coherence to the information they have prepared. Although portfolios may require more effort for lecturers than traditional lessons, these authors assert they are student-centred and allow learners to develop the following competencies, all of which can be applied to future self-guides (Martínez-Lirola & Rubio, 2009, p. 95):

- students act upon their own initiative;
- they know how to organise a realistic work plan;
- students can use different sources of information and are able to contrast them;
- they can understand and decode the information that is found in texts;
- students state and resolve problems;
- they are willing to know new things and to go deeply into them;
- students can transfer, extrapolate and apply their knowledge to new situations;
- and, they reflect and evaluate their own work.

Hernández-Zamora and Zotzmann (2014) claim that DLEs can develop students' sense of themselves as authors of their own words, meanings, and selves, which Ushioda (2011b) links to students' transportable identities. Adapting portfolio practices to a digital and multimodal approach could potentially enhance these learning competencies. These authors foreground the relation between the environment learners find themselves in, the purposes they pursue, the resources available to them, and the choices they make in order to create meaning. Just as material objects afford specific actions, symbolic objects, such as modes and genres, suggest specific intellectual, communicative, or expressive possibilities. Indeed, the extent to which students engage in the identification and utilisation of English-language affordances (discussed in Section 3.2.2.) may in fact contribute to

students displaying a higher level of integration (Csizér & Kormos, 2008). This means that, exposure to media products such as the Internet, for instance, may predominate and exert significantly more influence on attitudes about the FL and its culture during the construal and activation of FL possible selves than direct contact with the TL.

Introducing multimodal contexts to English language teaching (henceforth, ELT) instruction offers learners opportunities to make choices and take control of not only which tools they elect to use, but also how to take advantage of the various features of the available technology to successfully complete the task at hand (Kenning, 2010). This increases the cultural know-how needed to deal with technologized forms of language, as being literate in one mode does not imply being literate in all modes. In addition, the fact that these multimodal digital environments are accessible from students' mobile phones may bridge the gap beyond the classroom. However, the guidance students receive while learning, in terms of the quality of the support and the materials provided by the teacher, are crucial in this development (Ziegler, 2016).

Established as a field of research within the wider field of portfolio research are ePortfolios, which offer the use of digital technologies that allow the portfolio developer to collect and organize artefacts in many formats (audio, video, graphics, and text). A process that permits the assessment of FL acquisition skills, while it embeds opportunities for self-construal, reflection, revision, and collaboration (Pullman, 2002), as required in future self-guides. Since ePortfolios expand to include sound, images, and hypertexts within one environment, it presents the possibility for multimedia project development through new digital literacies (Hawisher & Selfe, 1997), thereby incrementing affordances for learners to develop FLL using a personal voice that scaffolds their transition towards their academic objectives.

Researchers advocate (e.g. Hung, 2012; Sung, Chang, Yu, & Chang, 2009) the continued voluntary usage of ePortfolios, as proposed in this study, as this would elicit more information on the feasibility and suitability of using them to increase teachers' interaction in a learning community, and possibly incite curriculum change (to be discussed in Section 3.3.2). Its advocates (e.g. Daly, 2016) support the use of ePortfolios and personal development planning to encourage students to focus on reflective practice and transferable skills, as

this has been found to increase language students' employability and performative assessment skills.

Electronic portfolios not only summarise a student's creative achievements, but they also provide a digital narrative, that may serve to deepen students' learning experiences by placing them at the centre of his or her learning. Students can scaffold essential metacognitive skills such as goal setting, identifying strategies, and reflecting on one's learning (Abrami, Venkatesh, Meyer & Wade, 2013) in a manner that parallels their digital native understanding of the universe. A cognitive process similar to the calibration of the working self-concept in future self-guides.

Electronic portfolios are digital tools that differ from general portfolios in the following manner (Barrett, 2009):

- they build on the evidence of what is already known about effective portfolio pedagogy, and make working with portfolios more engaging, dynamic, and accessible for students, teachers, and parents;
- they can offer valuable opportunities for integrating technology into language classrooms;
- they are digital containers capable of storing visual and auditory content, including text, images, video, and sound;
- and, they may also be learning tools not only because they organize content, but also because they are designed to support a variety of pedagogical processes and assessment purposes.

While interactions in English-mediated digital environments can be engaging, creative and personally meaningful, experiences in academic contexts can differ substantially (Henry & Cliffordson, 2017). Within the field of ELT, many (e.g. Carrier, Damerow & Bailey, 2017) see the role of pedagogy as the driving force of effective digital learning, advocating a shift in current practice as regards the design of pedagogical models based on technology. For this reason, and to elicit more information on the feasibility and suitability of ePortfolio implementation, it is fundamental that this study continue testing the validity of ePortfolios through a precisely defined pedagogical framework.

Barrett (2007) defines an ePortfolio as a developmental process consisting of three components (content, purpose and process), with a system that uses electronic technologies as the container, allowing students and teachers to collect and organise portfolio artefacts in many media types (audio, video, graphics, text), and using hypertext links to organise the material, connecting evidence to appropriate outcomes, goals or standards. Barrett (2000) proposes a five-stage process for the development of ePortfolios, based on the consolidation of the general portfolio and multimodal development processes. This study intends to integrate the cyclical model proposed for future self-guides in Section 3.1. (refer to Table 3) into Barrett's five-stage ePortfolio development process, henceforth digital future-self guides. As is shown in Table 4 below, the first and second phases of the ePortfolio development process (defining the portfolio and the working portfolio) can serve as a parallel interface to the first and second phases, respectively, of the cyclical model proposed for future self-guides. These stages entail the definition of context and goals, followed by the design and structure of goal-mapping strategies. The final three phases of the ePortfolio development process (the reflective, connected and presentation portfolio) can offer an interface for the sustainability, evaluation and execution of future self-guides within phase 3 of the cyclical model proposed for future self-guides.

Table 4: Digital future-self guides

Phase	ePortfolio development process	Proposed model for future self-guides (Table 3)
1	Defining the portfolio: context & goals (Purpose, audience, decide, assess)	<i>Imaging identity and performance forethought</i>
2	The working portfolio (collect, interject, design, plan)	<i>Mapping the Journey and learning performance</i>
3	The reflective portfolio (select, reflect, direct, develop)	<i>Keeping the vision alive and performance evaluation</i>
4	The connected portfolio (inspect, perfect, connect, implement, evaluate)	
5	The presentation portfolio (respect, celebrate, present, publish)	

Although the potential for technology to radically transform and improve education is widely recognized, there have been mixed results when new technologies meet the realities of the diverse and changing classroom contexts. From this perspective, Carney (2005) cautions that:

Unless we critically evaluate our uses of the device, we may find that they will go the way of Papert's Logo turtles and become yet another educational fad, an innovation poorly understood and often implemented in ways contrary to its theoretical underpinnings. (Carney, 2005, p. 4)

Current literature (e.g. Bright, 2016; Haggerty & Thompson, 2017) concurs that, the intentional use of ePortfolios as a pedagogic tool requires appropriate design of learning objectives. These aims should align with the curriculum's overall principles and assessment and be supported by sound pedagogical theory. Theoretically, an ePortfolio designed upon Dörnyei's (2009) pedagogical framework of future self-guides would confer this system a student-centred approach, which allows learners to continually evaluate their FL individual and curricular aims in relation to their development, while pedagogy remains the driving force of technology.

It is against this background that this study proposes that digital future self-guides be integrated effectively within curricular objectives. In the following section, two issues pertaining to the successful integration of ePortfolios with sound education principles that align with the curriculum are discussed. First, the coadaptation of the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides (Table 4) and EAP course objectives in a joint venture are presented. This proposal entails a project that supports ePortfolio implementation and aims to improve motivation, mindset, while it provides further opportunities for self-regulation and FLL development in a visible and measurable manner. The second concerns the design of the study to be conducted. In order for a construct to be researchable, it must be describable in terms of observable phenomena. Said otherwise, how exactly does a digital platform underpinned on the conceptuality of future self-guides fit into the academic curriculum, and how can it provide a cogent analysis of students' FLL progress, motivation and SRL?

3.3.2. Embedding Digital Future Self-Guides within the Curriculum

In a recent review on the motivational dimension of language teaching, Lamb (2017) aptly summarises the role of the teacher and learning environment as follows:

The paradox of good teaching is that it must be done while allowing learners to feel in control of events. The key question teachers need to ask themselves is not 'how can I motivate my students?' but 'How can I create the conditions under which students will be able to motivate themselves? (Lamb, 2017, p. 331)

From a teacher-researcher perspective, the prime objective in this study is to identify how teachers can boost learner motivation and SRL, while observing whether this generates greater FL acquisition gains. The social psychologist Kurt Lewin in the mid-1940s referred to research as a form of social action, admonishing that research that produces nothing but books is incomplete. As Holliday (1994, p. 161) suggests, understanding a classroom is 'something which has to be worked through in the situation in which teaching and learning have to take place.' Under well-designed ePortfolio implementation, learners are expected to become empowered, motivated, more reflective and interactive (Bolliger & Shepherd, 2010). Despite the growth of ePortfolios within higher education, their role remains undecided (e.g. Housego & Parker, 2009). For ePortfolios to be beneficial, individual and curricular objectives need to be balanced in structure (Nguyen, 2013; Richards-Schuster, Ruffolo, Nicoll, Distelrath & Galura, 2014; Tonogbanua, 2018). This means that they need to be student-driven, so that learners can engage continually in the recalibration of current and new understandings about their personal goals and their academic intentions (Nguyen, 2013). Robinson and Udall (2004) argue that fostering an environment in which learners can record their own process, and then reflect critically upon their development, over time, leads to better engagement with curricular objectives. However, whether these same gains can be attained over a short period of time, or whether they can be applied to the context of ELT at tertiary level requires further investigation.

Studies (e.g. Bright, 2016; Guasch, Guàrdia & Barberá, 2009; Haggerty & Thompson, 2017) examining the necessary conditions for ePortfolio implementation in higher education curricula concur that this should align with the curriculum's overarching philosophy and assessment, add value and be purposeful. For this to happen, ePortfolio design and implementation require careful consideration. Therefore, investment in good curriculum and learning design is essential. For the purposes of this study, this entails

identifying a suitable curricular module and assignment, within which digital future self-guides can be integrated effectively.

González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) advocate that tasks curricula acknowledge and embrace the integration of technology as not only a medium but also an opportunity for learning by doing, providing opportunities for learners to improve their digital literacy and real-world technology skills. They add that tasks mediated through digital technology may reduce learners' anxiety and increase their motivation and creativity, as well as promote more engagement and participation. As digital learning can impact the entire curriculum, the authors of this study emphasise that careful consideration of guidelines during the design, implementation and assessment phases of digitally-mediated tasks is fundamental. These researchers (González-Lloret and Ortega, 2014, pp. 5-6) suggest the following set of criteria for curricular activities using digital technologies, which this study believes should go hand in hand with the framework proposed for digital future self-guides in Section 3.3.1.:

1. The primary focus is on meaning. Learners focus on the content, including semantic and pragmatic meaning, rather than the form.
2. Goal orientation is necessary. The task must provide communicative purpose, stimulated by learners' need to impart information, solve a problem, or express an opinion, as well as a communicative or non-communicative outcome resulting from task completion. The learners' use of language is necessary to achieve the desired outcome and is not necessarily the objective per se.
3. The task should be learner centred, requiring learners to draw mainly on their own linguistic and nonlinguistic resources in addition to their digital skills.
4. Tasks are authentic and representative of the real world, drawing on real-world processes of language use and integrating form and function.
5. Opportunities for reflective learning are also provided. This offers learners the chance not only to learn by doing, but also to consider the process as well as the outcome, encouraging cyclical and reflective learning.

For ePortfolio implementation to adhere to these five criteria and provide opportunities for reflection, skills development and self-assessment, they are

subject to various caveats. As a case in point, and in an ELT context, Cheng (2008) explored and analysed the problems encountered during the implementation of an ePortfolio system over a period of five years in Hong Kong. Students' main concerns were internet privacy and their inability to adapt information technology to preparing electronic artefacts. For teachers, time and skills for learning a new Web-based system, excessive workload caused by online assessment and plagiarism were the subjects of their attention. Conversely, students acknowledged the system as a good tool to present their personalised ability, to understand their individual deficiencies, to learn from others' achievements and feedback, as well as to plan for self-improvement.

In a recent evaluation of 21 ePortfolio projects by Joyes, Gray & Hartnell-Young (2010), these authors concluded that although ePortfolios can be used effectively as a pedagogic tool when embedded in curricular teaching, at an institutional level, adequate support and training of the processes involved in its use should be provided, while ownership and construction of the ePortfolio need to be transferred to the student, as it is the process of preparing the ePortfolio that promotes active learning (e.g. Haggerty & Thompson, 2017). Training and support need to be timely and ongoing with both students and practitioners, while implementation cannot be *ad hoc* but needs to be supported.

At course level, an understanding of the purpose of its use and learning activity design is required to ensure effective ePortfolio practice. An ePortfolio should complement the existing curriculum rather than just add to the full learning workload. Similarly, opportunities for self-directed and meaningful learning, personal growth, and skills development will only be fostered when the elements of construction, reflection, individuality and collaboration are activated within the ePortfolio learning activity design (e.g. Botterill, Allan & Brooks, 2008; Jimoyiannis, 2012).

At both an institutional and course level, the current literature exemplifies the detrimental impact of overlooking these thresholds. Limited understanding of the tool together with reticence and weariness to implement or use a new tool appear as barriers to ePortfolio implementation (e.g. Haggerty & Thompson, 2017; Ring, Waugaman, Brackett & Jackson, 2015). Time-management and workload are also noted as significantly

prejudicial to ePortfolio integration (e.g. Lewis, 2017; Walton, Gardner & Aleksejuniene, 2016; Zinger & Sinclair, 2014), as a substantial amount of time is required to master using a new web-based system and converting tasks to electronic format is skill-demanding (e.g. Cheng, 2008). Assessment difficulty concerning a lack of prioritisation when ePortfolios are not a summative requirement for students ensues questions of purpose and apathy (e.g. Haggerty & Thompson, 2017).

To address these thresholds, the system should underpin the development of assignments (artefacts), the course-level assessment of those artefacts, the student's ability to connect that work to one or more academic competencies, and the formative feedback on the quality of work selected for the competencies. Implementing a tool that supports the assessment goals of the university through a learner-centred group project, which can simultaneously support student-centred FL objectives via future self-guides, would address these caveats.

Practical and ethical challenges of quasi-experimental interventions, as employed in this study, include attempts to control intervening variables and gaining permission from diverse stakeholders. This means appropriate statistical measures must be implemented consistently, while working with groups of teachers to help make their practice more motivating for their learners. In a recent review, Lamb (2017) recommends the use of interventions as they offer the most persuasive evidence of motivational impact, while seeming to favour digital technology and learner-centred project work across the curriculum. For which, the theoretical concept of a DMC proposed by Dörnyei and colleagues (Dörnyei, Ibrahim & Muir, 2015a; Dörnyei et al., 2016) has proven to be an apt measure in studies (Lamb, 2017). Based on the essential features of DMCs, Dörnyei and his colleagues present a series of frameworks for class projects in language learning (Lamb, 2017, p. 334):

1. it should start with a clear collective goal, for which everyone feels a sense of ownership;
2. there are sub-goals and progress checks built into the process;
3. it generates positive emotionality in the group;
4. and, it has a demonstrable outcome, in the form of a performance / exhibition / production.

Briefly discussed in Section 2.1., DMCs analyse periods of intense activity in pursuit of a short-term goal. A DMC claims to be able to identify or locate specific triggering stimuli that initiates a motivational pathway that is capable of transporting individuals forward, even in situations where any hope of progress had been fading. They explain that once a DMC is in place, through its self-propelling nature learners become caught up in this powerful flow of motivation and are relayed forward to achieve their goals, becoming for a short period of time, a prominent feature of the individual's identity (Dörnyei et al., 2016). A DMC is clearly and specifically vision oriented, there is always a pre-defined finishing line at an explicit point in the future that allows for motivational vigour to be efficiently directed (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). Indeed, generating a DMC to sustain future self-guides is what Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) refer to as the keeping the vision alive phase in their visualisation strategies, included in the theoretical framework of this study (see Table 3).

According to Henry et al. (2015), two features in particular distinguish these motivational currents from other types of intense motivational experiences, such as those encapsulated in Csikszentmihalyi's (1988) theory of flow, and in Deci and Ryan's (1985) concept of intrinsic motivation: (i) the directedness of a DMC (i.e. the presence of an end-term goal or higher order vision to which the individual aspires), and (ii) the enduringness of self-propelling motivational processes. In a DMC the generation of an experience of optimal functioning (flow) is gained chiefly from the sense of being transported toward a highly valued end state. The sense of being in the zone comes therefore from ongoing engagement in tasks that are not necessarily enjoyable in and of themselves, but which are highly valued in that, with each step taken, the end state becomes perceptibly closer. However, the lifespan of a DMC can never be determined beforehand and can abruptly end.

Similarly, studies (e.g. Lewis, 2017; Jimoyiannis, 2012) have underscored the significant constructivist perspective of learning involved in ePortfolios, based on reflective, evaluative and self-regulation approaches to learning across time, namely in relation to academic assessment when aligned with intended goals and learning outcomes. What is more, the reflective nature of ePortfolios appears to enable users to identify moments of change in their academic thinking and learning, improving skill development and

technological capabilities (e.g. Madden, 2015; Munday, 2017), during self-assessment and when uploading assignments (Jimoyiannis, 2012; Rowley & Dunbar-Hall, 2012). From an FL perspective, applying digital future self-guides would transform personal learning outcomes into visible objects in one electronic location, which may increase focus, leading to increased student engagement and a greater understanding of learner development towards a sense of self actualisation (e.g. Munday, 2017). By linking these goals to the original teaching objectives of a learner-centred group project, the process becomes meaningful and complete.

Cambridge (2008) refers to this usage as the symphonic self, which allows individuals to balance different aspects of their personal, professional and academic selves across time. Through an ePortfolio, students may continually rearticulate their ideas of self to others, generating new understandings and academic intentions, while they continually reflect on their current learning and academic goals (Nguyen, 2013). Learners must first visualise an FL identity before setting goals and self-regulation strategies (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). From an ELT perspective, it would be interesting to examine whether Cambridge's symphonic self could be supported and/or enhanced by digital future self-guides.

Learners tend to be reluctant to engage with activities that are perceived as extracurricular. Integrating the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides as an intervention within an EAP curricular learner-centred group project would combine research and teaching goals, and the essential four features of a DMC. The initial clear goal and final demonstrable outcome would be set by the learner-centred group project task, while subgoals, progress, process, emotionality and performance would be fostered in the classroom through the intervention of digital future self-guides. A project that could potentially extend beyond the classroom, involve the use of multimodal contexts of ePortfolios, which would help learners identify surrounding affordances they can exploit throughout their EAP course and FLL process.

Most EAP pre-session courses in the United Kingdom include both individual and collaborative components of formative and summative assessments. Briefly presented in Section 2.1.1., EAP courses are intended to assist students who are starting undergraduate or postgraduate degree

programmes in the UK. However, they are also the language level entry gatekeepers to admittance on any higher education degree at a British university. The duration of an EAP course can be from a minimum of 4 to a maximum of 15 weeks prior to commencing university studies, and usually referred to as EAP pre-sessional courses. Courses are intensive and intense for both students and teachers. The stakes are high for students to pass the courses, if they fail, they cannot start their degree course. For this reason, EAP pre-sessionals can prove to be quite demanding for learners. EAP courses have the following two main aims:

1. To develop students' English language and study skills to the level required for them to be successful in their university studies. These skills include writing, reading, listening, speaking and project work.
2. To help students gain an understanding of the academic and cultural context of university study in the UK, so that they will be able to participate in and benefit fully from their degree course.

Materials employed in EAP settings are, generally, made specifically for use in a particular context by writers who are familiar with those contexts, adapted to suit academic needs and objectives. These materials replace global materials and, consequently, eliminate the problems that arise from their usage, such as culturally inappropriate or age-inappropriate, or irrelevant content. For learners to authenticate these materials, they need to minimally fulfil two conditions (Nunan, 1989, p. 102):

1. They need to be recognised by learners as having a legitimate place in the language classroom.
2. They must engage the interest of the learner by relating to his interests, background knowledge and experience, and through these, stimulate genuine communication.

Project work included in EAP courses, generally, adheres to Nunan's (1989) principles. It aims to consolidate the four main language skills (writing, reading, listening and speaking) imparted in other modules through a collaborative research project on learners' area of undergraduate study. Merging the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides with the EAP course learner-centred project would adhere to Nunan's principles. That is, a bespoke design that would provide a panoptic account of the role of digital

future self-guides within the FLL and EAP process, and its effect on learner motivation, SRL and FL acquisition. An intervention learner-centred project that would demonstrate the potential for digital future self-guides to provide an engaging learning context grounded in problem solving, collaboration, and social interaction, while it provides observable data on the following three aspects:

1. Control trials (Lamb, 2017; Reinders & Benson, 2017). Control participants would still be able to complete the EAP learner-centred project as an EAP course objective without the intervention. In this way, all participants would share a common course objective.
2. The effects of the intervention on writing, reading, listening and speaking proficiency. As the EAP learner-centred project aims to consolidate FL skills imparted on all EAP modules, it can therefore serve to measure its effects comprehensively.
3. Pre and post measures that analyse learner motivation, SRL in relation to FL proficiency throughout the EAP pre-sessional course. Data that can assist in the analysis of possible DMCs.

Holec (1985, p. 142) underscores that learners always need to know whether their performances correspond to their aims, and whether they have made any progress towards their objective. Research shows that perceived progress is a key factor in human motivation (Bandura 1997; Schunk 1991). Merging EAP project work objectives to the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides, provides students with a comprehensive view of all the information necessary to control the learning process and progress. Learners can view their performances in a digital/visual format via their ePortfolios throughout the course, from draft to draft, which studies in FL contexts have confirmed supports self-repair following feedback in linguistic learning (e.g. Ferris, 2006), as when new pieces of work are completed (e.g. Sheen, 2010).

Although integrating ePortfolios into coursework is a challenging yet rewarding process in an academic process, combining disciplines using ePortfolios offers an enhanced experience for students academically as well as professionally (Zinger & Sinclair, 2014). Central to the praxis of the intervention learner-centred project is the approach on which it is based. From a metacognitive perspective, amalgamating the theoretical constructs of motivational psychology (future self-guides), second language acquisition

(ELT) and technology (ePortfolios) in the design and implementation of a curricular learner-centred project intervention programme, offers students space to reflect on their learning, and engage them in a reflective discussion about their learning process. Developing students' metacognitive awareness in this way is a vital part of equipping them to negotiate the resources they might find in an English-speaking environment, whether real or virtual.

A brief review of intervention studies

Within the context of this investigation, a number of studies (refer to Table 5 below) have shown that intervention programmes can be of benefit to learner motivation and SRL. Cooperative learning during class projects has been found to increase relatedness, self-determined motivation (Ammar & Hassan, 2017), and intrinsic motivation and enjoyment in FL acquisition (Fernandez-Rio, Fernandez-Cando & Santos, 2017). In connection to the teaching of STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) subjects, Rosenzweig and Wigfield (2016) conducted an extensive review of 58 recent intervention studies. Their findings showed that intrinsic motivation or self-concept interventions did not report improvement in motivational constructs. A third of successful studies (14 interventions) failed to show improvement on at least one motivational construct. Six of the 29 studies that measured academic outcomes, failed to report improvements for at least one of the outcomes measured, and seven successful interventions that improved motivation found positive effects only for certain types of students (e.g. women). However, mixed findings suggested that gender did not consistently moderate any particular type of motivation intervention. In contrast, teacher characteristics likely influenced how well they developed that intervention.

In an FL context, Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini and Ratcheva (2013) found that intrinsic, integrative and self-evaluative motivation increased significantly among intervention learners, as did their evaluations of teacher's personality. Positive attributions for learning English declined significantly less among learners who were exposed to the intervention, which also reduced class anxiety. In contrast, Taylor and Marsden (2014) reported the perceptions of secondary education FL lessons as becoming more negative from pre-test to post-test as learners felt they were learning less and lessons had become harder.

Although not in a digital setting, Ziegler and Moeller (2012) conducted a classroom-based, quasi-experimental, quantitative, FL portfolio-based formative assessment intervention to increase SRL, motivation and achievement. Their investigation comprised 168 first-year French and Spanish university students in Spain over one semester. As in later studies (e.g. Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010), discussed to follow, their findings were subject to the degree of portfolio implementation. Students with limited portfolio use significantly decreased the level of their mastery goal orientation in comparison to those with extensive portfolio use, who significantly increased their task value. An important interaction between instructor beliefs about classroom goal structures and extensive portfolio use was also identified. The authors of this study concluded that self-regulated learners who are intrinsically motivated (mastery goal orientation), believe that effort drives ability (control beliefs), value the content information, believe they can succeed (academic self-efficacy), and actually do succeed.

As employed in this investigation, several intervention studies (e.g. Meyer et al., 2010; Meyer, Wade & Abrami, 2013) have tested the effectivity of ePortfolios based on Zimmerman's (2000) SRL model. Specifically, four studies have reviewed the implementation and utilisation of ePortfolios from the 2006 to 2009 school year (Abrami et al., 2008; Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010; Upitis, Abrami & Patteson, 2010). In total, the participants were 115 school teachers, mostly from elementary schools, and their students (approximately 1932) from 26 urban and rural English school boards across Canada (Alberta, Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec). Their findings provide important confirmatory evidence that teaching with ePortfolios had a positive impact on students' learning skills and SRL strategies when used regularly and integrated into classroom instruction. Students were noted as enjoying the personalisation of ePortfolios that allowed them to take ownership, corroborating as in previous studies (Ziegler & Moeller, 2012), that the consistent and appropriate use of digital portfolios implemented to a medium or high degree in classrooms, had a positive impact on SRL skills, literacy achievement, and approaches to teaching and integrating technologies in the classroom.

These four studies render further convincing evidence that a theoretically based knowledge tool, when wisely and well implemented in the classroom,

can have a meaningful impact on learning. What is more, the recommendations to future researches in these studies, subscribe to the characteristics of ePortfolio implementation outlined in Section 3.3.2., and to be explained in more detail in Chapter 4, in the following ways:

1. The degree to which ePortfolios are implemented in classrooms has an effect on learning gains and employment of SRL skills.
2. For ePortfolio innovations to happen widely and well, consistent positive support needs to be furnished to teachers as they learn to teach with new technologies and changing didactic environments.
3. The regular and systematic use of ePortfolios should be undertaken when students work on novel, complex, and challenging tasks.
4. All parties concerned need to ascribe to the change that ePortfolios are necessary for more meaningful learning to be actioned.

Worth noting, however, is that studies (e.g. Su & Reeve, 2011) have reported that the success of interventions to effectively support motivation and SRL may be dependent on training setting, type of media, focus of the training, and length of training. Of particular interest to this study, is that applying both instructional coursebooks and electronic media during intervention programmes proved to be beneficial to students' learning and SRL. The findings in a review by Su and Reeve (2011) observed that when intervention programmes utilized both types of media, the message from one media complemented the message from the other in a way that allowed participants a better opportunity to accommodate the learning objectives and improved SRL. Also, of relevance is that various intervention studies (e.g. Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2016; Su & Reeve, 2011) have refuted the claim that there are certain dosage amounts or intervention lengths that will work best for all students. For instance, although a longer duration did tend to produce a larger effect size in the study conducted by Su and Reeve (2011), it was programmes that ranged from an hour to 3 hours that were relatively most effective. Instead, Rosenzweig and Wigfield (2016) posit that dosage depends on the type of motivational construct being targeted and the traits of the students receiving the intervention. They advise that researchers conducting interventions that are embedded into existing instructional curricula, such as in this study, might need to use a higher dosage or longer implementation to show effects than if interventions are implemented separately, which may target students' psychological processes of change more directly. As the EAP

pre-sessional context in this study is a 6-week course, the intervention in this study subscribes to the former higher dosage (explained in more detail in Section 4.5.2.).

Table 5: Review of intervention studies

Authors	Study	Methods	Setting	Findings
Oyserman et al. (2002)	A possible selves, small group, activities-based intervention to enhance school involvement	Enhancing youth's abilities to imagine themselves as successful adults and connecting these future imagines to current school involvement	A 9-week after-school intervention comparing three cohorts of urban African American middle school 208 students controlling for sex and previous school involvement	By the end of the school year, intervention youth reported more bonding to school, concern about doing well in school, balanced possible selves, plausible strategies to attain these possible selves, better school attendance, and for boys, less trouble at school.
Blackwell et al. (2007)	Implicit Theories of Intelligence Predict Achievement Across an Adolescent Transition: A Longitudinal Study and an Intervention	Two teaching intervention studies using a mediational model including learning goals, positive beliefs about effort that tested causal attributions strategies	Two studies over a two-year period on 373 7th graders in study 1 and 1091 7th graders in study 2	The belief that intelligence is malleable predicted an upward trajectory in grades over the two years of junior high school, while a belief that it is fixed predicted a flat trajectory. Incremental theory promoted positive change in classroom motivation, compared with a control group. Students in the control group displayed a continuing downward trajectory in grades, while this decline was reversed for students in the experimental group.
Abrami et al. (2008)	To enhance SRL and core learning competencies through ePortfolios	Questionnaires, focus group interviews and ePortfolio analysis.	62 school teachers, mostly from elementary schools, and their students (approx. 1200) from seven urban and rural English school boards across Quebec.	Post-test questionnaire responses suggested ePortfolios and the learning processes they support, were positively viewed and learned well enough to be emerging skills among students. Teachers noted that teaching SRL strategies was new and required a change in teaching strategies they were not yet used to. Focus groups observed challenges of ePortfolios to teach children SRL. Analysis of ePortfolios evidenced only small amounts of student work or high levels of student SRL.
Meyer et al. (2010)	Improving literacy and metacognition through ePortfolios	Non-equivalent pre-test/post-test design	14 teachers and 296 students (grade 4-6) in three Canadian provinces during the 2007–2008 school year	Classrooms where the teacher provided regular and appropriate use of ePortfolios showed significant improvements in their writing skills on a standardized literacy measure and certain metacognitive skills measured via student self-report. Teaching with ePortfolio had positive impacts on students' literacy and SRL skills when used regularly and integrated into classroom instruction.
Upitis et al. (2010)	Using ePortfolios as a tool for supporting arts-based learning	Classroom data of observations, field notes, interviews and pre/post SRL questionnaire	Grade 5 students in a public elementary school in Toronto who studied energy and ecology through an arts-based approach to these topics	Students expressed considerable enthusiasm for ePortfolios and demonstrated significant growth in understanding how to set goals and critique the work of their peers.

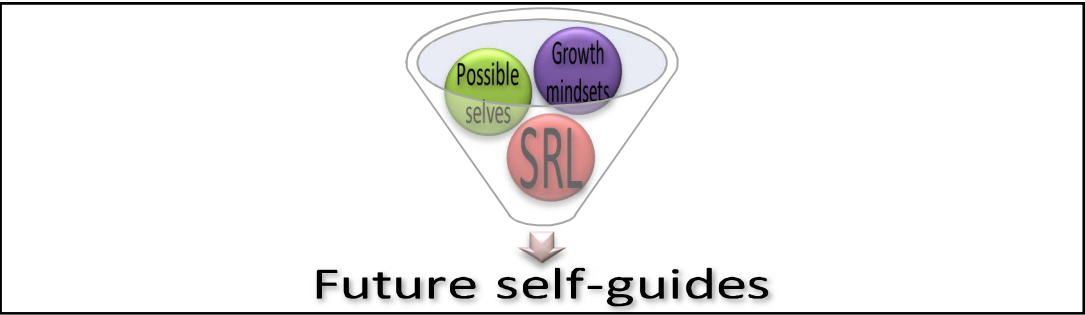
Su & Reeve (2011)	The effectivity of training intervention programs to support the self-regulation of others	Literature search and review	Meta-analyses of 19 intervention studies in English on professionals Interventions lasted from 10 minutes to one academic year	Interventions effectively help to support the self-regulation of others. Four procedures moderated main effects: training setting, type of media, focus of the training, and length of training. A longer duration did tend to produce a larger effect size, but programmes that ranged from 1-3 hours were most effective.
Ziegler & Moeller (2012)	FL portfolio-based formative assessment intervention to increase SRL, motivation and achievement	Classroom-based, quasi-experimental, one-semester quantitative study	168 first-year French & Spanish university students in Spain over one semester	Limited LinguaFolio students significantly decreased the level of their mastery goal orientation. Extensive LinguaFolio group significantly increased their task value. An important interaction exists between instructor beliefs about classroom goal structures and extensive LinguaFolio use.
Abrami et al. (2013)	The impacts of ePortfolios on SRL and promoting student learning	ePortfolio analyses and assessment and survey response data	21 teachers from elementary schools (Grades 4–6) and their students (319) from 9 urban and rural English school boards in Quebec and Alberta during the 2008–2009 school year	Students with low enthusiasm for ePortfolios exhibited different patterns in learning gains and SRL to those with high and medium enthusiasm. Students motivated to use ePortfolios made greater gains in 3 of 4 writing and reading skills official assessments. Survey data revealed that, over time, ePortfolio students reported higher levels of SRL than those in the control group.
Moskovsky et al. (2013)	Intervention study on the effects of motivational strategies on learners' SLA motivation	Pre-post treatment quasi-experimental design	Eight weeks including a 2-week semester break in the middle study on 14 teachers and 296 students from 12 to 25 years of age in Saudi Arabia	Intrinsic, integrative and self-evaluative motivation increased significantly among experimental learners and their evaluations of teacher's personality. Class anxiety decreased. Positive attributions for learning English declined less among experimental learners.
Taylor & Marsden (2014)	Class attitudes, perceptions and GCSE language level uptake	2 short interventions. Pre/post quantitative survey	604 secondary school students from 3 state schools in the UK over one school year	Perceptions of language lessons became more negative from pre-test to post-test among all groups, as they felt they were learning less, and lessons had become harder.
Rosenzweig & Wigfield (2016)	Review of experimental and quasi experimental studies targeting motivation for STEM subjects	Search literature of experimental and quasi-experimental studies	53 studies investigating adolescent students, written in English. Most studies involved European American middle-class students. Interventions lasted from 6 minutes to 3 months	Intrinsic motivation/self-concept interventions did not report improvement in motivation. 14 studies failed to show improvement on at least one motivational construct. Six studies failed to report improvements for at least one outcome measured. 7 interventions found positive effects for certain types of students. Gender does not consistently moderate motivation intervention. Teacher characteristics likely influence how well they develop that intervention.
Ammar & Hassan (2017)	Benefits of collaborative dialogue on FL grammatical morphology, learner proficiency level and linguistic type	Quasi-experimental instructional intervention pre-test - post-test performance treatment	79 grade 4 and 5 elementary school learners of French and two teachers in Canada. Interventions comprised 5 sessions spread over a 5-week period	Low-proficiency learners obtained higher gain scores than high-proficiency learners, especially for the experimental group. The learning effects of collaborative dialogue were significant for the experimental group who outperformed the control.
Fälth & Nilsson (2017)	Fluency-based intervention on accuracy, fluency, motivation and self-confidence in EFL	Quasi-exp. study post treatment qualitative questionnaire and pre-post-test evaluation	Eight 1 st year students at a vocational college in Sweden. Interventions comprised 80-minute lessons every week for 6 weeks	Vocabulary and confidence increased but marked only a slight change in ability to write a longer text, which was not in agreement with perceived ability. All students performed more confidently as the task went on and marked an increase in their perceived change in accuracy.

Fernandez-Rio et al. (2017)	Cooperative Learning intervention on student motivation in Physical Education	Pre-test, post-test, quasi-experimental, comparison group	16 weeks (2 hours every week) study on 249 secondary school students and 4 teachers in Spain	Findings are in line with a hierarchical model of motivation, where social factors (i.e. Cooperative Learning) influence psychological mediators (i.e. relatedness), which mediate over the different types of motivation (i.e. intrinsic motivation) and finally lead to different outcomes (i.e. enjoyment).
Lou & Noels (2017)	Measuring Language Mindsets in relation to goal orientations and emotional and behavioural responses in failure situations	Psychometric analyses of the Language Mindsets Inventory. Correlational, factor and path analyses	Two studies within the same academic year on a total of 1,633 students in study 1 and 189 students in study 2 enrolled in introductory psychology courses at a Canadian university on various language courses	Regardless of competence level, greater endorsement of an incremental mindset was associated with the goal of learning more about the language, and this learning goal in turn predicted greater mastery and less helpless responses in failure situations. Greater endorsement of an entity mindset predicted the goal of demonstrating competence (i.e. performance approach goals) when students believed that they had stronger language skills.

3.4. Conclusion

Further to the outline provided in Chapter 2 on the interrelationship among motivation, possible selves and SRL in FL acquisition, this chapter undertakes a more extensive analysis in order to identify a suitable researchable framework that can further examine and enhance this conceptual association. With that in mind and given their central role within the theoretical understanding of learner motivation and self-regulation, future self-guides are presented in this chapter as a suitable frame of reference. An arrangement that is underpinned in Section 3.2., by the learner's self-concept, specifically the application of a growth mindset that calibrates self-efficacy beliefs when dealing with learning threshold scenarios. The reason being that learners must confer plausibility to their FL abilities, goals and learning environment, right from the outset and throughout the FLL process. Learners have to believe they can do it (growth mindset); they need to know what they are doing (possible selves); and they need to know how to do it (SRL). Said otherwise, the construal and activation of future self-guides as depicted in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5: A structural framework for future self-guides



The frame of reference introduced for future self-guides in Section 3.1. aims to encourage learners to take a degree of control over the planning and assessment of their FL learning. Based on the construct of possible selves, a conceptual framework (see Table 3) that comprises future self-guides visualisation strategies (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013) and Zimmerman's (2000) cyclical SRL model is described. A structure that merges analysis and regulation, which ensues the continual calibration of self-concept beliefs, performance and evaluation during the FLL process, wherein present selves, referred to as English self-concept (Section 3.2.2.) and gender (Section 3.2.3.) are considered to be prominent areas that require further investigation.

The fact that the extensive landscape of the Internet has started to shape educational contexts is brought to the fore in Section 3.3., underscoring the positive impact of DLEs on learners' motivation and self-regulation, and the need to attend to current issues surrounding the difficulties in integrating technology effectively in the FL classroom. Electronic portfolios are recommended as a suitable digital platform for future self-guides, as they include approaches involving a combination of learner reflection, regulation and explicit instruction. Providing a natural nexus to the extracurricular setting, ePortfolios can increase attentional resources and enhance transportable identities. Upon which, the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides (see Table 4) is constructed in Section 3.3.1. A schema provided with ample opportunities for empirical assessment and observation.

The final section (Section 3.3.2.) in this chapter address the effective implementation of the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides (offered in Section 3.3.1.) within the FLL process. Two important factors are considered central to this integration: institutional curriculum and study design. In response, the theoretical framework of a DMC (Dörnyei et al., 2016) is proposed as an empirical construct that can assist in the analysis and scrutiny of digital future self-guides that trigger motivational and self-regulated behaviour in FLL contexts through learner-centred intervention projects. A method that admits innovative theoretical frameworks to be integrated and tested within the institutional curriculum, thereby combining pedagogical practice with empirical research (Lamb, 2017; Reinders & Benson, 2017).

From this perspective, an apt intervention is discussed in Section 3.3.2., which embeds the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides within an EAP course project work module. A module that intends to consolidate the language skills imparted in the other EAP course modules, while addressing a research topic that links to their academic and linguistic objectives. Since learners need to develop clear pathways to help them achieve their academic and FL goals and the means to achieve them, the intervention suggested aims to foster a DLE in which learners can determine accurately what their needs are, with the freedom to take action to meet those needs. Based on this, I explain how an intervention that integrates digital future self-guides within EAP course objectives can improve resilience in the face of setbacks by helping to build implementation intentions, providing a richer repertoire of internal and external affordances to draw on, and provide a framework for reality checks using a visual/digital platform that evidences learner performance on an ongoing basis. Learner objectives are more likely to be reached when there is clear visual proof of plans, performances and evaluations. In support of this notion, a brief review of previous intervention studies is included in this same section that warrants the suitability of this study design for digital future self-guides.

