The Impact of the Communicative Classroom: Communicative teaching methods and their impact on Key Stage 3 learners' self-efficacy and motivation in the Modern Foreign Language productive skills

Henry Carr

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Abstract

In response to concerns around student engagement with productive tasks in Modern Foreign Languages (MFL), this investigation looks into the impact of three communicative teaching methods on the motivation and self-efficacy of Year 8 learners of French in an inner-city state school. The research aims to identify inclusive teaching methods to enhance engagement in the productive skills. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is identified as an approach to look into to achieve this (Mitchell, 1993). Literature reviewed from pedagogical and psychological domains demonstrated the positive impact of increased motivation and self-efficacy and how this might be achieved through a communicative classroom approach. The literature influenced the intervention choices with understandings around motivation and self-efficacy and their relationship with Communicative Language Teaching. The research questions focus on understanding the relationship between CLT, motivation and self-efficacy in language learning. A mixed-method approach is proposed. Student interviews, surveys, task results and classroom observations are planned to take place around a two-phase intervention. The proposed first phase employed three different communicative methods adapted from understandings taken from the literature reviewed: target language use (Christie, 2016), task-based learning (Mutton and Woore, 2014) and flipped learning (Bergmann and Sams, 2007). The two most positively impactful of these methods are then to be combined to create a fourth intervention. A baseline data collection was conducted with the research sample (N=12) through a Likert-scale questionnaire and an interview with participants. Statistical analysis is employed to analyse the motivation and self-efficacy levels of the students. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then used to note any significant difference between lower- and higher- attaining students. Research was interrupted by the *COVID*-19 pandemic. The investigation is therefore, in part, a proposal for future research. The evaluation criteria of post-intervention data taken from questionnaires, interviews, task data and observation notes are presented, but interventions and further data collection to the baseline did not take place. While data collection was interrupted, pedagogical reflections and implications for further research allow the project to remain valuable to professional development.

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1 Introduction

1.1 Context

The rationale for the study stems from both professional experience as well as research context. I noticed an ongoing trend of students not completing productive tasks or doing so with language irrelevant to the task set. Often, the language would be from the first few terms of Year 7, perhaps due to the smaller cognitive load at that stage, where self-efficacy is higher, and learners are more comfortable given there is less language to be used. This was particularly evident in productive skill exam papers. Several interventions, including teaching different learning strategies, spiralling language and increased skill practice, had not resulted in substantial positive change. Therefore, it seems necessary to engage with a more formalised and informed teaching approach to address this issue. Moreover, previous research within the department found that linguistic and cultural backgrounds can influence motivation in the languages classroom, and agreed with the assertion made in Dörnyei and Ushioda that teaching must take all learner contexts into account (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009). Therefore, given the context, and the previous research, it seems appropriate to look into an inclusive teaching approach which can positively impact motivation and self-efficacy, with a focus on productive skills, for all students.

The school in which the study takes place is an all-boys foundation school in Central London. The school is small and, including the co-educational sixth form, has just over 650 students on roll where 49.1% of students have been eligible for free school meals (FSM) at some time during the past six years (21.4% above the national average). The school has a very low entry percentile for English Baccalaureate (EBacc) (Department for Education, 2019) entries at GCSE at just 18% (30% lower than the local authority average and 22% lower than the average for England) for the 2018/19 academic year and this is due to the lack of uptake in MFL rather than in other EBacc subjects. This lack of uptake is akin to reported national trends given that ‘pupils in schools with an above average FSM tend not to choose languages’ (Collen, 2020).

Year 8, the middle of Key Stage (KS) 3, are chosen as a research group in this project as this way the research to take place with learners who have experience of L2 learning who have not yet decided to take MFL for GCSE, which means their motivation for this subject is malleable. Such background is important because the study is concerned with understanding what teaching methods might enhance student motivation and self-efficacy.

The school context also promotes a look into the differences between higher- and lower- attaining learners given significant gaps in both subject uptake and attainment between these groups. No lower-attaining learners took a modern foreign language (MFL) in 2018/19 but there was an uptake of 29% among higher-attaining learners. While uptake may include some native speakers wishing to take their home language for GCSE, this is nonetheless a gap which requires action. Although the absence of any lower-attaining students means attainment comparison is not possible within MFL, entries in all subjects in the same year saw a 58.8% gap between the groups in attainment of grades between 9 and 5 (including A*-C where appropriate). Where that same analysis is brought to Year 8, 100% of lower-attaining French learners are below their target grade, which is calculated from primary school data at the point of entry at secondary school, while higher-attaining learners are only 14% below the target, with 45% above. There are limitations within this Year 8 data as the year group has one native French-speaking student studying French, but even with this individual student excluded in the analysis, the gap is still very much present. It should be noted here that the school thresholds through which lower- and higher- attaining groups are determined are available at Appendix B. In the pursuit of an inclusive classroom, this gap raises an important research implication to look into impacts on lower- and higher- attaining students.

1.2 Revisiting Communicative Language Teaching

Issues within classroom practice have led the study to focus on understanding teaching approaches which consider motivation and self-efficacy. Amongst many others, one fundamental goal within foreign language (L2) education is ‘to communicate in the target language’ (Pachler

et al., 2013, p.25)- and thus develop productive skills. Given this central purpose, L2 pedagogical progress has led research to promote communicative competence which, in turn, led to the development of the communicative classroom. What became known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) developed a challenging discourse as definitions in the approach became unclear (Pachler, 2000). While this has not stopped communicative teaching being central to successful language teaching, particularly with spontaneous communication now being crucial throughout the English National Curriculum for languages (Department for Education, 2013, 2015), classrooms have seen the communicative classroom fade and due to misunderstandings (often around grammar), discipline issues, as well as course content constraints, teachers have been inhibited in their communicative practice.

This study presents research to take place within the classroom to understand impacts arising from communicative practice. I will carry out a review of literature existing within the relevant fields to reveal understandings around productive skill motivation and self-efficacy within L2 learning before moving on to collate theory around how these behaviours might perform with positive effect within the CLT approach. The primary issue for the present study is to determine whether there is an impact on motivation and self-efficacy within the communicative classroom and this will lead into a secondary understanding around impacts on language proficiency also. Having drawn on the literature to ascertain those understandings, I will then establish the study's research questions which will lead into the methodological framework within which the study might take place. Considered also will be the limitations and ethical considerations of the research, including the limitations and interruption after lockdown due to the COVID-19 pandemic (details on which are covered later at 3.5), because of which the project is, in part, a proposal based on some baseline, pre-intervention data, as presented in Chapter 4. Finally, an evaluation of completed research takes place in order to arrive at resulting pedagogical reflections and future research implications.

1.3 Collaborative Research

As practitioner research, an important outcome is that the project is developmental at a professional level. Ensuring the project provided opportunity to engage in conversations and work with other teachers was therefore of 'paramount importance for the success of [the] project' (Koshy, 2010, p.45). Therefore, the project employs collaboration in two ways. Firstly, a collaborator was sought in the school to carry out observations and take notes to supplement findings by providing additional data and perspective. The observer also contributed to the methodological framework and to some extent proposed outcomes through open discussion about the fieldwork schedule and teacher experience. This collaboration involved a cross-curricular partnership given the observer is a teacher of History in the school and therefore conversations about the project may have influence on teaching outside of MFL curriculum.

Second, and perhaps more important still, is that we might help bridge 'epistemic divides between academics and practitioners' (Christianakis, 2010, p.111), and ensure appropriate dissemination of the study and its implications. This is done at two levels: within the MFL department and school wide. In the first instance, points of interest are shared from the literature and discussion around research designs within department. Then, initial thoughts around the study were shared through a poster (Appendix A). Originally designed for dissemination of ideas with course peers, the poster was then shared with colleagues at school online to share research progress. The study's conclusions and implications were also shared with the school to help the development of practice and ensure the research has an appropriate practical impact. This impact is widened still as I am teaching in another school in the next academic year where it will be possible to share the research and influence classroom practice further.

2 Literature Review

The literature sampled and reviewed principally spans four decades from the 1970s onwards, which allows for a developmental perspective over key research fields. This section looks broadly at second language (L2) learning rather than focusing exclusively on learning French, as is the

concern of this study. Through this, a better understanding of the key issues within learner motivation and self-efficacy influences and their potential relationship with CLT methods when learners are faced with the productive skills is obtained.