The theoretical framework of digital future self-guides presented in Table 4 (Section 3.3.1.), requires an empirical construct of validation. Reassuringly, a multifarious selection of theories and frameworks exist that could be applied as a measurement to the dynamic system of future self-guides, which are outlined in this chapter. Borrowing from the theoretical frameworks of the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2005), SRL (Zimmerman, 2000), ePortfolio (Barrett, 2000), growth mindset (Dweck, 2006) and DMCs (Dörnyei et al., 2016) this study can apply an empirical framework (see Table 6) through which to explore and examine the effects of digital future self-guides on learner motivation, SRL and FL acquisition, particularly, what propels students to activate and sustain future self-guides. These constructs have the potential to organise multiple, competing motivational, cognitive, and affective influences on specific observable actions by the FL learner in this process, while analysing the role of DLEs.

Such an approach to the FL self system is particularly important when we seek to understand how a learner's ongoing FLL experience supports or hinders their progress. This resonates with the original conceptualisation of possible selves and the dynamic properties of the self-concept, which give 'direction and impetus for action, change, and development' (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p. 960).

Employing these five empirical constructs would allow this study to evaluate and analyse the effects of digital future self-guides on motivation, SRL and FL acquisition, within an EAP learning environment and in relation to curricular implementation and objectives.

Table 6: Empirical framework for digital future self-guides

Framework	Approach FLL Situation	Potential Contribution to the current study
Self-Regulated Learning (Zimmerman, 2000)	The greatest academic success occurs when students and teachers use a metacognitive model to guide learning and instruction, or one that entails planning, evaluation, and adjustment of thoughts and actions.	A pivotal component of digital future self-guides that provides further insight on the role of self-regulation in FLL and acquisition.
L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009)	The experience of FLL is socially-dynamic and mediated by the Ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the FLL Experience. This construct was proposed in response to a need to reconceptualise the construct of integrativeness, so that it would be both compatible with the changing global profile of English and would incorporate research theories from motivational psychology.	This perspective invites a focus on learner self-concept and the FLL process, particularly on the possible ways that factors in the participants' micro and macro learning environment mediate motivation and self-regulation to pursue future self-guides and its effect on FL proficiency.
Growth Mindset (Dweck, 2006)	Those with a growth mindset see language learning as malleable, and something that will increase and flourish through hard work, grit and resilience.	Challenge self-efficacy beliefs in difficult situations, particularly during the calibration of new self-efficacy beliefs in the working self-concept.
Electronic Portfolios (Barrett, 2000)	The FLL process can be better understood through opportunities to assess FL acquisition in a multimodal process based on reflection, revision, and collaboration.	Valuable opportunities for integrating technology into the language classroom. Complements future self-guides in a digital format, offering further opportunities for identity construal, performance and evaluation beyond the classroom.
Directed Motivational Current (Dörnyei et al., 2016)	An intense motivational drive, which is capable of stimulating and supporting long-term behaviour in FL acquisition. DMCs can act as a fundamental organiser of motivational impetus in general and, as such, have considerable potential as a specific tool to motivate learners in the language classroom.	DMCs can be fostered through reflection, feedback and self-assessment in digital future self-guides in order to sustain what Hadfield and Dörnyei refer to as keeping the vision alive.

Chapter 4

4. The study

In their review of experimental and quasi experimental intervention studies targeting motivation, Rosenzweig and Wigfield (2016) identify three extant weaknesses in researchers' work, which this study aims to strengthen:

- **Issue 1:** researchers need to clearly define how their definition of motivation aligns with a particular theory, and motivation needs to be measured in a way consistent with that definition, providing sufficient information to determine whether it aligns with the theory.
- **Issue 2:** researchers need to state which of their intervention practices target constructs of motivation and SRL, while they describe a clear theory of how those practices might influence these constructs. A theory of change needs to be provided for any improvement to be made. Future researchers need to have insights into what specific aspects or processes of the intervention had an effect on the constructs of FL motivation and SRL.
- **Issue 3:** researchers should articulate how interventions might also influence certain academic outcomes, thus emphasizing the importance of academic intervention. Moreover, if academic outcomes are measured along with motivation and SRL, researchers should specify why they chose to measure the outcomes they did, as some outcomes may be related more strongly to certain constructs.

As significant methodological challenges can be faced when empirical research is conducted within dynamic constructs, Mercer (2014) advocates the unification of multiple approaches to assist in complementary ways towards a fuller understanding of the self. The present study has been conducted based on five theoretical frameworks (summarized in Table 6, Section 3.4.) that pertain to theory and measurement, all of which are addressed to follow. Hosenfeld (2003) also states the importance of using different instruments in order to achieve goals that are not usually attained by questionnaires. For this reason, this study has employed a mixed-methodology design and more than one instrument, incorporating qualitative and quantitative approaches (questionnaires, skill-testing and interviews), to build a more solid and reliable piece of research, as previous research (Liskin-Gasparro,

1998) has demonstrated that the complexity of language development may be impenetrable to a purely experimental approach.

Triangulation and multiple methods of data collection have been used to provide a full and accurate account of how digital future self-guides might influence linguistic and non-linguistic attributes within an EAP setting, and to strengthen reliability and internal validity (Merriam, 1998). As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) have observed, both qualitative and quantitative perspectives should be viewed as complementary paradigms rather than competing ones. This integration of various theoretical frameworks with a quantitative and qualitative research design and analysis complements and enriches our understanding of language learning that takes place in EAP contexts. It permits, as Ushioda and Chen (2011, pp. 46-47) point out, a combination of on the one hand methodological rigour and systematicity in data-gathering and analysis, as well as comparability and replicability of data, and generalizability to wider populations; and, on the other hand, the exploration and understanding in a grounded way of human experience which is unique and deeply personal and subjective.

To follow, this section includes a discussion on the practical potential of an intervention study that embeds digital future self-guides within the EAP classroom and curriculum in terms of motivation, SRL and FL acquisition. Subsequently, the rationale of the investigation is presented, together with the research questions it entertains. This is followed by a description of the sample, methodology, data collection instruments and study procedure. To finish, details are presented on data analysis, prior to the analysis of results in Chapter 5.

4.1. Research Questions

Despite extensive research on FL motivation and SRL, empirical studies addressing their interrelatedness and its subsequent effect on FL proficiency is sparse, as is the investigation of electronic portfolios in this field. For this reason, this study formulated the following research questions:

- I. Is there a positive relationship between motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition?
- II. Will the intervention have a positive effect on motivation, particularly on English self-concept?

- III. Will the intervention have a positive effect on SRL and growth mindset?
- IV. Will the intervention have a positive effect on FL acquisition?
- V. Will electronic portfolios have a positive effect on motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition?
- VI. Will learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset, FL acquisition and ePortfolios be subject to gender variance?

It was hypothesised that, overall, as in previous portfolio interventions (e.g. Abrami et al., 2013; Cheng, 2008; Haggerty & Thompson, 2017; Joyes et al., 2010; Lou & Noels, 2017; Upitis et al., 2010), the digital future self-guides' learner-centred intervention EAP project (henceforth, intervention) would have a positive effect on the L2MSS, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition variables. It was believed that this would be further supported by significant positive correlations among these variables and their corresponding constructs. As regards the L2MSS variables and learners' self-concepts, this study hypothesised that English self-concept would be the most accurate variable of motivation in a TL context as posited by Henry and Cliffordson (2017). Significant gender differences were expected to be found, in line with previous research, albeit with a tendency to have been inconsistent (e.g. Henry, 2011a, 2011b; Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2016). Differences were expected in regard to self-competence beliefs in terms of growth mindset, as per Henry's (2011a, 2011b) findings. And lastly, it was hypothesised that the digital aspect of the project (the ePortfolio) would have a significantly positive impact on L2MSS, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition variables among EAP students. A finding that would support the further integration of this digital platform in FL acquisition settings.

4.2. Sample

In order to attain a comprehensive outlook into the effects of a learner intervention programme that aims to increase motivation and self-regulation on a particular education context, namely EAP, the sample of this study comprises the perspective of the two main stakeholders, i.e. students and teachers.

Accordingly, ethical implications were considered during the design and implementation of the final intervention at the University of Northampton (henceforth, UoN), and the preliminary pilot study at Royal Holloway, ISC, University of London (henceforth, RHUL). Participants were provided with an

opportunity to choose to participate in a study on their own, which was free from coercion, deceit or manipulations. Consequently, informed participant consent was obtained from all pilot study and final study participants. During this process, not only were the participants informed about the details of the study and what it entailed, but also of how their personal information would be handled: to respect the participants' privacy, confidentiality and anonymity, pseudonyms were used throughout this thesis. Participants were told that they had complete freedom and choice in participating in the study and their performance would not affect their grades. Students were informed of the potential benefits of participating in this study, including the possibility of raising their metacognitive awareness of their language learning style and FL motivation, and that they would also have a taste of being a participant in a research study and would be able to obtain the results of the study at a later stage. However, as Patai (1991) warns, the issue of power and authority assumed to be possessed by the teacher-researcher makes research relationships irreducibly oppressive and exploitative, thus making truly ethical research impossible.

4.2.1. Pilot Study

Prior to the implementation of the final intervention analysed in this thesis, a 6-week pilot study was carried out on students undertaking a foundation degree course at RHUL, during the final term, from 17 April to 26 May 2017. As EAP pre-sessionals were not imparted at the UoN from January to May 2017, research instruments were piloted at RHUL during this period. Its aim to identify possible difficulties as regards the understanding of items included in the questionnaire and the activities outlined in the digital future self-guides, evaluating the time required to complete both, and verifying questionnaire construct reliability.

The pilot phase of the study comprised 35 students from RHUL who agreed to participate in the pilot study of this project, which comprised a third of the entire population of students on this course. These students were asked to complete an intervention questionnaire at the beginning (week 1), and then again at the end (week 6) of the pilot study. In the post-test sample, the sample suffered some subject attrition. Fourteen students failed to complete post-test questionnaires due to absences in the final part of the investigation. Subsequently, the final sample decreased to 21 consensual participants. The theoretical framework of digital future self-guides was implemented in two

classes. Two groups, totalling 14 students, received the intervention. A further comparison control group was involved in the pilot study. This cohort comprised 7 students who were not exposed to the intervention. All groups were imparted by the teacher-researcher of this study. Most participants were aged between 18 and 20 (95%) and of Asian nationality (67%). Gender representation for the entire sample was comprised of 15 male students (71%) and 6 female students (29%). Many participants (71%) did not speak an additional FL to their L1 aside from English.

4.2.2. Intervention Students

A convenience sample of two hundred and fourteen undergraduate students who enrolled in the summer EAP pre-session course at the UoN agreed to participate in this study. This was the entire population of undergraduate students on this course. It should be noted, however, that the EAP pre-session course also included a group of 14 postgraduate students that was not included in the study. In the post-test sample, the sample suffered some subject attrition. Nine students failed to complete post-test questionnaires due to absences in the final part of the investigation. As all participants were unaware as to when post-test questionnaires would take place, these participants were excluded from the study, as this missing data was attributed to randomness and not some systematic influential pattern. Consequently, our final student sample was reduced to 205 consensual participants.

The majority of participants were aged between 20 and 25 (93%) and of Chinese nationality (97%). Gender representation for the entire sample was comprised of 77 male students (38%) and 128 female students (62%). Most participants (91%) did not speak an additional FL to their L1 aside from English. In order to increase the validity of the experiment a control group was included (Magid, 2014). As a result, the sample of students was divided as follows: an experimental group comprised of 120 students, and a control group of 85 students. Both groups were fairly homogeneous in regard to gender, age, nationality and FL background as can be seen in Table 7 below. To avoid major bias in the results of the experiment, subjects were randomly assigned to groups and respective teachers by a third party and not allowed to choose which group they would be in, i.e. experimental or control. This random assignment created homogenous groups so that any unusual characteristic or bias would have an equal chance of appearing in any of the groups.

Table 7: Student sample gender, age, nationality and FL background

		SAMPLE					
		Experimental		Control		Entire Sample	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Gender	Male	44	37%	33	39%	77	38%
	Female	76	63%	52	61%	128	62%
	Total	120	100%	85	100%	205	100%
Age	Under 20	5	4%	6	7%	11	5%
	Between 20 and 25	114	95%	77	91%	191	93%
	From 26 to 30	0	0%	1	1%	1	1%
	Over 30	1	1%	1	1%	2	1%
	Total	120	100%	85	100%	205	100%
Nationality	Chinese	117	98%	82	97%	199	97%
	Asian other	3	2%	3	3%	6	3%
	Total	120	100%	85	100%	205	100%
FLs	No additional FL	109	91%	77	91%	186	91%
	Additional FLs	11	9%	8	9%	19	9%
	Total	120	100%	85	100%	205	100%

Background details on the student sample's contact with the TL language (English), were also considered and reported the following information. The majority of students started to learn English before the age of 10 (85%). Upon starting this course, most students (58%) had been studying English over 13 years, and length of residence in an English-speaking country for most participants (87%) was under 6 months. Regarding their proficiency level in English, participants were asked to include their IELTS band level for reading, listening, writing and speaking. The average band score for all skills oscillated between 5.0 and 5.5: reading level ($M = 5.26$, $SD = .61$), listening level ($M = 5.18$, $SD = .57$), writing level ($M = 5.08$, $SD = .49$), and speaking level ($M = 5.07$, $SD = .52$). As can be seen from Table 8 below, both experimental and control participants were again reasonably homogeneous in regard to TL contact and proficiency level.

Table 8: Student sample TL contact background

		SAMPLE					
		Experimental		Control		Entire Sample	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Age of acquisition	Under 5	1	1%	3	3.5%	4	2%
	Between 5 and 10	108	90%	66	78%	174	85%
	Between 11 and 15	10	8%	13	15%	23	11%
	Over 15	1	1%	3	3.5%	4	2%
	Total	120	100%	85	100%	205	100%
Years of studying	Under 5	0	0%	4	5%	4	2%
	Between 5 and 12	36	30%	31	36%	67	33%
	Between 13 and 17	77	64%	43	51%	120	58%

	Over 18	7	6%	7	8%	14	7%
	Total	120	100%	85	100%	205	100%
Length of residence	Under 2 months	56	47%	37	43.5%	93	45%
	2 to 5 months	51	42%	35	41%	86	42%
	6 to 11 months	13	11%	10	12%	23	11%
	Over 12 months	0	0%	3	3.5%	3	2%
	Total	120	100%	85	100%	205	100%
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
IELTS level	Reading	5.27	0.62	5.24	0.59	5.26	0.61
	Listening	5.17	0.57	5.20	0.59	5.18	0.57
	Writing	5.07	0.48	5.09	0.50	5.08	0.49
	Speaking	5.07	0.49	5.07	0.56	5.07	0.52

4.2.3. Intervention Teachers

The entire population of teachers that imparted the summer EAP pre-session at the UoN comprised 18 practitioners, including the teacher-researcher of this study. All teachers were informed of the intervention a week prior to the beginning of the course, and then asked if they wanted to participate and implement the intervention programme in their EAP project module. Nine teachers, plus the teacher-researcher of this study, agreed voluntarily to participate and impart the intervention. These teachers were trained accordingly and supported throughout the course, details of which are provided in Section 4.4.2. As a result, ten groups, made up of 10 teachers and 120 students represented the experimental cohort. In opposition, the control cohort comprised 85 students (42%) and eight teachers. However, this cohort was formed by seven groups, as the eighth group related to the postgraduate students who did not take part in this study.

To avoid major bias in the results of the experiment, subjects were randomly assigned to groups and respective teachers by a third party (the course director), and not allowed to choose whether they would be in the experimental or control group. However, participant consent was obtained from all experimental students, who were informed prior to the start of the intervention that they could abstain from taking part in the study from the start, or at any point during the intervention. More importantly, experimental students were clearly informed that nonparticipation would not be consequential to their EAP pre-session course grades.

As to previous teaching experience, all 18 teachers had previous experience teaching English as an EFL, with most teachers having taught English as an FL for over 5 years. Many teachers (80%) had previous experience imparting EAP

pre-sessionals at the UoN. Consequently, teaching experience was fairly homogenous in both groups, as can be seen in Table 9 below. However, both groups noted gender differences, with an overrepresentation of female teachers in the Experimental group.

Table 9: Previous teaching experience and gender representation of teacher sample

	Experimental Group Teachers	Control Group Teachers
Number of Teachers	10	8
Gender	7 females 3 males	2 females 6 males
Previous experience UoN pre-sessionals	8 Yes 2 No	6 Yes 2 No
Previous EAP experience	1 No 9 Yes	1 No 7 Yes
Previous TEFL experience	10 Yes 1 under 5 years	8 Yes 1 under 5 years

All teachers had to impart an EAP project module, and then each teacher was assigned a further reading and writing, or a listening and speaking module. This meant that each teacher imparted two skills' modules. Teachers who taught reading and writing modules did not teach listening and speaking modules, and vice versa. As can be seen in Table 10 below, which includes details of the modules imparted by experimental and control teachers, on the whole, save EAP Group 8, groups were exposed to both types of teachers. Worth noting, however, is that experimental EAP project modules had an overrepresentation of reading and writing teachers (60%).

Table 10: Distribution of teachers, groups and modules

	Reading & Writing modules	Listening & Speaking modules	Project module
EAP Group 1	Control Teacher	Experimental Teacher	Control: listening & speaking tutor
EAP Group 5	Experimental Teacher	Control Teacher	Control: reading & writing tutor
EAP Group 8	Control Teacher	Control Teacher	Control: listening & speaking tutor
EAP Group 11	Experimental Teacher	Experimental Teacher	Control: listening & speaking tutor
EAP Group 13	Control Teacher	Experimental Teacher	Control: listening & speaking tutor
EAP Group 16	Experimental Teacher	Control Teacher	Control: reading & writing tutor
EAP Group 17	Experimental Teacher	Experimental Teacher	Control: listening & speaking tutor
EAP Group 2	Control Teacher	Experimental Teacher	Experimental: reading & writing tutor
EAP Group 3	Experimental Teacher	Control Teacher	Experimental: listening & speaking tutor
EAP Group 4	Experimental Teacher	Control Teacher	Experimental: reading & writing tutor

EAP Group 6	Experimental Teacher	Control Teacher	Experimental: listening & speaking tutor
EAP Group 7	Control Teacher	Control Teacher	Experimental: reading & writing tutor
EAP Group 9	Experimental Teacher	Control Teacher	Experimental: reading & writing tutor
EAP Group 10	Experimental Teacher	Control Teacher	Experimental: listening & speaking tutor
EAP Group 12	Experimental Teacher	Experimental Teacher	Experimental: reading & writing tutor
EAP Group 14	Control Teacher	Experimental Teacher	Experimental: reading & writing tutor
EAP Group 15	Experimental Teacher	Control Teacher	Experimental: listening & speaking tutor

4.3. Methodology

Choosing a methodology that aligns with research questions is a fundamental step in research. Ushioda (2009, p. 216) points out that ‘we need to understand second language learners as people, and as people who are necessarily located in particular cultural and historical contexts.’ Studies based on large numbers of participants and complex statistical analyses are very much welcomed, but the intervention designed in this study aims to provide an in-depth knowledge that is not so easily achieved in large-scale research. With this in mind, the objective of this investigation is to rely on a multi-method analysis in a particular ‘context from multiple angles and multiple participant perspectives’ (Ushioda, 2009, p. 225), in the belief that this will help to shed light on the main issues under scrutiny addressed in Section 4.1.

4.3.1. The Design of the Study

In order to investigate the dynamic nature of motivation and SRL through digital future self-guides in a TL context, this study used a mixed-methods design employing questionnaires, focus group interviews and teacher feedback. Regarding the methodology in the research of possible selves in psychology, upon review of 141 empirical articles, Packard and Conway (2006) concluded that the majority of studies included the predominant methodology of structured surveys and interviews. As Chan (2014a) highlights, mixed methods research is the combination of employing different research methods in order to understand a particular phenomenon of research interest.

For this particular study, a mixed-methods approach can broaden the breadth (through a survey) and depth (through in-depth interviews) in the investigation, as in previous empirical research (e.g. You & Chan, 2015; Chan, 2014a). Accordingly, it follows a QUAN-QUAL methodology (Dörnyei, 2007), an approach that consists of a heavy emphasis on a questionnaire survey,

followed by focus group interviews and teacher feedback. By conducting the survey first, and subsequently the focus group interviews, emerging themes derived from the quantitative results can be identified, enabling the analysis of 'generalizable patterns and relationships across a large dataset' (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 62), thus providing a broader picture of a phenomenon. In other words, it was hoped that, while the survey data would reveal patterns and trends among a larger sample, the interview data would provide insights into the more qualitative aspects of learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset and future self-guides' imagery techniques using electronic portfolios.

To further explore the links between learner motivation, SRL and FL acquisition using this approach, learner motivation was measured using the L2MSS, growth mindset was measured through fixed mindset, SRL was measured through self-regulation, and FL acquisition was measured through EAP summative course assessments. A detailed summary of quantitative data analysis procedures is included in Section 4.6.1.

The investigation was conducted in the 6-week summer EAP pre-session course, facilitated by the Faculty of Education and Humanities at the UoN, which took place from 31 July to 8 September 2017. All participants on this course had a conditional offer to commence an undergraduate degree at UoN subject to passing the summer EAP pre-session. The course consisted of three compulsory modules that were imparted each week throughout the 6-week programme:

- 1) Reading & Writing module: five 90-minute lessons (Monday to Friday)
- 2) Listening & Speaking module: five 90-minute lessons (Monday to Friday)
- 3) Project module: four 75-minute lessons (Monday to Thursday)

As in previous studies that investigated future self-guides (Magid & Chan, 2012), growth mindset (Lou & Noels, 2017), SRL and ePortfolios (Abrami et al., 2013; Cheng, 2008), a pre-test, post-test, quasi-experimental, comparison group design was followed based on the implementation of an intervention programme. As endorsed in previous studies (e.g. Joyes et al., 2010), the intervention comprised two elements: an instructional project book that fulfilled an institutional and compulsory role (discussed below in Section

4.3.2.); and an electronic portfolio that was student owned and voluntary (discussed to follow in Section 4.3.3.).

4.3.2. The Intervention Learner-Centred Project

The intervention in this study was integrated within curricular objectives and included a compulsory component, as recommended in the literature (Magid & Chan, 2012; Joyes et al., 2010). This element of the intervention comprised a learner-centred project booklet that was imparted as a compulsory EAP module. Only then would it be possible to test the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides within the institutional curriculum, as advocated in several studies (Lamb, 2017; Reinders & Benson, 2017). The integration of digital future self-guides within course objectives also allowed for control trials as two versions of the learner-centred project were designed: a version that included the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides, and an additional version that did not include digital future self-guides. Therefore, all participants, whether in a control or experimental group had the same final EAP course objectives; a pre-requisite in the proven apt measure of a DMC in interventions (Lamb, 2017). Dörnyei et al. (2016) stipulate that an incipient clear collective goal, for which everyone feels a sense of ownership, is an essential feature of a DMC in class projects.

Following the effectivity of previous studies that implemented a componential intervention (Chan, 2014a; Sampson, 2012), 12 components were included, and in line with prior imagery enhancement intervention recommendations (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). These components were organised within a four-level hierarchical structure: growth mindset, imaging the vision, mapping the journey and keeping the vision alive. Further to various studies (e.g. Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2016; Su & Reeve, 2011) that refute an optimum dosage or length for interventions, and recent interventions that lasted five (Ammar & Hassan, 2017) and six weeks (Fälth & Nilsson, 2017) and reported a positive impact on motivation and FL acquisition, this study considered a 6-week intervention to be sufficient to analyse its effect on motivation, SRL and FL acquisition.

Pursuant to previous recommendations (Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2016) that interventions embedded into existing instructional curricula, implement a higher dosage intervention design to counteract brevity and the effects of

interventions that are implemented separately, which may target students' psychological processes of change more directly, this study employed a six 180-minute weekly programme. To counteract previous studies (Chan, 2014a) wherein imagery strategy exerted a short-lived positive impact on students' possible L2 selves and learning experiences, experimental participants in this study were asked to review visualisation exercises and guided imagery within a 3-day timeframe, in order to prolong the beneficial effects (Anderson, 1983).

4.3.3. The Intervention Electronic Portfolio

Electronic portfolios were implemented in the classroom adhering to the advice and methodology in previous research (e.g. Abrami et al., 2008; Abrami et al., 2013; Joyes et al., 2010; Meyer et al., 2010; Upitis et al., 2010), which evinced their beneficial impact on learning achievement and SRL. Connections were made throughout, between the EAP project module instructional course book and future self-guides' components that required ePortfolio submission. Notwithstanding, ePortfolios were subject to voluntary usage, as advocated in past research (e.g. Hung, 2012; Sung et al., 2009). The purpose of this being not only to elicit more information on their feasibility and suitability in classroom practice, but also to ascertain their ability to generate motivation and SRL. In addition, setting ePortfolios as a compulsory task would have been unethical to experimental group students, as this would have increased the workload and pressure during the EAP pre-session course. As in preceding studies (e.g. Abrami et al., 2013), a generic external application for ePortfolio software was used, which was entirely student-owned but not accessible through the university's digital Moodle platform.

As per Su and Reeve's (2011) findings, this study endorsed an intervention programme that utilised both instructional course books and electronic media, in which the message from one media complemented the other. Students were asked, albeit voluntarily, to submit their EAP project writing and presentation drafts to their electronic portfolios every week. In essence, this was necessary to test the effectivity of the digital platform (ePortfolios), and whether a combination of instructional textbooks and digital resources, as in previous studies (Su & Reeve, 2011), could enhance traditional classroom praxis. The activation of a DMC has been linked (You & Chan, 2015) to activities that foster reflection, feedback and self-assessment, all of which are particularly prominent during Hadfield and Dörnyei's (2013) keeping the vision alive

stage, referred to in Table 6. As students were required to submit project drafts every week, this study intended to explore whether the visualisation of performance via ePortfolios could spark a DMC.

4.4.Data Collection Instruments

This study followed a QUAN-QUAL methodology (Dörnyei, 2007), as outlined in Section 4.3.1., an approach that entailed a large focus on a questionnaire survey, followed by qualitative group focus interviews and teacher feedback. The pre-intervention survey was conducted first, followed by focus interviews, and then by teacher feedback, and the final post-intervention survey. By conducting the survey first, and subsequently the qualitative interviews and feedback, this thesis aimed to identify generalizable themes within the larger sample first, and then consolidate this information with qualitative insights into the more idiosyncratic aspects of learner motivation, SRL and FL acquisition. With this in mind, a pre-test, post-test, quasi-experimental, comparison group, QUAN-QUAL methodology design was followed, employing a total of five instruments:

- 1) Questionnaires (QUAN) – Experimental and control groups
- 2) Intervention programme – Experimental group
- 3) Electronic portfolios – Experimental group
- 4) Evaluation tools – Experimental and control groups
- 5) Student Focus Interviews (QUAL) – Experimental group
- 6) Teacher Open-ended Survey (QUAL) – Experimental group

Data collection was carried out twice during the EAP pre-session course, as a pre-test on the first day of the course in July 2017, during the students' induction and before the intervention had commenced, and then again on the last day of the course in September 2017 (week 6). In the present section, the five aforementioned instruments of data collection will be described in detail. A summary of all the data gathering instruments employed in the study, along with the exact time the measurements were made are presented in Section 4.5., and in Table 15.

4.4.1. Quantitative Tools

The primary method employed in this study to assess the constructs of learner motivation and SRL and its dynamic relationship was the Motivation, Possible

Selves, and Self-Regulation Questionnaire (MPSSRQ). In order to assess changes in states of motivation and SRL, all experimental and control participants completed the MPSSRQ before the intervention commenced (pre-test), and once it had finished (post-test).

As briefly introduced in Section 4.2.1., the MPSSRQ was piloted at RHUL from April to May 2017, to test and adjust this tool prior to the final investigation project at the UoN. Its purpose to examine the survey questions closely and allow the resolution of any potential difficulties early before the main administration of the questionnaire, which aimed to enhance the rigour of the survey. Based on the respondents' comments, wording remained unchanged as students did not report any difficulties or misunderstandings, and overall, the questionnaire took under 20 minutes to complete. Upon completion of the pilot study, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine the factor structure of the items in the MPSSRQ. The results of this factor analysis led us to remove certain items included in the pilot questionnaire, since their discriminative power was null or very weak. The internal consistency of the MPSSRQ was tested and, subsequently, 4 items were removed in order to improve the internal reliability consistency coefficient (one item from self-regulation and three items from the mindset scale), while some items were rearranged to differing scales, emending Cronbach alpha coefficient values to between .440 and .830.

As Cronbach alpha values can be quite sensitive to scales with fewer than 10 items, reporting low Cronbach values of .5, Briggs and Cheek (1986) suggest that it may be more appropriate to report the mean inter-item correlation for these items and recommend an optimal range of .2 to .4. Accordingly, inter-item correlation was also checked for the feared FL self scale, which obtained a lower than expected Cronbach alpha value. Although the mean inter-item correlation of this scale obtained a lower value than the aforementioned optimal range, this scale was not deleted as all items had been validated in previous studies (e.g. Taguchi et al., 2009). It also has to be noted that in order for the Ideal L2 self to be motivationally effective it has to be combined with the feared self (e.g. Markus & Nurius, 1986; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). Moreover, in the final study the Cronbach alpha values for feared self at pre-test (.534) and post-test (.581) were acceptable. A detailed breakdown of all Cronbach alpha values and Inter-item correlations for the piloted MPSSRQ is provided in Table 11 below.

Table 11: Internal reliability consistency of piloted MPSSRQ scale items

	Cronbach Alpha α PRE (N = 35)	Cronbach Alpha α POST (N = 21)	Inter-item correlation
Criterion measures (5 items)	.852	.776	
Ideal L2 self (5 items)	.655	.521	
Ought-to L2 Self (5 items)	.766	.813	
Instr. promotion (5 items)	.806	.830	
Instr. Prevention (5 items)	.727	.521	
Attitudes towards learning English (5 items)	.750	.742	
Feared Self (5 items)	.559	.444*	*Mean 1.25 -.299 to .380
Self-Regulation (11 items)	.709	.795	
English self-concept (5 items)	.716	.777	
Fixed mindset (6 items)	.633	.536	
Imaging ability (5 items)	.742	.757	

Following these adjustments, the final version was produced for the final study at UoN and administered. The paper-pencil MPSSRQ was administered to all participants, at the same time and in the same room on the first and last day of the EAP pre-session course at the UoN. As Bernat et al. (2009, p. 136) highlight, it is important to examine changes in behaviours and beliefs by re-administering dependent measures over time. The administrators were asked to note any problems raised by the respondents, but no comprehension issues were reported to the teacher-researcher who remained in the room while the questionnaires were being completed by all participants in the sample of this study. As the questionnaire was completed in English, and in order to avoid any language related hindrance during its completion, the teacher-researcher and all pre-session teachers were present to dispel uncertainties that arose during this time.

The final MPSSRQ (Appendix I) employed in the main study of this investigation consisted of three parts, 64 items and some background questions, and it adhered to the optimal length and requirements proposed by

Dörnyei (2003, 2010) and Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009): the survey was a total of four pages in length and took an average of 20 minutes to complete. All questionnaire items were clear, succinct and uncomplicated, written in simple sentences rather than compound or complex sentences, each contained only one complete thought, were relatively short and rarely exceeded 20 words. The coding system and how validity and reliability was attained is outlined in Section 4.6.1. of this thesis.

MPSSRQ Part I

Part 1 comprised 57 items that assessed motivation, growth mindset and SRL. Respondents were asked to rate their agreement to each statement on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree). A neutral point was not included in the scale in order to avoid central tendency bias. Respondents are likely to use the central category, avoiding extreme ones. (Nakata, 2011, p. 903).

Learner Motivation was assessed using the L2MSS scale and additional items taken from scales validated in previous studies, such as English self-concept (details to follow), and consisted of eight subscales:

- Criterion measures in FLL;
- Ideal L2 self;
- Ought-to L2 self;
- Instrumentality promotion;
- Instrumentality prevention;
- Attitudes towards learning English;
- Feared self;
- and English self-concept.

Some items were slightly reworded to fit the research context and modified into six-point Likert scale items. The internal consistency of these eight subscales reported Cronbach Alpha values that varied between .534 and .837 from pre-test to post-test scores, respectively. A detailed breakdown of all Cronbach Alpha values for the final MPSSRQ is provided in Table 12 below.

Motivation subscales:

1. Criterion measures in FLL (5 items): to examine learners' criterion toward intended effort to learn English. For example, "I would continue to study English even if it were not required." Items were taken from Taguchi et al. (2009).

2. Ideal L2 self (5 items). For example, "When I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English." Items were taken from Taguchi et al. (2009).

3. Ought-to L2 self (5 items). For example, "Studying English is important because the people I respect think I should do it." Items were taken from Taguchi et al. (2009), and You and Dörnyei (2016).

4. Instrumentality: promotion (5 items): to measure the learners' personal English learning purposes. For example, "Good English skills are important if you want to work globally." Items were taken from Taguchi et al. (2009).

5. Instrumentality: prevention (5 items): to measure the learners' obligations or responsibility for their English learning. For example, "I have to pass the pre-sessional English course in order to graduate." Items were taken from Taguchi et al. (2009).

Instrumentality Promotion & Instrumentality Prevention measure the two dimensions of instrumentality. The aim of including these variables is particularly important bearing in mind the nature of the current participants' learning (academic and professional progression) and the implications for their FL selves.

6. Attitudes to learning English (5 items): to investigate the learners' evaluation of their current FLL environment and experiences. For example, "I like the atmosphere of my English classes." Items were taken from Asker (2012), Taguchi et al. (2009), and Waller and Papi (2017).

7. Feared self (5 items): to measure students' perception of the possibility of failing their study and the perceived consequences of this failure. For example, "I worry about failing my pre-sessional English course." Items were taken from Asker (2012), Iwaniec (2014b), and Taguchi et al. (2009).

8. English self-concept (5 items): to measure students' perception of their present self in the FLL process. For example, "Compared to other students I am good at English." Items were taken from Iwaniec (2014b).

Growth Mindset was assessed through one subscale based on Dweck's (2006) concept of fixed mindset. Six items were taken from scales validated in previous studies (Hung, 2015; Waller & Papi, 2017). The internal consistency of this subscale reported Cronbach Alpha values that varied between .747 and .787 from pre-test to post-test scores, respectively. A detailed breakdown of all Cronbach Alpha values for the final MPSSRQ is provided in Table 12 below.

9. Fixed mindset (6 items): to measure the degree of malleability in students' mindset. For example, "My aim is to pass the pre-sessional English course while doing as little work as possible." Items were taken from Hung (2015) and Waller and Papi (2017).

SRL was assessed through one subscale that measured self-regulation. 11 items were taken from scales validated in prior studies that investigated SRL (e.g. Iwaniec, 2014b). Details of all studies from which items were taken for these scales are included to follow. The internal consistency of this subscale reported Cronbach Alpha values that varied between .822 and .886 from pre-test to post-test scores, respectively. A detailed breakdown of all Cronbach Alpha values for the final MPSSRQ is provided in Table 12 below.

10. SRL (11 items): to measure the learner's SRL strategies and behaviours. For example, "I set my own learning goals (I decide what to learn)." Items were taken from Abrami et al. (2013), Dafei (2007), Hung (2015), Iwaniec (2014b), Teng and Zhang (2016), and Waller and Papi (2017).

MPSSRQ Part II

Imaging ability was assessed through a scale validated by Dörnyei and Chan (2013) in the second part of the MPSSRQ. The scale included five items (items 58 to 62) on imaging ability in order to render an accurate evaluation of participants' visualisation skills, pre and post intervention. For example, "Imagine a park full of trees, how clearly do you see the trees? The item response in this scale was a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from: 1) No

image at all, you only 'know' that you are thinking of the object; 2) Unclear and dark; 3) Moderately clear and realistic; 4) Clear and reasonably realistic; and 5) Perfectly clear and realistic as normal vision. Cronbach's alphas obtained varied between .688 and .816. In this section participants were also asked two open-ended questions about their future self vision and a timeframe for this future self. A further breakdown on Cronbach alphas for this scale is included in Table 12 below.

Table 12: Internal reliability consistency of final MPSSRQ scale items

	Cronbach Alpha α PRE (N = 214)	Cronbach Alpha α POST (N = 205)
Criterion measures (5 items)	.615	.764
Ideal L2 self (5 items)	.556	.737
Ought-to L2 self (5 items)	.610	.688
Instr. Promotion (5 items)	.645	.733
Instr. Prevention (5 items)	.627	.693
Attitudes towards learning English (5 items)	.662	.837
Feared self (5 items)	.534	.581
English self-concept (5 items)	.759	.692
Imaging ability (5 items)	.688	.816
Fixed mindset (6 items)	.747	.782
SRL (11 items)	.822	.886

As can be seen in Table 11 and Table 12 above, there was a high level of consistency reliability of the MPSSRQ scales, which can be attributed to the fact that these variables were imported from pre-established and tested scales in different international contexts, and in line with the aforementioned pilot study.

MPSSRQ Part III

Lastly, in the third part of the questionnaire, students answered background questions based on the recommendations of a study by Li, Sepanski, and Zhao

(2006). These authors concluded that the 10 most frequent questionnaire items, in order of frequency (excluding ID ref, gender, and contact information), were the following: 1. Current age (in years, sometimes calculated from birthday). 2. Years of residence in the country where the FL is spoken. 3. Age at which FLL started. 4. Self-assessment in reading ability in L1 and FL, separately. 5. Self-assessment in speaking ability in L1 and FL, separately. 6. Years of FL instruction received. 7. Self-assessment in writing ability in L1 and FL, separately. 8. Language spoken at home. 9. Self-assessment in comprehension ability in L1 and FL, separately. 10. Native language. This section of the MPSSRQ consisted of 12 questions, one of which was an open-ended question that asked participants about their reasons for studying in the UK.

4.4.2. Intervention Programme

The first step in the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides was to calibrate self-efficacy beliefs with a growth mindset, so that plausible and effective future self-guides could be engaged. Second, learners needed to set their own personal objectives. Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) explain that to attain plausibility, it is necessary to relate the imaginative to the practical, the affective to the cognitive, and the creative to the logical (e.g. trajectories or roadmaps that provide specific cognitive form, organisation, direction, and self-relevant meaning). Future self-guides need analysing into specific goals which are actionable, otherwise, an undefined list of goals will remain in the realms of dream and fantasy. Defining goals, in the first instance, entailed considering the initial vision and identifying long-term goals, followed by a process of classifying the goals into those that were covered by the syllabus, those not covered but could be added in, and those which would have to be met through self-study. These distal goals then had to be further broken down into proximal goals: short-term, weekly, or sub goals. The third and final stage of the learner development intervention entailed the generating of a DMC to sustain future self-guides through ePortfolios, what Hadfield and Dörnyei refer to as keeping the vision alive and was nurtured through feedback and self-assessment.

Briefly introduced in Section 4.3.1., the EAP pre-session course at the UoN comprised three compulsory modules: Reading & Writing, Listening & Speaking, and Project. The intervention of this study was implemented within

the curricular Project module. A research project element of the EAP pre-session programme that aimed to compliment and consolidate the Reading & Writing and Listening & Speaking modules. In this Project module, students had to produce a research paper that included the following four sections: Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion (henceforth, IMRaD). Although each student was required to submit an individual piece of work, which was assessed individually, students had to conduct the research on their projects in groups. Based on their university major, students were grouped into cohorts of three or four learners. In these groups, students picked a research topic of interest to the whole group from the four research questions listed below, which could not be duplicated within groups in the same class. In each question 'x' was replaced with the degree subject of each project cohort:

- RQ1 – What employment opportunities are there for x graduates?
- RQ2 – What perceptions do the general public have of degrees in x?
- RQ3 – Why do students choose to study x?
- RQ4 – Why is studying x important?

Both formative and summative assessment tasks were included in this module. The EAP IMRaD project consisted of four formative assessed written tasks, produced in class and serving as drafts, and a final summative assessed project submitted at the end of the course based on these four formative drafts. Each written task had a 300/400-word count, and each draft represented one section from the IMRaD structure on the research conducted by each group. Although students had to work in groups, written work had to be completed individually. The final EAP IMRaD project word count requirement was between 1200 and 1600 words and was assessed individually. Students also had to present each section of their IMRaD project. Of which, the first three presentations were formative, and the final progress presentation carried 10% of the overall IMRaD project mark. Evaluation criteria for the written project comprised task response, criticality, use of sources, organisation, grammar accuracy and range, and vocabulary accuracy and range. Evaluation criteria on the presentation comprised delivery, content, use of sources, pronunciation, grammar accuracy and range, and vocabulary accuracy and range (EAP pre-session evaluation rubrics included in Appendix VI).

The EAP project coursebook consisted of six units, one unit per week. The intervention comprised 12 components, structured around four dimensions.

The first construct related to growth mindset proposed by Dweck (2006) and aimed to challenge participants' thoughts on the malleability of language acquisition and lifelong learning with effort and dedication. The remaining three dimensions were designed as per Hadfield and Dörnyei's (2013) recommendations on visualisation intervention programmes and included the following: imaging identity, mapping the journey, and keeping the vision alive (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013, pp. 11-284). These four dimensions (12 components) were integrated within the EAP IMRaD project coursebook. All participants in the 10 experimental groups completed this coursebook, while all participants in the seven control groups completed the EAP IMRaD project coursebook that did not include the 12 intervention components. Specifically, two EAP IMRaD coursebooks were designed, one that integrated the 12 intervention components into the IMRaD course syllabus (Appendix II unit example), and one that excluded these intervention components (Appendix III unit example). As intervention components were inserted and prioritised according to their relevance and compatibility with the EAP IMRaD course syllabus, some components did not adhere to the ordinal sequence proposed by Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) although the dimensional structure was maintained throughout.

As per research findings (Anderson, 1983) and Chan's (2014a) recommendations on the effects of imagination on personal intention persistence, participants visualised personalised imagery scripts and recordings on a regular basis of within a 3-day timeframe to prolong the beneficial effects, completing, on average, between 2 to 3 intervention components each week. This was possible throughout the intervention as two components related to the writing and presentation draft submissions every week, which increased the intervention to 16 components in total. All students attended four IMRaD classes per week, each lesson lasted 75 minutes. All intervention components were completed during the lesson; however, it was at the teacher's discretion as to what should be completed as homework and subsequently reviewed and monitored in class. The intervention programme schedule applied is outlined in Table 13.

In addition, all experimental participants were required to upload each completed component to an electronic portfolio. Each participant had complete ownership of their ePortfolio and could access it as often as desired or required. In his study, Hung (2009) claims that learners became more

conscious about self-reflection and SRL while creating electronic portfolios. On the first day of the pre-sessional, students were shown how to create their own electronic portfolios on the free electronic portfolio website 'Pathbrite': <https://pathbrite.com>, a ready-made webpage that calls for only minimal computer skills. Intervention students worked on and uploaded all components outlined in the intervention programme schedule (refer to Table 13) throughout the 6-week pre-sessional. Students gave and received peer and teacher feedback and revised uploaded components accordingly.

Although students' ePortfolios were not assessed, they were reviewed on a regular basis by the teacher-researcher and group teachers, and a record was kept of all submissions. Although electronic portfolios were student-owned, access was granted to teachers to view them. Intervention participants were continually encouraged and reminded to submit missing components. As Benson (2011, 2013) reminds us, fostering self-regulation does not mean simply leaving learners to their own devices, but implies a more active process of guidance and encouragement to help learners extend and systematise the capacities that they already possess. Indeed, teachers' encouragement can help broaden the range of affordances students engage with during the FLL process in the classroom and beyond.

Teacher selection for the 10 intervention groups comprised the teacher-researcher of this study and 9 additional teachers extraneous to this investigation (see Table 9 for details). Teacher selection for the experimental groups was voluntary. Although the majority (90%) of participant teachers allocated to the experimental groups had more than five years of experience in EFL teaching and had imparted (80%) an EAP pre-sessional at the UoN previously, none had ever taken part in an intervention programme. Experimental group teachers underwent a half-day training, provided by the teacher-researcher, on the intervention EAP IMRaD coursebook and ePortfolios prior to the course commencing. In addition, the teacher-researcher of this study was available throughout the course to dispel any questions or concerns that arose, interacting with intervention teachers on an ongoing basis, providing adequate training and support prior to and throughout the entire intervention research project. Furthermore, all intervention EAP IMRaD project classes were visited by the teacher-researcher to address any questions or concerns on a weekly basis.

DIMENSION ONE: GROWTH MINDSET (Dweck, 2006)

Component 1 – Growth vs. Fixed mindset

To introduce participants to future learner possible selves, as in Aronson et al.'s (2002) study, participants were shown a brief 3-minute video clip that discussed how the brain, and hence intelligence, is capable of growing and making new connections throughout life. The clip included a vivid colour animation of the brain developing new neurons, while a voiceover reported that brain researchers were discovering how the brain grows in response to intellectual challenge. To bolster this message, participants also had to look at an infographic on fixed mindset and growth mindset to *calculate* their own mindset. Once completed, students had to upload this personalised infographic to their ePortfolio.

DIMENSION TWO: IMAGING IDENTITY (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013, pp. 11-104). This dimension served as a brief induction to students' present FL self and their desired future FL self.

Component 2 – Creating the vision: Identity tree

A 20-minute activity to extend awareness of dimensions that an FL self can add to the existing L1 identity. Students were dictated a visualisation script and asked to create a dendritic identity arborisation in the form of a SWOT analysis of their English self. Learners were asked to include aspects of their core self, add new branches that an FL self might offer and leaves to the branches that represented precise things they wanted to be able to do in the FL. Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

Component 3 – Counterbalancing the vision: two roads (poem)

A 45-minute activity to raise awareness of the role of research and effort. Participants read Robert Frost's poem 'The Road not Taken,' and were asked to think of a time in their lives when two paths diverged for them, having to make a difficult choice. Subsequently, participants had to imagine themselves as Frost's traveller at a fork in the paths, having to choose a path. One path is easier, level, smooth; the other is more difficult, rocky, overgrown, steep and winding, but ultimately leads to a mountain top with stunning views, while the other comes full circle back to the place. Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

Component 5 – Enhancing the vision: Ideal L2 self

A 15-minute activity to add more concrete and specific images to the concept of an ideal future self. Participants watched a brief video clip by Patti Dobrowolski on 'How to draw your future,' and then had to complete a 'New Desired Self Template.' Indeed, Magid (2011) underscores that it is necessary to write down personal situations instead of simply imagining them because the process of writing them down helps students to use their imagination, gives them clear goals for learning English, and makes their vision of their Ideal L2 self more elaborate. Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

DIMENSION THREE: MAPPING THE JOURNEY (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013, pp. 105-197). This third dimension followed on from the activities presented in the induction, establishing short-term and long-term goals, breaking these down into a series of tasks, and organising them into a sustainable study plan.

Component 4 – Personal goal statements, goal breakdown and study plan

From vision to goals: personal goal statements. A 20-minute activity to get students to write their own personalised goal statements, incorporating both agreed class goals and any extra individual goals students may have.

From vision to goals: goal breakdown. A 20-min activity to break down the semester's goals into a series of sub goals.

From goals to plans: study plan. A 20-minute activity to break down the semester's goals into a list of precise self-study tasks, or to focus on areas students found difficult. This worksheet had to be reviewed every week.

Once completed, students had to upload all three parts of this component to their ePortfolio.

Component 7 – From plans to strategies: positive thinking

A 45-minute activity to focus on the importance of positive thinking. Students reviewed some quotes on positive psychology, and then gave a brief 3-minute presentation on how these quotes related to their own life experience, finding some visuals online to support their mini presentation. Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

DIMENSION FOUR: KEEPING THE VISION ALIVE (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013, pp. 198-284). There were two strands to this dimension: 'Developing Identity,'

where the aim was to keep in touch with the vision, to develop it in more detail, and make sure it was not lost in the day-to-day business, and 'Making It Real,' which provided activities that allowed for the use of the FL in real-life, virtual or simulated situations. As Magid (2011) highly recommends, media components, such as music, were included in this dimension, as they can make intervention programmes more interesting for the participants, having a memorable emotional impact on them, and stimulating their creativity, so that they are able to imagine their vision of their Ideal L2 self in more detail. Elements of self-assessment and revision were also included in this dimension in relation to IMRaD writing and presentation draft submissions. As Hung (2009) suggests, EFL teachers need to redefine their roles and provide systematic training and constant guidance. As facilitators who encourage SRL, teachers need to continually help learners review their own language process so that learners can be fully aware of their learning and the benefits of self-assessment as an effective language learning strategy.

Component 6 – Developing identity: giving a presentation

A 20-minute activity for students to visualise the FL self giving a presentation. Students had to present each section of their IMRaD report on weeks 2, 3, 4 and 6 of the pre-sessional. All presentations were recorded, and peer feedback was given/received. All participants were also asked to compare and contrast their progress presentations every week and check whether they had acted upon the feedback received. Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

Component 8 – Developing identity: finding your voice

Participants were introduced to the concept of 'Glossophobia' in relation to developing their English voice. Students were asked to choose an inspirational song in English that could represent their English voice and develop their English-speaking skills. Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

Component 9 – Making it real: role models A – learning and studying in the UK.

A 30-minute activity to raise student awareness on the benefits or drawbacks of studying in the UK. Learners had to identify key ideas in relation to statistical data on this topic, which were linked to the results section of their IMRaD project. This task provided the students with real-life role models of

the key to successful language learning in the UK, through the web and reading texts, which they could apply to their own FLL experience (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

Component 10 – Making it real: entering the FL community – virtual guest speaker

A 45-minute activity giving students the opportunity to listen and interact with a variety of English speakers. Participants watched and discussed a short debate on the value of higher education, and then chose a debate or discussion in English on a topic of their choice that concerned them, which they had to review and explain. Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

Component 11 – Making it real: entering the FL community - cultural events, storytelling

A 45-minute activity where students watched and discussed a film or documentary in English. Participants reviewed a clip on the 'Future of Storytelling' and its cultural significance. After which, they were asked to write down an example from the past month of a story they told or one that was told about them in English. This was introduced also to consolidate the IMRaD project discussion section in students' presentations and report writing drafts. Once completed, students had to upload this component to their ePortfolio.

Component 12 – Making it real: role models B - checklists.

A 75-minute activity wherein students had to review an IMRaD checklist on what makes a successful report, which they then had to check and contrast against their own work. Students were also required to upload their IMRaD report section drafts each week to this component in order to review their progress and check whether they had acted upon teacher feedback.

Table 13: EAP IMRaD project course syllabus with and without intervention

	IMRaD Intervention Project	IMRaD no Intervention Project
WEEK 1	Learner mindset (Growth Mindset, Component 1) The value of group work Teamwork skills and challenges Primary & secondary research	The value of group work Teamwork skills and challenges Primary & secondary research Research questions & ethics

	Identity tree (imaging identity creating the vision, Component 2) Research questions & ethics	
WEEK 2	Methodology overview Collecting effective data: Two Roads poem (imaging identity , counterbalancing the vision, Component 3) Setting research objectives: personal goal statements, goal breakdown & study plan (mapping the journey , from vision to goals and from goals to plans, Component 4) Designing a questionnaire Asking the right questions: Ideal L2 self (imaging identity , enhancing the vision, Component 5) Progress presentation methodology section: giving a presentation (keeping the vision alive , developing identity, Component 6) Report writing draft methodology section: IMRaD checklist (keeping the vision alive , role models B, Component 12)	Methodology overview Designing a questionnaire Progress presentation methodology section (not recorded) Report writing draft methodology section (paper format only)
WEEK 3	Writing introductions Secondary research skills and table Presentation skills dos & don'ts Mini presentation: positive psychology (mapping the journey , from plans to strategies, Component 7) Developing a voice: glossophobia (keeping the vision alive , developing identity, Component 8) Progress presentation introduction section: giving a presentation (keeping the vision alive , developing identity, Component 6) Report writing draft introduction section: IMRaD checklist (keeping the vision alive , role models B, Component 12)	Writing introductions Presentation skills dos & don'ts Mini presentation: practice vs. memorisation Secondary research skills and table Progress presentation introduction section (not recorded) Report writing draft introduction section (paper format only)
WEEK 4	Findings overview Coding and analysing results Progress presentation results section: giving a presentation (keeping the vision alive , developing identity, Component 6) Summarising key findings: learning and studying abroad (keeping the vision alive , role models A, Component 9) Report writing draft results section: IMRaD checklist (keeping the vision alive , role models B, Component 12) Discussion overview: limitations and future research Academic debate (keeping the vision alive , virtual guest speaker, Component 10)	Findings overview Coding and analysing results Progress presentation results section (not recorded) Report writing draft results section (paper format only) Discussion overview: limitations and future research
WEEK 5	Analysis and limitations overview The power of storytelling: cultural events (keeping the vision alive , entering the FL community, Component 11)	Analysis and limitations overview Interpreting research data Report writing draft discussion section (paper format only)

	Interpreting research data Report writing draft discussion section: IMRaD checklist (keeping the vision alive , role models B, Component 12)	
WEEK 6	Tutorials Final presentation: giving a presentation (keeping the vision alive , developing identity, Component 6)	Tutorials Final presentation (recorded)
WEEKS 1-6	Reading & Writing module (45 hours) Listening & Speaking module (45 hours)	Reading & Writing module (45 hours) Listening & Speaking module (45 hours)

4.4.3. Qualitative Tools

Two qualitative measurements were employed in this study to consolidate quantitative data garnered on the issues under scrutiny: group focus interviews on experimental participants, and a teacher feedback open-ended survey. Having a qualitative aspect in the form of focus interviews with intervention students and teacher feedback enabled this study to gain a deeper understanding of the changes in participants' attitudes in relation to motivation, SRL and using electronic portfolios both inside and beyond the classroom than could be obtained by solely analysing quantitative data. Data drawn from interviews can tell us a great deal about the ways in which learners go about influencing their motivation to learn (Benson, 2011, 2013). Accordingly, this study aimed to amalgamate its qualitative findings to those obtained via quantitative research methods to enhance and consolidate its understanding of the intervention effects on the issues under scrutiny in this investigation.

As in previous studies (e.g. Asker, 2012), the sampling criteria for the focus interviews and teacher feedback was based on willing and volunteering participants. Towards the end of the final week of the EAP pre-session course, each intervention teacher chose a few experimental students from their class to represent each IMRaD intervention class and participate in the group focus interviews. Participants were asked if they wanted to participate after being informed on the nature and the aim of the interviews, as were teachers.

A total of seven focus groups that comprised 30 students, with between four and seven students in each cohort, were asked 13 semi-guided focus questions (Appendix IV) on the issues under investigation in this study (motivation, SRL

and using electronic portfolios). Recent studies (e.g. Krueger & Casey, 2015) suggest groups with 5 to 10 people, with no less than 4 and no more than 16 at any given time. In line with the recommendations of the authors of these studies (ibid), students were carefully selected from each IMRaD project intervention group to include participants who had excellent insight while also trying to assemble as diverse a group as possible to capture a range of varying views. Notwithstanding, participant consent was obtained beforehand, and selected interviewees were informed that this was a voluntary exercise, in which they did not have to participate. Accordingly, only those who agreed to participate took part in the focus group interviews.

Students were asked to reflect on how they felt about the intervention and electronic portfolios, and whether this had influenced their motivation, self-regulation or learner objectives in any way. For example, "Do you think the ePortfolio had a positive or negative effect on your academic performance?" "Which component did you find the most/least useful? Explain." Four focus interviews were carried out by the teacher-researcher of this study. The remaining three groups were interviewed by their respective IMRaD intervention project teachers, who were instructed on the procedure for this type of group focus interview by the teacher-researcher. Interviews were conducted in English, which may have led to linguistic hindrance at times, but was felt necessary in a higher education TL context. The semi-structured interviews lasted, on average, between 20 and 30 minutes. They were digitally recorded, transcribed by the teacher-researcher of this study and coded, with the purpose of searching for patterns and recurrent themes linked to positive and/or negative DMC states noted by experimental participants during the intervention. The coding system and how validity and reliability was attained is outlined in Section 4.6.2. All answers were analysed at a later stage, the results of which are outlined in Section 5.2.2.

As the main point of these group focus interviews was to identify the effects of electronic portfolios on FLL and whether these triggered possible DMCs, it was not deemed necessary to include focus group interviews on control participants. Had focus interviews been conducted on control participants, these questions could have not been specifically targeted at ePortfolios as was required to evaluate the positive and negative aspects of using a digital platform.

Upon completion of the EAP pre-session course (week 7), a total of nine intervention IMRaD project teachers, including the teacher-researcher of this study, completed an open-ended survey (Appendix V). The aim being to explore how teachers felt about the intervention, overall, and whether they thought it had had an impact on their students' motivation, SRL or FLL learning. Tutors were asked a total of nine open-ended questions. As in the group focus interviews, these questions addressed the concepts under investigation in this study (motivation, SRL and using ePortfolios). For example, "Do you think the intervention had any effect on self-regulation? Did the intervention complement your teaching? Why/why not?" This information was then transferred digitally by the teacher-researcher of this study. All answers were recorded and analysed at a later stage, the results of which are outlined in Section 5.2.2. The coding system and how validity and reliability was attained is outlined in Section 4.6.2 of this paper.

4.4.4. Evaluative Tools

In order to determine the effectivity of the intervention on students' FL acquisition, and to further examine the relationship between learner motivation and SRL and FL proficiency, all summative EAP pre-session course assessments were included as evaluative tools. In total, students were evaluated on 16 tasks that were submitted throughout the 6-week pre-session. As can be seen below, in the evaluation summary schedule provided in Table 14, the reading and writing module comprised seven summative tasks. The listening and speaking module contained eight summative tasks, and the final IMRaD project consisted of one summative task.

Table 14: UoN EAP pre-session summative evaluation schedule

	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking	IMRaD
Week 1					
Week 2	Reading blog 1	Writing task 1	Listening log 1		
Week 3	Reading blog 2			ARC2	
Week 4	Reading blog 3	Writing task 2	Listening log 2	ARC3	
Week 5			Listening log 3	ARC4	
Week 6	Final reading blog	Writing task 3	Final listening log	SLedS	Presentation & Report

Further to the IMRaD project evaluation outline provided in Section 4.4.2., to follow, a brief description is included on the summative EAP pre-session tasks included in Table 14, which all students were required to submit, and

were consequently considered an evaluative tool in this investigation. Students had to:

1. Evaluate and comment on four newspaper articles assigned in class, referred to as reading blogs in Table 14, with a 300-word count requirement. The final reading blog had to be completed under test conditions and the remaining three were self-directed. Evaluation criteria comprised accuracy of bibliographic detail, informative summary, depth of commentary/evaluation, and awareness of reliability.
2. Identify, summarise and evaluate three academic journal articles related to their university discipline, referred to as writing tasks in Table 14. The first task comprised 200 words, the second 300 words and the fourth 400 words. Evaluation criteria comprised task response, criticality, use of sources, organisation, grammar accuracy and range, and vocabulary accuracy and range.
3. Summarise and comment on four listening lectures based on lecture content related to their academic discipline posted online in the past 6 months. The first and last listening logs had to be completed in test conditions and were based on unseen lectures and the remaining two were self-directed. Evaluation criteria comprised accuracy of bibliographic detail, informative summary, reaction and evaluation.
4. Explore and discuss topics related to their academic discipline and participate in three academic reading circles in small groups of 3 or 4, referred to as ARCs in Table 14. Students also had to participate in a final speaking assessment in which they had to take part in a student led seminar, referred to as SLedS in Table 14, for which they had to find material on a given topic related to their major for discussion in small cohorts of 5 or 6 students. Evaluation criteria comprised delivery, content, use of sources, pronunciation, grammar accuracy and range, and vocabulary accuracy and range.

All summative assessments were evaluated in accordance with the official EAP pre-session marking criteria established by the UoN, for which assessment rubrics are included in Appendix VI. Written and oral summative assignments were marked by the teacher assigned to that group and moderated by the EAP course director and/or manager. The average scores awarded to each participant upon agreement of the 2 or 3 evaluators involved (and adjusted

later to the 1-10 scale as explained in Section 4.6.1) were used in the analyses of this study. This was possible for all ARC and SLedS discussions (speaking assignments), as these were recorded and subsequently moderated by the EAP course director and/or manager. The coding system and how validity and reliability was attained is outlined in Section 4.6.1., of this thesis.

4.4.5. Research Design Issues

This study had to employ a quasi-experimental design, as the research could only be effectively carried out in a natural setting. Consequently, the lack of random assignment into test groups has led to non-equivalent test groups which can limit the generalisability of the results to a larger population. Statistical analyses may be less definitive due to the lack of randomisation and the threats to internal validity, particularly, conclusions about causality (Creswell, 2014). A further weakness of the study, which could not be controlled, was the participation of nine external IMRaD intervention project teachers, who were not part of the investigation, in addition to the teacher-researcher implementing the intervention. That is to say, the teacher-researcher of this study could only impart one IMRaD project intervention, and therefore, full control of conditions was limited to only one of the experimental groups. To mitigate this weakness, the teacher-researcher of this study performed the following tasks:

1. Prior to the start of the EAP pre-session, a half-day training was imparted to all intervention teachers that participated in the study, which covered intervention tasks and electronic portfolios.
2. Regular contact was maintained with intervention teachers through visibility and accessibility in the staffroom and email correspondence updates.
3. Weekly visits were arranged to IMRaD intervention group classes to ensure both students and teachers understood all intervention components and were using ePortfolios correctly, dispelling any queries or problems that arose.
4. Components submitted by participants to their ePortfolios were reviewed daily. Students were also emailed every week to remind them of pending components to be uploaded.

4.4.6. Positioning of the Researcher

One of the most important considerations for the researcher is the position they occupy in relation to the research setting, the participants in the research and the data analysis and presentation. Davies and Harré (1999, p. 37) describe positioning as the 'discursive practice whereby people are located in conversations as observably and subjectively coherent participants in jointly produced storylines.' Therefore, as researchers, first, we need to see what the data are telling us, and second, we need to make the links, connect the dots, and show how meanings are constituted both in relation to and within the experiment environment. The positioning a researcher takes must always be from an ethical stance, as it can impact not only on the research design, but also on the ethical nature of the research process itself. In an effort to become what Dewey (1929) refers to as a student of teaching, this study adopted a teacher-researcher approach that allows teaching professionals to investigate teaching and learning in a way that can improve our own and our students' learning. A process that enabled this study to ethically implement and interpret an investigation. A study whose prime objective was to identify whether an intervention underpinned on digital future self-guides could increase learner motivation and self-regulation, and whether this subsequently generated a favourable ripple effect on FL proficiency gains and overall academic competence.

4.5.Procedure

A comprehensive outline of all the data gathering instruments employed in the study, along with the exact time the measurements were performed are presented to follow and summarised in Table 15 below.

The preliminary first year was spent becoming familiar with the institutions, EAP course objectives and teaching materials, which was fundamental to the accurate implementation of the theoretical framework of digital future self-guides within the institutional EAP pre-sessional curriculum (defined specifically in Section 4.4.2.), and the validation of student-generated data evaluation tools (outlined in Section 4.4.4.). Ethical approval was also attained from the participating and doctoral universities at this stage.

The final study at the UoN commenced on 31 July 2017 and ended on 8 September 2017. Prior to the study commencing, all EAP pre-sessional teachers had to attend a 3-day induction, in which the theoretical and curricular framework of digital future self-guides was presented, and consequently EAP IMRaD project intervention teachers were voluntarily assigned. Upon which, a half-day training was imparted to all intervention teachers prior to the EAP pre-sessional course start date.

Data collection was conducted on the first day of the EAP pre-sessional course during the student induction, in which the entire cohort was asked to complete the MPSSRQ (this study's questionnaire), i.e. pre-test measures. All students were asked to respond as honestly as they possibly could, emphasizing that their answers would be kept confidential and would not affect or influence their course grades. During this induction, experimental students were also asked to set up an electronic portfolio account on 'Pathbrite' and offered support accordingly.

The IMRaD project module began in week 1 and ended in week 6 of the EAP pre-sessional course. Across that period, the intervention programme was imparted as per the schedule outlined in Table 13 (Section 4.4.2.). During which, experimental participants and intervention teachers were emailed regularly on components to be imparted and submitted to ePortfolios, at the same time as both control and experimental participants had to submit the weekly summative assignments included in Table 14 (Section 4.4.4.).

Focus group interviews took place on the last days in week 6. On the final day of the course, all students were asked to attend a course closing ceremony. At that stage, the entire cohort was asked again to complete the MPSSRQ, i.e. post-test measures, and thanked for their participation. Upon completion, all data obtained from the MPSSRQ was transferred to a digital spreadsheet by the teacher-researcher of this study and double-checked by one of the intervention teachers on the EAP summer pre-sessional.

Once the EAP pre-sessional course had finalised (week 7), all intervention teachers, including the teacher-researcher of this study, were asked for their feedback via an open-ended survey.

Table 15: Data gathering instruments and measurements schedule

	July 2016 – May 2017	Pre-test	Intervention	Post-test
July 2016 to July 2017	Preliminary research at UoN			
Apr to May 2017	Pilot study at RHUL			
26 to 28 July 2017	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher Induction UoN. 2. Intervention presentation to UoN pre-sessional teachers. 3. Intervention teacher induction. 			
31 July to 4 August 2017 (week 1)		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Completion of pre-test MPSSRQ. 2. Intervention student induction and ePortfolio set up. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. EAP IMRaD intervention starts. 2. Intervention components 1 and 2 imparted. 	
7 to 11 August (week 2)			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intervention components 3, 4, 5, 6 and 12 imparted. 2. Summative assignments reading blog, writing task & listening log submitted. 	
14 to 18 August (week 3)			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intervention components 6, 7, 8 and 12 imparted. 2. Summative assignments reading blog and ARC submitted. 	
21 to 25 August (week 4)			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intervention components 6, 9, 10 and 12 imparted. 2. Summative assignments reading blog, writing task, listening log and ARC submitted. 	
28 August to 2 September 2017 (week 5)			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intervention components 11 and 12 imparted. 2. Summative assignments listening log and ARC submitted. 	
4 to 8 September (week 6)			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Intervention component 6 imparted. 2. Summative assignments 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Completion of post-test MPSSRQ.

			reading blog, writing task, listening log, SLED, presentation and report submitted.	2. Group focus interviews conducted.
11 to 13 September (week 7)				Intervention teachers' feedback open-ended survey

4.6.Data Analysis

Employing a mixed-methods approach, a combination of quantitative and qualitative analyses was employed in this study to consolidate its understanding of the intervention effects on learner motivation, SRL and FL acquisition using electronic portfolios. To follow all data analyses used in this investigation are described in relation to their analytical coding system and how validity and reliability was obtained.

4.6.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

Data obtained during the 6-week EAP pre-sessional and intervention programme were coded and analysed by means of the SPSS 24 programme. Prior to making a decision about which statistical tests to use, normality was tested through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov, which rejects the hypothesis of normality when the p-value is less than or equal to 0.05. The test failed normality in some of the cases (details provided in Table 16 below). Because of that, nonparametric tests were used to examine all variables related to the L2MSS, fixed mindset, SRL and FL acquisition gains.

Table 16: Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic Test of Normality

<i>Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic</i>			
	Case Number	Statistic	Sig
Writing acquisition	205	0,218	0,000
Reading acquisition	205	0,152	0,000
Speaking acquisition	205	0,112	0,000
Listening acquisition	205	0,125	0,000
IMRaD acquisition	205	0,160	0,000
Criterion measures PRE	205	0,140	0,000
Criterion measures POST	205	0,117	0,000
Ideal L2 self PRE	205	0,081	0,002
Ideal L2 self POST	205	0,106	0,000
Ought-to L2 self PRE	205	0,098	0,000
Ought-to L2 self POST	205	0,087	0,001
Promotion PRE	205	0,103	0,000
Promotion POST	205	0,108	0,000

Prevention PRE	205	0,101	0,000
Prevention POST	205	0,095	0,000
Attitudes to English PRE	205	0,119	0,000
Attitudes to English POST	205	0,157	0,000
Feared self PRE	205	0,077	0,005
Feared self POST	205	0,100	0,000
English self PRE	205	0,108	0,000
English self POST	205	0,062	0,053
Imaging ability PRE	205	0,086	0,001
Imaging ability POST	205	0,166	0,000
SRL PRE	205	0,061	0,058
SRL POST	205	0,077	0,005
Fixed mindset PRE	205	0,072	0,012
Fixed mindset POST	205	0,053	0,200
Criterion measures difference	205	0,125	0,000
Ideal L2 self difference	205	0,101	0,000
Ought-to L2 self difference	205	0,081	0,002
Promotion difference	205	0,098	0,000
Prevention difference	205	0,058	0,090
Attitudes to English difference	205	0,155	0,000
Feared self difference	205	0,051	0,200
English self difference	205	0,082	0,002
Imaging ability difference	205	0,119	0,000
SRL difference	205	0,078	0,004
Fixed mindset difference	205	0,073	0,010

Initially, an independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test was performed in order to answer the research questions. First of all, the two groups under scrutiny (control and experimental) were compared at pre-intervention stage to ascertain whether any statistically significant differences were observed from the outset among variables measuring the L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL. An Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test performed on the control and experimental cohorts showed significant pre-existing differences between the two groups in terms of most L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL variable mean scores, with control participants reporting higher scores on most variables. Table 17 below summarises these pre-existing differences as regards the means of both groups at pre-test measurements at the beginning of the experiment. As a result, a new variable was created to report pre and post intervention scores in order to control for these pre-existing differences (pre-test mean). For each scale measure, i.e. the L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL, 'PRE' and 'POST' variables were replaced with a 'difference' variable. This variable was calculated based on the difference between the pre and post score on each variable for both control and experimental participants. L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL 'difference' variables were then tested for normality. The test failed normality in some of the cases (details provided in Table 16 above) and this was the reason for resorting to Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U

nonparametric tests in order to carry out comparisons among the variables related to L2MSS, fixed mindset, SRL and FL acquisition gains.

Table 17: Mann-Whitney U tests on pre-existing differences among participants on L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset mean scores

	EXPERIMENTAL		CONTROL	
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Criterion measures PRE	24,23	3,04	25,80	2,60
Ideal L2 self PRE	23,48	2,94	24,36	3,08
Ought-to L2 self PRE	22,65	3,15	23,12	4,33
Promotion PRE	24,52	3,00	25,59	3,21
Prevention PRE	23,54	3,52	24,29	3,85
Attitudes to English PRE	26,10	2,84	26,88	2,38
Feared self PRE	21,57	3,76	22,72	4,26
English self PRE	18,43	3,85	19,76	4,93
Imaging ability PRE	19,79	3,09	20,11	2,70
SRL PRE	52,94	6,22	55,34	5,90
Fixed mindset PRE	21,26	5,35	23,98	5,93

To assess for the influence of using electronic portfolios, a further distinction was established among groups in this study. Consistent with the recommendations outlined in the current literature (e.g. Abrami et al., 2008; Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010; Upitis et al., 2010), the degree to which ePortfolios were implemented in the classroom was examined. This is exactly why this study differentiated between participants in the control group and learners within the experimental group who had, or had not, submitted the intervention in its entirety to their ePortfolio, referred to as control, ePortfolio partial and ePortfolio complete, respectively. Consequently, participants who submitted the intervention in its entirety to their ePortfolio (all 12 intervention components), adhering to task requirements fully and adequately, were ascribed to the ePortfolio complete group. Learners who had not submitted all 12 components to their ePortfolio were ascribed to the ePortfolio partial group, and learners who were not assigned the intervention remained as the control group.

As previously, and indicated in Table 16 above, nonparametric tests were performed on all L2MSS, fixed mindset, SRL and FL acquisition variables, as the test failed normality in some of the cases. All three groups (control, ePortfolio partial and complete) were compared in relation to FL acquisition gains, L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL difference variables using the Kruskal-Wallis test, a non-parametric, one-way between-groups analysis of variance.

As previously mentioned, to control for pre-existing differences (pre-test L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL mean scores), experimental groups were not compared with participants in the control group on pre-test and post-test mean scores but were compared based on their 'difference' mean scores. However, no significant pre-existing differences were reported on any variables concerning L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL mean scores, as is shown in Table 18, when the two experimental groups under scrutiny (ePortfolio partial and ePortfolio complete) were compared at the pre-intervention stage. Because of that, difference mean scores on all L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL variables were first compared using an Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test for both experimental groups, followed by a comparison of pre-test and post-test mean scores using the non-parametric Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test.

Table 18: Mann-Whitney U tests on pre-existing differences between ePortfolio partial and ePortfolio complete groups on L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset mean scores

	ePortfolio Partial		ePortfolio Complete	
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Criterion measures PRE	24,34	2,98	23,94	3,22
Ideal L2 self PRE	23,51	3,13	23,42	2,44
Ought-to L2 self PRE	22,84	3,00	22,15	3,50
Promotion PRE	24,48	3,18	24,61	2,50
Prevention PRE	23,72	3,63	23,06	3,23
Attitudes to English PRE	26,06	2,85	26,21	2,85
Feared self PRE	21,51	3,93	21,73	3,35
English self PRE	18,52	4,01	18,21	3,44
Imaging ability PRE	19,98	3,23	19,30	2,69
SRL PRE	52,82	6,23	53,27	6,26
Fixed mindset PRE	21,40	5,50	20,88	4,99

Students' IELTS (International English Language Testing System) English level (Table 8) was used to determine participants' FL competency level at the start of summative assessments, which was fairly homogenous and confirmed no pre-existing differences from the outset. On those grounds, and in order to gauge participants' total proficiency gains from the beginning to the end of the study, a grade increase/decrease cumulative was calculated on each academic skill (reading, writing, listening and speaking), based on students' ongoing summative grades throughout the 6-week EAP pre-session course. As the IMRaD project was a sole submission, analysis had to be based on the final

grade awarded. To facilitate analytical homogeneity, UoN summative grades were coded and adjusted to a 1-10 scale, as indicated in Table 19 below.

Table 19: Coding analysis for EAP evaluative tools

Adjusted scale	9	7.8	7.3	6.8	6.5	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.1	4.8	4.5	4.1	3.8	2.7	1.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0
UoN Grade	90	78	73	68	65	61	58	55	51	48	45	41	38	27	13	4	3	2	1	0
Letter Grade	A+	A	A-	B+	B	B-	C+	C	C-	D+	D	D-	F+	F	F-	ZZ	LG	NG	AG	G

4.6.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

Data gathered by means of focus group interviews and open-ended feedback surveys were transcribed and coded. A total of 140 minutes was recorded taken from seven focus group interviews, which comprised 30 experimental students, resulting in a corpus made up of 17,041 words. Data gathered by means of nine open-ended feedback surveys from teachers imparting the EAP IMRaD intervention project were transcribed and coded resulting in a total corpus made up of 2,959 words. To conceptualise possible DMCs occurring within the qualitative data in this study, the term-level project work DMC that spanned the whole EAP course were applied (Dörnyei et al., 2015a, 2016) to assess the effectivity of the intervention. As the authors of this study indicate, project work facilitates a fertile set up for the activation of self-regulation, with clearly visible and understandable starting and end points. A DMC is described as a relatively short-term, highly intense burst of motivational energy travelling along a specific pathway towards a clearly defined goal (ibid). With this in mind, the semi-structured interview questions and open-ended feedback surveys prompted intervention participants and intervention teachers to reflect on the high and low points of the intervention programme.

The content analysis of the themes students and teachers mentioned in the interviews and open-ended surveys followed the procedure described by Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2014, p. 121) and in previous motivation intervention studies (e.g. Fernandez-Rio et al., 2017) of thematic analysis. Although, thematic analysis is based on the same relativist and interpretivist concerns of grounded theory approach (Aronson, 1995), it differs in that it aims to search for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon, rather than develop a novel theory to describe the findings (Ryan & Bernard, 2000). As thematic analysis is not tied to a particular theoretical or epistemological position, it is essentially independent of theory and can, therefore, be applied across a range of theoretical and epistemological

approaches (Boyatzis, 1998). With this in mind, participants' and teachers' data were analysed via thematic content analysis and constant comparison, which focused on searching for patterns in the text that ordered the data into categories.

The qualitative data collected from intervention participants and teachers through seven focus group interviews and nine open-ended feedback surveys were transcribed and analysed using NVivo 10 qualitative analysis software, which facilitated the process of examining the commonalities and differences, reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and representing the data. First, familiarisation with the data was internalised. The open-ended feedback surveys were read several times, and the audio recordings of the interviews of 30 respondents were listened to a number of times for their accurate transcription. After that, students' comments were read several times to get a sense of their meaning as a whole. Second, a coding process was guided by respondents' data alignment to the study's research questions, followed by a focus on identifying patterns of meaning, in which themes were identified as they emerged naturally from the data.

To this end, firstly, the discrete ideas expressed by teachers and students in each answer (tokens) were identified, these ideas were then classified under the general themes of the positive and negative states related to motivation, SRL and using electronic portfolios, which were subsequently clustered into the following three thematic categories of issues that are of interest for any particular group of learners (Reinders & Benson, 2017, p. 564):

1. the configuration of settings and resources that is available;
2. the affordances they offer and constraints on access to them;
3. and, the uses learners and teachers make of them.

The next step was to identify important themes or patterns within the interview and feedback data employing an inductive 'bottom up' way to establish clear links between the research objectives and the summary findings derived from the raw data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Percentages were used as a basis of comparison among themes, categories and subcategories. In addition, and in order to provide further insight on quantitative findings, qualitative data were also examined in regard to the effect of gender variance and ePortfolio implementation. As outlined in Section 3.3.2., extant literature

claims (Abrami et al., 2008; Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010; Upitis et al., 2010) the degree to which ePortfolios are implemented in the classroom has an effect on results. For this reason, it was deemed necessary to examine this effect in both quantitative and qualitative findings. The groupings and their contents are described in more detail in Section 5.2. The coding of the tokens and their categorisation was done twice, with a three-month gap between the first coding and the second, in order to achieve greater validity and reliability. During the second analysis, the codification and the categories were reviewed, and some necessary changes were made accordingly.

Chapter 5

5. Results

In this section the results are presented in response to the six research questions posed in this study. As a mixed-methods quasi-experimental design that employed questionnaires, summative assessments, focus interviews and feedback surveys, findings are reported for all quantitative and qualitative data obtained separately. This section is divided in four parts: quantitative findings are presented first in Section 5.1, followed by qualitative results in Section 5.2. After which, and to bring this chapter to a close, a final discussion of all findings and its corresponding interpretation is included in Section 5.3.

5.1. Quantitative Findings

All quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, 24.0 version). First, descriptive statistics were obtained. Second, exploratory analyses were conducted to establish whether data met parametric assumptions. Normality was tested through the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, which rejects the hypothesis of normality when the p-value is less than or equal to 0.05. The test failed normality in some of the cases and this was the reason for resorting to nonparametric tests throughout in order to carry out comparisons among the variables related to the hypotheses of this study.

5.1.1. Research question I: Is there a positive relationship among learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition?

The first research question to be considered in the present study concerns whether a relationship exists among motivation, SRL, growth mindset, and FL acquisition gains. The initial hypothesis was that a relationship exists among these four concepts. The relationship between these constructs was investigated using Spearman's Rho product-moment correlation coefficient, as preliminary analyses performed indicated violation of the assumption of normality, as outlined in Section 4.6.1. Learner motivation was measured through the nine L2MSS difference variables, self-regulation was measured through the SRL difference variable, and growth mindset was measured

through the fixed mindset difference variable, which were established to control for pre-existing differences, described in Section 4.6.1. FL acquisition was measured through the writing, reading, speaking, listening and IMRaD FL acquisition variables calculated from participants' summative assessment scores for the whole sample awarded across the EAP pre-session, outlined in Section 4.4.4. Our results were not consistent with previous findings. As shown in Table 20, there were no strong correlations between the L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset. In contrast, there was a strong positive correlation ($n = 205$, $p < .001$) between SRL and the following L2MSS variables: criterion measures ($r = .74$, $p < .000$), Ideal L2 self ($r = .73$, $p < .000$), promotion ($r = .60$, $p < .000$), and attitudes to English ($r = .75$, $p < .000$). In regard to the coefficient of determination (CoD), SRL helped to explain between 27 to 44 per cent of the variance in participants' scores on these L2MSS variables. In contrast, as shown in Table 21, no correlations were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$) between L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset, and FL acquisition gains variables.