This review presents trends within the field of research most relevant to the present inquiry, building on understandings around motivation from the author's previous work and bringing in understandings of self-efficacy in order to ascertain their manifestations within education at large and then the MFL productive skills. My previous research has looked into the relationship between learner background and their motivation to study MFL- picking up on the influence language backgrounds can have on individual learners and on the classroom collective. That research highlighted that certain backgrounds, most notably Latin American in that sample, can influence student motivation to achieve and become competent in a foreign language. The conclusions agreed with an assertion from Ushioda (2009) whereby practitioners are advised to look at the individual as a whole when looking at learner motivation. It is through this understanding that various motivational viewpoints around the learner are reviewed and self-efficacy is added to better understand ways in which we can investigate the impact of CLT on learner motivation and self-efficacy with a focus on their relationship within productive skills. The focus then shifts from motivation and self-efficacy towards an understanding of CLT, its origins and how it can affect learners' productive skills. The review brings perspectives around motivation and self-efficacy alongside those of CLT to understand the relationships between them.

2.1 What affects motivation in the MFL classroom?

Conceptualising motivation into frameworks or theories is a notably problematic task as evidenced in the numerous and differing offerings that have been made over the past four decades, which, incidentally, have seen a particular surge over the past decade (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). However, motivation is seen as a 'complicated beast' (Boxer, 2019, p.1), so it is important to establish the lens through which we will review. What follows works through an

understanding from Weiner that motivation is a process: 'Motivation is the study of the determinants of thought and action- it addresses *why* behaviour is initiated, persists, and stops, as well as what choices are made' (Weiner, cited in Graham, 2014, p. 174). Considering Weiner's emphasis, though, it is a process within which we must consider affective influences. When reflecting on our own motivation, we are unlikely to question that motivation can be borne out of a learner's personal likes and dislikes (Dörnyei, 2001) and emotional state (Macintyre and Vincze, 2017), but it is important to note other influences, such as value, learner goals, learner contexts and the influence of self.

2.1.1 Influence of Value

Value plays several roles in motivation and within these there are two key areas which are necessary to understand for the current project: learner's perceived value on the subject area and their value put on the expected outcome of specific tasks. Such evaluative perspectives have been seen as contributing to motivation through attitudes towards the learning situation (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993 cited in Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p.75). With regards to the value of the subject, considered here is the value of MFL from a learner's perspective as this plays an active role in motivation towards their learning. Graham notes that while motivation cannot be attributed solely to the value put on the learning, through a comparison with other subjects such as drama or physical education, she does explain that when learners consider a subject such as MFL as particularly difficult, the motivation for the subject decreases despite any value the subject might hold. Graham also features the fact that, if a learner does not value the subject as they might other subjects due to the difficulty level, then there are other, social factors which will affect perceived value. In a context where being intelligent or smart is not held in high regard, choosing a more challenging subject may affect one's social image (Graham, 2014), and thus the value of the subject is changed. Dörnyei (2000) keeps the value a learner puts on the whole subject as paramount and he notes that value plays a significant role in motivational strategy. He says that a teacher must share their own reasons for holding the subject as valuable in order to transfer that

value to the learner. Whatever strategy we might bring into the classroom, then, we must consider its impact on value.

In order to be of personal value to learners, tasks and class discourse should come with a purpose the learner relates to and also one which they agree with- in other words it should agree with their wishes and desires (Dörnyei, 2003). We might look to the 'Score in French' Project (McCall, 2011) to see this in practice. By basing a curriculum on football, McCall was able to increase motivation for both boys and girls, allowing them to produce language in sensitively designed tasks where the learning was enjoyable as the context was kept relevant to the students. Sensitive design also meant all students could maintain a positive social image as McCall's principle aim was to strengthen perceived masculinity to balance motivation between girls and boys where the image, or value, on MFL was a feminine association. McCall's could be seen as a controversial project, as it assumes every learner must have some interest in football, but it is nonetheless a demonstration of the ways in which value can come into MFL classroom motivation.

Expectancy-value theory (EVT) is where value holds influence on motivation towards task choice and in maintaining that motivation to persevere through that task (Wigfield and Eccles, 2000). Wigfield and Eccles specify value in several concepts. They suggest for there to be value in the task, there needs to be a usefulness (particularly compared with other tasks or subjects), enjoyment and perceived importance. It is important to note that in understanding EVT and potential influences for the current study, Wigfield and Eccles previously identified contextual and organismic factors which might impact the motivational process coming through EVT (1994). In his taxonomy of motivational strategies Dörnyei (2001) includes the principles of EVT and focuses their power on initial motivation for a task, saying that teachers must increase the learner's expectancy of gaining something valuable (more specifically here: success) in order for initial motivations to be generated. He suggests six ways in which we might affect student expectations of success in order to make such an impact but summarises these into his motivational strategy where a teacher should ensure that learners 'receive sufficient preparation

and assistance', share success criteria so that learners 'know exactly what success in the task involves' and 'make sure that there are no serious obstacles to success' (Dörnyei, 2001, p.52). There is suggestion, then, that if we are to impact motivation, we must allow for variance in the value put on our subject, tasks and outcomes to play a role within any instructional intervention: sharing model answers, for example.

2.1.2 Influence of Goals

Expected outcomes as influencing motivation is also seen in terms of goals. Goal theories and their influence on motivation plays a key role in language learning (Lee and Bong, 2019; Rose et al., 2018) and so it is important to recognise the role of goals in any attempt to impact motivation in language learning. Gardner (Gardner, 2005, p.4) holds goals as central to motivation as an addition to a desire to achieve. It is through such an assertion that most theories of language learning motivations take goals into account (Kormos et al., 2011). There are two widely accepted goal theories in motivation literature; those concerned with goal setting and those concerned with achievement goals. In addition to these is goals associated with initial wishes and desires (Gardner, 1979; Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998). The theories were developed out of feelings of failure and what learners might use in order to push past that failure (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014). In goal-setting theories, the objective within a task or programme is to attain a specific standard. Motivation is often affected by the difficulty of the goal or the specificity of the goal- the more specific the goal, the more motivating it may be while the more difficult the goal, the less motivating this might be.

These theories each suggest that the goal needs to be an internalised process. Indeed, if we as practitioners were to make such a motivational influence external (through rewards) then the power of such influence might be dampened. Galloway et al. (2004) discuss this as contentious stating that a rewards system 'promotes a surface approach to learning where children attempt to maximise rewards at the expense of time and effort invested in learning' (Galloway et al., 2004, p.92) but contrast this: saying that superficial learning is not an inevitability. In classroom

practise, from what I have experienced in the MFL classroom, I am more inclined to agree with Galloway et al.'s first thought here. If we are to externalise the goal process through rewards, the focus turns to the rewards rather than the learning itself. Indeed, the compartmentalisation which has to take place for a rewards system to be clear cannot suit the nature of language learning given that progress occurs far more through the development of receptive and productive skills rather than segmented knowledge. This serves as a caution that impacting motivation through goal theories must be within the learning matter itself, rather than for any more superficial and disconnected reason.

In-practice frameworks suggest that most students, low and high attainers alike, find writing difficult and view it as something they have to persevere through in order to achieve the goal of passing an exam (Yavuz & Genç, 1998 in Erkan and Saban, 2011). Given the different influences involved in motivation, it is noticeable that motivation is multifaceted and complex, making it a challenging area of pedagogy to explore. It could be thought, then, that looking at a specific area of pedagogy, such as productive tasks, might be a way of understanding motivational styles with more focus. As has been noted, goal-related motivational theories have been assimilated into many theories and motivation towards the completion of a task. Through reference to what might be controlled within the learning process these processes are raised as the pre-actional stage, the actional stage and the post-actional stage (Kuhl cited in Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998). In the pre-actional stage, the learner must find the motivation to begin their task, here the production of language and there may be cognitive processes of goal or the desire to achieve. The actional stage, where motivation is maintained and protected, requires a commitment to the production of a message and a desire to complete the spoken or written language. Finally, in the motivational process, the learner enters the post-actional stage. In this third stage, the learner reflects on the task they have completed and retrospectively evaluates the activity. It is this reflection which will decide whether or not the learner is motivated to engage with such an activity again. It is necessary, therefore, to understand what how the learner's end goal develops and what they wish to achieve by a programme of study or an individual task.