Table 20: Rho correlations among L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset variables

	SRL	CoD	Fixed mindset	CoD
Criterion measures	.638*	41%	.236	-
Ideal L2 self	.664*	44%	.271	-
Ought-to L2 self	.466	-	.370	-
Promotion	.515*	27%	.252	-
Prevention	.458	-	.186	-
Attitudes to English	.608*	37%	-.002	-
Feared self	.261	-	.454	21%
English self	.411	-	.413	-
Imaging ability	.174	-	.488	24%
SRL	-	-	.254	-

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 21: Rho correlations among L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset and FL acquisition variables

	Writing	Reading	Speaking	Listening	IMRaD
Criterion measures	-.004	-.018	-.090	.061	-.025
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.949	.798	.197	.388	.717
Ideal L2 self	-.043	.119	.022	.048	.089
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.539	.089	.759	.490	.204
Ought-to L2 self	.102	-.012	-.042	.063	.114

<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.144	.864	.550	.370	.103
Promotion	-.008	.002	-.018	-.001	.001
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.912	.978	.802	.984	.987
Prevention	-.054	.018	-.030	.088	-.030
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.439	.800	.672	.211	.668
Attitudes to English	-.108	.088	-.001	.051	.073
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.125	.208	.991	.468	.301
Feared self	.013	.029	.078	.026	.032
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.853	.683	.266	.713	.651
English self	.102	-.006	.044	-.076	.034
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.147	.936	.535	.279	.627
Imaging ability	-.133	.099	-.068	.093	.089
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.057	.156	.333	.185	.204
SRL	-.021	.110	.004	.032	.015
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.766	.116	.958	.653	.833
Fixed mindset	.090	-.060	-.016	-.011	.037
<i>Sig. (bilateral)</i>	.198	.395	.817	.875	.600

In order to further explore the interrelationship among learner motivation, self-regulation, growth mindset, and FL acquisition, the strength of the correlation coefficients among the L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset difference variables and FL acquisition variables were compared separately within each group (experimental and control group) using Spearman's Rho product-moment correlation coefficient. As outlined in Table 22, the experimental group reported a strong positive correlation ($n = 120, p < .001$) between SRL and the following L2MSS variables: criterion measures ($r = .65, p < .000$), Ideal L2 self ($r = .67, p < .000$), ought-to L2 self ($r = .53, p < .000$), promotion ($r = .61, p < .000$), prevention ($r = .51, p < .000$), and attitudes to English ($r = .61, p < .000$). In regard to CoD, SRL helped to explain between 26 to 45 per cent of the variance in participants' scores on these L2MSS variables. In contrast, as included in Table 22, participants in the control group reported a strong positive correlation ($n = 85, p < .001$) between SRL and the following L2MSS variables: criterion measures ($r = .62, p < .000$), Ideal L2 self ($r = .65, p < .000$), and attitudes to English ($r = .59, p < .000$). In regard to CoD, SRL helped to explain between 35 to 42 per cent of the variance in participants' scores on these L2MSS variables. A strong positive correlation ($n = 85, p < .001$) was also found between fixed mindset and L2MSS feared self ($r = .55, p < .000$), which helped to explain 30 per cent of the variance in participants' scores. When compared, the strength of the correlation coefficients observed for both groups between SRL and L2MSS criterion measures, Ideal L2 self and attitudes

to English were not statistically significant (p (two-tailed) $< .05$). As previously, no correlations were found to be statistically significant ($p < .001$) between L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset difference variables and FL acquisition variables for either group.

Table 22: Rho correlations among L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset variables for Experimental and Control groups

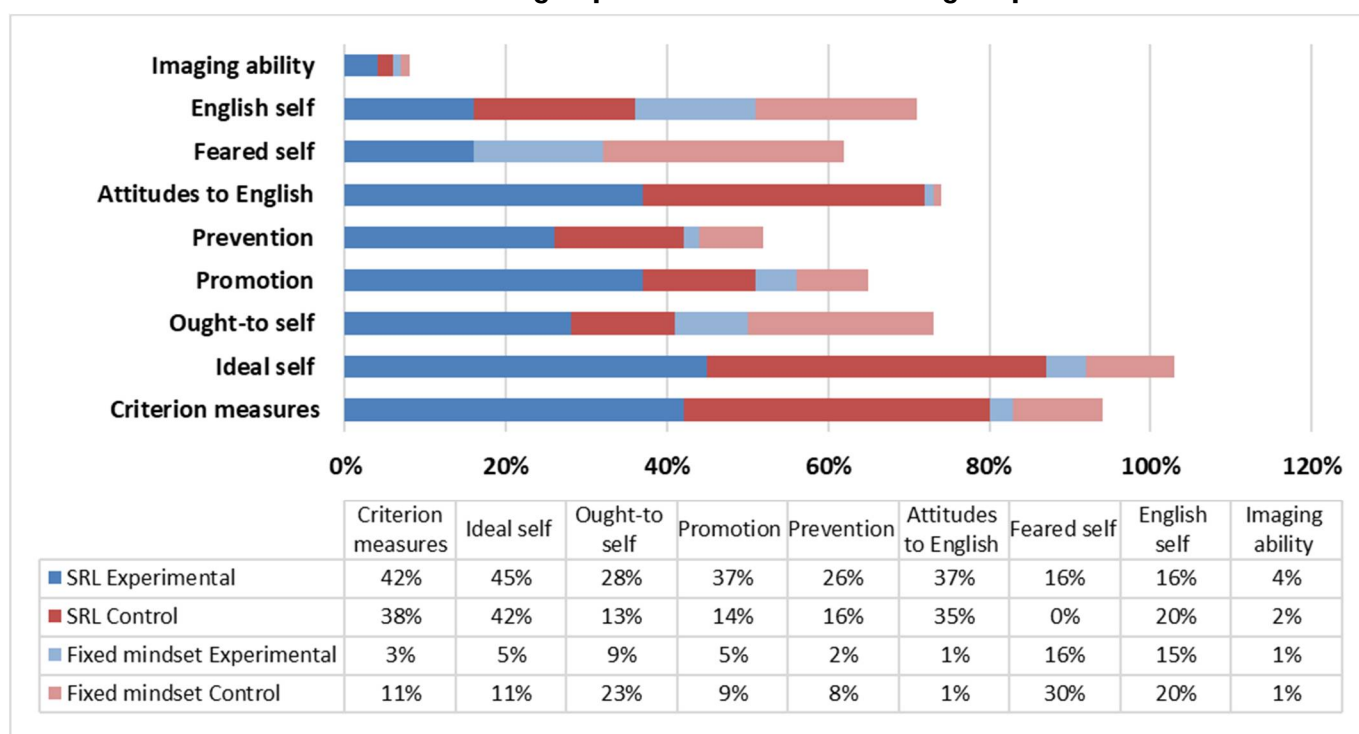
	SRL	CoD	Fixed mindset	CoD	n
Experimental Group					
Criterion measures	.647*	42%	.170	-	120
Ideal L2 self	.670*	45%	.227	-	120
Ought-to L2 self	.529*	28%	.301	-	120
Promotion	.612*	37%	.222	-	120
Prevention	.508*	26%	.138	-	120
Attitudes to English	.612*	37%	-.081	-	120
Feared self	.397	-	.395	-	120
English self	.403	-	.387	-	120
Imaging ability	.210	-	.074	-	120
SRL	-	-	.264	-	120
Control Group					
Criterion measures	.618*	38%	.326	-	85
Ideal L2 self	.650*	42%	.332	-	85
Ought-to L2 self	.358	-	.476	-	85
Promotion	.370	-	.296	-	85
Prevention	.395	-	.275	-	85
Attitudes to English	.591*	35%	.121	-	85
Feared self	.055	-	.549*	30%	85
English self	.452	-	.448	-	85
Imaging ability	.131	-	.110	-	85
SRL	-	-	.238	-	85

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Overall, there was a strong positive relationship between SRL and L2MSS criterion measures, Ideal L2 self and attitudes to English variables among participants in both groups, however this relationship was stronger among participants in the experimental group. Although a strong positive relationship was reported between SRL and L2MSS ought-to L2 self, prevention and promotion variables in the experimental group, this was not present in the control group, who in contrast was the only group to report a strong positive relationship between fixed mindset and feared self. Although some correlations among the L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset difference variables

were weak in both groups, all correlations were positive. When the CoD was calculated on the strength of these positive significant correlations, the per cent of shared variance reported between SRL and L2MSS variables was higher among experimental participants, save English self, as can be seen in Figure 6 below. The per cent of shared variance registered between fixed mindset and L2MSS variables was higher among control participants.

Figure 6: CoD per cent of shared variance between L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset variables among Experimental and Control groups



5.1.2. Research question II: Will the intervention have a positive effect on motivation, particularly English self-concept?

The second research question to be considered in the present study concerns the differences in learner motivation between students who underwent the intervention and students who were in the control group. The initial hypothesis was that the intervention would have a positive effect on learner motivation, assuming that a difference would be found between the two groups.

The Mann-Whitney U test was conducted in order to test for differences between the two groups' learner motivation. The independent variable was the type of group (experimental vs. control). The dependent variable was

means difference on the nine L2MSS motivational variables, calculated from the MPSSRO administered prior to commencement (pre-test) and after the intervention was completed (post-test). A Mann-Whitney U test was carried out on the nine L2MSS motivational variables described in Section 4.4.1. As in previous studies (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013), significant differences were revealed between the two groups in relation to criterion measures ($U = 4156, z = -2.27, p = .02$) and English self ($U = 4257, z = -2.02, p = .04$), with a small effect size ($r = .2$), as is shown in Figure 7 below. Although mean scores decreased for both groups in regard to criterion measures, this decrement was smaller for participants in the experimental group ($M = -0.72, n = 120$) than control group ($M = -1.58, n = 85$). In contrast, and as predicted, mean scores increased for both groups in regard to English self although reporting a higher increment among students in the experimental group ($M = 1.54, n = 120$) than in the control group ($M = 0.53, n = 85$).

Figure 7: Significant differences between groups on L2MSS criterion measures and English self mean scores

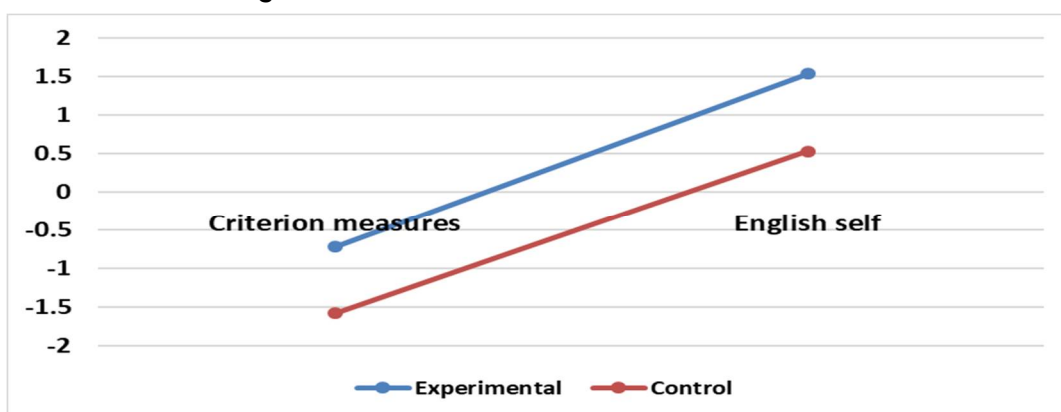


Table 23 below summarises the main findings from the Mann-Whitney U test analysis and highlights all significant p -values and small effect sizes found when experimental and control participants were compared on L2MSS variables.

Table 23: Mann-Whitney U test comparative summary of L2MSS difference variables

L2MSS VARIABLES	EXPERIMENTAL		CONTROL		Mann-Whitney U test			
	Mean	DS	Mean	DS	U	z	p	r
Criterion measures	-0.72	4.28	-1.58	3.39	4155	-2.268	0.023	.224
Ideal L2 self	-0.03	4.33	-0.21	3.83	4870	-0.550	0.582	
Ought-to L2 self	-0.42	4.46	-0.38	3.60	4969	-0.313	0.754	

Promotion	-1.03	4.25	-1.12	4.01	4854	-0.590	0.555	
Prevention	-0.93	4.48	-0.38	4.36	4796	-0.729	0.466	
Attitudes to English	-1.47	4.32	-1.45	3.91	4958	-0.340	0.734	
Feared self	-0.33	4.76	-0.51	4.26	4979	-0.290	0.772	
English self	1.54	4.18	0.53	4.58	4257	-2.021	0.043	.231
Imaging ability	-0.54	4.06	-0.15	3.51	4855	-0.588	0.556	

Pre-test and post-test means for L2MSS variables could not be compared between the experimental and control group due to pre-existing differences on pre-test L2MSS mean scores, as outlined in Section 4.6.1. Consequently, pre-test and post-test means for L2MSS variables were solely compared among experimental participants. As in previous studies (Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2016; Taylor & Marsden, 2014), participants mostly reported negative difference scores on L2MSS, save English self, as can be seen in Figure 8 below. A Wilcoxon Signed Rank test revealed a significant decrement from pre-intervention to post-intervention among experimental students on L2MSS promotion ($z = -2.18, p < .029$), prevention ($z = -2.13, p < .033$), and attitudes to English ($z = -3.21, p < .001$), with a small effect size ($r =$ between .3 to .4). In contrast, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test revealed a significant increase in English self from pre-intervention to post-intervention among this group ($z = -4.03, p < .000$), with a small effect size ($r = .4$).

Figure 8: Significant L2MSS pre-/post-intervention difference mean scores for Experimental participants

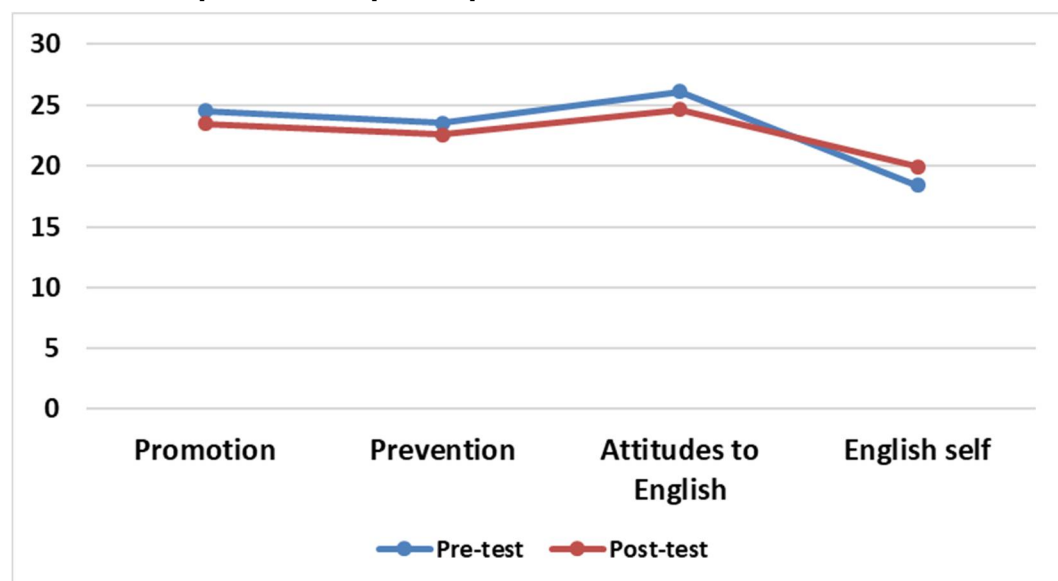


Table 24 below provides a summary and highlights all significant differences observed among experimental participants' pre-test and post-test L2MSS mean score variables.

Table 24: Wilcoxon Signed Rank test analysis on Experimental participants' pre-test and post-test L2MSS mean scores

L2MSS VARIABLES	Pre-test	Post-test	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>
Criterion measures	24.23	23.51	-1.134	0.257	
Ideal L2 self	23.48	23.45	-0.439	0.661	
Ought-to L2 self	22.65	22.23	-0.740	0.459	
Promotion	24.52	23.49	-2.184	0.029	-0.295
Prevention	23.54	22.61	-2.138	0.033	-0.245
Attitudes to English	26.10	24.63	-3.217	0.001	-0.422
Feared self	21.57	21.23	-0.788	0.431	
English self	18.43	19.98	-4.030	0.000	0.404
Imaging ability	19.79	19.25	-1.088	0.277	

5.1.3. Research question III: Will the intervention have a positive effect on SRL and growth mindset?

The third research question to be considered in the present study concerns the differences in SRL and growth mindset variables among experimental and control learners. As in previous research (e.g. Abrami et al., 2013; Lou & Noels, 2017), the initial hypothesis was that the intervention would have a positive effect on SRL and growth mindset.

The independent variable was the type of group (experimental vs. control). The dependent variables were SRL difference, which measured self-regulation, and fixed mindset difference, which measured growth mindset, calculated from the MPSSRQ administered prior to commencement (pre-test) and after the intervention was completed (post-test). A Mann-Whitney U test was carried out these two variables, which, contrary to foregoing studies (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007; Lou & Noels, 2017; Sampson, 2012) revealed no statistically significant differences. Table 25 below summarises the main findings from the independent samples Mann-Whitney U test by presenting all the non-significant *p*-values and mean scores found when the experimental and control groups were compared.

Table 25: Mann-Whitney U test analysis on SRL and fixed mindset difference variables

	EXPERIMENTAL		CONTROL		Mann-Whitney U test		
	Mean	DS	Mean	DS	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
SRL	-1.60	8.62	-1.82	7.88	4928	-0.410	0.682
Fixed mindset	0.37	6.08	-0.33	6.01	4979	-0.290	0.772

Pre-test and post-test means for SRL and fixed mindset variables could not be compared between experimental and control learners due to the reported pre-existing differences outlined in Section 4.6.1. Consequently, pre-test and post-test means for these variables were compared in the experimental group only. A Wilcoxon Signed Rank test revealed no statistically significant influence on SRL and fixed mindset variables following participation in the intervention programme. Table 26 below summarises all non-significant pre-test and post-test mean scores for experimental participants on these variables.

Table 26: Wilcoxon Signed Rank test analysis on Experimental participants' pre-test and post-test SRL and fixed mindset mean scores

	Pre-test	Post-test	<i>z</i>	<i>P</i>
SRL	52.94	51.34	-1.587	0.113
Fixed mindset	21.26	21.62	-0.156	0.876

5.1.4. Research question IV: Will the intervention have a positive effect on FL acquisition?

The fourth research question to be considered in the present study concerns the differences in FL acquisition variables between students who underwent the intervention and students who were in the control group. The initial hypothesis was that the intervention would have a positive effect on FL acquisition, as reported in extant research (e.g. Ammar & Hassan, 2017; Magid, 2011).

The independent variable was the type of group (experimental vs. control). The dependent variable was mean scores on FL acquisition variables, calculated from the official summative assessments, outlined in Sections 4.4.4. and 4.6.1., submitted by participants during the 6-week EAP pre-session. A Mann-Whitney U test was carried out on the five FL acquisition variables described in the previous chapter, which revealed no statistically significant differences between the two groups' FL acquisition variables. Table 27 below

summarises the main findings from the independent samples Mann-Whitney U test by presenting all the non-significant p -values and mean scores in FL acquisition variables found in the comparisons of the experimental and control groups.

Table 27: Mann-Whitney U test analysis on FL acquisition variables

	EXPERIMENTAL		CONTROL		Mann-Whitney U test		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	U	z	p
Writing	1.28	6.27	.95	7.40	4711	-0.952	0.341
Reading	0.18	6.94	-.54	6.96	4670	-1.042	0.298
Speaking	-1.68	6.96	-1.54	7.31	5062	-0.091	0.927
Listening	0.29	5.85	-1.05	5.39	4478	-1.504	0.133
IMRaD	5.9	0.73	6.04	0.6	4524	-1.380	0.168

5.1.5. Research question V: Will electronic portfolios have a positive effect on motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition?

The fifth research question to be considered in the present study concerns the impact of using electronic portfolios on learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition. As detailed in Section 4.6.1., a further distinction was made within the experimental group in this study, establishing three groups for the analyses of the impact of using a digital platform in the intervention: control, ePortfolio partial and ePortfolio complete. The initial hypothesis was that using electronic portfolios would have a positive effect on these constructs. This section is divided in two parts: the impact of using ePortfolios on learner motivation, SRL and growth mindset is analysed first, followed by their effect on FL acquisition.

Learner motivation, SRL and growth mindset

To begin with, a one-way between groups analysis of variance Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to test for differences between the three groups in relation to learner motivation, SRL and growth mindset. The independent variable was the type of group (control, ePortfolio partial, ePortfolio complete). Based on the MPSSRQ administered prior to commencement (pre-test) and after the intervention was completed (post-test), the dependent variables were the L2MSS difference mean scores to measure motivation, SRL difference mean scores to measure self-regulation, and fixed mindset difference mean scores to measure growth mindset. A Kruskal-Wallis test was carried out on the nine L2MSS variables, SRL and fixed mindset variables described in Section 4.6.1. In line with previous studies that examined ePortfolios (Abrami et al., 2008;

Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010; Upitis et al., 2010), analyses revealed a significant difference on L2MSS criterion measures. This variable showed a significant difference across the three groups (Gp1, $n = 85$: control, Gp2, $n = 87$: ePortfolio partial, Gp3, $n = 33$: ePortfolio complete), $X^2 (2, n = 205) = 9.76$, $p = .008$. As can be seen in Figure 9, the ePortfolio complete group recorded an increment ($M = 0.67$), while control ($M = -1.58$) and ePortfolio partial ($M = -1.25$) groups reported a diminution, adducing as in foregoing research (e.g. Abrami et al., 2013) that the degree to which ePortfolios are implemented in the classroom has an effect on results.

Figure 9: Significant difference mean scores on L2MSS criterion measures based on ePortfolio implementation

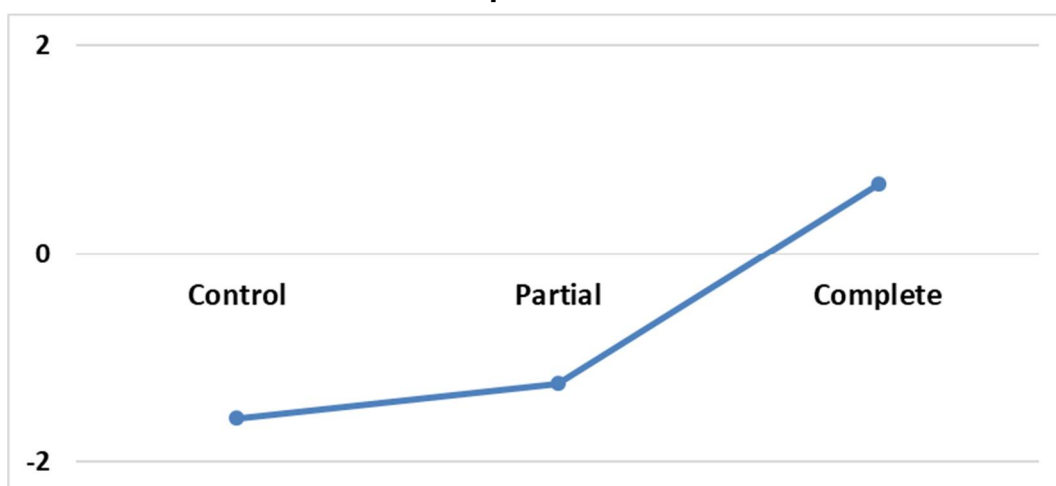


Table 28 below summarises the main findings from the Kruskal-Wallis test analysis, highlighting all significant p -values found based on ePortfolio implementation in regard to L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset difference mean score variables.

Table 28: Kruskal-Wallis test analysis summary of ePortfolio implementation on L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset difference variables

	Kruskal-Wallis test			Control		ePortfolio Partial		ePortfolio Complete	
	X^2	df	p	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Criterion measures	9.764	2	.008	-1.58	3.39	-1.25	4.61	0.67	2.88
Ideal L2 self	2.967	2	.227	-0.21	3.83	-0.44	4.67	1.03	3.06
Ought-to L2 self	4.644	2	.098	-0.38	3.60	-0.93	4.63	0.94	3.70
Promotion	1.286	2	.526	-1.12	4.01	-1.34	4.59	-0.18	3.08
Prevention	3.743	2	.154	-0.38	4.36	-1.34	4.70	0.15	3.67
Attitudes to English	3.286	2	.193	-1.45	3.91	-1.95	4.50	-0.18	3.56

Feared self	1.672	2	.434	-0.51	4.26	-0.61	5.14	0.39	3.52
English self	4.479	2	.107	0.53	4.58	1.68	4.38	1.18	3.61
Imaging ability	3.411	2	.182	-0.15	3.51	-0.98	4.13	0.61	3.67
SRL	2.812	2	.245	-1.82	7.88	-2.33	9.06	0.33	7.09
Fixed mindset	0.548	2	.760	-0.33	6.01	0.64	6.31	-0.36	5.46

To analyse the effects of electronic portfolios on L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset variables further, pre-test and post-test mean scores were compared for both experimental groups (ePortfolio complete and ePortfolio partial participants). An Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test revealed a significant difference in L2MSS attitudes to English post-test mean scores ($U = 1087$, $z = -2.06$, $p = .03$), with a small effect size ($r = .2$). As can be seen in Figure 10 below, ePortfolio partial reported a lower score ($M = 24.10$, $n = 87$) in comparison to ePortfolio complete participants ($M = 26.03$, $n = 33$).

Figure 10: Significant POST mean scores comparison on L2MSS attitudes to English between ePortfolio experimental groups

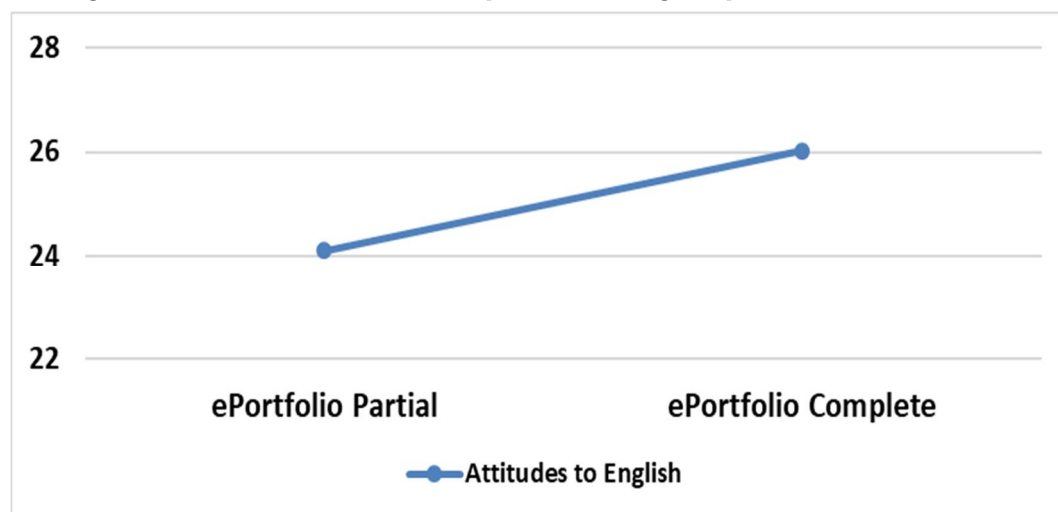


Table 29 below summarises the main findings from the Mann-Whitney U test analysis, highlighting all significant p -values found when ePortfolio experimental groups were compared in regard to L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset pre and post mean score variables.

Table 29: Mann-Whitney U test analysis summary of ePortfolio experimental students' L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset variables

	Mann-Whitney U test			ePortfolio Partial		ePortfolio Complete	
	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>P</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Criterion measures PRE	1348	-0.521	.602	24.34	2.98	23.94	3.22

Criterion measures POST	1139	-1.753	.080	23.09	4.19	24.61	3.40
Ideal L2 self PRE	1423	-0.077	.939	23.51	3.13	23.42	2.44
Ideal L2 self POST	1220	-1.274	.203	23.07	4.12	24.45	3.57
Ought-to L2 self PRE	1263	-1.025	.305	22.84	3.00	22.15	3.50
Ought-to L2 self POST	1239	-1.161	.245	21.91	4.57	23.09	3.37
Promotion PRE	1433	-0.015	.988	24.48	3.18	24.61	2.50
Promotion POST	1209	-1.337	.181	23.14	4.21	24.42	3.18
Prevention PRE	1272	-0.968	.333	23.72	3.63	23.06	3.23
Prevention POST	1297	-0.820	.412	22.38	4.32	23.21	3.27
Attitudes to English PRE	1426	-0.059	.953	26.06	2.85	26.21	2.85
Attitudes to English POST	1087	-2.060	.039	24.10	4.34	26.03	3.17
Feared self PRE	1377	-0.348	.727	21.51	3.93	21.73	3.35
Feared self POST	1220	-1.271	.204	20.90	4.28	22.12	3.59
English self PRE	1409	-0.157	.875	18.52	4.01	18.21	3.44
English self POST	1272	-0.969	.333	20.20	4.08	19.39	3.07
Imaging ability PRE	1255	-1.067	.286	19.98	3.23	19.30	2.69
Imaging ability POST	1278	-0.934	.350	19.00	3.84	19.91	3.20
SRL PRE	1374	-0.362	.717	52.82	6.23	53.27	6.26
SRL POST	1138	-1.748	.080	50.48	8.19	53.61	7.12
Fixed mindset PRE	1305	-0.766	.444	21.40	5.50	20.88	4.99
Fixed mindset POST	1305	-0.768	.442	22.05	6.04	20.52	5.67

A further analysis was performed to compare pre-test and post-test mean scores on L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset variables among the ePortfolio partial and ePortfolio complete cohort, separately. A Wilcoxon Matches Pairs Signed Ranks test revealed a statistically significant decrease among ePortfolio partial participants in regard to L2MSS criterion measures ($z = -2.12, p < .03$), promotion ($z = -2.29, p < .02$), prevention ($z = -2.52, p < .01$), attitudes to English ($z = -3.62, p < .00$), and SRL ($z = -2.17, p < .03$), with a small effect size ($r =$ between .2 to .4), included in Figure 11. English self underwent a significant increment from pre- to post-intervention among ePortfolio partial learners ($z = -3.61, p < .00$), with a small effect size ($r = .4$). Whereas most measures decreased among ePortfolio partial students, in the case of the ePortfolio complete cohort, analyses performed on the ePortfolio complete group noted a statistically significant increment on L2MSS Ideal L2 self following participation in the intervention, ($z = -1.98, p < .04$), with a small effect size ($r = .4$), also included in Figure 11 below.

Figure 11: Significant L2MSS and SRL pre-/post-intervention difference mean scores for Experimental participants

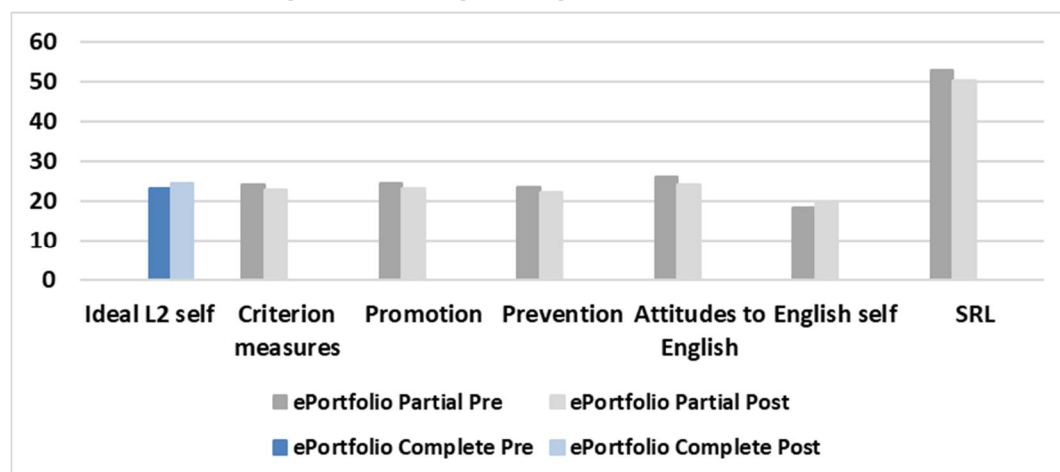


Table 30 below summarises the main findings from the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test analysis, highlighting all significant p -values found among ePortfolio experimental groups in regard to L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset variables.

Table 30: Wilcoxon Signed Rank test analysis summary of ePortfolio experimental students' L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset pre/post-test mean scores

	ePortfolio Partial		Wilcoxon			ePortfolio Complete		Wilcoxon		
	Pre	Post	z	p	r	Pre	Post	Z	P	r
Criterion measures	24.34	23.09	-2.116	.034	.22	23.94	24.61	-1.438	.151	
Ideal L2 self	23.51	23.07	-.532	.595		23.42	24.45	-1.982	.047	.35
Ought-to L2 self	22.84	21.91	-1.599	.110		22.15	23.09	-1.357	.175	
Promotion	24.48	23.14	-2.294	.022	.25	24.16	24.42	-.378	.706	
Prevention	23.72	22.38	-2.523	.012	.27	23.06	23.21	-.226	.821	
Attitudes to English	26.06	24.10	-3.620	.000	.39	26.21	26.03	-.153	.878	
Feared self	21.51	20.90	-1.217	.223		21.73	22.12	-.729	.466	
English self	18.52	20.20	-3.614	.000	.39	18.21	19.39	-1.860	.063	
Imaging ability	19.98	19.00	-1.807	.071		19.30	19.91	-.918	.359	
SRL	52.82	50.48	-2.165	.030	.23	53.27	53.61	-.616	.538	
Fixed mindset	21.40	22.05	-.570	.569		20.88	20.52	-.544	.587	

FL Acquisition gains

A one-way between groups analysis of variance Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted in order to test for differences in FL acquisition variables among participants based on ePortfolio implementation. The independent variable was the type of group (control, ePortfolio partial, ePortfolio complete). The dependent variable was means scores on the five FL acquisition variables,

calculated from the official summative assessments submitted by participants, outlined in Section 4.4.4. This test revealed a significant difference in listening gains ($X^2(2, n = 205) = 6.65, p = .003$). As can be seen in Figure 12, listening means augmented for ePortfolio complete students ($M = 2.00$), whereas means diminished among control ($M = -1.05$) and ePortfolio partial ($M = -.36$) participants.

Figure 12: Significant FL listening acquisition based on ePortfolio implementation

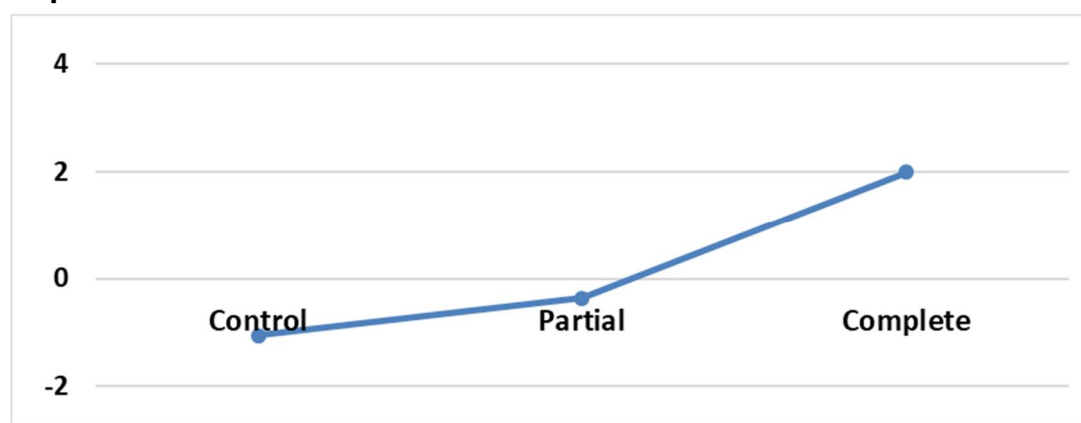


Table 31 below summarises the main findings from the Kruskal-Wallis test analysis, highlighting significant p -values found when FL acquisition variables were compared based on ePortfolio implementation.

Table 31: Kruskal-Wallis test analysis summary of ePortfolio groups' FL acquisition variables

	Kruskal-Wallis test			Control		ePortfolio Partial		ePortfolio Complete	
	X^2	df	P	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Writing	1.459	2	.482	.95	7.40	1.43	6.52	.88	5.64
Reading	1.181	2	.554	-.54	6.96	.17	6.87	.21	7.24
Speaking	.913	2	.633	-1.54	7.31	-1.99	7.00	-.85	6.91
Listening	6.652	2	.036	-1.05	5.39	-.36	5.48	2.00	6.51
IMRaD	4.387	2	.112	6.05	0.60	5.94	0.81	5.96	0.42

5.1.6. Research question VI: Will learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset, FL acquisition and ePortfolios be subject to gender variance?

Based on the earlier discussion in Section 3.2.2, gender variance was considered as a selection criterion in order to examine its role in shaping

learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset, FL learning outcomes and using electronic portfolios among all participants in this study. As in previous studies (e.g. Henry, 2011a, 2011b), the initial hypothesis was that gender would have an effect on these five constructs. This section is divided in two parts. First, gender differences were analysed in relation to learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition within the experimental and control groups in this study (as described in Section 4.6.1.). Subsequently, the effect of gender was tested based on ePortfolio implementation among control, ePortfolio partial and ePortfolio complete participants (as described in Section 4.6.1.). Within each section, gender differences are presented firstly across groups, i.e. a comparative of either male or female scores across all groups in this study. After that, gender variance was analysed within groups independently, i.e. a comparison of male vs. female scores within the same group.

The effects of gender on learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted in order to test for gender differences across groups in relation to learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition. The independent variables were the type of group (control vs. experimental) and gender (male vs. female). The dependent variables were means difference scores on L2MSS to measure motivation, SRL to measure self-regulation and fixed mindset to measure growth mindset variables, calculated from the MPSSRQ administered prior to commencement (pre-test) and after the intervention was completed (post-test), and mean scores on FL acquisition variables, calculated from the official summative assessments.

Although the Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant differences among males, it did reveal statistically significant differences among females across groups on L2MSS criterion measures ($U = 1453, z = -2.55, p < .01$), and English self ($U = 1421, z = -2.70, p < .00$), with a small effect size ($r = .4$). As can be seen in Figure 13 below, experimental females reported significantly higher scores on L2MSS criterion measures ($M = -.79, n = 76$) than control females ($M = -2.19, n = 52$). In a similar manner, experimental females attained an increment in English self ($M = 1.78$) while control females registered a decrement ($M = -.02$).

Figure 13: Significant female gender differences on L2MSS criterion measures and English self across Experimental and Control groups

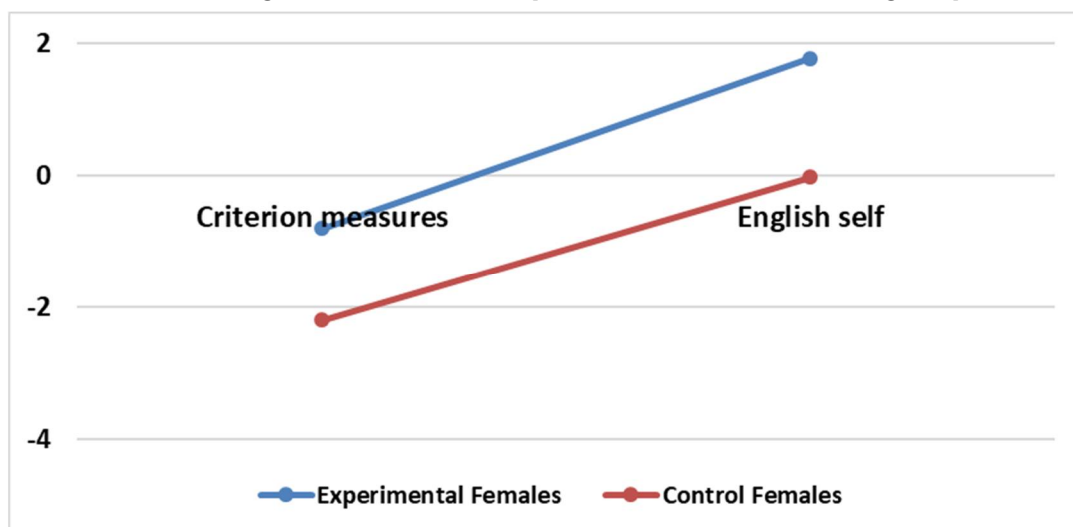


Table 32 below summarises the main findings from the Mann-Whitney U test analysis, highlighting all significant p -values found in relation to gender differences across groups on L2MSS, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition variables.