2.1.3 Influence of Sociolinguistic Context

Calls to regard the sociolinguistic context of the learner, given its contribution to motivational behaviours, have been met with both theoretical and methodological research (Nolen et al., 2012; Sachdev and Bourhis, 2001). It is noted that sociolinguistic context as an influence has been easy to dismiss as 'minor 'local' specificities' (Lamb et al., 2020, p.225). However, it is worth analysing given 'motives and goals arise through the interaction of elements of the social system over time' (Nolen et al., 2011, p.113). For example, the sociolinguistic context has a profound influence in how the learner interacts with the 'socio-psychological situation' (Lamb et al., 2020, p.239) presented in the classroom, meaning understanding such an influence is 'crucial in any attempt at conceptualizing and intervening in matters of SLA [Second Language Acquisition] motivation' (Lamb et al., 2020, p.240). Certain sociolinguistic contexts can give particular value or goal to language study (Clément and Kruidenier, 1983). Within the influence of sociolinguistic context is a sea of research on languages which automatically have a value different to that of UK learners in the French classroom. A bilingual milieu, such as that which Gardner (1979) studies in Canada, will have different motivational consequences than for those in a monolingual milieu. Similarly, learners of a world language, such as English in the Zagreb Project (Djigunović, 2012) or Csizér and Dörnyei's (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005) study of L2 English learners in Hungary, may have different motivations to those who are learning languages other than English (LOTEs). In the UK and other anglophone countries there is a more unique situation and any language learning process sits 'in the shadow of Global English' (Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie, 2017, p.457). The monolingual-English-speaker in the anglophone languages classroom finds themselves learning a foreign language which does not have the same standing as their mother tongue (Csizér, 2019). This is in contrast to Gardner's (1979) learner of French in bilingual Canada or Dörnyei's (2005) learner of English where the use of their study may be far more apparent. Given the context in the United Kingdom does not allow for such apparent use for foreign language study, it would seem essential that we set goals clearly and give learners an understanding of why they would study a foreign language as the concurrent possession of global

English puts the motivational process at a disadvantage (Crystal, 2003; Henry, 2010, 2011). In pursuit of a solution, there is a call within the literature for additional research on motivational impacts on learning LOTEs. Ushioda, for example, calls for a shift in the language teaching approach to combat the impact of global English on LOTEs- specifically calling for a focus on highlighting advantages of 'translingual and transcultural competences and communication practices' (Ushioda, 2017, p.479). A teaching approach involving a focus on intercultural and interlingual competencies would, therefore, put the language learner in a similar context to Gardner's (1979) and Dörnyei's (2005) learner of English by equipping the LOTE with additional purpose.

2.1.4 Influence of Intrinsic Styles

Intrinsic motivation has the power to promote a motivation which maintains its own motivational system- without extra input. Ryan and Deci (2000) refer to autonomous motivation as self-regulated learning (SRL). This is a concept closely linked to the goal-related theories in 2.1.2 and originated in the field of educational psychology of the 1990s and has been developed to motivate 'passive students to initiate enduring cycles of learning' (Zimmerman, 2011, p.61). Self-regulation concerns learners who are motivated by their own reasons in spite of challenging contexts and generally it can be defined as learner's efforts to direct their *own* studies through setting their own 'goals, planning how to achieve them, monitoring the learning task, using learning strategies to solve problems, and evaluating their own performance' (Chamot, 2018, p.78) without cohesion. SRL maintains many influences including goals, interests, task value as well as outcome beliefs and more intrinsic factors. Control over such influences through interventions which impact 'students' preparation and initiation before learning, their effort and persistence during learning, and their satisfaction and strategic adaptation after learning' can 'significantly improve students' academic outcomes' (Zimmerman, 2011, p.61). How we might go about controlling such influences as those within SRL is an inquiry worth pursuing given its effectiveness (Chamot, 2018; Zimmerman, 2011) and there are various classroom interventions aimed at developing motivation through SRL enhancement which have been proposed to be

effective. Chamot (2018), for example, prepared five lesson phases in which learners were prepared for learning by organising learning objectives, asking essential questions about the topic and drawing attention to prior learning, before there was presentation and practice of new material. This was followed by the final two phases of self-evaluation where learners assess their own learning and expansion where learners 'apply the lesson to their own lives and personal backgrounds' (Chamot, 2018, p.82). Chamot calls for this to be applied in the classroom and given it is part of an effective practice to develop students' 'ability to engage in higher level thinking' (Chamot, 2018, p.79) and thus enhance skills.

Self-regulation is one of many intrinsic theories surrounding motivation. Despite such theories being initially 'numerous and diverse' (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p.86), some synthesis has been suggested more recently. An important concept when discussing the influence of self-systems is that selves must be viewed as 'moving pictures' rather than 'photographic stills' (Henry cited in Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p.93)- in other words, learners are constantly developing in their self-systems. The popularity of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) has been ascribed to its 'simplicity and adaptability to different contexts' (Csizér, 2019, p.87)- two important qualities when understanding how it might be brought into a teaching approach for a diverse classroom. Similar to the behavioural consequences which goal-related theories propose, the motivational framework proposed by Dörnyei (2009) gives a number of influences which need to be controlled or conditions which need to be put into place for the formation of a L2MSS. The framework in which the motivational self-functions, according to Dörnyei (2009), is where the future self is desired, different, detailed, plausible and contextually appropriate which is then activated through constant stimuli (routines, for example), strategy use (such as sub-goals) and through reminder of consequences around both success and failure.

Understanding personal factors to the system, such as the regular activation of self-relevant stimuli, clearly have implications for classroom intervention. In pursuit of this, it is useful to note frameworks within which all motivational influences can be represented. Dörnyei's (2009)

proposal is that the gap between the current self-image and the future self-image may decrease when the learner experiences progress. The necessary gap means that the ideal L2 'should not be regarded as comfortably within reach' (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p.92) and the closing of that regulates the motivational cycle. If during the process there is no closing of the gap, though, there is a possibility of 'bringing the goalpost nearer' (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p.94). This may not necessarily be an obvious move of goals though. For example, in activating positive future self-images, we minimise anxiety and other detrimental negative emotions (Macintyre and Vincze, 2017) around the social interaction (particularly in speaking) or social image and maintaining a relevant purpose, when learners obtain a self-regulated motivation there can be a secure motivational process for learners. Thorsen et al. (2020) found there to be a narrowing of the gap within higher attainers, while those lower attainers in the study (albeit the lower end of the study covered a relatively high grade of 7) held a more significant gap between current and ideal future selves. Their suggestion that this could be monitored to bring greater sensitivity to and 'fine-tune' motivational interventions (Thorsen et al., 2020, p.596) means teaching approaches must consider perspectives on future selves.

In pursuit of a sensitive application, perhaps it is wise to allow the process to come about more organically. Lamb (2017) identifies Mezei's 2014 study which found that motivational strategies in the classroom did not influence learner's motivation directly. It was rather activated through future selves, self-regulation and the use of goal-related motivations. Lamb uses this to suggest that teachers need to work with learner's self-regulatory capacity in order to positively influence motivation. The key principles which are emerging, though, suggest that we need to create a stable environment where we can make purpose clear, be sensitive to the context in which we teach (both that of learner mindset and socio-linguistic setting) and understand that motivation for learners is not fixed, but rather an evolving process. To this end, Dörnyei (2003) suggests that while expectancy of success affects motivation in the pre- actional stage, the actional stage is how a learner will complete the action or task. Dörnyei suggests ways in which we as teachers might influence motivation (Dörnyei, 2003, p.24) which will play into both speaking and writing.

Where an intervention ventures to impact the motivation of learners, while we must appreciate the impact of our teaching on the self-regulated learner, the learning must also be 'stimulating and enjoyable' and also allow learners to 'maintain a positive social image' (Dörnyei, 2001, p.29).

2.2 What are the principles which influence self-efficacy in the MFL classroom?

In the context of this inquiry, it is important to understand that self-efficacy is distinct from motivation as it is a representation of an individual's judgements of their capabilities to perform given actions or tasks (Schunk, 1991; Bandura, 1997). The discussion and review which follows here sees self-efficacy within academic context, rather than any other (Zimmerman, 2000). Self-efficacy is seen as significant in motivating lower-attaining learners in tasks of various difficulty levels (Margolis and McCabe, 2004; Schunk, 1991). Self-efficacy is also theorised as a good predictor of a person's willingness to attempt and take part in a task as well as an inclusive predictor of a learner's proficiency (Bandura, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000). Self-efficacy, at its origins, is defined as 'beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments' (Bandura, 1997, p.3). Bandura's (1995) identification of influences on self-efficacy are suited to formulating ideas around how self-efficacy might be affected. Any attempt at impacting self-efficacy must consider the feeling of competency (or mastery). Then the experiences of all learners, and how those experiences might interconnect, is considered as well as the ways in which we as teachers propose to lift self-efficacy. Finally, physiological factors, such as anxiety, are considered. While Bandura (1995) sets out this particular order of influence in his social cognitive theory through his order of variance potential on self-efficacy is used to structure the discussion, this is debated in research. It is maintained that mastery holds the most consistent variance. However, physiological states often follow, rather than social factors, social persuasion and physiological states (Won et al., 2017). Indeed, these influences have been adjusted and updates have been proposed over the past two decades. Nevertheless, they are noted to remain as indications to key factors which may impact self-efficacy and so are useful foundations on which to base understandings (Schunk and Usher,

2012). In light of such adjustments in variance order, the structure which follows begins with mastery and physiological states before moving on to discuss the social factors: vicarious experience and social persuasion.

If 'self-efficacy can positively influence the students to engage with academic circumstances which lead to better learning achievement' (Hadriana, 2020, p.35) then it is essential to understand potential influences on language self-efficacy before taking any measure to impact the skills involved (García Gutiérrez and Durán Narváez, 2018). Therefore, within each of the key influences on self-efficacy, understandings around the possible application of the theories to languages are discussed. It is from the origins of Bandura that self-efficacy is seen within language learning through Piniel and Csizér: 'self-efficacy beliefs can be said to refer to beliefs that one has the resources (a) in general, to learn a foreign language and reach a desired level of foreign language proficiency, and (b) more specifically, to perform foreign language related tasks successfully' (Piniel and Csizér, 2013, p.526). Such a language specific definition around self-efficacy will be useful in addition to the general understanding taken from Bandura (1997) as we move through the literature so as to gain an understanding of issues around self-efficacy and then applying those understandings to L2 learning.

2.2.1 Influence of Mastery

A resilient self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1997), is primarily built on the experience of success, which plays into a perception of mastery. If those successes come too easily, however, then self-efficacy is less resilient. Therefore, there needs to be an experience of mastery- whereby the learner feels they are persevering through difficulty in a situation and working towards success. Referred to as 'enactive mastery' (Bandura, 1997, p.80), the impact mastery experiences can have is often controlled through adapting learning so that, particularly in the case of struggling learners, learners might experience success (Margolis and Mccabe, 2006). A feeling of mastery has been seen to contribute in a significant way towards learner levels of self-efficacy and is controlled in the classroom through activities and how the teacher sets tasks. In a study

close to the context of this inquiry, Graham (2006) found that learners of French in the UK who had high self-efficacy, attributed their success and failure to their own levels of effort or use of strategies. For Graham, just as in Schunk and Rice (1987) as cited in Bandura, it was noted that an awareness of 'exercising better control over academic tasks' contributed towards efficacy beliefs rather than 'instruction in cognitive strategies and practice in applying them' (Bandura, 1997, p.80). In order to impact upon self-efficacy, learning must create a 'record of enactive mastery or performance' (Margolis and Mccabe, 2006, p.221) through which self-efficacy can be enhanced. Such guidance will need to be retained when considering impacts coming out of any teaching approach.

2.2.2 Influence of Physiological States

Bandura's identification that physiological states have a fourth impact on self-efficacy refers to the learner's feelings or emotional state before, during and after a task or activity (1997). Interpreting reactions to certain 'stressful or taxing situations as signs of vulnerability to dysfunction' (Bandura, 1997, p.106) lead to a decline in self-efficacy. For example, there is a large body of research showing a negative correlation between anxiety and learner self-efficacy within L2 learning (Erkan and Saban, 2011; Pajares, 2003; Hadriana, 2020; Mills et al., 2006).

Pajares (2003) and Pajares & Valiante (1996) suggest that if a student is unwilling to express him or herself in a skill, lacks confidence in his or her ability to write, or feels apprehensive, then the student is unlikely to be proficient. In a study looking into the writing self-efficacy of tertiary-level students learning English, Erkan and Saban (2011) found that writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy are negatively correlated. This was noted amongst all learners, both high and lower attaining, and the suggestion arising from the study is that practitioners must understand learner self-efficacy if they are to ever change outcomes. Pajares (2003) provides an overview of the relationship between self-efficacy and anxiety. He notes the Pajares and Valiante 2001 study where, when self-efficacy can be controlled, apprehension around writing might be nullified. Anxiety and apprehension are not the only physiological states to consider here but clearly, they

form part of an influence which a teaching approach must consider in an attempt to enhance self-efficacy within a skill.

2.2.3 Influence of Vicarious Experience

Where a learner makes a social comparison within failure or success, their own self-efficacy is affected. This influence is referred to as vicarious experience. By noticing another's success and effort in a task, our own self-efficacy towards that task will be affected (Bandura, 1994, p.3). Similar to mastery, the impact here may be controlled through teaching and also through an awareness of how learners interact.

Bandura (1997) suggests that vicarious experience of failure can negatively impact a learner's self-efficacy. Students with high academic self-efficacy are more likely to persist through difficulties and have less negativity when they were not more successful than students who had lower academic self-efficacy. Methods in which we might use failure to positively influence vicarious experience have been developed, though. Doug Lemov promotes the idea of a 'Culture of Error' whereby positivity is seen in error so that we might learn from failure (Lemov et al., 2016). If a teacher is able to maintain a classroom within which failure is seen with positivity, then perhaps the failure of others (or indeed oneself in the pursuit of mastery) might not have such a negative influence on self-efficacy. Indeed, rather than seeing failure as having a negative impact on self-efficacy, in Lemov et al. (2016) this can be seen as having a positive impact on self-efficacy.

Very often social similarities come between the vicarious experience of those within the same gender. While not as important a factor in this study, given the single-sex school context, the influence of gender difference within vicarious experience on self-efficacy has been widely studied (Pajares and Valiante, 2001; Pajares et al., 1999; Schunk and Pajares, 2002). However, gender-type similarities between individuals may be noted within one gender (Sunderland, 2000). Therefore, it is important for us to be aware that despite the present inquiry's single-sex setting,

the influence of gender on vicarious experience is still something to be aware of. It has been seen as possible to quash the effects of negative vicarious experience between gender though. Pajares & Valiante's (2001) found that gender differences interacting with task-specific self-efficacy can be nullified if gender orientation beliefs are controlled. Although we may be able to control the effects of gender, within self-efficacy it is worth noting that it may have an impact.

Given that the current study's context has many different ethnicities within the classroom, it could prove useful to understand the impact ethnicity may have. Schunk and Pajares (2002) give a good summary of how ethnicity can be seen as having an impact on self-efficacy. In their review, they take particular note of Graham's 1994 work where African American students show a positive self-belief despite any social or economic disadvantage. In pursuit of this, though, Schunk and Pajares hypothesise that, in spite of resilient self-belief, those of minority backgrounds may choose not to put their positive self-efficacy to use given that 'social and economic systems are prejudicial' (Schunk and Pajares, 2002, p.24) and within such a restriction, effort towards achievement may be considered redundant. In reference to Bandura's 1986 work and Schunk's own 1995 review, Schunk and Pajares (2002) identify that certain socio-economic conditions would deny them success, then even with a positive self-efficacy, any applied efforts could be deemed pointless. In contrast, a study of 12,030 participants in the American context, using a self-efficacy scale, Bondy et al. (2017) found that, despite all other variables being controlled, African American students still had a lower self-efficacy than their White American peers. Bondy et al.'s research is in contrast to the idea that 'the competence beliefs of African American students are as strong and often stronger than those of their white peers' (Schunk and Pajares, 2002, p.23). Whether the self-efficacy within ethnic groups is high or not, though, it will be important to consider where or not an increased self-efficacy would necessarily lead to an impact on the application of skill and it is worth considering this influence as potentially fatal to any potential outcome of an impact on self-beliefs. When harnessing the impact of vicarious experience, then, it is important to consider how the student population relate to one another in their experiences but also on what grounds such social observations might take place.

2.2.4 Influence of Social Persuasion

A third way in which we might strengthen self-efficacy, according to Bandura (1994), is through positive social persuasion. In our context, this means strengthening a learner's beliefs that 'they have what it takes to succeed' (Bandura, 1994, p.3). A positive message communicated from one with authority can, therefore, increase self-efficacy. However, it must be stressed here that the communicator of such messages must be perceived as credible as a significant interaction between the authority of the teacher and the self-efficacy impact of socially persuasive messages (Won et al., 2017). Bandura does warn, however, that such messages have to be accompanied by activities structured 'in ways that bring success and avoid placing people in situations prematurely where they are likely to fail often' (Bandura, 1994, p.3). Consequently, we must be careful to ensure any positive affirmations from teacher to learner are accompanied by an experience of success. Putting this into practice, Graham's 2006 study suggests that negative social persuasion, through a mention of telling a student they are low attaining, unsurprisingly has a very negative impact on their self-efficacy. In her qualitative study, Graham found that learners blamed their low self-efficacy on their low attainment and attributed failure to their previously confirmed ability. Further, social influence is also seen in the level of trust teachers put onto learners. Raoffi et al. (2012) cite Moghari et al. (2011) as using social persuasion to identify that putting trust in learners and those close to them (parents) has a positive impact on self-efficacy. Thus, what we say, as practitioners, is important here given its socially persuasive impact on learner self-beliefs.