Table 32: Mann-Whitney U test analysis summary of gender differences on L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset and FL acquisition variables

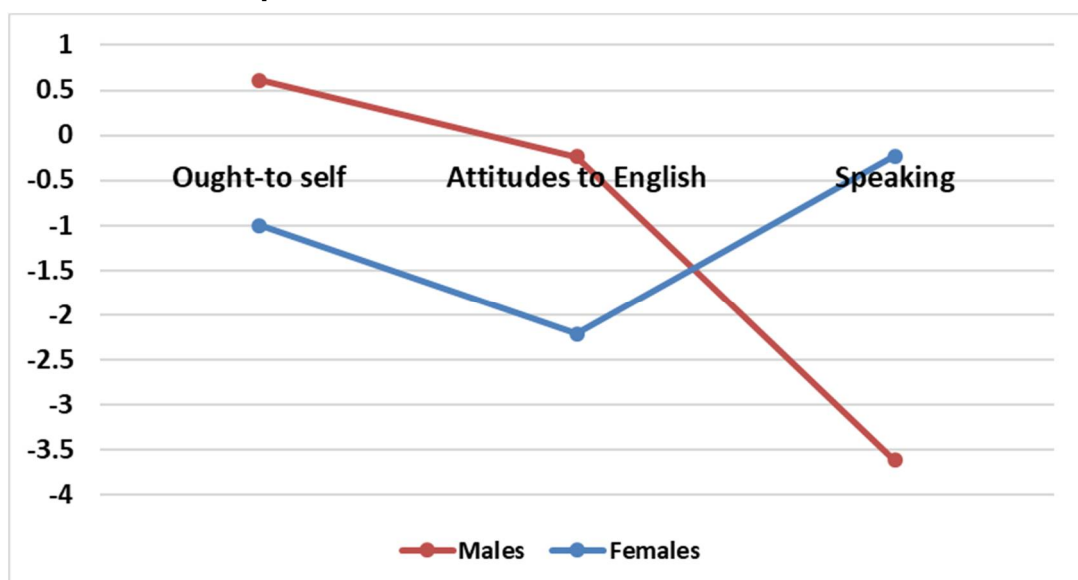
	MALES						FEMALES						
	Experimental		Control		Mann-Whitney U		Experimental		Control		Mann-Whitney U		
	M	SD	M	SD	z	p	M	SD	M	SD	z	p	r
Criterion measures	-0.61	4.84	-0.61	3.35	-0.486	.627	-0.79	3.96	-2.19	3.30	-2.553	.011	.39
Ideal L2 self	-0.80	4.65	0.09	3.79	-0.832	.405	.41	4.09	-0.40	3.89	-1.249	.212	
Ought-to L2 self	-0.02	4.66	0.61	3.41	-0.424	.672	-0.64	4.35	-1.00	3.60	-0.782	.434	
Promotion	-1.39	4.76	-1.18	4.32	-0.243	.808	-0.82	3.95	-1.08	3.84	-0.587	.557	
Prevention	-0.50	5.22	-0.30	4.22	-0.098	.922	-1.18	4.01	-0.42	4.49	-0.974	.330	
Attitudes to English	-1.34	4.61	-0.24	3.48	-0.895	.371	-1.54	4.17	-2.21	4.00	-1.239	.215	
Feared self	0.77	4.63	-0.70	4.45	-1.548	.122	-0.97	4.74	-0.38	4.17	-0.883	.377	
English self	1.14	4.52	1.39	4.72	-0.021	.984	1.78	3.98	-0.02	4.45	-2.703	.007	.43
Imaging ability	0.27	3.30	0.79	2.91	-0.714	.475	-1.01	4.39	-0.75	3.75	-0.176	.861	
SRL	-1.23	9.00	-0.67	7.84	-1.103	.918	-1.82	8.44	-2.56	7.88	-0.529	.597	
Fixed mindset	0.64	5.97	1.15	5.69	-0.589	.556	0.21	6.19	-1.27	6.07	-0.805	.421	
Writing	1.82	5.20	0.30	10.54	-0.853	.394	0.96	6.83	1.37	4.48	-0.471	.637	
Reading	2.39	7.00	-0.18	6.44	-1.891	.059	-1.09	6.62	-0.77	7.32	-0.079	.937	
Speaking	-2.73	6.18	-3.61	8.12	-0.825	.409	-1.07	7.35	-0.23	6.49	-0.706	.480	
Listening	1.32	6.35	-0.33	5.87	-1.234	.217	-0.30	5.50	-1.50	5.07	-1.015	.310	
IMRaD	5.7	0.99	5.99	0.56	-1.182	.237	6.02	0.49	6.09	0.63	-0.967	.333	

To further analyse the effect of gender on learner motivation, SRL, growth mindset and FL acquisition, each group was tested separately using an Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test to assess for significant gender

differences within each group (control and experimental). As previously, the independent variables were the type of group (control and experimental) and gender (male vs. female). The dependent variables were difference mean scores on L2MSS to measure motivation, SRL to measure self-regulation and fixed mindset to measure growth mindset variables, calculated from the MPSSRQ administered prior to commencement (pre-test) and after the intervention was completed (post-test), and mean scores on FL acquisition variables, calculated from the official summative assessments submitted by participants, outlined in Section 4.4.4.

The Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant gender differences within each group on SRL and fixed mindset difference mean scores. Among control participants, as is shown in Figure 14 below, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed significant differences on L2MSS ought-to L2 self ($U = 633, z = -2.05, p = .04$) and attitudes to English ($U = 623, z = -2.14, p = .03$), and FL speaking acquisition ($U = 622, z = -2.15, p = .03$), with a small to medium effect size ($r =$ between .4 and .5). Males in the control group reported an improvement on L2MSS ought-to L2 self ($M = .61, n = 33$) in comparison to females who registered a drop ($M = -1.00, n = 52$). Males also attained higher scores on attitudes to English (-.24) than females ($M = -2.21$). In contrast, females reported better scores in FL speaking gains ($M = -.23$) than males ($M = -3.61$).

Figure 14: Significant gender differences within Control participants on L2MSS and FL acquisition variables



Among participants in the experimental group, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed significant differences on L2MSS feared self ($U = 1268$, $z = -2.21$, $p = .02$), FL reading ($U = 1192$, $z = -2.65$, $p = .00$) and IMRaD acquisition ($U = 1256$, $z = -2.27$, $p = .02$), with a small to medium size effect ($r =$ between .4 and .5). As can be seen in Figure 15 below, experimental males reported an increment on L2MSS feared self ($M = .77$, $n = 44$) while females registered a decrement ($M = -.97$, $n = 76$). This pattern was again repeated on FL reading gains, with males reporting growth ($M = 2.39$) while scores declined for females ($M = -1.09$). In contrast, females ($M = 6.02$) outscored males ($M = 5.70$) on IMRaD grades.

Figure 15: Significant gender differences within Experimental group participants on L2MSS and FL acquisition variables

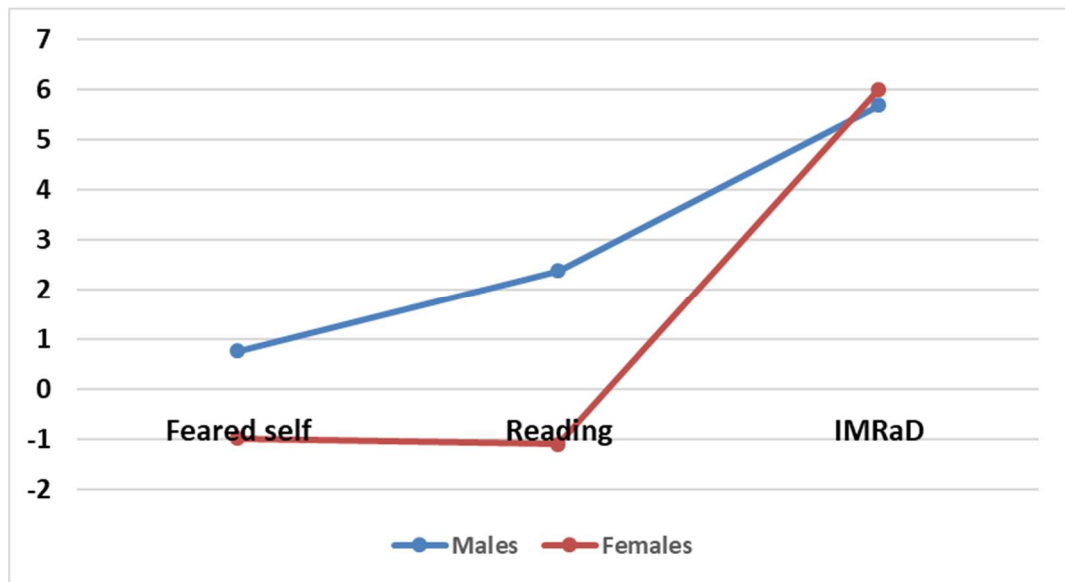


Table 33 below summarises the main findings from the Mann-Whitney U test analysis, highlighting all significant p -values found in relation to gender differences within the control and experimental groups on L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset and FL acquisition variables.

Table 33: Mann-Whitney U test analysis summary of gender differences within groups on L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset and FL acquisition

Criterion measures	Experimental							Control						
	Males		Females		Mann-Whitney U			Males		Females		Mann-Whitney U		
	M	SD	M	SD	z	p	r	M	SD	M	SD	z	p	r
Criterion measures	-.61	4.84	-.79	3.96	-.446	.656		-.61	3.35	-2.19	3.30	-1.922	.055	
Ideal L2 self	-.80	4.65	.41	4.09	-1.361	.174		.09	3.79	-.40	3.89	-.752	.452	
Ought-to L2 self	-.02	4.66	-.64	4.35	-.830	.406		.61	3.41	-1.00	3.60	-2.046	.041	.46
Promotion	-1.39	4.76	-.82	3.95	-.626	.531		-1.18	4.32	-1.08	3.84	-.399	.690	

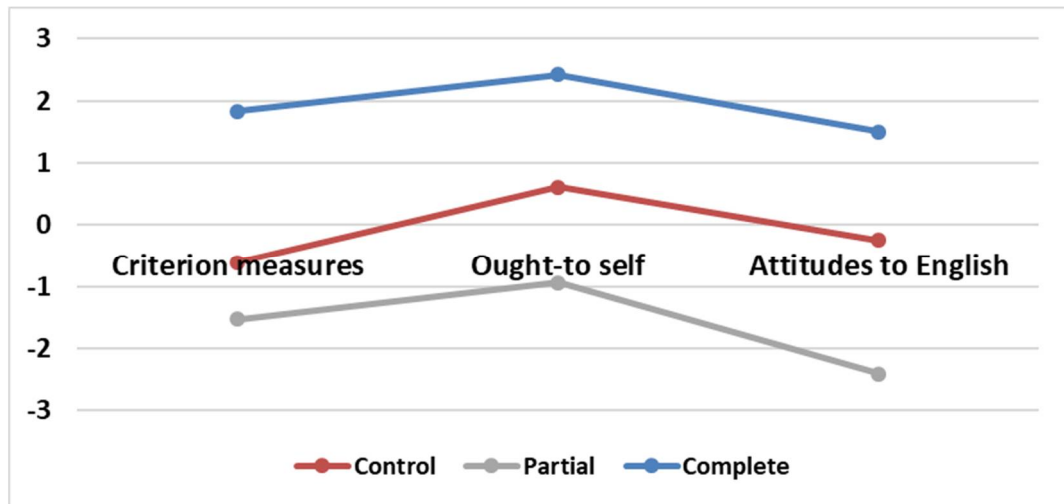
Prevention	-.50	5.22	-1.18	4.01	-.934	.350		-.30	4.22	-.42	4.49	-.485	.627	
Attitudes to English	-1.34	4.61	-1.54	4.17	-.230	.818		-.24	3.48	-2.21	4.00	-2.138	.033	.53
Feared self	.77	4.63	-.97	4.74	-2.209	.027	.371	-.70	4.45	-.38	4.17	-.384	.701	
English self	1.14	4.52	1.78	3.98	-.673	.501		1.39	4.72	-.02	4.45	-1.542	.123	
Imaging ability	.27	3.30	-1.01	4.39	-1.392	.164		.79	2.91	-.75	3.75	-1.907	.056	
SRL	-1.23	9.00	-1.82	8.44	-.472	.637		-.67	7.84	-2.56	7.88	-.880	.379	
Fixed mindset	.64	5.97	.21	6.19	-.529	.597		1.15	5.69	-1.27	6.07	-1.727	.084	
Writing	1.82	5.20	.96	6.83	-.681	.496		.30	10.54	1.37	4.48	-.074	.941	
Reading	2.39	7.00	-1.09	6.62	-2.654	.008	.51	-.18	6.44	-.77	7.32	-.457	.648	
Speaking	-2.73	6.18	-1.07	7.35	-1.066	.286		-3.61	8.12	-.23	6.49	-2.147	.032	.46
Listening	1.32	6.35	-.30	5.50	-1.308	.191		-.33	5.87	-1.50	5.07	-.595	.552	
IMRaD	5.7	0.99	6.02	0.49	-2.273	.023	.44	5.99	0.56	6.09	0.63	-1.436	.151	

The effect of gender on ePortfolio implementation

To further assess the influence of gender in this study, a one-way between groups analysis of variance Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to test for gender differences based on ePortfolio implementation. The independent variables were the type of group (control, ePortfolio partial, ePortfolio complete) and gender (male vs. female). The dependent variables were the L2MSS difference mean scores to measure motivation, SRL difference mean scores to measure self-regulation, and fixed mindset difference mean scores to measure growth mindset, calculated from the MPSSRQ administered prior to commencement (pre-test) and after the intervention was completed (post-test), and mean scores on FL acquisition variables, calculated from the official summative assessments submitted by participants, outlined in Section 4.4.4.

Across groups, a Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a significant difference for males across the three groups (Gp1, $n = 33$: control, Gp2, $n = 32$: ePortfolio partial, Gp3, $n = 12$: ePortfolio complete). As can be seen in Figure 16, ePortfolio complete males ($X^2(2, n = 77) = 7.25, p < .02$) outscored males in the ePortfolio partial ($X^2 = 6.60, p < .03$) and control ($X^2 = 8.42, p < .01$) groups on three L2MSS variables. ePortfolio complete males reported a positive increment on criterion measures ($M = 1.83$), while ePortfolio partial ($M = -1.53$) and control ($M = -0.61$) males registered a decrement. ePortfolio complete males attained an increment in ought-to L2 self ($M = 2.42$) in comparison to ePortfolio partial ($M = -0.94$) and control ($M = 0.61$) males. Attitudes to English also increased among ePortfolio complete males ($M = 1.50$), while they dropped among ePortfolio partial ($M = -2.41$) and control ($M = -0.24$) males. An observation that adduces as in foregoing research (e.g. Abrami et al., 2013) that the degree to which ePortfolios are implemented in classrooms had an effect on results.

Figure 16: Significant male gender differences on L2MSS variables based on ePortfolio implementation across groups



In regard to ePortfolio female gender differences across groups, a Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a significant difference in L2MSS criterion measures, English self, and FL IMRaD grades across the three groups (Gp1, $n = 52$: control, Gp2, $n = 55$: ePortfolio partial, Gp3, $n = 21$: ePortfolio complete). As can be seen in Figure 17, ePortfolio complete females also outscored ($M = 0.00$) ePortfolio partial ($M = -1.09$) and control ($M = -2.19$) females on L2MSS criterion measures ($X^2 (2, n = 128) = 6.97, p < .03$). In contrast, ePortfolio partial females did better ($M = 2.02$) than ePortfolio complete ($M = 1.14$) and control females ($M = -0.02$) on English self ($X^2 = 7.86, p < .02$). Both ePortfolio partial and control females, jointly, exceeded ($M = 6.09$) ePortfolio complete females ($M = 5.83$) on IMRaD scores ($X^2 = 6.05, p < .04$).

Figure 17: Significant female gender differences on L2MSS variables and FL acquisition based on ePortfolio implementation across groups

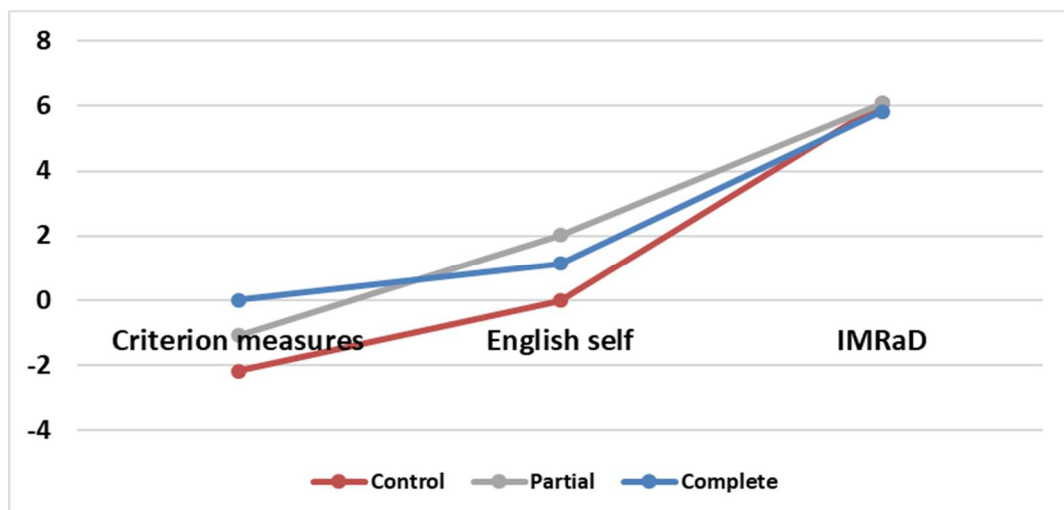


Table 34 below summarises the main findings from the Kruskal-Wallis test analysis, highlighting all significant p -values found in relation to gender differences on L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset difference mean score variables across groups and based on ePortfolio implementation.

Table 34: Kruskal-Wallis test analysis summary of gender differences on L2MSS, SRL and fixed mindset difference variables across groups based on ePortfolio implementation

	Kruskal-Wallis test			Control		ePortfolio Partial		ePortfolio Complete	
	X^2	df	P	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
MALES									
Criterion measures	7.249	2	0.027	-0.61	3.35	-1.53	5.22	1.83	2.44
Ideal L2 self	3.906	2	0.142	0.09	3.79	-1.50	5.06	1.08	2.68
Ought-to L2 self	6.601	2	0.037	0.61	3.41	-0.94	4.72	2.42	3.60
Promotion	2.040	2	0.361	-1.18	4.32	-2.03	5.16	0.33	2.96
Prevention	4.457	2	0.108	-0.30	4.22	-1.37	5.62	1.83	3.04
Attitudes to English	8.422	2	0.015	-0.24	3.48	-2.41	4.71	1.50	2.88
Feared self	3.269	2	0.195	-0.70	4.45	0.38	5.01	1.83	3.38
English self	0.007	2	0.996	1.39	4.72	1.09	4.76	1.25	3.98
Imaging ability	2.338	2	0.311	0.79	2.91	-0.19	2.90	1.50	4.08
SRL	1.660	2	0.436	-0.67	7.84	-2.34	10.01	1.75	4.56
Fixed mindset	4.357	2	0.113	1.15	5.69	1.38	6.05	-1.33	5.50
Writing	4.066	2	0.131	0.30	10.54	2.94	4.13	-1.17	6.66
Reading	3.587	2	0.166	-0.18	6.44	2.31	6.86	2.58	7.68
Speaking	3.804	2	0.149	-3.61	8.12	-3.69	5.54	-0.17	7.26
Listening	1.919	2	0.383	-0.33	5.87	1.03	6.17	2.08	7.03
IMRaD	1.409	2	0.494	5.99	0.56	5.66	1.12	5.77	0.52
FEMALES									
Criterion measures	6.972	2	0.031	-2.9	3.30	-1.09	4.27	0.00	2.95
Ideal L2 self	2.145	2	0.342	-0.40	3.89	0.18	4.36	1.00	3.32
Ought-to L2 self	1.244	2	0.537	-1.00	3.60	-0.93	4.61	0.10	3.56
Promotion	0.365	2	0.833	-1.08	3.84	-0.95	4.23	-0.48	3.17
Prevention	1.160	2	0.560	-0.42	4.49	-1.33	4.14	-0.81	3.71
Attitudes to English	1.545	2	0.462	-2.21	4.00	-1.69	4.39	-1.14	3.61
Feared self	1.751	2	0.417	-0.38	4.17	-1.18	5.18	-0.43	3.40
English self	7.868	2	0.020	-0.02	4.45	2.02	4.16	1.14	3.48
Imaging ability	1.849	2	0.397	-0.75	3.75	-1.44	4.67	0.10	3.40
SRL	1.165	2	0.559	-2.56	7.88	-2.33	8.55	-0.48	8.19
Fixed mindset	0.984	2	0.611	-1.27	6.07	0.22	6.48	0.19	5.49
Writing	0.484	2	0.785	1.37	4.48	0.55	7.47	2.05	4.76
Reading	0.168	2	0.919	-0.77	7.32	-1.07	6.62	-1.14	6.78
Speaking	0.546	2	0.761	-0.23	6.49	-1.00	7.59	-1.24	6.85
Listening	5.874	2	0.053	-1.50	5.07	-1.16	4.91	1.95	6.38
IMRaD	6.054	2	0.048	6.09	0.63	6.09	0.51	5.83	0.35

To further assess the influence of gender within ePortfolios, an Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to test for gender differences across ePortfolio experimental groups. The independent variables were the type of ePortfolio experimental group (partial vs. complete) and gender (male vs. female). The dependent variables were difference mean scores on L2MSS to measure motivation, SRL to measure self-regulation and fixed mindset to measure growth mindset variables, calculated from the MPSSRQ administered prior to commencement (pre-test) and after the intervention was completed (post-test), and mean scores on FL acquisition variables, calculated from the official summative assessments submitted by participants, outlined in Section 4.4.4.

A further Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test across ePortfolio experimental groups also identified an additional aspect of FL proficiency as contingent to gender. As presented in Figure 18, oral ($z = -2.00, p < .04$) and writing ($z = -2.07, p < .04$) proficiency proved significant for males, while listening proficiency was significant for females ($z = -2.23, p < .03$), with a medium effect size ($r =$ between .5 and .7). Speaking gains were higher among ePortfolio complete ($M = -.17$) than ePortfolio partial ($M = -3.69$) males. Writing gains increased among ePortfolio partial males ($M = 2.95$), while it decreased for ePortfolio complete males ($M = -1.17$). Listening gains improved among ePortfolio complete females ($M = 1.95$), while ePortfolio partial females registered a drop ($M = -1.16$).

Figure 18: Significant gender differences on FL acquisition across ePortfolio experimental groups

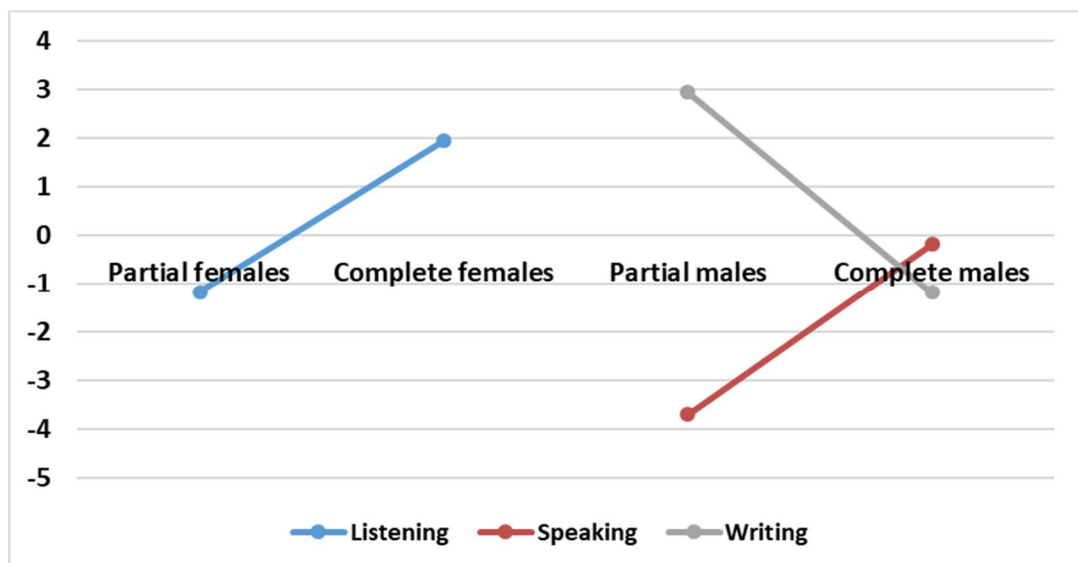


Table 35 below summarises the main findings from the Mann-Whitney U test analysis, highlighting all significant p -values found in relation to gender differences on L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset and FL acquisition variables across ePortfolio experimental groups.

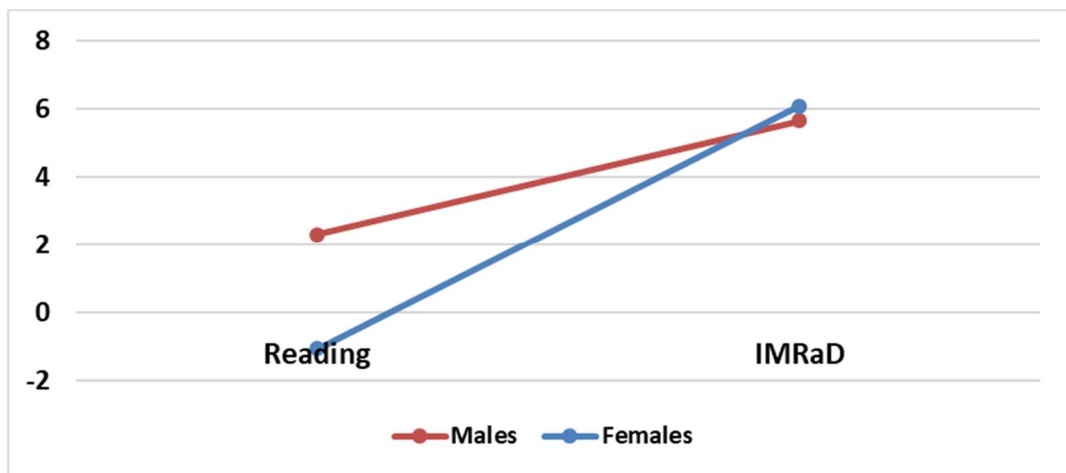
Table 35: Mann-Whitney U test analysis summary of gender differences on L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset and FL acquisition variables across ePortfolio experimental groups

	MALES							FEMALES						
	ePortfolio Partial		ePortfolio Complete		Mann-Whitney U			ePortfolio Partial		ePortfolio Complete		Mann-Whitney U		
	M	SD	M	SD	Z	p	r	M	SD	M	SD	Z	p	r
Criterion measures	-1.53	5.22	1.83	2.44	-2.423	.015	.82	-1.09	4.27	0	2.95	-.619	.536	
Ideal L2 self	-1.50	5.06	1.08	2.68	-1.749	.080		.18	4.36	1	3.32	-.717	.473	
Ought-to L2 self	-.94	4.72	2.42	3.60	-2.395	.017	.80	-.93	4.61	.10	3.56	-.804	.421	
Promotion	-2.03	5.16	.33	2.96	-1.323	.186		-.95	4.23	-.48	3.17	-.134	.893	
Prevention	-1.37	5.62	1.83	3.04	-1.950	.051		-1.33	4.14	-.81	3.71	-.344	.731	
Attitudes to English	-2.41	4.71	1.50	2.88	-2.622	.009	1.00	-1.69	4.39	-1.14	3.61	-.082	.935	
Feared self	.38	5.01	1.83	3.38	-.885	.376		-1.18	5.18	-.43	3.40	-1.031	.303	
English self	1.09	4.76	1.25	3.98	-.119	.905		2.02	4.16	1.14	3.48	-.823	.410	
Imaging ability	-.19	2.90	1.50	4.08	-1.284	.199		-1.44	4.67	.10	3.40	-1.325	.185	
SRL	-2.34	10.01	1.75	4.56	-1.188	.235		-2.33	8.55	-.48	8.19	-.913	.361	
Fixed mindset	1.38	6.05	-1.33	5.50	-1.823	.068		.22	6.48	.19	5.49	-.500	.617	
Writing	2.94	4.13	-1.17	6.66	-2.069	.039	.76	.55	7.47	2.05	4.76	-.488	.626	
Reading	2.31	6.86	2.58	7.68	-.107	.915		-1.07	6.62	-1.14	6.78	-.384	.701	
Speaking	-3.69	5.54	-.17	7.26	-2.000	.045	.55	-1.00	7.59	-1.24	6.85	-.234	.815	
Listening	1.03	6.17	2.08	7.03	-.652	.514		-1.16	4.91	1.95	6.38	-2.228	.026	.55
IMRaD	5.66	1.12	5.77	0.52	-.053	.958		6.09	0.51	5.83	0.35	-2.265	.024	.59

To continue investigating the influence of gender within ePortfolio experimental groups, each group was tested separately using an Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U test to assess for significant gender differences within each group. As previously, the independent variables were the type of ePortfolio experimental group (partial and complete) and gender (male vs. female). The dependent variables were difference mean scores on L2MSS to measure motivation, SRL to measure self-regulation and fixed mindset to measure growth mindset variables, calculated from the MPSSRQ administered prior to commencement (pre-test) and after the intervention was completed (post-test), and mean scores on FL acquisition variables, calculated from the official summative assessments submitted by participants, outlined in Section 4.4.4.

Among ePortfolio partial students, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed significant differences on L2MSS and FL acquisition variables, as is shown in Figure 19 below. Males in the ePortfolio partial group ($M = 2.31$) reported an increment while females ($M = -1.07$) registered a decrement in reading proficiency ($z = -2.30, p < .02$), with a medium size effect ($r = .5$). Meanwhile, females registered higher scores ($M = 6.09$) than males ($M = 5.66$) on IMRaD grades ($z = -2.55, p < .01$), with a medium size effect ($r = .5$).

Figure 19: Significant gender differences on FL acquisition within ePortfolio partial group



For ePortfolio complete participants, L2MSS attitudes to English proved significant ($z = -2.02, p < .04$), with a large size effect ($r = .8$), with males reporting an improvement ($M = 1.50$) in comparison to females ($M = -1.14$), as is shown in Figure 20.

Figure 20: Significant gender differences on L2MSS attitudes to English within ePortfolio complete group

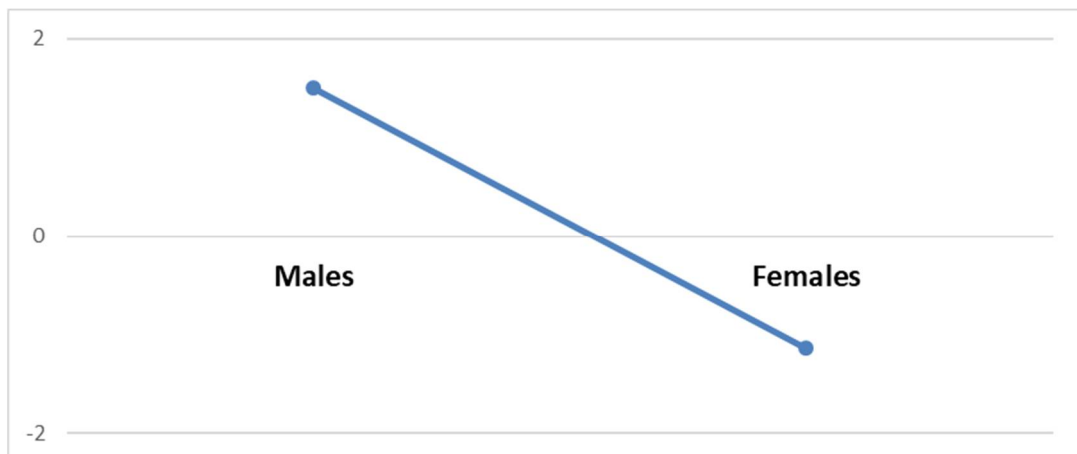


Table 36 below summarises the main findings from the Mann-Whitney U test analysis, highlighting all significant p -values found in relation to gender differences on L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset and FL acquisition variables within ePortfolio experimental groups.

Table 36: Mann-Whitney U test analysis summary of gender differences on L2MSS, SRL, fixed mindset and FL acquisition variables within ePortfolio experimental groups

Criterion Measures	ePortfolio Partial							ePortfolio Complete						
	Males		Females		Mann-Whitney U			Males		Females		Mann-Whitney U		
	M	SD	M	SD	Z	P	r	M	SD	M	SD	Z	p	r
Criterion Measures	-1.53	5.22	-1.09	4.27	-.535	.592		1.83	2.44	0	2.95	-1.753	.080	
Ideal L2 self	-1.50	5.06	.18	4.36	-1.581	.114		1.08	2.68	1	3.32	-.094	.925	
Ought-to L2 self	-.94	4.72	-.93	4.61	-.027	.979		2.42	3.60	.10	3.56	-1.766	.077	
Promotion	-2.03	5.16	-.95	4.23	-1.020	.308		.33	2.96	-.48	3.17	-.602	.547	
Prevention	-1.37	5.62	-1.33	4.14	-.115	.909		1.83	3.04	-.81	3.71	-1.937	.053	
Attitudes to English	-2.41	4.71	-1.69	4.39	-.911	.362		1.50	2.88	-1.14	3.61	-2.019	.043	.81
Feared Self	.38	5.01	-1.18	5.18	-1.623	.105		1.83	3.38	-.43	3.40	-1.541	.123	
English Self	1.09	4.76	2.02	4.16	-.756	.449		1.25	3.98	1.14	3.48	-.019	.985	
Imaging Ability	-.19	2.90	-1.44	4.67	-1.131	.258		1.50	4.08	.10	3.40	-.886	.375	
SRL	-2.34	10.01	-2.33	8.55	-.154	.877		1.75	4.56	-.48	8.19	-.375	.707	
Fixed mindset	1.38	6.05	.22	6.48	-1.327	.184		-1.33	5.50	.19	5.49	-1.315	.189	
Writing	2.94	4.13	.55	7.47	-1.447	.148		-1.17	6.66	2.05	4.76	-1.105	.269	
Reading	2.31	6.86	-1.07	6.62	-2.303	.021	.50	2.58	7.68	-1.14	6.78	-1.233	.218	
Speaking	-3.69	5.54	-1.00	7.59	-1.723	.085		-.17	7.26	-1.24	6.85	-.756	.450	
Listening	1.03	6.17	-1.16	4.91	-1.653	.098		2.08	7.03	1.95	6.38	-.113	.910	
IMRaD	5.66	1.12	6.09	0.51	-2.553	.011	.48	5.77	0.52	5.83	0.35	-1.151	.880	

5.2. Qualitative Data

All participants in the experimental groups were asked if they wanted to participate in the focus interviews after informing them about the nature and the aim of these interviews, as were teachers in relation to completing the open-ended feedback survey. To determine whether our qualitative results were consistent with our quantitative findings, volunteering students' answers from the interviews and teachers' feedback were closely examined in terms of this study's research questions. The next step was to identify important themes or patterns within the interview and feedback data employing an inductive 'bottom up' way, in order to establish clear links between the research objectives and the summary findings derived from the raw data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A qualitative approach of thematic analysis was employed on all data garnered from the interviews and feedback surveys.

In this section, findings are presented on students' and teachers' qualitative comments. These responses were transcribed and analysed using NVivo 10 qualitative analysis software, which facilitated the process of examining the commonalities and differences in the data. The first section (5.2.1) presents the results attained in regard to focus group interview data, in which a global analysis of students' comments is reported first, followed by a comparison of the effects of gender and ePortfolio implementation on these data. Subsequently, section 5.2.2 renders an analysis on the observations of the data attained from teacher feedback open-ended surveys.

5.2.1. Group Focus Interview: Experimental Participants

Motivational states were clustered based on comments made in relation to factors that sparked or doused interest among students during the intervention. SRL was grouped based on references made to states that initiated or impeded proactivity during the intervention, and electronic portfolios were analysed based on specific remarks made on the benefits or drawbacks of using electronic portfolios during the intervention. Table 37 below summarises the total number of tokens, or ideas mentioned by students concerning on the one hand, the positive states that generated motivation, SRL and using ePortfolios. On the other hand, the negative states that led to apathy, retroactivity and ineffective ePortfolio implementation during the EAP IMRaD project intervention.

Inasmuch as respondents' comments tilted favourably towards positive states, remarks were also fairly close between the positive and negative aspects of all three concepts, with the exception of SRL negative states, which were significantly lower (Table 37). Undoubtedly, most tokens generated referred to motivational states, which yielded comments two-fold in comparison with SRL and using ePortfolios. Notwithstanding, most responses offered were brief, and participants found it very difficult to interact with each other during the interviews and establish a dynamic dialogue, which led to an overall limited number of qualitative comments and corresponding dynamic analysis. For this reason, isolated observations were offered to provide a general overview of the topics respondents mentioned the most and felt strongly about during the interviews, and in this way, render an associative analysis of these data in a comprehensive manner. This grouping of tokens or comments served the purpose of displaying the total count, which are subsequently analysed

separately. To attain a deeper insight into the effectivity of digital future self-guides, and not digress toward topics that solely related to the EAP IMRaD project content, which was not the focus of this study, it was considered unnecessary to include control participants during this stage.

Regarding the analytical processing of interviewees responses, it should be noted that questions that were answered by participants with yes/no short answers were not taken into account for the analysis. Similarly, any comment repeated by the same student referring to the same idea on more than one occasion, was counted only once. However, when interviewees referred to various ideas in the same comment, these were coded as different tokens accordingly. Also, it is worth noting that interviewees' intermediate English level of proficiency (IELTS 5 to 5.5) may have constrained their ability to express their ideas effectively at times, with some participants requiring prompting and others who may have succumbed to peer pressure and/or response bias. As they could not express themselves effectively they just agreed with peers and/or the interviewer. Accordingly, when focus interviews were transcribed, interviewees' answers were gauged holistically, and only fully developed answers were considered.

Table 37: Interviewees' comments on positive and negative states of digital future self-guides, total number of students $N=30$

	Motivation		SRL		ePortfolios	
	Tokens	Average	Tokens	Average	Tokens	Average
Positive states	109	3.63	64	2.1	67	2.2
Negative states	105	3.5	13	0.43	54	1.8

Participants' comments were fairly balanced in regard to the positive and negative aspects of digital future self-guides, albeit higher in positive tokens. Before this study presents a more detailed analysis on the data provided in Table 37, a general analysis of tokens was extended to gauge for the effects of gender and ePortfolio implementation on this representation of tokens, included in Table 38 below. As outlined in Section 3.3.1., the degree to which ePortfolios are implemented in the classroom has shown to affect results in previous studies (e.g. Abrami et al., 2008; Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010; Upitis et al., 2010). Based on this premise, this study has differentiated between ePortfolio complete and ePortfolio partial participants. Those who submitted all 12 intervention components in their entirety to their electronic portfolio and those who did not. In total, the cohort of interviewees was

comprised of 13 male and 17 female experimental students. 18 of which were ePortfolio partial participants and 12 were ePortfolio complete participants.

Table 38: ePortfolio implementation and gender representation of interviewees' qualitative comments

	Motivation		SRL		ePortfolios	
	Gender: total male students N=13, female students N=17					
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Positive states	22%	29%	38%	45%	26%	30%
Negative states	17%	32%	9%	8%	13%	31%
	ePortfolio Partial students N=18, ePortfolio Complete N=12					
	Partial	Complete	Partial	Complete	Partial	Complete
Positive states	20%	31%	45%	39%	26%	30%
Negative states	17.5%	31.5%	10%	6%	32%	12%

As can be seen in the table above, female respondents appeared to be more vocal in all categories, except SRL negative states, which could simply be attributed to the fact that female representation was larger within focus group interviews. As to ePortfolio implementation, ePortfolio complete participants yielded more tokens on all categories, with the exception of SRL and ePortfolio negative states, despite their smaller representation in comparison to ePortfolio partial respondents. This could mean that completing and submitting the intervention in its entirety had a positive effect on respondents' opinions of the intervention as was also noted in the quantitative findings analysed in Section 5.1.5.

The subsequent analysis of participants' positive and negative tokens was to categorise each remark to a subtheme connected to either the content, the utility, or the pedagogical implications of the intervention within its respective main theme (motivation, SRL or ePortfolios). First, motivation, SRL and ePortfolio positive and negative states were analysed and categorised separately for the entire group as a whole. These data were then further examined based on gender variance and ePortfolio implementation. Comments made in reference to general motivational states during the intervention were the first to be examined. Both positive and negative motivational states were divided into five main categories, highlighted in Table 39 below. In some cases, particularly when laden with tokens, these main categories were then subcategorised again, and are included in italics in Table 39.

Table 39: Categorical analysis of interviewees' comments on positive and negative motivational states, total number of students $N=30$

	Positive and negative motivational categories					
	Tokens	Percent	Male	Female	Partial	Complete
Positive states total	109	51%	22%	29%	20%	31%
Development	55	26%	12%	13%	10%	15%
<i>Improve skills</i>	41	19%	8.5%	9.5%	6%	12%
<i>Peer learning</i>	11	5%	3%	2.5%	3%	2.5%
<i>Cultural awareness</i>	2	1%	0.5%	0.5%	1%	0%
<i>Self-efficacy</i>	1	0%	0%	0.5%	0%	0.5%
Content	31	14%	5%	10%	8%	7%
<i>Song (8)</i>	13	6%	2%	4.5%	1%	5%
<i>Possible self tree (2)</i>	8	4%	2%	1.5%	4%	0%
<i>Debate (10)</i>	4	2%	0.5%	1.5%	1%	1%
<i>Growth mindset (1)</i>	2	1%	0%	1%	0%	1%
<i>Story writing (11)</i>	2	1%	0%	1%	1%	0%
<i>Future self (5)</i>	1	0%	0%	0.5%	0.5%	0%
<i>Positive psychology (7)</i>	1	0%	0.5%	0%	0.5%	0%
Usefulness	14	7%	3%	4%	0.5%	6%
Interesting and fun	5	2%	1%	1%	1.5%	1%
Manageable	4	2%	1%	1%	0%	2%
Negative states total	105	49%	17%	32%	17.5%	31.5%
Didacticism	39	18%	5%	13%	5%	13%
<i>Writing</i>	14	7%	2.5%	4%	1%	6%
<i>Extra work</i>	11	5%	0.5%	5%	1.5%	4%
<i>Not fun</i>	10	5%	2%	2%	1.5%	2%
<i>Drawing</i>	4	2%	0%	2%	1%	1%
Content	27	13%	6%	7%	5%	8%
<i>Possible self tree (2)</i>	7	3%	1%	2%	1%	2%
<i>Story writing (11)</i>	6	3%	2%	1%	0%	3%
<i>Writing drafts (12)</i>	4	2%	1%	1%	0.5%	1%
<i>Benefits of SA (9)</i>	3	1%	1%	0.5%	1.5%	0%
<i>Future self (5)</i>	2	1%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%
<i>Song (8)</i>	2	1%	0.5%	0.5%	0%	1%
<i>Growth mindset (1)</i>	1	0%	0%	0.5%	0.5%	0%
<i>Two Roads poem (2)</i>	1	0%	0%	0.5%	0.5%	0%
<i>Positive psychology (7)</i>	1	0%	0%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%
Plausibility	16	7%	1%	6%	5%	3%
Assessment	16	7%	4%	2%	2.5%	4.5%
<i>No feedback</i>	9	4%	3%	1%	2%	2.5%
<i>No grade</i>	7	3%	1%	1%	0.5%	2%
Self-efficacy issues	7	3%	0%	3%	0%	3%

<i>Face-threat</i>	5	2%	0%	2%	0%	2.5%
<i>Too complex</i>	2	1%	0%	1%	0.5%	0.5%

In line with the quantitative findings reported in Section 5.1, overall, positive and negative motivational states were proportional among students, with the positive registering a slightly higher recognition. In addition, as per the quantitative findings described in Sections 5.1.5 and 5.1.6, gender and ePortfolio implementation differences were noted, with females and ePortfolio complete students reporting the most tokens. Observing the data presented in Table 39 (above), development (26%), content (14%) and usefulness (7%) were the aspects students commented on the most as positive motivational states. Concerning development, the top subcategory for participants (19%) was that they considered the intervention to have improved their English skills in relation to writing, listening, speaking and general academic competence. An observation corroborated in terms of FL listening acquisition in the quantitative findings outlined in Section 5.1.5., in which ePortfolio complete participants reported significant higher scores. However, this qualitative perception of linguistic development among interviewees did not extend to the remaining four FL acquisition variables (writing, reading, speaking and IMRaD), which did not report a statistically significant increment.

Despite this, the majority of participants felt the intervention had a positive effect on their academic performance and underscored its ability to improve academic skills retrospectively, and the motivation to improve diachronically. These learners also mentioned its cultural pedagogical effect, as they found the pedagogical activities included in the intervention very different to those generally employed in China. However, the majority of tokens (10) were ascribed to improving writing ability, on which, interestingly, ePortfolio complete students remarked the most, reporting a two-fold representation in comparison to ePortfolio partial participants. 11 positive comments were also reported on the positive collaborative aspect of the intervention, with references made equally to sharing information and learning from peers. The following quotes illustrate these subcategories in turn:

Yes, we can learn from our mistakes and differences and different presentation and writing parts and improve skills.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 7, male)

We could practise all the skills of English such as speaking, critical thinking, listening and communicating with the people in English.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 17, female)

I think we can practise many skills doing this, like presentation or how to write a story. I think it's positive as we are learning in a different way to how we do in our country.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 6, female)

I can cooperate with my partner which is a new study style for me.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 20, male)

I can get a gift from [my classmate's] good pronunciation.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 24, female)

It let us share our information, which is a new and really useful thing to do while we study.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 25, female)

As regards positive motivational states attributed to content, these tokens related to the components participants found motivating during the intervention. In total, seven components were referenced (outlined in Table 39 above). The top three categories comprised the song (6% - component 8), the possible self tree (4% - component 2) and the debate (2% - component 10). In total, 13 students, predominantly female or from the ePortfolio complete group, noted that they found the song enjoyable, different and inspirational. Although comments were generally brief, the element of connoting fun to music was oft-noted. A total of eight students, predominantly from the ePortfolio partial group, referred to the possible self tree as an exercise that helped them improve in the studies. Interviewees enjoyed the sense of structure offered in the possible self tree, specifically in relation to their studies and academic lives. Albeit less commented and with brief remarks, four students found the debate component interesting, particularly as it allowed them to express their ideas. Some examples are included to follow depicting these ideas:

The possible self tree, it can help us to design our plan in the future and what we do here.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 10, female)

The possible self tree it makes me clearly compare me before and when I came to study in the UK. I can see my weakness and things I need to improve in my studies. (ePortfolio partial, Student 18, male)

The tree because we can see our purpose of learning English. On the branch of the tree each part was a learning process and we can get some information and remind ourselves how to do it. I enjoyed sharing my tree. (ePortfolio partial, Student 29, male)

The song and the debate video were something different because we can show our ideas and express what we think. (ePortfolio complete, Student 14, female)

The song because we can listen to some positive songs when we have some free time and improve our vocabulary. (ePortfolio complete, Student 6, female)

I found the song interesting and I like music. It can encourage me to work better. (ePortfolio partial, Student 27, male)

The song I enjoyed it and found it useful. (ePortfolio complete, Student 16, male)

The final top category within positive motivational states was ascribed to the utility aspect of the intervention, and in the majority (85%) by ePortfolio complete students. In total, 7% of comments either related to the usefulness of the components during the intervention, or how the intervention programme was useful in the FLL process or their academic studies. For example, one student adduced the following comment that exemplifies this subcategory:

It's useful because it encourages us to reach our aims and the workload was manageable. (ePortfolio complete, Student 12, female)

Turning to negative motivational states, the top main categories were didacticism (18%), content (13%), and a joint third position (7%) of plausibility and assessment. The intervention was considered excessively didactic, particularly by female and/or ePortfolio complete students, as it was

considered as extra work to be done, and there was too much writing, which made the intervention a chore and not fun to complete. An observation that corroborates the fact that only 2% of interviewees noted fun as a positive motivational aspect of the intervention. It should be noted, however, that although participants expressed their apathy for the amount of extra work the intervention entailed (5%), the ratio of these comments was significantly inferior to those made on how the intervention had helped improve their English skills (19%). However, comments on the overrepresentation of writing tasks during the intervention was a distinct negative aspect for the majority of students (7%), particularly female and/or ePortfolio complete learners. In addition, an apprehension to drawing pictures was also noted by some students, who considered it a pointless activity, as it was either too difficult or time-consuming to achieve. The following quotes illustrate some of the ideas expressed by interviewees on these subcategories:

The drafts of the project writing were boring, I enjoyed the pictures more than writing. (ePortfolio complete, Student 13, male)

With the writing it was not something we could show our ideas like in other activities like the song or debate video. (ePortfolio complete, Student 14, female)

Sometimes it took a lot of time to draw the pictures. In my opinion, I would prefer to draw something that looks perfect. I want to make it perfect, so it took lots of time and was a lot of extra work for me. (ePortfolio complete, Student 5, female)

Another problem is we didn't have extra time to do this and we had a lot of work to do, more than other students. (ePortfolio partial, Student 9, female)

Participants also expressed aversion to several intervention components, with the top three subcategories linked to the possible self tree (component 2), story writing (component 11) and writing drafts (component 12), two of which related to writing activities, and therefore, corroborated interviewees previous comments on the negative aspects of didacticism and the excessive presence of intervention writing tasks. Comments mostly stemmed from ePortfolio complete interviewees within the category of didacticism, who

referred to these writing tasks as either cumbersome or not academic, with some students finding them difficult to complete. Interestingly, although some (4%) referred to the possible self tree activity positively, others noted this task as negative (3%), referring to it as unhelpful and of no benefit. The following are examples of comments made with reference to these subcategories:

I think the tree was useless because there are too many branches on the tree, you may have a lot of ways to study English. I think it's useless and a bit complicated. (ePortfolio partial, Student 30, male)

The tree I thought was not useful, I cannot get any help from this. (ePortfolio complete, Student 23, female)

Writing the project drafts I didn't enjoy and sometimes this was not clear for me, and I did it wrong when I write the report I want to write it at the same time not separately. (ePortfolio complete, Student 6, female)

It was not useful and was a lot of work at times writing the story, and also the drafts were a lot of work and difficult to finish. (ePortfolio complete, Student 16, male)

Writing the story might be the most difficult for me because I have never read some novels, this was difficult for me, so I didn't enjoy it very much. (ePortfolio complete, Student 7, male)

The writing was sometimes useful, but not the story as it's not academic and I cannot link it to my studies. This was the same with the tree, I didn't enjoy writing the tree and preferred other activities better. (ePortfolio complete, Student 15, female)

The last two categories ascribed to negative motivational states related equally to comments on plausibility and assessment aspects of the intervention. A significant amount of comments (7%) represented participants' scepticism on the purpose of the intervention. These comments originated mostly from females and ePortfolio partial interviewees. Tokens reiterated the fact that students need to see the benefit of taking part in an activity or project in order to feel motivated to pursue an objective; otherwise,

it fails to confer credibility. A factor that echoes Chan's (2014a) study in which she highlights that it is important that students understand both the benefits and the process of strategies employed in an intervention.

This negative aspect was further compounded by remarks made on the fact that the intervention was ungraded (3%), and insufficient feedback (4%) was given on components undertaken. These tokens mostly stemmed from males and/or ePortfolio complete group interviewees. These respondents felt that, to some extent, not being awarded a grade for the intervention components resulted in this aspect of the IMRaD project being pointless. In addition, they considered the feedback offered insufficient and felt that it may have stunted participants' development and progress. One interviewee underscored the relativity and importance of feedback in the absence of grades, identifying it as a necessary condition for students to take ownership of their work and FLL progress. These comments may partially explain why experimental participants did not perform as well as expected on IMRAD grades, corroborating the quantitative findings outlined in Section 5.1.4. That is, both ePortfolio complete females and ePortfolio partial males reported significantly lower IMRaD project grades. A few tokens below exemplify interviewees' thoughts on these subcategories in line with the quantitative data reported:

Maybe we could have feedback in the class and resubmit the components in the class. Students will be interested if students see the benefit of the intervention. If they know the benefit or their weakness and how the intervention can make them improve, they will be interested. (ePortfolio complete, Student 12, female)

Maybe my dream is you should study more and have a great degree in the UK, and when you go back to China you will have a great job maybe this would make me work harder if I can do this with the intervention. (ePortfolio partial, Student 18, male)

I felt motivated but we need feedback. I think it's a waste of time, I think it's not very important because the teacher didn't give me a grade. (ePortfolio partial, Student 27, male)

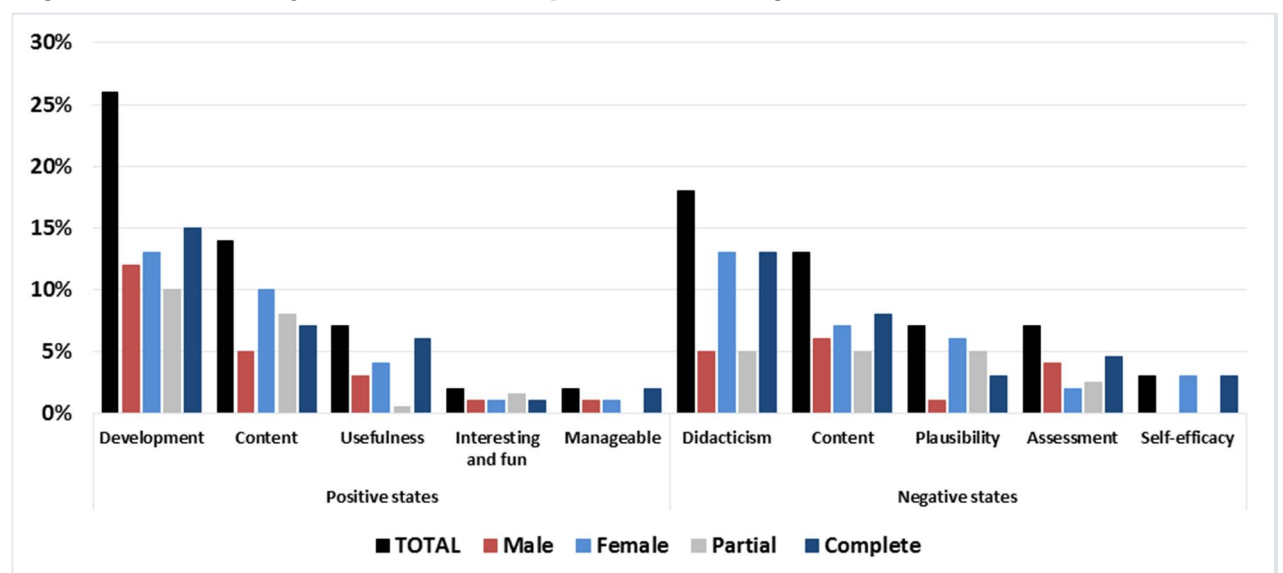
Because you know Chinese students, because this thing is not necessary to do and has no mark or assessment then this is not important and goes to the bottom of my pile. (ePortfolio complete, Student 13, male)

I think the writing and presentations didn't get better every week, the teachers need to give more feedback maybe like this we can improve more and understand what to do better. (ePortfolio complete, Student 14, female)

So, we just upload our work and tasks but did not get feedback. We need to get feedback. It's not about the grade, it's just for ourselves. It's up to you, but we need to have the feedback. (ePortfolio partial, Student 30, male)

To summarise qualitative findings on the thematic analysis of motivation, and as can be seen in Figure 21 below, positive motivational states generated the majority of tokens among focus group interviewees. As regards gender differences and ePortfolio implementation, all in all, both females and/or ePortfolio complete respondents yielded more positive and negative motivational states in comparison.

Figure 21: Summary of interviewees' positive and negative motivational states



The second construct to be analysed qualitatively was positive and negative SRL states. As with motivational states, these aspects were analysed and categorised separately for the entire group as a whole, and then further

examined based on gender variance and ePortfolio implementation. Comments made in reference to SRL aspects were less frequent in comparison to remarks concerning motivation and ePortfolios. The least commented theme of all being negative SRL states, which yielded 13 tokens. Positive SRL states were divided into four main categories, while negative states generated two main categories, as indicated in Table 40 below. As can be seen from this table, gender differences and ePortfolio implementation did not affect results substantially, although ePortfolio partial interviewees did render more tokens, as a whole.

Table 40: Categorical analysis of interviewees' comments on positive and negative SRL states, total number of students $N=30$

	Positive and negative SRL categories					
	Tokens	Percent	Male	Female	Partial	Complete
Positive states total	64	83%	38%	45%	45%	39%
Reflection	37	48%	21%	27%	25%	23%
Mapping strategies	16	21%	8%	13%	9%	12%
Lifelong learning	9	12%	8%	4%	8%	4%
Personal voice	2	2%	1%	1%	3%	0%
Negative states total	13	17%	9%	8%	10%	6%
Teacher driven	12	16%	9%	7%	10%	5%
Study plan	1	1%	0%	1%	0%	1%

Observing the data in Table 40, it can be seen that positive states (83%) significantly overrepresented negative states (17%). Although initially viewed as a positive situation, these data do not support the quantitative findings in this study, outlined in Section 5.1.3, which did not report a significant increment in SRL among experimental participants. Omission can sometimes be attributed to failing to correct a misconception. In other words, interviewees may not have commented on the negative aspects of SRL as they may not have considered SRL a necessary requirement during the intervention. For instance, the most commented on SRL negative state was categorised as teacher driven, particularly among ePortfolio partial participants. This theme comprised 12 remarks that, in some way or other, underscored the presence of the teacher as a necessary condition to complete the intervention. Most students agreed that it was the teacher who motivated them to complete the intervention, adding that the components would have to be more fun, or be included as a summative assessment with feedback, in order for learners to complete it independently. An observation that corroborates

previous tokens under the negative motivational aspect of assessment. One interviewee felt so strongly about this that she demanded the intervention be completed in class within a specific time limit, and is included as an example in the quotes below that illustrate this category:

Because the teacher know I do this I finish the tasks. We had too much work to do. If the teacher didn't ask, I would not do it.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 1, male)

It's not possible to get students to do something just because, as everything has its purpose, a game, money, you must want to get something to do something. It would have to be something fun.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 4, male)

Students should also complete and submit their tasks in class. They should be given a time limit and made to complete it in that time, because most students will not complete it as homework.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 14, female)

If you do not order me to do this, I will not do by myself.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 13, male)

In contrast, interviewees seemed to have more to say about positive SRL states. From the four categories ascribed to this theme, the top three categories related to reflection (48%), mapping strategies (21%) and lifelong learning (12%). Although grouped as reflection within positive SRL states, some of these tokens were closely linked to ePortfolios. Participants felt the intervention components allowed them to review and reflect on their progress from week to week, which, in some cases, was a process inextricably linked to ePortfolio submissions. As group focus interviews included ePortfolio partial participants, i.e. learners who had not submitted the intervention in its entirety to an ePortfolio, comments that did not specifically mention ePortfolios were ascribed to the SRL category and not to the qualitative thematic of ePortfolios. Interviewees largely noted that the connection and correlation among intervention components prompted them to review and reflect on their work, from week to week. This regularity of revision and reflection led some students to comment on how the intervention had helped them to reflect on deadlines and on weaknesses in order to improve. From an

SRL perspective, interviewees mainly highlighted the ability to review their progress and improve their skills upon retrospective reflection and surveillance as the main benefit of the intervention, in addition to time management. An activity that not only prompted self-repair, but also academic study and FL awareness. The following quotes illustrate this category accordingly:

Yes, we can put everything we did in the class. It's a good process to see everything we did in the class.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 5, female)

I can record from the first to the last class our memorable components and think about them during the course.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 7, male)

Yes, the intervention helped you. You can rethink about what you do in class and how you can improve.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 19, female)

If you review the notes you can improve. I reviewed my presentations from week to week because I need to improve and want to get better, it was helpful.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 14, female)

It requires us to finish the work on time and reflect on the component deadlines in a very short time. I reviewed my presentations from week to week.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 16, male)

The second most mentioned positive SRL state referred to mapping strategies. For some students, components such as the study plan, offered strategies that supported the structure and planning of their studies and assignment deadlines throughout the course. In total, six interviewees underscored the utility of the study plan and its ability to reinforce deadlines and improve students' time management. Indeed, participants noted that the time restrictions set on components and tasks throughout the intervention, (students were required to complete several components each week) proved to be beneficial. In this respect, learners felt they had improved in relation to prioritising tasks and adhering to deadlines. A few quotes have been listed to follow that exemplify these attributions:

The intervention was very useful, it can encourage us to do something quickly. It can motivate us to finish our work because of the time restrictions and many tasks in the same week.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 26, female)

The timetable is really useful as it can help you to make your learning more system and also some parts will help you think more about studying life when we are doing the course.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 4, male)

The study plan helped to organise your homework and make a list to have clear what you have to do.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 19, female)

A few tokens extended these strategies and SRL to the future, and for this reason, were assigned to the lifelong learning category. Comments were observed in relation to students' appreciation of the intervention as a tool that could help them long-term in their studies and English language learning in the future. One student remarked on the self-study aspect of the intervention as being a trigger to working harder beyond the classroom. This student's quote and a further example are included below:

This programme can help you to make your learning more like a system and also some parts will help you more to think about studying life in the future.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 4, male)

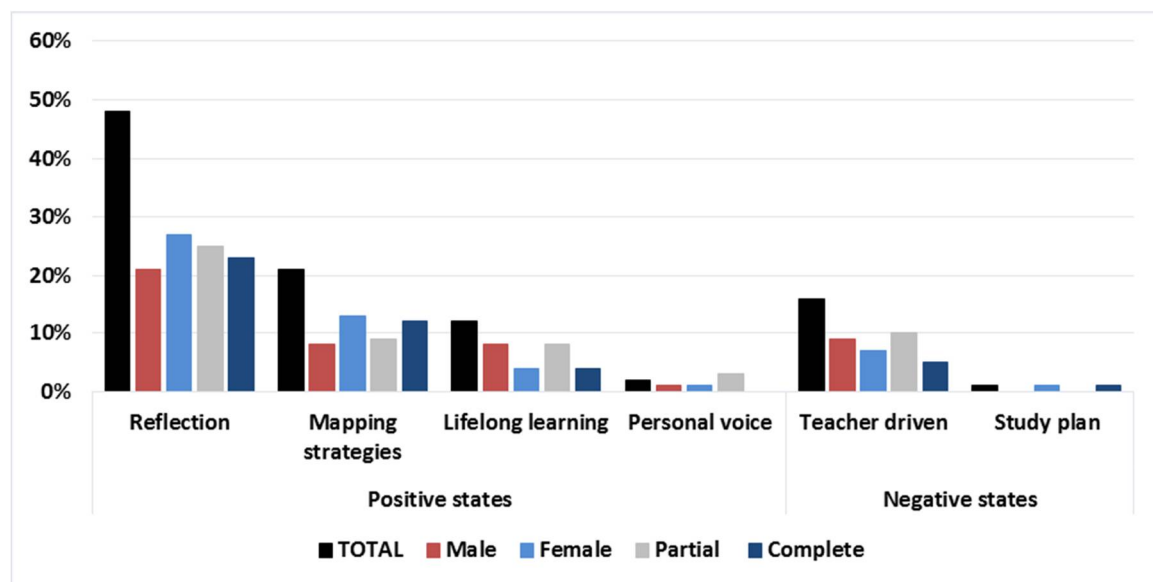
Yes, because this part of the course [the intervention] makes me feel more interested in studying English and want to do more homework and self-study like this. This part was self-study based and not just on teacher's feedback which is good for me and my future studies.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 18, male)

To summarise qualitative findings on the thematic analysis of SRL, and as is reflected in Figure 22 below, it can be underscored that positive SRL states generated the majority of tokens among interviewees. As regards gender differences and ePortfolio implementation, female interviewees yielded more SRL positive states than males, which once again could simply be down to the

fact that female representation was larger within focus group interviews (17 female interviewees versus 13 male interviewees), as did ePortfolio partial respondents.

Figure 22: Summary of interviewees' positive and negative SRL states



The third and last thematic construct to be analysed qualitatively was ePortfolio negative and positive states. These aspects were analysed and categorised separately for the entire group as a whole, and then were further examined based on gender variance and ePortfolio implementation. Comments made in reference to the use of using electronic portfolios during the intervention were less frequent in comparison to remarks concerning motivation but still fairly significant and informative. Qualitative thematic analysis again yielded a higher amount of comments on positive (55%) in comparison to negative (45%) states. These aspects were divided into five main categories, as shown in Table 41 below. Although gender bias and ePortfolio implementation did not affect positive states substantially, females and/or ePortfolio partial participants did render more tokens in relation to negative states. An observation that may corroborate the low degree of implementation among ePortfolio partial participants.

Table 41: Categorical analysis of interviewees' comments on positive and negative ePortfolio states, total number of students *N*=30

	Positive and negative ePortfolio categories					
	Tokens	Percent	Male	Female	Partial	Complete
Positive states total	67	55%	26%	30%	26%	30%

Evidence	27	22%	11%	12%	14%	8%
Presentations	25	21%	11%	10%	7%	14%
Visuals	8	7%	3%	3%	2.5%	4%
Drafts	5	4%	1%	3%	2.5%	2%
User-friendly	2	2%	0%	2%	0%	2%
Negative states total	54	45%	13%	31%	32%	12%
Technical issues	28	23%	7%	16%	15%	8%
Plausibility	11	9%	1%	8%	8%	1%
Self-efficacy	7	6%	2.5%	3%	4%	1.5%
Privacy issues	5	4%	2.5%	2%	4%	0%
Presentations	3	3%	0%	2%	1%	1.5%

The top three categories within positive ePortfolio states related to evidence (22%), presentations (21%) and visuals (8%). That being said, comments attributed to the category of evidence were generally interrelated to tokens on presentations and drafts. These participants agreed that it was useful to have their work evidenced, and that it would be beneficial to continue keeping a record of their English and/or academic work in an electronic portfolio. Although the teacher driven aspect of the intervention was previously identified as an SRL negative state by respondents, the continual submission of intervention components to an ePortfolio was considered a process of visual testimony that prompted self-repair strategies within ePortfolio positive states.

This approach consequently triggered a DMC in various points. As fundamental to their FLL growth and development, interviewees continued to underscore the need to identify mistakes in their submissions and to correct these errors. Such comments support Vygotsky's (1978) cognitive state of ZPD, through which students reflect and evaluate their FLL progress upon critical reflection and the internalisation of meaning required to motivate action. Most respondents appreciated having a visual record of their work, to which they could refer retrospectively and at their own pace. This subsequently prompted them to review, reflect and correct curricular and intervention materials. Two interviewees referred to this digital testimonial as a tool they could use to store all their 'knowledge'. The following are quotes that exemplify respondents' thoughts on this category:

The first is because our teacher asked us to do it, and the second because we need to improve ourselves and we can see our weakness,

so in the future we can see what we did at that time and what we need to do now. (ePortfolio partial, Student 17, female)

With the ePortfolio we can record our first steps of learning, and then we can go back to see it and check if we have improved, and then make the changes to make it better. This way we can review it when we want. (ePortfolio complete, Student 12, female)

Yes, we can put everything we did in the class in the ePortfolio. It's a process to see everything we did in the class and on the course. We can collect what we learn and do in the class and we can review later, with more time. (ePortfolio complete, Student 5, female)

I think we can use this method in the future. In our main course, we can make our own ePortfolio that keeps a record of all the work we do. This is very useful, because I can make this website a store of knowledge. (ePortfolio partial, Student 30, male)

Providing a visible record of students' work was also considered a positive aspect of presentation and draft ePortfolio submissions. Respondents agreed that uploading their presentations to their ePortfolio was the most motivating aspect of ePortfolios, identifying it as the main initiator of a DMC during the intervention. These weekly submissions seemed to motivate participants to monitor their progress and make improvements continually, generating self-repair strategies further to those mentioned in positive SRL states. Students noted that the ongoing requirement to complete and submit these components to an ePortfolio, heightened their appreciation of deadlines and improved their time management skills. These impressions not only reinforce tokens offered on positive SRL states, but also question students' reluctance to complete intervention writing tasks identified within negative motivational states under the category of didacticism. In fact, most students continued to iterate how purposeful it was to upload the IMRaD presentations and drafts to their ePortfolio. From this perspective, these tasks were regarded as a fundamental tool to monitor their progress and to engage in self-repair and improvement. Even participants who did not enjoy doing the presentations still remarked on its prominent utility:

Although I didn't like doing the presentation and uploading the video to my ePortfolio, it was the most useful activity because it can help us speak English in public and improve our mistakes.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 2, male)

Because of the ePortfolio, I think it can improve my presentation skills. I can check through the video which point I would like to change, like sometimes I think my body language is not good and so I need to improve this.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 5, female)

Submitting the presentation because it can show us how to improve what is good and bad. It's useful because our pronunciation is not good, and we can improve it and the listening of words we don't know. It was a good feeling when I saw myself. Also, we want to do it better than before. I can see a difference, in my first presentation, I was so nervous, but in presentation three, I'm more relaxed, which makes me feel good. Uploading the presentations and the writing drafts let us improve ourselves.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 24, female)

Sure, when we upload our presentations we can watch this again and check our weaknesses and what we need to improve, this is very helpful.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 27, male)

The ePortfolio is a good idea. It's easy, you only have to upload your tasks and when you finish you can see your growth. Wow, I finished this project, I have written a long report, but before I came here, I thought I could not finish a writing assignment like I have done in the drafts. In these components I can see I have improved.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 13, male)

The last top ePortfolio positive state concerned participants' zest uploading visuals (7%). In opposition to interviewees' previous comments that noted fun as notably lacking within negative motivational states, the visual aspect of ePortfolios appeared to confer the intervention a ludic feature. This view that students continued to express for the need of the intervention to be more fun, so as not to connote extra work, might have been mitigated through more visual activities. Respondents did not seem to associate these visual tasks to

extra work, but instead to a pleasurable way of learning English and improving academic skills, with one respondent suggesting the following:

I enjoyed uploading the pictures and videos more. If this website were more fun, I would have some different opinion. For example, when you do listening debate you see an academic video it's much less fun than a comic video, so maybe a comic video should be in the portfolio. It would be good to have this evidence of our work too.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 4, male)

Although generating less tokens, ePortfolio negative states primarily related to technical issues (23%), the majority of which stemmed from female (16%) and/or ePortfolio partial participants (15%). Being an innovative tool, it was expected that both teachers and students would encounter some challenges. However, the majority of these interviewees experienced technical problems uploading their components to an ePortfolio due to phone operating system software discrepancies. In other words, the problem was not related to the ePortfolio components *per se*, but to the ePortfolio platform's incompatibility with iPhone devices, which most students had. To circumvent this problem, students were asked to upload submission through either 'Facebook' or 'Google Drive'. In consequence, respondents reiterated on various occasions for the ePortfolio to have been accessible on a phone app instead of an online website platform. In doing so, students could have uploaded submissions directly without having to go through an external link such as 'Facebook' or 'Google Drive'. One interviewee, however, did comment on the fact that the order of the components was difficult to follow and needed clearer instructions and guidelines. These two negative states can be observed from the quotes to follow:

I think it would be better if it were an app and better on the phone not on the laptop or a website, because it's difficult to upload things sometimes when you have an iPhone or phone not compatible.

(ePortfolio complete, Student 26, female)

I think the website needs to improve because every time we needed to upload something we had to go to 'Google Drive'. We should be able to do this directly. We need more clear order and title because we couldn't

find the clear order, so it was difficult to upload and follow the information. (ePortfolio partial, Student 30, male)

The second most frequently mentioned ePortfolio negative state related to plausibility (9%), and again mostly (8%) from female and/or ePortfolio partial interviewees. Although a theme previously analysed within negative motivational states, on this occasion interviewees' comments were specifically examined in relation to the purpose and need of electronic portfolios. Broadly speaking, the majority of responses advocated the benefit of reviewing intervention components, retrospectively, and being able to monitor academic and language development and progress through electronic portfolios. Be that as it may, a few participants did express certain reticence to using ePortfolios. Firstly, these learners did not understand why they had to complete the intervention, and secondly, the electronic submission of components was considered an unnecessary and additional task, which they could not clearly link to the IMRaD project, and many of their colleagues did not have to be complete (control group participants). One particular student felt very strongly about this issue and made the following comment:

I think we should have more advertisement about the ePortfolios, more information of the definition in the introduction, or maybe because we are international students, we do not accept it immediately. I will question the meaning of it and why I have to upload this. Only one half of us, we have to do this one, and half of us don't. At this moment I don't think I can learn anything from ePortfolios. I didn't submit all the components, we didn't know there were new things we could learn, and we just uploaded the components. So far, I don't think I can apply any of this to my studies. I don't understand how the project book is connected to ePortfolios. I think the problem is that we don't understand, and we need a better introduction. I think most students didn't understand what it was about.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 9, female)

Indisputably, this is a concerning observation, which could possibly corroborate low ePortfolio implementation and experimental participants' lower than expected scores on IMRaD project. This outcome, again, reverberates Chan's (2014a) findings that students need to be on board with any innovative practices that are implemented; otherwise, these are likely not

to succeed. Although the intervention was integrated within curricular EAP IMRaD course objectives, it is evident that some students, albeit a few but still extremely important, did not see a clear purpose to some of the intervention components, and therefore needs to be addressed. Beyond that, two respondents also questioned the credibility of using electronic portfolios in regard to the duration of the intervention, adducing the length was ineffective. These participants felt that prolonging the intervention to a year would be more suitable, as the 6-week period was insufficient for them to see a significant improvement in their FL and academic progress from week 1 to week 6, and is expressed in the quote below:

Students need to be interested. If students see the benefit of the ePortfolio, if they know the benefit or their weakness and how the ePortfolio can make them improve, and then they will be interested. It takes a long time period to improve, the ePortfolio needs to be longer. I need to see my progress from the first to the last day. If they only use the ePortfolio for a few weeks, they cannot see the benefit because the period is too short for them to see an improvement, so the portfolio should be available for one year at least for students to be able to see the difference. (ePortfolio complete, Student 12, female)

A few respondents also seemed to dislike uploading components they felt less confident completing, particularly when these were evidenced through ePortfolios, which brings us to the third ePortfolio negative state of self-efficacy. Participants who did not consider themselves good at a certain skill noted these components as difficult to complete and upload. For instance, those who did not enjoy drawing found these components laborious, those who struggled with academic writing found the submission of their drafts challenging and unpleasant, and those with communication difficulties were reticent to submit their presentations. To a certain degree, self-efficacy challenges were linked to privacy issues, as students felt uncomfortable sharing work they did not feel confident doing. Although some (5%) interviewees referred to the benefits of peer learning and collaborative practice within the positive motivational aspects of the intervention, others (4%) noted an aversion to share their components via ePortfolios. Both these negative states can be appreciated from the quotes below:

I don't know the component, but I'm not good at drawing, so I don't like drawing and I didn't want to share this information with others.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 3, female)

I found the presentation difficult to watch because I hate listening to my personal voice, it's embarrassing. I need to practise more.

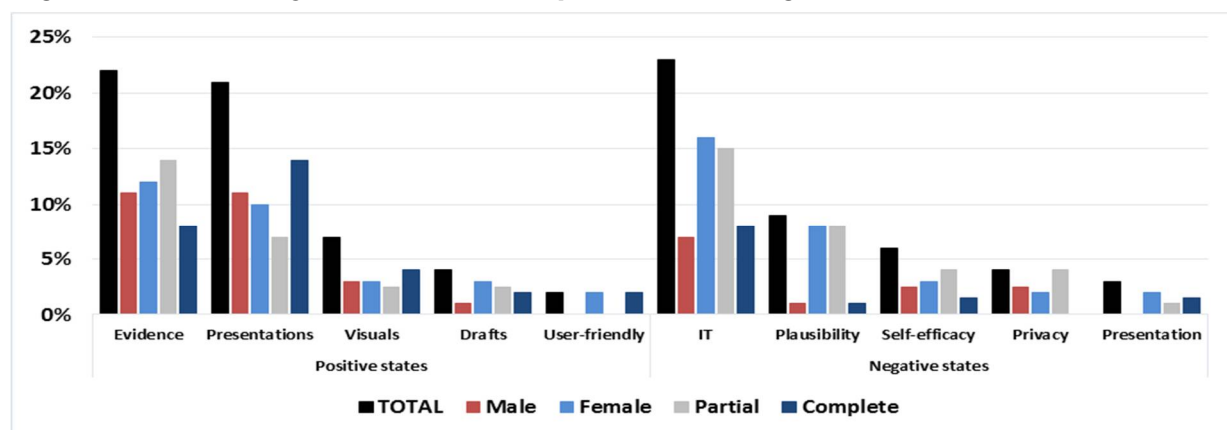
(ePortfolio complete, Student 23, female)

Yes, but if other one can see our ePortfolios, it's not good. I think it should be personal, but we should be able to comment on other students' work. If I don't understand the task, I find it difficult to upload and share my work.

(ePortfolio partial, Student 29, male)

To summarise qualitative findings on the thematic analysis of using ePortfolios, and as is depicted in Figure 23 below, positive states generated the majority of tokens among interviewees. In line with the quantitative findings of this study, ePortfolio complete participants reported the highest number of positive tokens and the lowest negative states, which corroborates significant increments registered on L2MSS criterion measures and attitudes to English in Section 5.1.5. As regards gender differences and ePortfolio implementation, in general terms, both cohorts generated a similar number of positive tokens, albeit slightly higher among females and ePortfolio complete participants. It is worth noting, however, that females also yielded a notably higher amount of negative state tokens, as did ePortfolio partial interviewees. Within which, the negative aspect of technical issues was predominant, strengthening quantitative findings on low implementation and IMRaD grades in these groups.

Figure 23: Summary of interviewees' positive and negative ePortfolio states



Upon these first analyses of qualitative data, respondents' comments, to some extent, supported the quantitative results outlined in Section 5.1., in that participants clearly expressed certain reticence and disengagement with digital future self-guides on certain levels. That being said, students did identify a distinct DMC in relation to English self-concept through their evidenced record of tasks (particularly presentations) using electronic portfolios. Although interviewees felt that this process also had a positive effect on their language and academic skills, this could only be corroborated in relation to FL listening acquisition in the quantitative findings of this study, presented in Section 5.1.4. Of interest, is that, as in the current literature, the qualitative data in this study offers a slightly different disposition among groups in regard to motivation, SRL and using ePortfolios. In essence, gender and the degree to which electronic portfolios was implemented influenced how students perceived the positive and negative aspects of digital future self-guides. In order to further understand these positive and negative states and heterogeneous dispositions, it was also necessary to analyse teachers' views on the intervention, and whether these echoed participants' opinions.

5.2.2. Teacher Feedback Survey

The data collected through nine open-ended surveys from nine teachers that imparted the IMRaD intervention project classes were analysed into themes through a process of coding and representing the data. First, the data were grouped in broad thematic categories of positive and negative states concerning motivation, SRL and ePortfolios using NVivo 10 qualitative analysis software. Motivational states were clustered based on comments made in relation to factors that sparked or doused interest among students and teachers during the intervention. SRL was grouped based on references made to aspects that initiated or impeded proactivity during the intervention among students and teachers, and ePortfolio states were arranged based on specific remarks made concerning the benefits or drawbacks of using electronic portfolios during the intervention for both students and teachers. Table 42 below summarises the total number of tokens, or ideas mentioned by teachers concerning on the one hand, the positive states that generated motivation, SRL and using ePortfolios. On the other hand, the negative states that led to apathy, retroactivity and ineffective ePortfolio implementation during the impartment of EAP IMRaD project intervention classes.

This grouping of tokens or comments served the purpose of displaying the total count, which are subsequently analysed separately. As focus group interviews had focussed solely on experimental students in order to attain a deeper insight into the effectivity of the intervention programme and ePortfolios, it was deemed pertinent to only obtain feedback from teachers who had imparted the IMRaD intervention project. All ten intervention teachers were asked to complete an open-ended feedback survey, comprised of nine questions on the effectivity of the IMRaD project intervention and the employment of electronic portfolios in the classroom, from which nine completed questionnaires were analysed. Regarding the analytical processing of interviewees responses, it should be noted that questions that were answered by participants with yes/no short answers were not taken into account for the analysis. Similarly, any comment repeated by the same teacher referring to the same idea on more than one occasion, was counted only once. However, when respondents referred to various ideas in the same comment, these were coded as different tokens accordingly.

Table 42: Intervention teachers' comments on the positive and negative states of digital future self-guides, total number of teachers $N=9$

	Motivation		SRL		ePortfolios	
	Tokens	Average	Tokens	Average	Tokens	Average
Positive states	33	3.66	7	0.77	13	1.44
Negative states	51	5.66	4	0.44	1	0.11

Teachers' comments were varied, with negative motivational states yielding the most tokens, which supported the overall apathy reported in the quantitative findings outlined in Section 5.1. However, in line with students' comments on ePortfolios in Section 5.2.1, positive states were significantly higher within this theme than in others. As in the previous section, teachers' positive and negative state tokens were classified into subthemes, generally connected to the content, the utility or the pedagogical implications of the intervention within its respective concept (motivation, SRL or ePortfolios). The number of teachers that commented on each category also was noted (No. Teachers) to convey an accurate representation of opinions and voices. Comments made in reference to general motivational states during the intervention were the first to be examined. Positive and negative motivational states were divided into seven main categories, as indicated in Table 43 below.