The link which emerges from all these four aspects of self-efficacy is that we need to stress those recent success experiences from our development of mastery beliefs, and not past failures, we must understand that success experiences may be transferred to other students second-hand and, through social persuasion, we must recognise how we harness those understandings in what we say. In contrast to the self-originating influences of vicarious experience or mastery, social persuasion involves 'social agents that communicate efficacy-relevant information to the

individual in question' (Won et al., 2017, p.533). In what we communicate to learners, we need to be direct and specific in any positive praise, referring to memorable experiences or making positive comparisons where possible, but we also have to understand the manner in which we communicate positively impactful messages. Alongside encouraging students to try and stressing recent success, Margolis and McCabe (2006) point us to stress functional attribution statements. Assuming that success is a goal structure within which self-efficacy behaviour can work, they collate research to suggest we communicate the following: success is due to controllable factors, failure is due to short lives errors, such as a failure to make effort or failure to apply certain strategies, and failure is not due to permanent limitations. All of these must be communicated sensitively and, in the case of correcting lack of effort, without imperative reprimand (Schunk, 1991; Schunk and DiBenedetto, 2016), so that teaching approaches can better understand our interplay with learners and the discourse around tasks we set them.

2.3 How might CLT work with factors behind motivation and self-efficacy?

2.3.1 Defining CLT

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach employed to teach all the skills required to communicate through language: the receptive (listening, reading) and the productive (speaking, writing). The present study concerns the productive skills within tasks in the classroom rather than general language production, more on which can be seen in other works (Molway et al., 2020; Macaro, 1997; Christie, 2016). Speaking and writing are grouped together here as a way to refer to them both in a productive rather than procedural sense but that is not to say that language productivity is exclusive to these as listening and reading also have productive elements with regards to 'cognitive activity and meaning making' (Pachler et al., 2013, p.234). Nor is the term productive skills used here to deny that there are important differences between spoken and written language- 'writing, in other words, is not "written speech"' (Pachler et al., 2013, p.234).

CLT holds its origins in the concept of communicative competence as the central goal of language learning. The concept was formalised by Hymes (1972) who detailed that communicative competence was being able to pass a message on through the target language but specified that it also involves 'when to speak, when not and what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner' (Hymes, 1972, p.277). Communicative competence has been revisited since to focus the concept further in learning by dividing competence into four other competencies (linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategies) (Canale and Swain, 1980) but also in the language use of the native speaker (Hulstijin, 2007). Whether we look from the learner's perspective or that of the native speaker, we are faced with the fact that communicative competence is a key indicator to language proficiency (Savignon, 2017) and, if language proficiency in learners is an aim of foreign language teaching, as we have in the UK (Long and Danech, 2020, p.12) then it is worth basing teaching theories on.

It is through the common themes in defining communicative competence that communication as central to the language comprehension and production that CLT is conceptualised. CLT is not a neatly packaged or universally applicable method though- it is an approach through which communicative competence might be achieved, often seen in contrast to more traditional grammar-translation approaches (Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Natsir and Sanjaya, 2014). A useful framework within which we can understand communicative competence is offered by Berns (1990), as cited in Savignon (Savignon, 2002, p.6):

1. Language teaching is based on a view of language as communication. Language is a tool to communicate orally or in writing.
2. Diversity is recognised as part of language development.
3. Competence is considered in relative, not absolute, terms
4. More than one variety of language is recognised as a viable model for learning and teaching
5. Culture is instrumental in shaping speakers' communicative competence
6. No single methodology or techniques is prescribed

7. Language use is in skills: Ideational (expression of ideas), interpersonal (social) and textual (reading/ writing) - and a learner must develop each
8. Learners must be purposeful in all phases of learning

Berns (1990:104) in (Savignon, 2002, p.6)

From such principles, CLT activities which aim to bring about those ideals emerge. Pacher (2000) also suggests information-gap or problem solving activities to allow a sense of communicative competence to come about. Working from Canale (1983), Pachler also the suggests that our teaching must focus more on the longer production of language. Pachler invites these suggestions to be used in combination with other teaching styles but stipulates that those styles should be within a communicative framework. Such allowances insinuate that CLT is varied and fluid and has an 'eclectic nature' (Pachler, 2000, p.21). Frameworks range from guidelines (Canale, 1983) to taxonomies (Littlewood, 1981) to more practical paradigms (Mitchell, 1993). For this study it will be important to identify important concepts within key guidelines to work with in addressing the ways in which communicative classrooms can impact self-efficacy and motivation.

Two decades after Hymes, Mitchell (1993), perhaps with an awareness of Berns' (1990) eight principles, points to six main guidelines, which he defines as a broad assembly of ideas, from a range of sources (some linguistic, others more broadly educational), which, she claims, have come to be accepted as 'good practice' (1993, p.33). She divides this assembly of ideas into two halves, the first, based in language-specific pedagogy, and the second, on more general educational theories, to build into a communicative teaching style. For the language focus; target language use is maximised for communicative purpose, there is a tolerance of error during its use and it is prioritised over language analysis and grammar explanations. The more general instruction for teachers is then to be responsive to learner needs, for learners to engage in an active learning process to become responsible for their own learning and for the teacher to 'facilitate, not control' (Mitchell, 1993, p.39). Through these principles, there is a systematic use of creative role plays, projects, surveys and other interesting tasks within a classroom where the language of communication is the target language. Mitchell does add here that authenticity should

be regarded with perspective (given that sometimes there may not be a native speaker present for communicative tasks). Within this also, tasks are based around learner interests as well as learner creativity. There is also an expectation that learners take a responsibility of their own learning and their own progress. We might be cautious here, though, as where learning is child-led, here within creativity in tasks, researchers have warned about more academically rigorous learning then attention requiring direction from the teacher (Severs and Geary, 2020). With this caution in mind, it is important to ensure that CLT is built around a classroom where the teacher is a credible and trusted facilitator of learning. For example, within Mitchell's paradigm, a teacher will exert control over how error or difficulty is perceived, meaning a problem encountered with communication is to be exploited and should be seen as an opportunity to bring about coping strategies.

In exploring what Mitchell proposes above, her welcoming nature in discussion of errors or problems draws on important notions within the field of CLT approaches. This is mostly discussed within the parameters of the role of grammar in CLT. In guidelines described above, grammar does not feature in any particular form. This is because the focus comes away from the traditional language teaching methods, which involve a heavy focus on grammar and grammar-translation and moves towards a naturalistic acquisition of language. Updates within the field have, on the whole, agreed with Mitchell's paradigm. Richards (2006) brings those principles into a three point framework, within which he says are a way of building CLT into the classroom more easily. The first stage is *mechanical*, where language drill may form part of the activity. The second, *meaningful*, requires purpose to the task within the classroom context. Richards then gives specific attention to the building of communicative competence by adding the third point, *communicative*. Here language should be exchanged and used with a focus on bringing language into real conversation with unpredictable practices. While most activity sequences in a lesson will typically take students through the first of those three points, rarely do we prioritise the third (Richards, 2006, p.17). Like Mitchell, Richards proposes activity types which would match appropriately with CLT (information gap, opinion sharing activities, role plays etc.) but cites

Silbersteign (1977) and Widdowson (1987) to highlight that resources used should be authentic or at least be derived from authentic texts.

Research into CLT in many contexts, including in the UK, faded away in the 2000s as perceptions of the approach began to become confused and 'communicative teaching' began to lose real meaning (Harmer and Thornbury, 2013). Criticisms of CLT have included that lack of explicit instruction and correction could be a source of fossilised errors within the learner's language (Lightbown and Spada, 2013). However, where CLT views errors as less important is not to say that error is entirely disregarded- rather it views 'errors as an indication of learning progress and a basis on which to develop procedures which assist in improving those areas' (Brown, 2013, p.16). Furthermore, despite CLT's efforts to come away from the impersonal nature of audiolingual traditions and recognised that learners are 'humans with a predisposition to create their own language' (Macaro, 2001, p.2), critics pursued their disapproval at the lack of focus on explicit grammar teaching. Practical applications of CLT were challenging given a lack of consensus in the literature and an overly flexible interpretation. This resulted in CLT coming out of anecdotal understandings rather than understandings from academic literature (Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999). In the UK, Wingate describes how the National Curriculum for Modern Foreign Languages in the 1990s reinforced such misunderstandings by basing itself on a 'selective interpretation of pedagogical proposals' from original CLT discourse (Block, 2002, p.20).

If 'CLT refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning' (Savignon, 2002, p.1) then communicative language teaching methods (CLTMs) refer to adapted practical applications of the frameworks associated with the goal of communicative competence. During it's time in the 20th century, in spite of plurality in definitions, CLT was seen as a method in itself. However, where we refer to CLT for this inquiry, it is to reference the teaching approach it proposes, with an aim of communicative competence, and not to one singular teaching methodology (Savignon, 2017; 2007).

2.3.2 CLT and Motivation

It is important to ascertain how CLT relates to motivation in order for potentially successful communicative language teaching methods (CLTMs) to emerge. Within the field, there is harsh criticism implying that CLT has already failed to motivate language learners (Graham, 2014). However, within the definitions, it is clear there is motivational value within the methodology (Brown, 2013). There are two main ways in which we can view the motivational value of CLT. Firstly, how CLT fits within goal-related motivational theories and then how CLT can work within motivational process models. Throughout both of those analyses the influence of value and self will also be considered.