Table 43: Intervention teachers' comments on positive and negative motivational states, total number of teachers $N=9$

Positive and negative motivational categories			
	Tokens	Percent	No. Teachers
Positive states	33	39%	
Content	29	35%	9
<i>Future self (5)</i>	5	6%	5
<i>Study plan (4)</i>	5	6%	5
<i>Growth mindset (1)</i>	4	5%	3
<i>Possible self tree (2)</i>	4	5%	3
<i>Song (8)</i>	4	5%	3
<i>Presentations (6)</i>	3	4%	3
<i>Benefits of SA (9)</i>	2	2%	2
<i>Debate (10)</i>	1	1%	1
<i>Drafts (12)</i>	1	1%	1
Personalisation	2	2%	2
Visualisation strategies	2	2%	2
Negative states	51	61%	
Time management	18	21.5%	8
Content	15	18%	9
<i>Poem (3)</i>	3	4%	3
<i>Benefits of SA (9)</i>	2	2.5%	2
<i>Debate (10)</i>	2	2.5%	2
<i>Possible self tree (2)</i>	2	2.5%	2
<i>Song (8)</i>	2	2.5%	2
<i>Future self (5)</i>	1	1%	1
<i>Growth mindset (1)</i>	1	1%	1
<i>Storytelling (11)</i>	1	1%	1
<i>Study plan (4)</i>	1	1%	1
Plausibility	13	15.5%	7
Language and academic competence	4	5%	2
Drawing	1	1%	1

As can be observed in Table 43, negative motivational states generated the majority of tokens among intervention teachers, with the top categories ascribed to time management (21.5%), content (18%) and plausibility (15.5%). With the exception of one respondent, teachers unanimously underscored that the intensity of the IMRaD project module had imposed significant time constraints on the ability to present and teach all the intervention components effectively. In general, teachers expressed they needed more time to complete the intervention and IMRaD project module as many parts felt rushed and needed more attention. This observation is in line

with interview participants' comments (5%) within the subcategory of extra work under the negative motivational state of didacticism. These learners also expressed an inability to complete all the intervention components due to the heavy workload on the EAP course. In total, most teachers (21.5% of tokens) noted the obstacle of time as the biggest challenge, as intervention components proved substantially time consuming to complete in an already content-laden module. Several teachers felt that the content demands of the curricular IMRaD project course objectives and the intervention were excessive, and therefore, one had to be completed in detriment of the other. In other words, both objectives were incompatible, timewise. In response, however, teachers suggested retaining intervention components while certain curricular course objectives could be excluded or assigned as self-study. The extracts included below from teachers' comments serve as an example to these issues outlined:

I wish there was more time to explore the intervention programme. Some components had to be rushed due to time constraints. It needs more contact time. Perhaps some parts of the IMRaD project class could be learnt through self-study, while the time gained would be used for the ePortfolio and exposing those missing links between it and the project class' primary research. (Teacher 2)

Once the primary research started, I am afraid that we got side-tracked from completing both intervention tasks and standard project book tasks, and basically, we didn't have enough time to finish the intervention tasks. Time was mainly the issue, as mentioned above. Both in terms of completing tasks, which I did at the expense of the regular course syllabus in the first two to three weeks, and also in terms of the time students required to actually complete the tasks. Much longer than I had originally anticipated. Maybe fewer tasks included in the regular course would be beneficial. (Teacher 7)

I think time constraints were detrimental to its effectivity as students couldn't link the tasks clearly to the final objectives of the course. (Teacher 9)

The second top category to be discussed regarding negative motivational states concerned content. Opinions were numerous, and it should be noted

that teachers' comments on content were more positive (35%) than negative (18%). In most instances, teachers felt a component was ineffective when it lacked relevance or was considered too linguistically or conceptually challenging for students to complete, which consequently affected motivation and encroached on time management. Three teachers referred to the poem activity, component three in the intervention, as an example of this issue. These teachers all coincided in that they felt this activity was beyond the students' actual linguistic and creative competence, with one teacher having to paraphrase the exercise to complete this task, which again led to time management issues. An appreciation supported by the fact that students did not identify this activity as a positive motivational state during the focus group interviews.

In terms of the motivational content included in the intervention, as with focus group interviewees, teachers' thoughts were divided. Apart from the poem (component 3) and storytelling (component 11) activities, all components that were noted as unfavourable to fostering motivation were also considered positive, which underscores its subjectivity and consequent analytical complexity. Comparably, teachers and students appeared to agree on the general apprehension to complete the poem task, and one teacher mentioned an apathy to drawing, as did 2% of students' interview tokens within negative motivational states. The following quotes illustrate teachers' thoughts on this category:

Time was the only true obstacle, although some of the students were surprisingly resistant to drawing activities. (Teacher 3)

Both language competency and any notion of academic skills in my group was at such a weak level that I preferred to concentrate on components on lower language level, less loaded with information or parts I considered more accessible for the students. For example, I skipped the poem as it was too difficult for students, so I paraphrased it and tried to simplify it for them. (Teacher 5)

Participants' weak English and cultural differences and lack of time all made it difficult to use the intervention to its full potential. (Teacher 6)

Trying to get students to write a poem in English is beyond their level of creativity and English level. (Teacher 7)

Some YouTube videos, which were supposed to act as an introduction to the session such as the video in the first lesson describing how brain and veins work that linked to the growth mindset exercise, didn't work well. It was a bit difficult for students to link these concepts to the whole theme of project class, and time consuming for me as a teacher to explain this link in detail. (Teacher 8)

Most teachers agreed that components were also ineffective when it was difficult to identify the task objective, particularly in relation to IMRaD curricular course objectives. In total, seven teachers (15.5% of tokens) highlighted issues that referred to the plausibility of the intervention. An issue also underscored by focus group interviewees within the category of negative motivational (7%) and ePortfolio states (9%). Teachers felt that ineffective linking between intervention components and IMRaD curricular course tasks appeared to be a significant motivational downfall. To be able to dissipate their students' doubts and re-motivate them to complete the intervention, teachers expressed a need to have a clearer understanding as to how each intervention component connected to each IMRaD curricular course activities and global objectives. One teacher felt that additional pedagogical support was necessary in the form of official weekly meetings, as this would have provided an opportunity to discuss and dissipate doubts concerning plausibility. The following extracts exemplify teachers' comments in this respect, and again underscore the fact that both teachers and students have to support and understand a project wholly in order for it to succeed:

I was comfortable with the materials and the objective of the programme. The problem was that the students were struggling with the core programme of the project for a number of reasons, so it was difficult to balance the need to follow the research programme with the need to actively steer each group in the right direction for the assessed task. (Teacher 3)

The project intervention programme is an integral part of the whole course. For this reason, there should be meetings focusing exclusively on the programme where teachers could discuss interpretations,

suggestions, expected outcomes, eventual challenges and solutions and they should discuss how to link the project programme to the skills lessons. (Teacher 5)

Tasks lacked an explanation as to why the students were doing this in relation to course objectives, for example, the tree. I too was a little confused as there was no explanation or justification or follow-up. So, once they had completed it, I asked them to upload it, and then moved onto the next activity. I told them that it was to help them identify their problems clearly, as a guess. Others were less abstract, like the study plan, but I think if students had a rationale for completing the activities, they'd be more willing. (Teacher 6)

In total, positive motivational states generated 39% of tokens within teacher feedback. These related to content (35%), personalisation (2%) and visualisation (2%). Most teachers felt that various components were effective in generating interest in the classroom, concurring in their opinions as to the most influential activity. Equally, five teachers identified the future self (component 5) and study plan (component 4) to be extremely engaging and initiators of reflection. Several teachers also considered the tasks on growth mindset (component 1), the possible self tree (component 2), the song (component 8) and presentations (component 6) as visibly beneficial to cognitive development in their classrooms. Teachers perceived that students enjoyed doing these activities, as it allowed them to gain and to improve on skills that were required for their summative assessments, thereby addressing learning thresholds. This sense of linguistic and academic development was consistent with focus interview students' comments (19% of tokens) within the positive motivational category of development improve skills. To follow are three quotes offered by teachers that represent these positive motivational states:

The mindset component, as well as short and long-term planning component were excellent. I believe that some students actually experienced a 'eureka' moment while working on those components. (Teacher 2)

I particularly liked the Cone of Learning that asked students to focus on the benefits of studying in the UK and the growth mindset materials.

This kind of thinking about thinking is useful to any age of learner struggling and presented with learning thresholds and was very effective in the classroom among students. (Teacher 3)

The components that helped students practise different skills such as weekly presentations, and also those that were related to their real-life experiences such as transcribing their favourite song, were really engaging and inspired visible confidence and motivation in the classroom. (Teacher 8)

For some teachers, fostering motivation was implicitly linked to the personal and visual nature of the intervention components, commensurate with digital future self-guides. These opinions endorsed the intervention, as it offered students an alternative personalised pedagogical platform, which added cultural nuances and reflection to the IMRaD curricular activities, as can be observed from the quotes included to follow:

Some of the visualising activities were engaging, even though there was little follow up. These were motivating as used with specific aims in mind that prompted personal growth and the setting of individual personal objectives. (Teacher 1)

Initially it certainly engaged students because it added stimulating and personalised activities and tasks into an otherwise dry project curriculum. (Teacher 7)

To further examine positive and negative states among teachers, comments made in reference to general SRL aspects during the intervention were interpreted. As with focus group interviewees, SRL states generated significantly less tokens in comparison with motivational states. As a result, positive and negative SRL states were divided into five categories, highlighted in Table 44 below.

Table 44: Intervention teachers’ comments on positive and negative SRL states, total number of teachers N=9

Positive and negative SRL categories			
	Tokens	Percent	No. Teachers
Positive states	7	64%	6

Development	5	46%	4
Personalisation	1	9%	1
Presentations	1	9%	1
Negative states	4	36%	3
Extra work	2	18%	1
Teacher driven	2	18%	2

As can be observed in Table 44, the majority of comments that were linked to SRL were in a positive light (64%) and concerned a developmental aspect (46%), followed by personalisation (9%) and presentations (9%). Interestingly, foregoing observations highlighted as negative motivational states were considered beneficial to SRL development. For example, teachers felt that the time restrictions that had significantly impeded motivation during the IMRaD project course had also supported the development of SRL. The fact that components had to be completed and submitted, on occasion, in students' own time, incremented individual reflection and SRL beyond the classroom, which teachers found pedagogically insightful. In a similar manner, negative motivational states attributed to plausibility, appeared to foster development among practitioners. These teachers claimed that finding a nexus between certain intervention components and the IMRaD course aims, nurtured professional pedagogical growth. Teachers also highlighted the personal aspect of the components to be of significance to the activation of SRL and general individual awareness during the course. Below are a few quotes that describe teachers' observations about this category:

The intervention definitely complemented teaching objectives. It gave IMRaD project classes more depth and exposed another layer of the teaching and learning process. Sometimes the link between a component and a lesson was not very clear to students and finding that link has definitely helped to develop my teaching practice.

(Teacher 2)

In some ways, time constraints guided them [students] into looking things up for themselves and thinking about how they could finish the task. In a way it also showed me, the teacher, how strongly influenced these Chinese students are with what their peers and society thought of them. A distinct example was the mindset task, when they were thinking and filling it in, a student in class commented to me when I asked him if he actually felt like this. He replied not really, but he didn't

want others to see or think that he was old-fashioned or stuck in his mindset. This was very insightful for me. (Teacher 4)

Definitely, it compelled students to work in a self-regulated manner both in and out of class. This was because the tasks were aimed at personalising answers. (Teacher 7)

It definitely enriched the IMRaD project lessons. Some components contributed to the understanding of the basic requirements in British higher education in general. Some others helped students to understand the importance of self-reflection. (Teacher 5)

It should be noted, however, that one teacher did consider the aforementioned time constraints to be detrimental to SRL. In this group, students were, in general, reluctant to complete activities as homework, which meant they regarded any additional task as unnecessary extra work. This reflection resonates with interview students' comments on the negative motivational state of extra work under the category of didacticism, which garnered 5% of remarks. A further analogy was also noted between the qualitative opinions of teachers and students in relation to the teacher-centred aspect of the intervention. Just as for many students (16% of tokens), the teacher was the main drive behind the intervention, two teachers (18% of tokens) also opined that learners were too dependent on teacher instruction throughout, which consequently prevented the activation of SRL. Some examples of quotes obtained from these teachers as regards these two negative SRL categories are included to follow:

Overall, I don't think it made them more self-regulated, not in my class in any case, because often I asked them to finish in their own time although I did start them and try to get them done in class. In my group, they viewed it as extra work or homework and didn't enjoy completing the tasks. In my experience, Chinese students tend not to be very proactive regarding SRL, with low motivation for English study, on the whole. And in my opinion, without motivation, self-regulation is tricky and difficult to engage. (Teacher 6)

SRL was difficult, as I think, for most parts, students were very dependent on the teacher to help them figure out the logical and

practical relations between the intervention programme tasks and the larger picture of the project class. (Teacher 8)

As students needed to be prompted generally to complete tasks, the programme was very teacher-driven. However, it did get them to think about self-study as a concept that needs to be integrated into their academic studies, even though this was difficult for them to carry out. (Teacher 9)

As in Section 5.2.1, the last theme to be examined was positive and negative ePortfolio states. To further analyse this construct, specific observations noted by teachers in relation to behaviour that prompted or averted ePortfolio interaction during the intervention were explored. As in the thematic analysis of SRL states, ePortfolio states generated significantly less tokens in comparison with motivational states. In total, positive and negative ePortfolio states were divided into four categories, which are highlighted in Table 45 below.

Table 45: Intervention teachers’ comments on positive and negative ePortfolio states, total number of teachers $N=9$

Positive and negative ePortfolio categories			
	Tokens	Percent	No. Teachers
Positive states	13	93%	9
Presentations	6	43%	5
Submissions	5	36%	4
Writing	2	14%	2
Negative states	1	7%	1
Technical issues	1	7%	1

Similar to the thematic analysis of SRL states, feedback attained from intervention teachers on ePortfolios was substantially positive, as can be observed in Table 45. Indeed, only one comment was grouped as a negative state concerning technical issues. Although this issue also proved to be a cause for concern among students’ qualitative comments, the number of tokens (23%) generated by focus group interviewees exceeded that of practitioners. Alongside this, one teacher also voiced the cumbersome aspect of uploading components to an electronic portfolio in the following manner:

Very difficult to say. Only now and then, when it became difficult to download and upload photos, did ePortfolios derail the flow of the class.
(Teacher 1)

For the most part, however, references to ePortfolios within teacher feedback were positive. In total, 93% of tokens within this thematic analysis extolled ePortfolios. These endorsements were attributed to the three categories of presentations (43%), submissions (36%) and writing (14%). Teachers agreed that students felt motivated to upload their components, particularly the IMRaD project writing drafts and presentations. An assumption that strengthens focus group interviewees' claims regarding the positive benefits of uploading drafts and presentations to an ePortfolio, which generated 25% of tokens. Not only that, based on teacher feedback, submitting intervention components to an ePortfolio conferred the task a sense of officialdom. Also an impression referred to by students during the group focus interviewees, wherein the category of evidence within positive ePortfolio states attained 22% of tokens.

Teachers and students alike subscribed to the idea that having a visible record of completed modular activities had a positive effect on motivation, with one teacher noting how this activity fostered the development of auditory skills. An observation supported in the quantitative findings of this study, which reported a significant increase in FL listening acquisition gains among ePortfolio complete participants. And, also brought to the fore by interviewees who attributed the evidenced aspect of the intervention as a positive state that led to improving FL proficiency skills. For some teachers, this process also proved to be beneficial for SRL, as ePortfolios extended IMRaD project tasks beyond the classroom. A few quotes have been included to follow that exemplify teacher feedback on these three positive ePortfolio state categories:

The issue of uploading photos served as a motivational tool in that students felt some level of officialdom and had the urge to complete tasks.
(Teacher 7)

This is difficult to measure, but I did form the impression that the drafting of work and the progress presentations were taken more seriously because of the submission requirement to their ePortfolio.

These submissions helped students to view their drafts and presentations as part of the learning journey. (Teacher 3)

Uploading their work and having a visual record of their work definitely affected motivation positively. (Teacher 9)

After the first week, it was the students' responsibility to maintain their portfolios. Also, the fact that they knew I could check their submissions online, at any point, helped, as they had gotten into the habit of completing tasks as soon as they could. Uploading things motivated students as they simply like doing it. Students loved using their phones to upload their work, it seemed to validate their writing efforts. (Teacher 2)

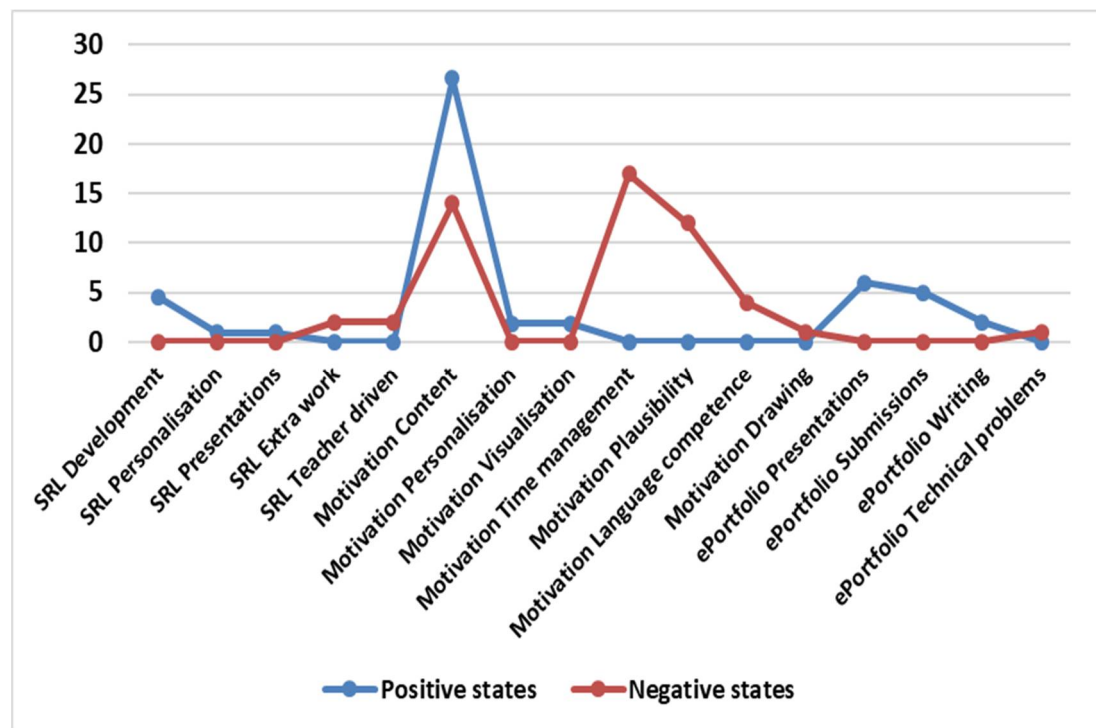
I think the part that makes them get involved with digital tools such as their phones to upload the material was interesting for them, giving them some motivation to do the activities at home. (Teacher 8)

Progress presentations were very motivational, as students were able to recognise how their English and presentation skills were improving. They also managed to have some moments of active listening. (Teacher 5)

In order to bring this section to a close before we proceed to the discussion of the findings presented in Section 5.3., Figure 24 below provides a comprehensive summary of the comments garnered from teacher feedback, and the subsequent analysis of these tokens in relation to the positive and negative states of motivation, SRL and using ePortfolios during the intervention. Schematically, the two most prominent spikes in tokens within teacher feedback referred to the positive motivational aspect of content and the negative motivational aspect of time constraints, albeit higher in regard to the former. Despite that, negative motivational states continued to garner more reflection within teacher feedback, particularly in relation to plausibility and FL competency issues. These qualitative teacher feedback survey findings provide further insight as regards possible reasons for the low implementation of ePortfolios during the intervention, and its consequent lower than expected effects on learner motivation, growth mindset and SRL.

Counter to these interpretations, and in line with focus group interviewees' reflections, teachers identified ePortfolio submission engagement as a practice that initiated a DMC among students at various points during the intervention, as can be seen by the peaks generated in these categories in Figure 24 below. Indeed, both parties identified a cognitive state of ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978) during the FLL process, in which students reflected and evaluated progress upon critical reflection and the internalisation of meaning, which motivated action in the form of self-repair strategies and regulation. It is against this multifarious background that now we need to review and discuss the quantitative and qualitative findings presented in this study, as a whole. In doing so, this study can shed further light on the results obtained and offer a panoptic view of the outcomes of the intervention and digital future self-guides in terms of motivation, growth mindset, SRL, FL acquisition and using ePortfolios.

Figure 24: Teacher feedback summary of positive and negative states of motivation, SRL and ePortfolios



5.3. Discussion

The findings of this study are discussed in this section in relation to the six research questions presented in Section 4.1. This discussion aims to shed further

light on the overall effects of digital future self-guides on learner motivation, growth mindset, SRL and FL proficiency gains in an EAP context. To follow, an all-inclusive interpretation of the results attained from the intervention programme implemented at the University of Northampton is presented in response to these queries. A comparison is made between the results obtained and the current literature reviewed in Section 2.2. (Table 1), Section 2.2.2. (Table 2), and Section 3.3.2. (Table 5). Before all else, and to address the three issues outlined at the start of Chapter 4, results are discussed in relation to the validity of the conceptual framework of future self-guides presented in Section 3.1. Subsequently, and in order to better understand the influence of digital future self-guides on the constructs under investigation, the effects of the intervention as a whole are reviewed, followed by the impact of ePortfolio implementation. A comprehensive evaluation of the effects of the intervention on the two main groups under investigation (experimental vs. control participants) is presented first. After which, the outcomes of all three groups (control, ePortfolio partial and ePortfolio complete learners) are considered based on the degree of ePortfolio implementation. The effects of gender are also addressed within each perspective as a final point.

First and foremost, it is necessary to address whether the results of this thesis supported the notion of an intervention based on the frame of reference proposed for future self-guides in Section 3.1. (Table 3). Strong positive correlations were reported between L2MSS variables and SRL. Criterion measures, Ideal L2 self, attitudes to English and promotion were variables that continued to register a strong positive correlation with the SRL variable among all participants. In regard to the CoD (coefficient of determination) of these aforementioned L2MSS variables, SRL helped to explain between 27 to 44 per cent of the variance in participants' scores, with Ideal L2 self and criterion measures registering the highest variances at 44% and 41%, respectively. These percentages of variance increased among experimental students and extended to L2MSS variables ought-to L2 self and prevention, as is shown in Table 46 below.

These results are of interest, as they further validate the concept of self-regulatory possible selves first presented by Oyserman et al. (2004). Put differently, they confirm that a relationship exists between the construct of possible selves (or other self-directed goals) and the ability to guide and regulate behaviour through SRL. This relationship, in turn, substantiates the conceptual framework of future self-guides put forth in this investigation, specifically, the compatibility of

Zimmerman's (2000) three stage cyclical model of SRL and Hadfield and Dörnyei's (2013) future self-guides imaging strategies as presented in Table 3 (Section 3.1.). On this basis, and in response to Issues 1 and 2 presented in Chapter 4, this study advocates that it is necessary to consider and measure the effects of SRL as presented in Zimmerman's (2000) framework in any investigation that employs the L2MSS or possible selves, as these constructs are inextricably linked.

Despite these strong positive correlations observed between L2MSS variables and SRL, this was not the case for growth mindset, on which the highest CoD noted was related to feared self (21%) and imaging ability (24%). It must be noted that these strong correlational links were only reported among control group participants. This was the only cohort that registered a strong positive correlation between L2MSS feared self and fixed mindset variables, which helped to explain 30 per cent of the variance in participants' scores. As control participants were not exposed to the concept of a growth mindset, this disparity may have been due to the fact that these learners continued to attribute linguistic or academic failure to perceived competence in the form of ability, and not as a result of hard work and effort. A greater endorsement of a fixed mindset has been shown to predict the goal of demonstrating competence when students believe that they have stronger FL skills (Lou & Noels, 2017). In actual fact, the main purpose of exposing experimental students to a growth mindset within the conceptual framework of digital future self-guides was to palliate fear of failure, since the application of an incremental mindset may be beneficial when managing learner thresholds (Blackwell et al., 2007). To some extent, this correlation between L2MSS feared self and a fixed mindset establishes a feasible association between the constructs of motivation L2MSS and growth mindset. Still, it does not confirm a relationship between growth mindset and the concepts of L2MSS or SRL that support the future self-guides framework adopted in this study's intervention.

A further objective of this thesis was to narrow the gap in the literature regarding the empirical relationship between FL acquisition and the constructs of learner motivation, growth mindset, SRL and ePortfolios (Issue 3 – Chapter 4). Despite the claim (e.g. Benson, 2011, 2013; Dörnyei, 1998; Dweck, 2006) that a positive relationship exists between these concepts and language proficiency, the findings of this study did not observe any correlational association among these constructs (see Table 46 below). Although studies (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007) have linked growth mindset interventions to positively incrementing academic grades, this was not the case in this study. A plausible explanation for this outcome may be

that in the majority, these studies comprised interventions that solely focussed and examined fostering a growth mindset. The fact that the intervention design used in this study included one component alone on the concept of growth mindset, may have been insufficient for it to influence variables related to motivation, SRL and FL acquisition, in a significant manner. To confirm whether this would establish a stronger correlation in findings, further research is needed on interventions underpinned on digital future self-guides that integrate a greater representation of growth mindset components.

As a starting point to the discussion on the impact of the intervention, the statistically significant overall effects on the two main groups of this study (control vs. experimental) are examined (see Table 46 above). The first commonality that needs to be addressed, is that, as a rule and regardless of the cohort, most variables registered a decrement, with the exception of L2MSS English self. This decline in scores is in line with previous intervention studies (e.g. Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2016; Taylor & Marsden, 2014) that did not report an improvement in motivation. In the literature, these studies adduced such an unfavourable outcome to the course's level of difficulty. Although difficult to ascertain empirically, this reasoning also may be applicable to the context of this investigation. As described in Section 3.3.2., EAP pre-session courses are generally perceived as intense and intensive. Which, to some degree, teachers as well as experimental students sustained in their qualitative perceptions, with comments that underscored time constraints and task complexity as negative aspects of the intervention.

That being said, L2MSS criterion measures and English self dimensions proved to be statistically significant, reporting more positive scores among experimental participants. L2MSS criterion measures is a measure that examined learners' intended effort to learn English. A comparison between both groups noted a fall in criterion measures among all learners, but this diminution was twice as small among experimental participants. English self is a measure that gauged students' perceptions of their present self in the FLL process. Although both groups exhibited an improvement in English self-concept, this again was 1 point higher among experimental students. If, as posited above, a fall in motivation were due to the pressures of a demanding EAP pre-session course, these statistically significant results would partially endorse the implementation of a digital future self-guides framework in intensive FLL environments. Despite issues related to time management and learning EAP thresholds, experimental students managed

to sustain their level of intended effort and improve perceptions of their present English selves twofold over control learners. This undoubtedly underscores the motivational benefits of digital future self-guides under academic constraints.

As in foregoing ePortfolio interventions (e.g. Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010), further examination corroborated that these motivational benefits were subject to the degree to which ePortfolios were completed and submitted. As can be seen in Table 46 below, ePortfolio implementation had the largest impact on motivational and FL proficiency variables. In this context, ePortfolio complete participants were the only group to report a significant increment on the motivational dimensions of L2MSS criterion measures, Ideal L2 self, attitudes to English and FL listening acquisition. Intended effort and actual grades have been related in previous studies using future self-guides (e.g. Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Participants who had submitted an ePortfolio in its entirety (ePortfolio complete participants), were the only cohort to attain an increment, more than thrice in size, in both L2MSS criterion measures and English listening proficiency. It was hypothesized, however, that the intervention would have a more significant effect on FL gains. An outcome that may not have been attained due to the short length of the intervention (6 weeks), and the inferior amount of ePortfolio complete students.

In total, 28 per cent of experimental students submitted an ePortfolio in its entirety. For this reason, it is difficult to accurately evaluate the full effect of digital future self-guides on FL acquisition. A condition that also may have affected the non-identification of strong correlations between motivation, SRL and FL proficiency. What this significant improvement on listening proficiency does provide is further evidence of the multisensory, visual and auditory nature of future self-guides (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013), which also extended to the digital aspect of using ePortfolios in this study. Learners and practitioners felt that the evidenced aspect of electronic portfolios fostered active listening skills. These outcomes reinforce the important role of ePortfolios within the framework of future self-guides, and the relevance of its integral implementation.

In looking for patterns, quantitative data gleaned various statistically significant negative results for ePortfolio partial participants. This cohort revealed significant decrements from pre to post scores on L2MSS criterion measures, promotion, prevention, attitudes to English and SRL, only reporting an increment on English self-concept. In contrast, ePortfolio complete participants were the

only group to exhibit a significant improvement from pre to post test scores on L2MSS Ideal L2 self and achieved significantly better results on L2MSS attitudes to English post scores. Given that ePortfolio complete participants also reported a significant increment on FL listening gains, this trend supports previous studies (e.g. Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011) that have shown that learners' Ideal L2 selves are positively associated with both visual and auditory components of imagery. As previously, these findings uphold the pivotal role of ePortfolio implementation within digital future self-guides.

Upon further scrutiny, and as per Henry's (2011a) conclusions, the intervention was subject to several statistically significant gender differences. To examine this variance, it is necessary to review these results both across and within groups in relation to experimental and control learners (see Table 46). First, within groups, participants who had not been exposed to the intervention reported the most gender variance, while ePortfolio complete participants registered only one difference concerning L2MSS attitudes to English. Both experimental females and ePortfolio complete interviewees yielded twice as many qualitative comments on the negative motivational aspects of excessive writing and extra work during the intervention. Opinions that may have increased negative attitudes towards English among ePortfolio complete females. That said, it is worth mentioning that ePortfolio complete gender ratio was 12 male to 21 female students. Significant findings reported from such small samples should be interpreted with the caveat of requiring further replication.

At the same time but across groups, ePortfolio complete males and female participants were the only cohorts to attain a significant increment on L2MSS criterion measures, while control and ePortfolio partial learners registered a fall in intended motivational effort to learn English. Experimental females also tripled their control counterparts on L2MSS criterion measures and English self. This corollary not only supports previous research (e.g. Henry 2009; Henry & Cliffordson 2013; Ryan 2009a, 2009b) on the ability of female learners to excel in an L2MSS context underpinned by future self-guides, but also extends these favourable conditions to digital future self-guides, as it is only through them that L2MSS criterion measures were significantly sustained or improved, regardless of gender.

Be that as it may, among female participants, ePortfolio partial females and control females attained joint highest IMRaD scores, while only ePortfolio

complete females' reported an improvement on L2MSS criterion measures and English self. This trend corroborates the motivational benefits of digital future self-guides, while it questions ePortfolio implementation within the IMRaD module. Put differently, why did control students with a lower English self-concept and intention to learn manage to attain higher IMRaD grades than ePortfolio complete female students? In truth, English self-concept examined FL skills that did not, specifically, include research skills. Therefore, it might be feasible for control females who reported a drop in these motivational dimensions to still achieve a high IMRaD score. Also, owing to the superior degree of implementation among ePortfolio complete learners, it could be inferred that time spent on ePortfolio implementation may have taken away from time that would have otherwise been dedicated to IMRaD research activities. Issues related to time management were noted by intervention teachers as a significant impediment to the success of the intervention within the IMRaD project module. In fact, most teachers (80%) agreed that more time was needed to impart the intervention components and IMRaD project activities effectively, as both were difficult to combine under given time constraints.

Also of interest to this investigation is an observable trend among male learners' heightened societal expectations across and within groups (refer to Table 46). While experimental male participants' scores augmented on L2MSS ought-to L2 self, those of females' declined. This pattern was again confirmed among ePortfolio complete males who reported the highest score on this dimension across groups. The fact that ePortfolio complete participants submitted more components, would have made their academic work more visible, which may have compounded exposure. As a result, societal expectations may have been more heightened among these learners. Analogously, ePortfolio complete male participants were the only cohort to exhibit a positive increase in L2MSS instrumentality prevention, albeit not statistically significant, adding further support to a correlation between these two L2MSS dimensions as in previous studies (e.g. Dörnyei, 2009). Although this study cannot empirically ascertain which comments were offered by ePortfolio male participants, both male and ePortfolio complete interviewees offered a higher number of qualitative tokens on the benefits of submitting their presentation to their ePortfolios (positive motivational aspect of presentations), iterating the motivational force of seeing themselves presenting in English, and that of being visible to peers, all of which catalysed self-repair strategies. Therefrom, it would appear that ePortfolio

complete males engaged in the obligations and responsibilities of their English learning through instrumentality prevention when using digital future self-guides.

As in prior research (e.g. You & Dörnyei 2016), these findings corroborate that Asian male and female learners respond differently to external obligations. This observation not only calls into question assumptions about the psychology of learning not being culturally-specific (e.g. Little 1999), but also the role of gender within digital platforms such as electronic portfolios, a factor not previously addressed in the studies reviewed in this thesis (e.g. Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010). A possible explanation for this significant difference may have been due to females' lower susceptibility of negative attributions assigned to their high degree of integrativeness with the FL during the learning process (Henry, 2009).

Knox (2006) highlights that males tend to position themselves as independent of and superior to others, whereas females are more inclined to develop future selves that are characterised by interpersonal or integrative qualities. Such an ambitious male stance may have converted any perception of the possibility of failing the EAP pre-sessional, and the perceived consequences of this failure, into a powerful motivational force. This correlation between external obligation and FL motivation among male learners was also corroborated qualitatively. Male qualitative tokens on the negative motivational state of insufficient assessment during the intervention doubled that of females. In their comments, male experimental learners predominantly underscored a need for the intervention components to be graded, and that students be given more teacher feedback. However, the fact that the IMRaD module was a summative assignment may have been sufficient to sustain heightened societal expectations among these experimental male learners.

Upon closer analysis, this premise does not support significant quantitative findings on FL gains, which were inconsistent. Experimental males only outscored their female counterparts on reading gains, which was again confirmed among ePortfolio partial males. By and large, experimental female participants perceived that their skills had improved more than males as a result of the intervention, while male experimental interviewees generated more tokens that questioned the purpose of the intervention. Despite their heightened external obligations, holding such a stance may have been detrimental to experimental males' academic progress. As in foregoing studies (Chan, 2014a), this corroborates the negative effects of learner scepticism.

Attention should also be drawn to the fact that across groups, male participants in the ePortfolio partial group only improved on writing acquisition, while ePortfolio complete males reported the lowest fall on speaking acquisition. Qualitative tokens yielded by ePortfolio complete students about improving English speaking skills (positive ePortfolio state) through continual presentation practice doubled that of partial students, while remaining balanced among male and female interviewees. Remarks on the negative motivational state of didacticism, particularly on the excessive amount of writing in the intervention, more than doubled among ePortfolio complete and female interviewees. Although not statistically significant, ePortfolio complete female students attained a substantial gain in FL writing in comparison to their male counterparts. Yilmaz and Yuksel (2011) point out that digital learning may reduce the cognitive burden on learners during the task, thereby freeing up attentional resources to take advantage of noticing opportunities. The fact that it was predominantly ePortfolio complete females, and not males, who noticed an inordinate amount of writing required during the intervention, might be interpreted as a greater appreciation of the practice of writing among these learners. In opposition, a less heightened awareness among ePortfolio complete male students may have resulted in an inferior transfer of FL writing skills among these participants.

These mixed results in English proficiency, both across and within groups, may add to the arguments that as an essential education skill, the gender-appropriateness of English language learning is less prominent than is the case for other FLs (Lasagabaster, 2016). Despite qualitative observations being fairly homogenous gender-wise in relation to the developmental benefits of digital future self-guides, experimental participants attained inconsistent proficiency gains across the board. Although it is difficult to ascertain the reasons for this variance, one possible explanation may be found in the qualitative observations made by female students on the insufficient length of the intervention. Restrictions on the length of the course and teaching hours, surely, impeded the effectivity of the intervention and subsequent results. A longer longitudinal intervention study would be able to account for the diachronic role of gender in learner motivation, SRL and proficiency gains, while it would provide a suitable solution to the time constraints experienced. All the same, given that such a brief intervention was able to mitigate gender bias to a certain degree, these findings would infer that the integral implementation of digital future self-guides served to increase gender parity to a greater extent than the essential requirement of

English within higher education alone (Lasagabaster, 2016). Once again, the benefits of using electronic portfolios and the praxis of digital future self-guides within English language teaching programmes seems to be validated.

Table 46: Significant intervention scores on L2MSS, SRL and FL acquisition

	Digital future self-guides intervention		ePortfolio implementation	
	Experimental <i>n</i> =120 male <i>n</i> =44: female <i>n</i> =76	Control <i>n</i> =85 male <i>n</i> =33: female <i>n</i> =52	ePortfolio partial <i>n</i> =87 male <i>n</i> =32: female <i>n</i> =55	ePortfolio complete <i>n</i> =33 male <i>n</i> =12: female <i>n</i> =21
Criterion measures	-.72 Females -.79 CoD SRL 42%	-1.58 Females -2.19 Males -.61 CoD SRL 38%	-1.25 Females -1.09 Males -1.53 Pre 24.34: Post 23.09	.67 Females 0 Males 1.83
Ideal L2 self	CoD SRL 45%	CoD SRL 42%	x	Pre 23.42: Post 24.45
Ought-to L2 self	CoD SRL 28%	Males .61 Females -1.00	Males -.94	Males 2.42
Promotion	CoD SRL 37%	x	Pre 24.48: Post 23.14	x
Prevention	CoD SRL 26%	x	Pre 23.72: Post 22.38	x
Attitudes to English	CoD SRL 37%	Males -.24 Females -2.21 CoD SRL 35%	Males -2.41 Pre 26.06: Post 24.10 Post 24.10	Males 1.50 Females -1.14 Post 26.03
Feared self	Males .77 Females -.97	CoD Fixed mindset 30%	x	x
English self	1.54 Females 1.78	.53 Females -.02	Females 2.02 Pre 18.52: Post 20.20	Females 1.14
Imaging ability	x	x	x	x
Fixed mindset	x	x	x	x
SRL	x	x	Pre 52.82: Post 50.48	x
Writing	x	x	Males 2.94	Males -1.17
Reading	Males 2.39 Females -1.09	x	Males 2.31 Females -1.07	x
Speaking	x	Males -3.61 Females -.23	Males -3.69	Males -.17
Listening	x	-1.05	-.36 Females -1.16	2.00 Females 1.95
IMRaD	Males 5.7 Females 6.02	Females 6.09	Males 5.66 Females 6.09	Females 5.83

x = not statistically significant

All things considered (refer to Table 46 above for a comprehensive summary of findings), the quantitative and qualitative findings of this study confirm the intervention's advantageous effect on students. In this sense, the framework presented for digital future self-guides proved to be effective on L2MSS motivational constructs and FL acquisition. As in previous research (e.g. Abrami

et al., 2013), the degree to which ePortfolios were implemented had a significant positive impact on the dimensions of L2MSS motivation and FL acquisition. Only participants who completed and submitted the intervention integrally to their ePortfolio exhibited significant increments on L2MSS criterion measures, Ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and attitudes to English, while reporting significantly favourable scores on FL listening and speaking proficiency. What is more, the fact that these motivational variables reported strong positive correlations with SRL suggests that both these dimensions have augmented through ePortfolio implementation. Notwithstanding, these benefits did not extend to IMRaD project grades, the module within which the intervention was embedded. This relevant negative outcome was attributed to time constraints by the participants and the teachers in the qualitative data. Both the framework of digital future self-guides and ePortfolio implementation were subject to gender differences. Although inconsistent, a certain degree of gender parity was observed among learners who submitted an ePortfolio in its entirety.

What also appears to be indisputable is that English self-concept is an important measure of motivation among learners of English in the UK. Apart from control females, this motivational dimension reported an increment among all students, albeit significantly higher among experimental participants. As the literature claims (Lamb, 2017; Henry & Cliffordson, 2017), students' perceptions of their actual FL self need to be considered as an important motivational attribute, which both the quantitative and qualitative findings of this study endorse. Qualitative remarks offered by students and teachers continually identified presentations and writing drafts as activities that led to noticeable DMCs. In most instances, these comments underscored that it was constructive for students to visualise their actual English self and ability through ePortfolios, in order to evaluate and engage in self-repair strategies that led to linguistic improvement, as students invested more interest and effort that activated SRL. Against this background, it would appear that a tangible vision of the present in relation to the future was fundamental to fostering motivation and prompting self-regulation throughout the EAP course.