The latter part of the 1990s saw research into the motivational value of CLT based curriculum in UK MFL classrooms- revealing that there had been a negative impact (Chambers, 1999; Graham, 2002). Of course, this is not to say there is no motivational value in CLT. Indeed, given that the curriculum had been designed from a narrow understanding of the approach, the resulting low motivation seen in contemporary studies is to be attributed to the way CLT was employed and not CLT itself. Indeed, in further support of revisiting CLT, from EFL classrooms in Japan there are noted benefits for motivation (Sato, 2002; Shu-Hsiu, 2016).

Given CLT is principally built on the premise that communicative competence will be a goal, it is not surprising that there are many ways in which CLT can fit with goal-related motivational theories. A particularly good fit is at the origins of goal-related motivational theory, the first of Gardner and Lambert's goals, instrumental motivation (1972). A real sense of communication is important given that it has been observed that 'at best, teachers and learners communicate messages to each other, but do not communicate with each other' (Pachler, 2000, p.28). With communicative competence as CLT's goal however, there is a motivation which avoids any such danger. Students who want to learn French tend to hold communicative competence as a goal anyway, but it will be important for teachers to be establishing their classroom regime with

communicative competence as a goal so that useful and instrumental communication is obtainable. An issue here is that communicative competence may be seen as a sole aim- an end goal which is distant from the near-beginner learner. We might, then, need to build in sub-goals to allow for a more proximal purpose in order to provide more immediate support in motivation (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). It has been noted too that expectancy values may affect motivation and student expectations around the study of languages may also include errorless language production. CLT has a lesser focus on accuracy as the communication is the aim. However, in order to address such an expectation, and given error correction has been seen as motivating in itself (Schulz, 2001), it would be sensible to provide some clear control over error so that students do not have a false sense of correct language. Therefore, learning through error, and creating an atmosphere where error is welcome (Lemov et al., 2016), CLT can ensure there is a motivating journey towards the communicative competence goal.

Alongside goal-related motivational theories, CLT works within theoretical systems. Brown (2013) notes the motivational value of CLT within Dörnyei's taxonomy in Japan from the perspective of learners of English. While the UK might have a different context, in that we teach and learn LOTEs, there is still a similar relationship with CLT with regards to motivation. Brown states that CLT engages with all stages of Dörnyei's taxonomy. Firstly, CLT is designed to be based within the learner's own desires or wishes thus allowing for a sustained motivation through the preactional stage. Brown (2013) suggests that the next stage, the actional stage, could be problematic in CLT as the preservation of motivation will be the responsibility of the teacher. CLT is relatively unproductive at this stage, but nonetheless useful- only that the teacher must implement ways to sustain motivation. In CLT, purpose is maintained through activities which are genuine and authentic. Brown (2013) takes from Kormos & Cziser (2007) in saying that encounters with cultural products may help maintain a motivating authenticity to activities. In Dörnyei's final, postactional stage, which Brown calls retrospection, CLT remedies a seemingly deep-set problem in the UK context. For Dörnyei, students who have experienced failure which they attribute to their own ability will be reluctant to continue their study. Brown addresses this

warning that where this takes place the student may never pick up their learning again- something which is commonplace in the UK context (Tinsley, 2019). Brown uses Krashen (1981) to identify a strength in CLT that where learners receive the knowledge, or skill, as long as the next input is the level above, the learner should never feel incapable in the foreign language classroom. CLT is about the student participation, rather than the accuracy they achieve. Therefore, there is less focus on formal grading- and less focus on error, which should mean there are very few or not experiences of failure which they attribute to their own ability. CLT teachers focus instead on building strength in communicative competence and learner confidence to use the language to play into enhanced motivation.

2.3.3 CLT and Self-Efficacy

Learner self-efficacy for foreign language performance is impacted in different language domains (Raoofi et al., 2012) and it seems reasonable for such a relationship to be transferred to the classroom. At first glance, we may, therefore, be cautious to position our learners in a communicative classroom where the language is as all-encompassing to affect any communication as this may intimidate learners or negatively impact their self-efficacy.

However, in an effort to improve self-efficacy, there is reason to believe that CLT has a role to play. Given that CLT allows students to practice language in a space where all communication is the subject matter and where it is made clear that learners can progress through error, then self-efficacy is naturally enhanced. Schunk and Pajares (2002) note that, in addition to the enhancement of self-efficacy, 'lack of success or low progress will not necessarily lower self-efficacy and motivation if learners believe they can perform better by adjusting their approach' (p. 25). CLT's approach in the classroom ensures learners can experience mastery often and at differentiated levels during their learning. As it allows opportunities to return to activities and work through error, students are able to complete activities to a mastery level. This is made possible through what has been called a friendlier approach (Qaddoura and Almasradi, 2019) where learners can take their mastery experiences forward without obstacles found in more

traditional classrooms, such as negative physiological influence. For Graham (2006), self-efficacy was influenced directly and predominantly by a learner's feeling of mastery in the subject as a whole, rather than the task. Hsieh & Kang's (2010) study has since complemented these results with their findings that those with a higher self-efficacy made more personal attributions than those with lower self-efficacy, who tended to attribute their success or failure to external factors, such as the teacher. With such an understanding, the practical implications in the classroom have been seen to materialise through task setting in the classroom. Margolis and McCabe (2006) advise on planning 'moderately challenging tasks' (2006, p.220) where activities strike an appropriate balance between being too simple and overly complicated. Further advice is to ensure the task difficulty should not provoke a feeling of failure, but nor should it insight experience of being too basic. In practice, such advice may be difficult to achieve in every task, all the time given that the same task deemed as unchallenging to high-attainers would be perceived as too difficult for the unmotivated. However, if a teaching method can allow for enough such experiences, then the influence of mastery on self-efficacy may be agreeably positive.

Given the nature of the teacher in communicative classrooms as a facilitator of learning, the encouragement a teacher gives is through traditional feedback as well as their demonstration of understanding of learner messages. A feeling of being understood has a positive effect on learner self-beliefs (Voelkl, 1995), making this additional socially persuasive technique which CLT allows for is potentially very powerful in affecting self-efficacy. The relationship between the comfortable nature of a CLT classroom and physiological states is another area in which CLT might positively affect self-efficacy. In the classroom, learners' own ways of reducing 'stressful or taxing situations' (Bandura, 1997, p.106) might manifest themselves with the learner disengagement or disruption of the lesson (Margolis and Mccabe, 2006, p.220). Research, however, looks at more appropriate ways of reducing such apprehension. There have been suggestions to perhaps use relaxation techniques as a strategy, and even to involve a counsellor to help reduce anxieties (Margolis and Mccabe, 2006). However, suggestions in the field and

within experience both suggest that anxiety is better reduced through the sensitive control of the classroom. Bandura (1994, p.91) indicates that anxiety and other negative thought processes will come from threatening or panic inducing circumstances. Therefore, provided there are strategies within the teaching methods used which can block such an environment, physiological influences on self-efficacy should be manageable.

Where learners see communicative competence arising within others, then their self-efficacy around competency may increase. There are allusions that self-efficacy is positively impacted by CLT. Indeed, Hashimoto's 2002 claim, cited in Wang & Pape (2007), shows that language anxiety reduces perceived communicative competence in learners. The positive relationship is principally through a reduction of anxiety and a feeling of comfort but also because it provides an environment where experience of relative mastery is possible. Further to this CLT may have an interesting relationship with vicarious experience. Pair-work activities are often involve and to see another learner using the language will help build confidence in a learner's own use - this is predominantly in speaking, but there is no reason why this couldn't be with writing also in activities such as *continue the story* where everyone has to use the language together.

2.4 What are the arising pedagogical approaches which promote motivation and self-efficacy within CLT?

Our discussion turns here to how we might come to designing practical methods out of the motivating and self-efficacious aspects of CLT. These are referred to as communicative language teaching methods (CLTMs), so as to distinguish these practicalities from the approach that has foregrounded their proposed designs. Research into such designs has shown that we need to be cautious to ensure these are not tokenistic and do in fact bring methods which have an impact on motivation and self-efficacy while staying as true as possible to the CLT approach. Wingate (2018), for example, found in her observations of fifteen lessons in KS3 German, Spanish and French that activities were often teacher-led and tightly controlled meaning little communicative exploration for learners. Where traces of CLTMs were present, these were 'purely for the practice

of grammar and vocabulary' or sometimes 'for no clear purpose at all' (Wingate, 2018, p.452). To ensure links are secure, each CLTM is first contextualised within the background of CLT, principally drawing on ideas brought forward in Mitchell (1993), and any motivational and self-efficacy links before synthesising how the CLTMs are designed within research.

2.4.1 Target Language

Within CLT literature, there are frequent references to classroom use of the L2, or target language (as seen in Mitchell (1993), for example). Mitchell (1993) points to target language use in the first half of her assembly of ideas. Firstly where the target language is to be used 'for meaningful purposes' (Mitchell, 1993, p.38), then where she points out that learners should not worry about errors in their target language use and finally where she highlights that target language is key to an inclusive classroom. Suggested by Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education) as an aid to communication (OFSTED, 2013) and by government policy as important within the classroom (Long and Danech, 2020), target language use in the classroom has also been seen as motivating (Chambers, 2013). It is important that attention be paid to issues around target language and anxiety, however. There are issues around target language and self-image which may result in a low willingness to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Furthermore target language use can bring rise to anxiety (Horwitz, 1986). However, research suggests, in spite of limitations, it is well suited to impact self-efficacy also as learners can see 'the immediate and personal applications of the foreign language' and 'can speak for themselves' (Christie, 2016, p.75), perhaps because 'it is unlikely that [learners] would have felt like producing their own language if the teachers did not do so themselves in class' (Crichton, 2009, p.32). The suggested impact on mastery as well as physiological state seems particularly strong here. Given this apparent suitability, it seems prudent to identify target language use in the classroom as a key CLTM.

Target language is practised in the classroom in a variety of ways- and these are sometimes at odds with each other (Macaro, 2000). While there is often the perception that the target language should be used at the exclusion of L1 use so as to activate more communicative contexts, there

are also situations where teachers have felt using the L1 beneficial within target language use (Macaro, 2000), although these can sometimes lead to situations such as that in the UK where the L1 is used much more than in other contexts (Molway et al., 2020). Exclusive use of target language might not be the answer, however (Macaro, 1997; Levine, 2003; Christie, 2013) and there is an argument to use target language only for communicative purposes to ensure it is still part of CLT and we might make that key vocabulary part of the key language to make sure it is picked up 'incidentally' *and* 'deliberately' (Juan-Garau and Salazar-Noguera, 2014, p.1). With such debate, though, an ideal balance needs to be identified for target language to be used in a communicative classroom.

Studies have concluded that the target language should be used for between 80-90% of all communication within the classroom (Macaro et al., 2016). Further to this, in previous studies, when CLT has been put into practice in the past, target language use has been seen as 'alterable, on the initiative of the individual teacher' (Mitchell, 1988, p.166). For target language to be of use, according to CLT we need to create opportunities for the target language to be used to cement the communicative aim (so that there may be experiences of mastery as well as to engage in the purpose). Proposed methods of creating such opportunities include the University of Cumbria approach where songs, mimes and competitive activities typically feature in lessons alongside each other (Christie, 2011). The use of routines is key within this approach and, in order to create a 'target language lifestyle', Christie later suggested two tools: *target language management* and *context management* (Christie, 2016) which he discusses within the context of spontaneous speaking. The first of the tools ensures that learners have the target language forms available to them so that they can use the target language -thus avoiding frustration. Similar to the non-error-focussed ideal within CLT, this tool would also propose to encourage experimental target language use meaning accuracy can 'be sacrificed at times if the focus is purely on the efficient communication of a message' (Christie, 2016, p.86). The second tool allows for space for the target language to be used- the creation of appropriate language use opportunities. Such tools, in combination with an awareness of the impacts on motivation and self-efficacy, suggest how

target language might be conceptualised into a CLTM. A suggestion here would be to take forward the essential questions, or patterns, in the target language, as suggested by Chamot (2018), so as to prepare the self-regulated learner's motivational system and provide opportunities for both mastery and vicarious experience.

2.4.2 Task-Based Learning

For Mitchell (1993) task-based teaching also seems to fit with CLT. Task completion is important (provided errors are allowed to remain transient) and the learner needs to be involved in an active process. It is within such parallels that Littlewood (2004) says that task-based learning is in fact a development which is part of the communicative approach and why we see interrelations between task-based learning and CLT in research and discussion (Mutton and Woore, 2014; Ellis, 2017; Riyana Sari et al., 2018). For CLT more specifically, we might look more towards Ellis's 'unfocused' tasks (Ellis, 2009) where tasks allow for communicative production rather than focused tasks which provide the practice of a specific linguistic feature, although these would not be excluded entirely within CLT. If we are to impact the motivation and self-efficacy of learners, though, we must be mindful of some limitations in task-based learning. We should avoid certain demotivating task-types; Mutton and Woore (2014) cite Erler and Macaro (2011) as highlighting the frustration of print-to-sound tasks, for example. Similarly, topics which tasks address need to be at one with the learner desires, which can be challenging given syllabus constraints (Ellis, 2019). However, if we ensure that there is choice *within* the prescribed topics, then we might be able to alter the motivation (Beglar and Hunt, 2011), as McCall (2011) found. Similarly, the topic should be presented with regard to authentic material, as mentioned in Mitchell's CLT ideas (1993) and also given this can have a motivational impact (Richards, 2006; Richards and Rodgers, 2010). Tasks should also be presented with an appropriate level of difficulty (Beglar and Hunt, 2011) so as not to discourage and so all may experience mastery at the right level for a more positive self-efficacy. A synthesis of how to bring such elements as those discussed together has been brought forward by Mutton and Woore (2014, p.139) whereby we must understand what the learner brings to a task, bring an appropriate task demand as well

as teacher response to learner's engagement in the task so that we can achieve the learning outcomes. As with target language, this too allows for an incorporation of Chamot's (2018) design in promotion of self-regulation as it similarly brings those elements together. To bring task-based learning forward as a CLTM, then, through a dialogical approach such as that presented by Mutton and Woore (2014), we are in a position to design motivating tasks for the communicative classroom. Just as proposed in Mutton and Woore (2014), the task design will consider desirable outcomes, prior language learned and required language to design an appropriately challenging task to engage learners appropriately.

2.4.3 Flipped Learning

Bringing a meaningful purpose to the classroom is also mentioned as key to CLT- just as it is clearly important to motivation. Making all learning purposeful, then, will be important in conceptualising into any CLTM. While target language provides this, ideas mentioned by Mitchell (1993) in the second half of her assembly, include ensuring learners are responsible for their learning but also seeing the teacher as the facilitator or guide through the programme rather than the central control over the classroom learning. Flipped learning (Bergmann and Sams, 2007; Lage et al., 2000) has emerged as an approach which integrates those CLT ideas alongside motivational and self-efficacy gains. Bergman and Sams's approach is defined as 'preliminary information outside of the classroom is given to the learners and they utilize class time to construct their knowledge foundation' (Namaziandost and Çakmak, 2020, p.2). Namaziandost and Çakmak's (2020) empirical study found that flipped learning had a positive effect on learner self-beliefs when compared to traditional classrooms. While they understand there could have been interference with this from the classroom activity types, the results are nevertheless indicative of how useful flipped learning methods, such as active learning leading into pair and group discussion on the flipped content, may be when trying to affect self-efficacy within CLT. Further to this, learners are given responsibility over their own learning of the flipped content alongside the increased purpose in the learning material as it will be used in the following lesson. Viewed within the context of Raoofi et al.'s (2012) citation of Moghari et al. (2011), such trust

and responsibility given over to the learner may positively impact their self-efficacy. Similarly, the very nature of flipped learning activities being purposeful and valuable to class should aid in influencing learner motivation.

2.5 Key Understandings and Research Questions

In light of the literature reviewed, there is a clear suggestion which recommends necessary research considering the challenges and desired outcomes as detailed in 1.1. It has been shown that motivation and self-efficacy around L2 learning both as general issues and specific issues around productive skills are key issues in MFL pedagogical discourse- most prominently in learner uptake (Vidal Rodeiro, 2017; Lamb, 2017) and learner proficiency in applying learned language (Erkan and Saban, 2011)- and there is suggestion that they should be looked at contemporaneously (Conti, 2015). To ensure numbers in the UK context do not fall in uptake exponentially and that learners remain engaged, it is essential that we improve both motivation and self-efficacy (Collen, 2020; Graham, 2014; Tinsley, 2019). It is within such context that Ushioda (2016) recommends classroom-based, practitioner led, intervention-based research to aid motivation in the classroom. A similar call to support self-efficacy is made by Raoofi et al. where research is required to learn how 'self-efficacy beliefs toward a specific task in classroom context and out of the class context can be developed and enhanced' (Raoofi et al., 2012, p.67). Given the key issue within the study's context is a lack of engagement with productive skill tasks, it is desirable to find a teaching method which might positively impact this. Savignon (2002) allows us to see that CLT can have positive impacts on motivation and self-efficacy which give reason to see if such understandings stand in the current context. It is in response to the context issue and the calls above that the study is therefore drawn towards an enquiry which focuses on the impacts of CLT on both motivation and self-efficacy.