A final word should be dedicated to the content included in the intervention. Even though opinions were diverse, and no clear favourite component could be identified from the qualitative data collected, the Song (component 8) and the Possible Self Tree (component 2) appeared to garner the most tokens, the former mostly chosen by female experimental participants. These preferences matched

interviewees' comments on their proclivity for fun activities and tasks that included mapping strategies. What did appear to be important for students, however, and concurs with the comments included above on present selves, was focus group interviewees' reiteration concerning the role of reflection, evidence and presentations as positive aspects of the intervention. An observation which was corroborated in the teacher feedback data, in that practitioners felt that the ePortfolios documented and attached a degree of officialdom to students' work, within which presentation submissions were significantly effective. To a certain extent, this observation is in line with Chan's (2014a) recommendations that imaging techniques should be placed in a prominent spot so as to reinforce learners' goals.

Chapter 6

6. Conclusion

This final chapter brings this thesis to a close with a final conclusion on the findings presented in the previous chapter and the investigation as a whole. To follow, a conclusive interpretation is provided on all the results obtained and examined in this study. This is followed by a brief subsection that outlines the limitations of the investigation and presents this study's recommendations as regards future research, both of which are discussed in Section 6.1. After which, the final subsection in this chapter and thesis, Section 6.2., summarises the pedagogical implications of this study.

The main purpose of this study was to further explore the interrelationship between learner motivation, growth mindset, SRL and FL acquisition through future self-guides using electronic portfolios. To do this, this thesis posed six research questions in Section 4.1., which addressed current gaps in research that are pertinent to the main objective under scrutiny in this investigation. Although this study was unable to establish a strong correlational relationship between FL acquisition and the constructs of motivation, growth mindset and SRL, it does provide further insight on this relationship. Correlational analyses strongly linked various dimensions of the L2MSS to SRL, namely, criterion measures, Ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, attitudes to English, instrumentality promotion and instrumentality prevention in a positive manner. The first two dimensions reporting the strongest correlations with SRL. These strong positive correlations provide empirical evidence that these dimensions are symbiotic and of mutual benefit to each other, which consequently endorses the framework of digital future self-guides proposed in this study. However, these empirical correlations did not extend to growth mindset or FL proficiency.

Contrary to expectations, this thesis was unable to acknowledge an empirical relationship between growth mindset and the constructs under scrutiny in this investigation. Unlike previous intervention studies (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007), which solely focussed on fostering the concept of a growth mindset, the framework of digital future self-guides may not have included sufficient components for this construct to have been empirically significant. In effect, including one growth mindset component alone conferred the intervention an asymmetrical ratio of conceptual activities on

which to examine this dimension accurately in relation to the constructs under scrutiny in this study.

The analysis of motivation, SRL and FL acquisition proved fertile through digital future self-guides, which adds feasibility to their employment during the FLL process. Based on the findings presented in Chapter 5, it would seem plausible to draw the following three conclusions. The first relates to the overarching relevance of the conceptual framework of digital future self-guides in the EAP classroom and institutional curriculum. Inasmuch as this study provides empirical evidence on the benefits and relevance of the curricular implementation of digital future self-guides, it also adds further support to extant literature (e.g. Cheng, 2008; Joyes et al., 2010) in the recommendation of its usage as a viable learner-focussed platform that can effectively be used as a pedagogic tool, provided that it is embedded in curricular teaching and learning activities. In this sense, the results of the present study endorse the design of electronic portfolios underpinned on the theoretical framework of future self-guides, presented in Section 3.1. (Table 3), upon which curricular learner-centred group projects are embedded. The fact that digital future self-guides had a significant beneficial effect on motivation and linguistic proficiency, albeit to a lesser degree than expected due to the short time span of the intervention, aligns with extant empirical research (e.g. Cheng, 2008; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013) on the positive impact of future self-guides, the utilisation of imagery techniques and electronic portfolios on students' FLL and academic development.

Within this frame of reference, the prominent role of English self-concept should be mentioned. As anticipated, this measure proved to be very significant. Regardless of whether they had been exposed to the intervention or not, participants registered an incremental score on this motivational scale. Not only that, this dimension did not report any strong correlations with the dimensions of SRL or growth mindset. To a certain degree, these outcomes confirm the motivational force of studying English in the UK, as described in Section 3.2.2. Given that this was the only L2MSS variable to report significant growth among control and experimental participants, albeit higher among those exposed to the intervention, this would suggest that the TL educational context *per se* triggered motivation and became an important motive power. Under these circumstances, and as proposed in this study, it is necessary that the dimension of English self-concept be considered as a relevant variable, in order to gauge learner motivation and SRL accurately.

The second concerns ePortfolio implementation. Even though experimental participants outscored control participants on motivational L2MSS variables that were empirically significant, as in previous studies (Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010), it was the degree to which ePortfolios were implemented that had a significant positive effect on learner motivation and language proficiency. In total, four L2MSS dimensions were identified as empirically significant among ePortfolio complete students. These participants reported greater progressive gains on L2MSS criterion measures, Ideal L2, ought-to L2 self and attitudes to English. All of which reported strong positive correlations with SRL, which would imply that both motivation and self-regulation augmented as a result of using electronic portfolios. In addition, ePortfolio complete learners were the only cohort to exhibit a significant favourable growth in FL listening gains. A finding that corroborates previous studies (e.g. Center et al., 1999; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011) on the use of imagery to improve listening comprehension and the link between learners' Ideal L2 selves and auditory components of imagery.

These outcomes support the claim (Oyserman et al., 2006) that future self-guides are subject to certain conditions and require more than an imaginary picture of one's desired FL self. 'Only having an imaginary picture of one's desired FL self cannot result in actual motivated behaviour unless conditions are met and decisive steps are taken to facilitate realizing the Ideal L2 selves' (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012, p. 590 – see Section 2.2.2.). It being understood that the development of motivation and FL proficiency was subject to ePortfolio implementation, would indicate that the digital aspect of future self-guides fostered the necessary conditions in which students could develop motivational and linguistic growth. As exemplified in the quantitative and qualitative findings of this study, having a tangible vision of the present or the future had a salient impact on participants' motivation and self-regulation. As per Magid's (2011) recommendations, keeping a visible record of completed tasks, such as the intervention components or listening to progress presentation recordings, had a salient impact on participants' motivation, SRL and FL acquisition. The ability to engage in self-evaluation and reflect on the components submitted to ePortfolios was qualitatively observed as the most notable initiator of a DMC during the intervention. This visibility allowed students to gauge their present English self through proximal EAP course objectives, in relation to their distal undergraduate learning goals linked to the Ideal L2 self. Upon which, they could constructively improve through reflection, self-repair and regulation strategies (Dörnyei 2009; Dörnyei and Ushioda 2009; Ushioda 2014a). A finding that adds support to the claim that fostering FL possible self-images may heighten recognition of SRL (Sampson, 2012).

These favourable conditions, however, did not prove significant on FL acquisition variables, with the exception of listening proficiency. On balance, digital future self-guides were not as beneficial to FL acquisition as anticipated, particularly in relation to IMRaD grades. An adverse outcome that may have been due to any or all of the following three factors: 1) the reduced number of students who completed and submitted an ePortfolio in its entirety (28%); 2) the additional requirements of the intervention; and 3) the intervention's brief duration (6 weeks). According to the qualitative data garnered from experimental students and teachers, these inauspicious conditions may have stymied the effectivity of digital future self-guides on FL learning outcomes.

Lastly, the third conclusion to be drawn relates to gender parity. As per the current literature (e.g. Rosenzweig & Wigfield, 2016), gender differences were mostly inconsistent, albeit significant. When we look at the data as a whole, we conclude that, to a greater extent, ePortfolio implementation was effective in countervailing gender variance and incrementing L2 intended learning effort among ePortfolio complete participants. In view of the small sample size for ePortfolio complete male (12) and female participants (21), further replication is needed to validate whether ePortfolios can stimulate gender parity within L2 learning. From a pedagogical perspective, however, these findings show that even a brief intervention based on the conceptual framework of digital future self-guides can have a significant effect on fostering gender parity.

That said, and contrary to the literature reviewed on motivation (e.g. Ryan 2009a, 2009b), digital future self-guides proved more propitious among males. L2MSS attitudes to English reported higher significant scores among ePortfolio complete males, with ePortfolio complete females reporting a diminishment. Although positive qualitative comments on the use of ePortfolios was fairly balanced, experimental males did report an inferior number of negative remarks (13%) in relation to females (31%), which may have influenced this motivational scale in a favourable manner. In the same manner, culturally-dependent motivational conditions grounded on societal expectations remained beneficial among experimental males. It should be recalled that ePortfolio complete males achieved the highest significant gain in L2MSS ought-to L2 self across groups, while also reporting the only increment on L2MSS instrumentality prevention, albeit not significant. This finding adds further strength to the correlation between these two L2MSS dimensions (Dörnyei, 2009). Experimental males also reported an increment on L2MSS feared self in comparison

to experimental females who reported a fall. Accordingly, qualitative data conveyed that the visibility of students' academic work to themselves and others through ePortfolios, heightened motivation and SRL among ePortfolio complete males. In line with You and Dörnyei's (2016) conclusions, both the quantitative and qualitative findings in this study seem to endorse the idea that the intervention heightened external societal expectations among Asian male learners. These observations call into question Little's (1999) universal relevance of the principles of learner psychology, discussed in Section 2.3., particularly among Asian learners.

In comparison, ePortfolio partial and complete females were the only groups to obtain a significant increment on English self-concept, albeit lower among females in the complete cohort. A corollary possibly due to time constraints that encroached upon IMRaD project needs, which may have had a negative effect on English self-concept in relation to self-efficacy beliefs, given their lower IMRaD grades. That said, the fact remains that ePortfolio complete females reported the only significant increment on FL listening gains, while they still successfully passed the IMRaD module, albeit with slightly inferior grades (-0.26). In a similar manner, ePortfolio partial females excelled in both English self and IMRaD grades. These outcomes reiterate the positive influence of the intervention, while they confirm the aforementioned limitations within IMRaD project, specifically, in relation to time and possibly intervention length restrictions. These effects, however, did not extend to proficiency gains in all skills, which remained inconsistent.

All things considered, the empirical data obtained from this study not only endorses the employment of digital future self-guides in the FLL process and the EAP curriculum, but also serves as empirical proof of their beneficial impact in demanding academic settings such as EAP pre-sessionals. Undoubtedly, FL learners need to consider their present English selves in relation to their Ideal L2 future selves in the attainment of their language objectives. Likewise, a degree of intended effort (L2MSS criterion measures) is required by students to achieve these goals. Both the quantitative and qualitative findings of this study postulate that these three elements can be fostered, simultaneously, through digital future self-guides. Chan (2014a) recommends placing imaging techniques, such as the Ideal Selves Tree diagram, in a prominent spot to reinforce learners' goals. Even though students benefitted from viewing tangible images of their work, mapping strategies and future selves through electronic portfolios, what appeared to be an apparent catalyst of learner motivation and SRL, was reflecting on a tangible vision of their present English self through ePortfolios. Upon analysis, it was this function that allowed them to be able to

realistically gauge what needed to be done to attain their proximal and distal FL and academic objectives.

6.1.Limitations and Future Research

The present study was limited by a number of factors arising from the realities of conducting research within an authentic educational context. As Su and Reeve (2011) underscore, studies conducted in a laboratory-based setting tend to be more effective than those executed in an authentic environment that contains confounding variables and multiple sources of influence, which cannot be controlled. Be that as it may, university classes and real teaching contexts have nothing to do with laboratories, which is why not all variables can be appropriately controlled.

Perhaps the most significant limitation, as in previous studies (e.g. Cheng, 2008), concerns learner participation and collaboration. The fact that only 28% of students submitted an ePortfolio in its entirety brings to light a hurdle to be overcome in future studies. Because of that, the experimental cohort in this study had to be divided in two groups, which comprised an ePortfolio complete group (with a total of 33 students), and an ePortfolio partial group (with a total of 87 participants). This was a limitation, as the main objective of this investigation was to explore the links among motivation, SRL and future self-guides using electronic portfolios. In practice, the effects of using a digital platform were not examined to their full potential in relation to the three constructs under investigation, as the ePortfolio experimental cohort only represented 28% of experimental participants. Certainly, the results of this study would have been far more convincing if all experimental participants had completed and submitted all components to an ePortfolio. Only then, would this have provided an integral representation of findings and subsequent conclusions. However, and as mentioned above, these results are an accurate reflection of what teachers come across in their classes. Ideally, all students should have completed and submitted all the tasks, but my teaching experience also allows me to assert that this is not usually the case.

Qualitative remarks seem to attribute this limitation mainly to time constraints, issues concerning plausibility, and the linguistic and technical demands of some intervention tasks, which were difficult for students to complete. Although support was provided from the onset and during the investigation, it appears that

more time should have been devoted to conveying its relevance and objectives to participants. Individuals need to understand why they are doing something, and what they will achieve in doing so. Imparting the intervention within the EAP IMRaD learner-centred project proved somewhat difficult to achieve within the timetable offered, and for some teachers and students it was difficult to link the intervention objectives to those of the IMRaD project module at times. Although this led to extending the intervention beyond the classroom and personal development that triggered SRL among some participants, it may have also resulted in additional work for experimental participants. The main reason the intervention was integrated within this module was to achieve the following two objectives: 1) to ensure both experimental and control participants were exposed to the same quantity of teaching hours in English during the EAP pre-sessional and had the same learning aims; and 2) to integrate the intervention within a curricular project that consolidated all four FL skills of writing, reading, speaking and listening, while it could generate a DMC as per Dörnyei et al.'s (2015a, 2016) recommendations.

Analogous to student complicity, there is a need to review the reticence and weariness among practitioners to assist with intervention research and ePortfolio implementation. As identified in the current literature (e.g. Haggerty & Thompson, 2017; Lewis, 2017; Ring et al., 2015; Walton et al., 2016; Zinger & Sinclair, 2014), limited understanding and issues concerning time and workload continued to be significantly detrimental to the successful implementation of electronic portfolios. Any attempt to conduct research within an authentic classroom setting becomes a complex undertaking, particularly when it includes various teachers and cohorts of students. Although there is great value in teacher-research, this close involvement may affect objectivity, and for this reason, the teacher-researcher cannot be considered an entirely impartial observer. To offset this bias within the methodological design of this study, it was deemed empirically necessary to include 17 additional teachers in the study, who could offer disinterested contributions on both the design of the intervention and its outcomes. Inevitably, these ensued limitations related to the fractional impartment and completion of intervention components. The collaboration of 17 teachers during the intervention was a factor that could not be controlled in relation to how the components were taught and completed in the classroom. To neutralise these effects, intervention training and professional support was offered by the teacher-researcher throughout the intervention programme, albeit considered

insufficient by some practitioners who expressed a preference for regular collective meetings rather than individual *ad hoc* support.

Secondly, restrictions on the length of the course and teaching hours, surely, impeded the effectivity of the intervention and subsequent results. In response, a longitudinal intervention study would not only be able to account for the diachronic nature of motivation, growth mindset, SRL and FL proficiency through digital future self-guides, but also provide a suitable solution to time constraints experienced throughout the intervention. As Dörnyei (2001, p.195) states, 'only by collecting longitudinal data can we fully explore the dynamic nature of the mental processes underlying motivation'. In doing so, this also would add clarification to the extant debate of whether the duration and dosage of an intervention affects results. A longitudinal study would have been difficult to implement in an EAP pre-session, as courses generally run for 15 to 20 weeks at the most, with modules not being continuous and usually imparted in five or six-week chunks. Given that motivation and SRL continue to be a concern on these courses, it is certainly an issue that requires further investigation. In this sense, it is pivotal that future self-guide imaging strategies (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013) and electronic portfolios (Barrett, 2000) continue to be integrated within curricular objectives, and in this way, be validated pedagogically. The fact that the degree of implementation had a positive effect on the results obtained in this study, validates the praxis of future self-guides within EAP, even though its veracity is limited by its low representation, which cannot be generalised to the whole experimental cohort.

The final limitation encountered concerning the pre/post-test methodological design of this study. The fact that control and experimental students showed significant pre-existing differences in terms of most L2MSS, fixed mindset and SRL variables, meant that participants could not be compared at pre and post intervention intervals. Due to the short length of the course, and the fact that students were mostly overseas and not accessible before the course started, it was impossible to pre-test students before the intervention began. In this regard, it would be necessary to replicate this study controlling for pre-existing differences to ensure that all participants exhibit similar scores on all variables before the intervention commences. By the same token, further analyses by means of delayed post-test scores were not viable, as some students did not return to the university after the intervention. As Ziegler (2015a, 2015b) underscores, the lack of a delayed post-test contrast can limit the generalizability of the findings, as research

has empirically demonstrated that interactional features may have delayed effects. This author adds that delayed effects may be larger than those on immediate post-tests, particularly on measures of FL development.

The future research recommendations of this study advocate that succeeding interventions grounded on digital future self-guides be implemented within curricular objectives, but that these combined objectives be explicit and understood by all parties concerned, particularly teachers. This could be addressed through weekly staff meetings that allow professionals to express their concerns in a collective and collaborative process, while conferring a sense of officialdom to the intervention's implementation. Time constraints should also be addressed. If plausibility among teachers and students is achieved, however, intervention components could extend beyond the classroom. Moreover, despite the limitations encountered in this study, it is pivotal that future teacher-research continue to offer a multilateral depiction of innovative pedagogical endeavours. A pedagogical intervention that only renders the teacher-researcher's perspective and does not provide the perceptions of teaching peers on the tools and praxis employed, is unilateral, and therefore, subjective to a degree. Unquestionably, further replication is needed to consolidate the findings obtained within the ePortfolio complete group and extend these results to a larger sample.

6.2. Pedagogical implications

Two main pedagogical implications can be drawn from this study. The first relates to using electronic portfolios and future self guides, and the second concerns pedagogical practice. This study adds sound empirical evidence to the question posed by Carney (2005) on the feasibility to extend digital learning to pedagogical practice, without it becoming an education fad. Empirical findings have been reported in this study that conscientiously inform pedagogical practice on the curricular implementation of digital future self-guides. The fact that, to a certain degree, ePortfolio implementation had a significant positive effect on findings, aligns with current literature (e.g. Abrami et al., 2008; Abrami et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2010; Upitis et al., 2010) on the positive impact of electronic portfolios on students' learning skills. ePortfolios seem to have fostered SRL and reflection among experimental learners, initiated DMCs at certain points, and augmented various L2MSS dimensions. The ability to offer students a visible record of their learning efforts through which they could gauge their FL progress in the present, validated the potential for identity construal through ePortfolios. A process that

this study advocates, as it increased motivation in a discernible manner, which in turn, fostered an environment that triggered self-repair, improvement and SRL, which consequently resulted in significant FL proficiency, albeit limited. Given this situation, the results of this study seem to indicate that the length of the intervention should have been longer, as participants did not attain the expected gains in FL acquisition. A very important corollary bearing in mind the ubiquitousness and weight of these courses for international students intending to study in the UK.

Secondly, there is a need to review the practice of teacher-research within educational settings, particularly among peers. The main limitation of this study was attributed to the partial completion of the intervention programme by some students, in the majority due to time constraints and plausibility issues. Without a doubt, any attempt to conduct research within an authentic classroom setting will be a complex undertaking, particularly when it includes various teachers and cohorts of students. For this reason, it is imperative that teaching peers understand the relevance and urgency of sound empirical initiatives in the classroom, so that they are on board from the start. In other words, research is primary, not secondary, to pedagogical progress. Therefore, it is only through research that teachers can empirically, not intuitively, improve pedagogical practice. As a result, this study advocates that higher education institutions foster the practice of academic research as part of curricular teaching objectives, as research that produces nothing but books is incomplete (Lewin, 1946).

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Appendix I – Questionnaire (MPSSRO)

MOTIVATION, POSSIBLE SELVES AND SELF-REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE

This survey is conducted by the University of the Basque Country to better understand the learner thoughts and behaviours of international students within higher education contexts in the UK in regards to motivation, possible selves and self-regulation. This questionnaire consists of three parts. Please read the instructions in each part and write your answers. This is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers. Do not write your name on the questionnaire, but please include your student number in Part III. The results of this survey will be used only for research purposes, so please be sincere with your answers. Thank you very much for your help.

Part I

In this part, we would like you to tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling a number from 1 to 6. **PLEASE DO NOT LEAVE OUT ANY OF THE ITEMS.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Example: If you strongly agree with the following statement, write this:

	1	2	3	4	5	6
I like skiing very much.						6
1. If my teacher gave the class an optional assignment, I would certainly do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. When I think of my future career, I can imagine myself using English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Studying English is important because the people I respect think I should do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Good English skills are important if you want to work globally.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I have to pass the pre-sessional English course in order to graduate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I like the atmosphere of my pre-sessional course.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Studying English is important as I don't want to be considered a poorly educated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. It will have a negative impact on my life if I do not improve my English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I would continue to study English even if it were not required.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I often spend time outside of class obtaining more information on concepts discussed in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I am always able to get my ideas across when I write in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. No matter how hard I try, I will never be able to write in English as well as a native.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I worry about sounding stupid when I make mistakes in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I see no point in learning material that is not likely to be covered in examinations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I would like to concentrate on studying English more than any other topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I will be able to make a lot of money with a high level of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I never have any problems understanding television programmes and films in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I usually get good marks in English with very little effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I try to improve my English based on peer feedback.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Compared to other students I am good at English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I study English because my friends think it is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6

23. I can imagine myself writing an effective 10,000 word essay in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I know my strengths and weaknesses in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. No matter how hard I try, I will never be able to speak English as well as a native.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. I have to study English; otherwise, I cannot be successful in my future career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I try to find opportunities to practise my English outside of class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I am always able to get my ideas across when I speak in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I tell myself to keep studying English when I want to give up.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I can imagine myself giving a presentation in English to a native English audience.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. My aim is to pass the pre-sessional English course while doing as little work as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Studying English is important as I would like to spend a longer period living abroad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I evaluate my own work, i.e., I look at my work to see if it is good or needs improvement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I enjoy learning English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I will study as long as it takes to achieve my pre-sessional English goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. I am prepared to invest a lot of time on improving my English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. Studying English is important to me because I would feel ashamed if I got bad grades in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. I set my own process goals, i.e., I list what I need to do to achieve my learning goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. Improving my spoken English is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. I remember the mistakes my teacher points out to me and I try not to make them again.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. Improving my written English is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. I only want to be told what I did well in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. Thinking of failing my pre-sessional English course makes me work harder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in any of my other subjects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. Good English skills will help me to get a good job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. I never have any problems understanding articles, books and newspapers in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. I set my own learning goals, i.e., I decide what to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51. My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52. I am working hard on improving my English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53. If there is something I don't understand in English, I try to find the answer in a variety of resources (coursebooks, dictionaries, online resources).	1	2	3	4	5	6
54. Studying English is important because it is an international language.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55. I can imagine myself graduating from a UK university.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56. Studying English is important to me in order to achieve a specific goal (e.g. to get a degree).	1	2	3	4	5	6
57. I worry about failing my pre-sessional English course.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part II

The items below will possibly bring certain images to your mind. We would like you to rate the clarity of each image by using the 5-point scale given below. For example, if your image is *unclear and dark*, give it a rating of 2. After each item, circle the appropriate number in the box provided.

The image that appears in your mind by an item might be:

No image at all, you only 'know' that you are thinking of the object	1
Unclear and dark	2
Moderately clear and realistic	3
Clear and reasonably realistic	4
Perfectly clear and realistic as normal vision	5

58. Imagine a relative or friend whom you frequently see but is not with you at present. Consider carefully the picture that comes to mind. How clearly do you see their face, head, shoulders, and body?	1	2	3	4	5
59. Imagine the front of a shop which you often go to. Consider the picture that comes to mind. How clearly do you see the shop?	1	2	3	4	5
60. Imagine a park covered in trees. Consider the picture that comes to mind. How clearly do you see the trees?	1	2	3	4	5
61. Imagine a park covered in trees. Consider the picture that comes to mind. How clearly do you see the different colours of the leaves?	1	2	3	4	5
62. Imagine a rainbow in the sky. Consider the picture that comes to mind. How clearly do you see the colours of the rainbow?	1	2	3	4	5
63. Please describe what type of future self or picture of yourself you are trying to achieve by studying at the University of Northampton.					
64. How close are you to that future self? (tick one of the boxes below)					
<input type="checkbox"/> 3 months away <input type="checkbox"/> 6 months away <input type="checkbox"/> 1 year away <input type="checkbox"/> 2 years away <input type="checkbox"/> 3 years away <input type="checkbox"/> more than 3 years away <input type="checkbox"/> No idea / I don't know					

Part III

Please provide the following information by putting an (X) in the box, or writing your response in the space provided.

Female Male

	Student number
	Date of birth

	Nationality
	Mother tongue (L1)

Other languages spoken (1st box) and level (2nd box) (elementary / intermediate / advanced)

	Language spoken at home
	Number of years you have been studying English
	Age at which you started studying English
	Total years of residence in an English-speaking country

Why have you chosen to study in the UK?

Please indicate your IELTS level in English for listening, reading, speaking and writing ability by circling your level for each skill in the table below.

IELTS LEVEL									
Reading	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Listening	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Writing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Speaking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix II – IMRaD Project Intervention sample unit

1.2: Group Work

In this session you will explore the value of group work and provide strategies for dealing with problems that can arise. Over 50% of lecturers assess students with group presentations, meaning that you will have to work well with a group to achieve good grades.

Task 1: Learner mindset

Mindset is a set of beliefs or a way of thinking that determines one's behaviour, outlook and mental attitude. **Creating an effective Mindset** is essential to dealing with problems that may arise when working on your own on in a group. Watch the video on **Growing your own mind** and discuss the following questions in groups.



1. How do people become more intelligent?
2. How does the diagram of the neurons **At birth vs. at age 6** demonstrate this?
3. How does the second diagram of the nerves of the animal living in a cage vs. an animal living with other animals and toys demonstrate this?
4. How are our brains like muscles?
5. When do our brains grow the most?

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Task 2: The value of group work

Imagine you have been given this group work assignment:

Identify a shopping mall in the city and carry out a survey of its customers' shopping habits.

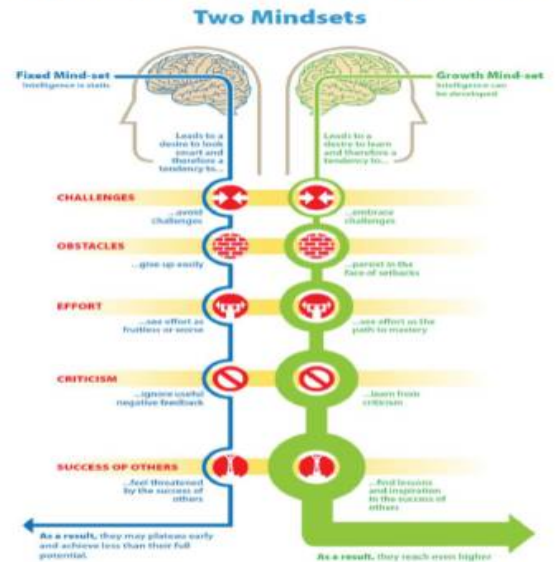
There might be a number of stages to this assignment:

- Stage one: Background research/reading.
- Stage two: Design a survey
- Stage three: Carry out the survey

	As individual work	As group work
Stage one	You can read a few articles and gain some information Result: You have a small amount of information	Each member can read different articles and then share their information with the group Result: You have a lot of information
Stage two	You write all the questions you can think of Result: You have a list of all the questions you could think of	Each member writes a list of questions. You then work together to select the best ones, some of which you had not thought of Result: You have a list of the best questions the group could think of
Stage three	You ask as many shoppers as you can in the time you have Result: You have a small number of respondents	Your group splits up and asks as many shoppers as they can in the time they have Result: You have a large number of respondents and your survey will be more representative

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Look at the image below and individually go through both columns and tick the statement that is true for you from each column in relation to learning English. The column with the most ticks is your mindset. So, do you have a fixed or growth mindset in relation to your English studies? Once you have finished, take a photo and upload the completed image to your Pathbrite UoN ePortfolio.



Taken from: Dweck, C. S. (2006). *Mindset: The new psychology of success*. New York: Random House.

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Now look at these tasks and decide what the benefits are of doing them in a group.

Practice 1: Make a poster presentation explaining the content of your degree programme for a university open day.

Benefits:

Practice 2: Give a presentation entitled: *The advantages of studying abroad for your degree.*

Benefits:

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Practice 3: Design a new product to sell at your university shop and persuade the shop manager to stock it.

 Benefits:

*Exercise adapted from McMahon (2013) Group Work: Academic Skills Series. London: Collins

Task 3: Teamwork skills

In a group decide what skills you develop by working in a team. Make a list:



One reason group work is common in UK universities is because it helps develop skills that can be transferred to the working world – what we call transferable skills, or employability skills.

How many of the skills you have listed will be good skills to have in the world of work?

Task 4: Strategies for dealing with problems in group work

 How do you feel about working in a group? List the potential problems and their possible solutions:

problems that can arise when working in a group	some solutions to these problems

Task 5: Forming your group

For the project you will need to work in groups of 3 or 4 and all group members should be going on to study on a similar degree. You should now form your group.

Appendix III – IMRaD Project control sample unit



1.2: Group Work

In this session you will explore the value of group work and provide strategies for dealing with problems that can arise. Over 50% of lecturers assess students with group presentations, meaning that you will have to work well with a group to achieve good grades.

Task 1: The value of group work*

Imagine you have been given this group work assignment:

Identify a shopping mall in the city and carry out a survey of its customers' shopping habits.

There might be a number of stages to this assignment:

Stage one: Background research/ reading.

Stage two: Design a survey

Stage three: Carry out the survey

	As individual work	As group work
Stage one	You can read a few articles and gain some information	Each member can read different articles and then share their information with the group
	Result: You have a small amount of information	Result: You have a lot of information
Stage two	You write all the questions you can think of.	Each member writes a list of questions. You then work together to select the best ones, some of which you had not thought of.
	Result: You have a list of all the questions you could think of.	Result: You have a list of the best questions the group could think of.
Stage three	You ask as many shoppers as you can in the time you have.	Your group splits up and asks as many shoppers as they can in the time they have.

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	Result: You have a small number of respondents	Result: You have a large number of respondents and your survey will be more representative.
--	--	---

Now look at these tasks and decide what the benefits are of doing them in a group.

Task 1:

Make a poster presentation explaining the content of your degree programme for a university open day.

Benefits:

Task 2:

Give a presentation entitled: *The advantages of studying abroad for your degree*

Benefits:

7



Task 3:

Design a new product to sell at your university shop and persuade the shop manager to stock it

Benefits:

*Exercise adapted from McMahon (2013) *Group Work: Academic Skills Series*. London: Collins

Task 2: Teamwork skills

In a group decide what skills you develop by working in a team. Make a list:

One reason group work is common in UK universities is because it helps develop skills that can be transferred to the working world – what we call **transferable skills**, or **employability skills**.

How many of the skills you have listed will be good skills to have in the world of work?

3

Task 3: strategies for dealing with problems in group work



How do you feel about working in a group?

List the potential problems and their possible solutions:

problems that can arise when working in a group	some solutions to these problems

Task 4: Forming your group

For the project you will need to work in groups of 3 or 4 and all group members should be going on to study on a similar degree. You should now form your group

3

Appendix IV – Focus group interviews

Focus Group Interview Questions

1. Did you enjoy completing the IMRaD intervention components? Why/why not?
2. Which component did you like the most? Explain.
3. Which component did you like the least? Explain.
4. Which component did you find the most useful? Explain.
5. Which component did you find the least useful? Explain.
6. What do you think is the main thing you have learnt from doing the IMRaD intervention?
7. Do you think doing the IMRaD intervention has had a positive or negative effect on your academic performance? Explain.
8. Do you have any suggestions on how the IMRaD intervention could be improved?
9. Did you feel motivated to complete the IMRaD intervention? Why/why not?
10. What motivated you during the IMRaD intervention? What would motivate you to participate in the activities more?
11. Did you have any problems or difficulties completing the IMRaD intervention? Explain.
12. Would you like to continue using your electronic portfolio? Why/why not?
13. Would you recommend the intervention components or electronic portfolio to other students? Why/why not?

Appendix V – Teacher feedback survey

IMRaD Intervention Programme Teacher Feedback Survey

1. Were there any intervention components you did not present to your students? If so, can you explain why?
2. Which intervention components do you think worked well in the classroom? Explain why.
3. Which intervention components do you think did not work well in the classroom? Explain why.
4. Did the IMRaD Intervention programme complement your teaching? Why/why not?
5. Do you think the IMRaD Intervention programme had any effect on students' motivation? Why/why not?
6. Do you think the IMRaD Intervention programme had any effect on SRL? Why/why not?
7. Do you have any suggestions on how the IMRaD Intervention programme could be improved?
8. Please describe any problems or difficulties you had imparting the IMRaD Intervention programme.
9. Would you use any of the intervention components or the electronic portfolio again in your teaching? Why/why not?

Appendix V – EAP Summative Assessment Criteria

UoN Speaking Summative Assessment Criteria



EAP PEP marking criteria SLED Student name & number: date:

	Delivery	Content	Use of sources	Pronunciation	Grammar – accuracy and range	Vocabulary – accuracy and range
A	<input type="checkbox"/> Is delivery very good? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the argument clear and logical?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker fully develop/ analyse the topic/data? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the SLED an entirely relevant response to the task?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker make full use of appropriate sources?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the speaker's pronunciation clear?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is grammar use mostly accurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there an attempt to use a wide range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is vocabulary use mostly accurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a wide range of appropriate vocabulary?
B	<input type="checkbox"/> Is delivery good? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the argument generally clear and logical, despite some minor inconsistencies?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker develop/ analyse the topic/data well? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the SLED largely relevant in response to the task?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker make good use of appropriate sources?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the speaker's pronunciation largely accurate? (sound level errors)	<input type="checkbox"/> Is grammar use largely accurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there an attempt to use a good range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is vocabulary use largely accurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a good range of appropriate vocabulary?
C	<input type="checkbox"/> Is delivery adequate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the argument adequate in terms of clarity and logic?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker adequately develop/ analyse the topic/data? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the SLED an adequate response to the task?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker make adequate use of appropriate sources?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the speaker's pronunciation accurate enough to be understood for the majority of the time? (occasional patches are unclear)	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in grammar use that do not significantly impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there an adequate range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in vocabulary use that do not significantly impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there an adequate range of appropriate vocabulary?
D	<input type="checkbox"/> Are some elements of delivery inadequate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the argument often unclear and not entirely logical?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker make a limited attempt to develop/ analyse the topic/data with limited success? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the SLED a limited response to the task?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker make occasional use of appropriate sources?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the speaker's pronunciation accurate enough to be understood some of the time?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in grammar use that can impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a limited range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in vocabulary use that can impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a limited range of appropriate vocabulary?
F+	<input type="checkbox"/> Are most elements of delivery inadequate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the argument illogical and difficult to follow?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker make a basic attempt to develop/ analyse the topic/data? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the SLED a basic response to the task?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker not use appropriate sources?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the speaker's pronunciation inaccurate enough to cause severe strain for the listener?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in grammar use that often impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a basic range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in vocabulary use that often impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a basic range of vocabulary?
F	<input type="checkbox"/> Is delivery very poor? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there no discernible argument?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker fail to develop/analyse the topic/data? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the SLED entirely irrelevant in response to the task?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the speaker make no use of sources?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the speaker's pronunciation so inaccurate that they cannot be followed?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is grammar use largely inaccurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there no discernible use of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is vocabulary use largely inaccurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there no control of vocabulary?



EAP PEP marking criteria SLED Student name & number: date:

Undergraduate Numeric Grade	Letter Grade
90	A+
78	A
73	A-
68	B+
65	B
61	B-
58	C+
55	C
51	C-
48	D+
45	D
41	D-
38	F+
27	F
13	F-
4	ZZ
3	LG
2	NG
1	AG
0	G

UoN Writing Summative Assessment Criteria



EAP PEP marking criteria WRITING

Student name:.....

date:

	Task response	Criticality (thought)	Use of sources	Organisation	Grammar – accuracy and range	Vocabulary – accuracy and range
A	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the answer entirely relevant in response? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the genre entirely appropriate?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is there strong evidence of the ability to critically evaluate arguments/ assumptions/ data? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer offer a convincing stance on the topic?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer make full use of appropriate sources? <input type="checkbox"/> Are referencing conventions followed?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are paragraphs mostly developed in a logical manner? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer accurately use a range of cohesive devices?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is grammar use mostly accurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there an attempt to use a wide range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is vocabulary use mostly accurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a wide range of appropriate vocabulary?
B	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the answer largely relevant in response? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the genre appropriate?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is there good evidence of the ability to critically evaluate arguments/ assumptions/ data? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer offer a visible stance on the topic?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer make good use of appropriate sources? <input type="checkbox"/> Are referencing conventions largely followed?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are paragraphs largely developed in a logical manner? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a largely accurate range of cohesive devices?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is grammar use largely accurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there an attempt to use a good range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is vocabulary use largely accurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a good range of appropriate vocabulary?
C	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the answer an adequate response? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the genre largely appropriate?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is there adequate evidence of the ability to critically evaluate arguments/ assumptions/ data? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer offer a stance on the topic though not sustained?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer make adequate use of appropriate sources? <input type="checkbox"/> Are referencing conventions followed adequately?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are paragraphs adequately developed? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer use an adequate range of cohesive devices?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in grammar use that do not significantly impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there an adequate range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in vocabulary use that do not significantly impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there an adequate range of appropriate vocabulary?
D	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the answer a limited response? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the genre appropriate with some inconsistencies?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is there limited evidence of the ability to critically evaluate arguments/ assumptions/ data? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer offer a limited stance on the topic?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer make limited use of appropriate sources? <input type="checkbox"/> Are referencing conventions followed to a limited extent?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there problems with paragraph development? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer use a limited range of cohesive devices?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in grammar use that can impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a limited range of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in vocabulary use that can impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a limited range of appropriate vocabulary?
F+	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the answer a basic response? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the genre often inappropriate?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is there basic evidence of the ability to critically evaluate arguments/ assumptions/ data? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer offer a confused stance on the topic?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer make basic use of appropriate sources? <input type="checkbox"/> Is referencing attempted but no conventions visible?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there significant problems with paragraph development? <input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer use basic cohesive devices repetitiously?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in grammar use that often impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a basic use of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there errors in vocabulary use that often impede communication? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there a basic range of vocabulary?
F	<input type="checkbox"/> Is the answer an irrelevant response? <input type="checkbox"/> Is the genre entirely inappropriate?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is there no evidence of the ability to critically evaluate arguments/ assumptions/ data? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there no stance on the topic?	<input type="checkbox"/> Does the writer not use appropriate sources? <input type="checkbox"/> Is referencing not attempted?	<input type="checkbox"/> Are there no signs of paragraph development? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there no use of cohesive devices?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is grammar use largely inaccurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there no discernable use of sentence structures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Is vocabulary use largely inaccurate? <input type="checkbox"/> Is there no control of vocabulary?



EAP PEP marking criteria WRITING

Student name:.....

date:

Total score	<p>Tutor comments</p> <p>Strengths:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 2. <p>Areas to improve:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 2. <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; margin-left: 10px;"></div>
	<p>Tutor comments – Moderator</p>

UoN Reading and Listening Summative Assessment Criteria



Reading Blog CRITERIA



Listening Log CRITERIA

The focus of the reading blog should be current events related to your discipline.

The focus of the listening log should be academic.

Marks*:	A	B	C	D	F+	F
	Excellent	Good	Adequate	Limited	Basic	Not adequate
Accuracy of bibliographic detail	No mark just comments					
Informative summary						
Depth of comment/ evaluation						
Awareness of reliability						

Marks*:	A	B	C	D	F+	F
	Excellent	Good	Adequate	Limited	Basic	Not adequate
Accuracy of bibliographic detail	No mark just comments					
Informative summary						
Reaction						
Evaluation						

How to improve:

How to improve:

*Marks explained:

- D on the criteria is equivalent to IELTS 5.5 (pass for UNIC UGs **NOT** for UoN UGs)
- C on the criteria is equivalent to IELTS 6.0 (pass for UoN UGS and UNIC PGs)
- B on the criteria is equivalent to IELTS 6.5 (pass for UoN PGTs)
- A on the criteria is equivalent to IELTS 7.0 (pass for UoN PGRs)

*Marks explained:

- D on the criteria is equivalent to IELTS 5.5 (pass for UNIC UGs **NOT** for UoN UGs)
- C on the criteria is equivalent to IELTS 6.0 (pass for UoN UGS and UNIC PGs)
- B on the criteria is equivalent to IELTS 6.5 (pass for UoN PGTs)
- A on the criteria is equivalent to IELTS 7.0 (pass for UoN PGRs)