The rationale behind this inquiry leads it to identify a teaching method that may increase motivation and self-efficacy so as to enhance productive skills in French so that learners might engage more with writing and speaking. The literature has pointed out key relationships between

CLT and learner motivation and self-efficacy and, within the study's context, an enquiry develops to understand the nature of these relationships, how they may differ between learners in a classroom of diverse ability and whether there is a resulting impact on learner language proficiency. The following research questions emerge to seek results for the project's intention:

1 a) Do CLTMs affect learner motivation in speaking and writing French?

b) Do CLTMs affect learner self-efficacy in speaking and writing French?

c) Are the impacts on motivation and SE different between higher-attaining and lower-attaining learners?

2 Do CLTMs have an impact on learner language proficiency?

To form an understanding around how motivation is impacted by CLT, this study uses Weiner's definition: 'Motivation is the study of the determinants of thought and action- it addresses *why* behaviour is initiates, persists, and stops, as well as what choices are made' (Weiner, cited in Graham, 2014, p. 174). Self-efficacy, meanwhile, is determined through developments from Schunk (Schunk, 1991) and Bandura (1997) and takes Bandura's definition as perceived self-efficacy being 'beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments' (Bandura, 1997, p.3). With these definitions in mind, there is suggestion that with appropriate adjustments and careful planning within the CLTM remits will be able to enhance motivation and self-efficacy in the productive skills.

3 Methodology

3.1 Research Methods

3.1.1 Research Questions

The first research question determines the ways in which the teaching approach enhances motivation and self-efficacy in the productive skills. It is broken down into three parts to separate understandings and attain specific findings. The first two parts (1a and 1b) distinguish findings between the impact on motivation and self-efficacy and is addressed through a questionnaire and a post-intervention student interview. The data from the questionnaire will be supplemented by observation notes written into a structured observation protocol. The third part (1c) addresses the same factors as 1a and 1b but will seek to understand if there are differences in motivation and self-efficacy enhancements between lower- and higher- attaining learners through the teaching method. This will be addressed through the questionnaire and post-intervention student interview.

The second research question considers how the motivation and self-efficacy impact of the CLTMs relate to the learner's proficiency in applying topic-specific vocabulary in order to understand if the link can affect meaningful competence of learners so that the full impact of the teaching approach at the heart of the inquiry is understood.

3.2 Research Instruments

3.2.1 Student Questionnaires

In order to answer research question 1a and 1b, it is necessary to collect data on motivation and self-efficacy, pre- and post-intervention. The first instrument for this is student questionnaires (Appendix D). The *self-efficacy in writing scale* used by Erkan and Saban (2011) and, following the recommendation in Ushioda (2016), Takahashi's (2005) motivation questionnaire have been adapted to include statements targeting productive skill self-efficacy and motivation also but the survey here draws significantly from the Erkan and Saban design given its design provides a

'reliable and valid' tool to assess productive skill self-efficacy (Erkan and Saban, 2011, p.174). Questionnaires adhere to a Likert scale with definitions for each scale point, as recommended by Champagne (2014) in Cohen et al. (2018). The wording in the questionnaire used for baseline data (see Appendix C), before the intervention, is altered very slightly to gather more specific data in the main data collection (Appendix D). The main change is the addition of an open-ended question giving participants opportunity to elaborate.

3.2.2 Student Interviews

To gather perspectives around motivation and self-efficacy to inform the proposed intervention designs and seek student perspectives more comprehensively in addition to the questionnaire which alone may, to an extent, restrict responses, a baseline interview and a post-intervention interview have been designed. After baseline questionnaire data was analysed from the small participant population (N=12), however, to answer question 1c, it is clear that post-intervention student interviews would be useful to supplement questionnaire data.

All the interviews are conducted by the researcher and are semi-structured in design to allow to additional information to be provided by participants where such incidental data may arise. The semi-structured design also helps towards a more relaxed interview process to put participants at ease to relieve any tensions brought about through power differential of teacher and student and ensure the interview could be a 'positive and enjoyable experience for the children' (Morrison (2013) as quoted in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 136). In this same vein of comfort for participants, the baseline interview questions were given to two participants who would not be interviewed in the pre-intervention stage beforehand to receive feedback on the questions asked. One question was reworded as a result of this consultation. As can be seen at Appendix F, the baseline interview question schedule is divided into two sections, the first set of questions looking into attitudes towards French and the second to allow reflections on teaching methods to emerge. The baseline interview is conducted with three participants in a group interview where two are higher-attaining and one was lower-attaining. All participants in each interview are expected to contribute during

the interview and will be asked each question directly. Interviews are recorded so that no data is lost in the notes taken during the interview.

In response to a small participant population where N=14 and the higher and lower-attaining groups are N=9 and N=5 respectively, and because this research focuses on student motivation and self-efficacy, both of which rely significantly on student self-perceptions, interview is used to gain in-depth understandings and supplement questionnaire data. A post-intervention interview has been designed, therefore. In contrast to the baseline interview, the post-intervention student interviews are designed for all participants to take part in once. This design allows for comprehensive representation and, given there are four interviews, it prevents interview fatigue. As shown in Figure 1, each of the 14 participants would take part within these interviews and both higher- and lower-attainers are represented at each interview stage. In order to ensure the interview maintains valid questions which will elaborate on data collected in the questionnaire, the question schedule has also been designed in adaptation of the self-efficacy scale in Erkan and Saban (2011) and Takahashi's (2005) motivation questionnaire. As seen at Appendix G, the post-intervention interview focuses on noting any changes in participant motivation or self-efficacy after the interventions.

	Intervention A	Intervention B	Intervention C	Intervention D
Post-Intervention Sample	Student 1	Student 4	Student 7	Student 10
	Student 2	Student 5	Student 8	Student 11
	Student 3	Student 6	Student 9	Student 12
				Student 13
				Student 14

Higher Attaining Student
Lower Attaining Student

Figure 1 Post-intervention interview sampling

3.2.3 Observations

To enable the most informed evidence possible for research questions 1a, b and c, supplementary observation data are conducted to note changes in behaviours and engagement. Observations by a volunteer collaborator are elicited through a structured observation protocol to ensure the observation are undertaken within 'premeditated categories' of remark, with elements of event sampling, requiring the observer to tally the times certain events are observed (see Appendix H). To focus the observation further, the observer is given five students, those with the lowest combined motivation and self-efficacy score through the baseline questionnaire data, to more accurately note changes in their behaviours given the observer would not be overwhelmed by requirements. Given time constraints, the collaborator observations take place only three times. The planned observations are at the beginning of the first intervention, after the second and again after the final intervention. The observations are non-interventionist and the observer was not to manipulate or stimulate participants (Adler, 1994).

There is no control group to this study, so the observations provided some additional perspective and allow for additional information around the data collected by questionnaires and post-intervention interviews. Given the lack of control group, the confounding variable of time is a significant limitation to the study as there is no way of knowing if motivation and self-efficacy would have changed in time or through teaching without the intervention anyway. Questions and survey statements are designed to keep focus to reflect on the teaching methods while the observer data was used to triangulate data in an attempt to mitigate the influence of time.

3.2.4 Written & Speaking Data Checklists

To bring about data on student proficiency in applying taught language for the second research question, criterion-referenced tests in the form of checklists for specific language use during written and spoken tasks to understand how often the language are used. These checklists are used at the beginning of the intervention cycle and at the end. The checklists are set in advance against the scheme of work which is used to organise the national curriculum learning into the

classroom and school year. The checklist is therefore requiring students to ‘fulfil a given set of criteria’ (Cohen et al., 2018, p.566). The lists have between 14 and 22 terms.

3.3 Research Design

Sequencing the data collection not only brings a logic to the study in ensuring an ‘overall blueprint’ but it also secures that the instruments could collect the ‘evidence required to answer the research questions’ (Cohen et al., 2018, p.175). The interventions and fieldwork were planned to take place over eight weeks. This allowed for 16 one-hour lessons to take place. Four interventions were planned overall. The interventions were planned to take the following order: target language use, task-based learning and flipped learning. The most successful of those interventions, as determined by resulting data, would then be combined to create the fourth intervention to understand impacts of the strongest CLTMs in combination. Each intervention was therefore planned to take place over two weeks in four, one-hour lessons.

3.3.1 Data Collection

Before baseline data collection could start, it was important to understand which attainment bands participants are in. Therefore, attainment band data for each student was collected from the school’s database. Following this, ahead of each intervention, there is to be a student survey and speaking and writing data is collected against the language being taught during the intervention. The same checklist is employed again at the end of each intervention to see if motivation proficiency in vocabulary use had changed. There is one student interview to take place at the beginning as part of baseline data collection to understand possible impacts of the interventions deployed. Observations and observation notes were to be taken three times also. First at the beginning of the first cycle, then after the first cycle and then, finally, at the end of the second cycle. Again, due to time constraints observations could not have taken place after each intervention, although this would have been preferable given the increased supplementary data to the questionnaires on each intervention this would have provided. Figure 2 gives a visual representation of the data collection plan.

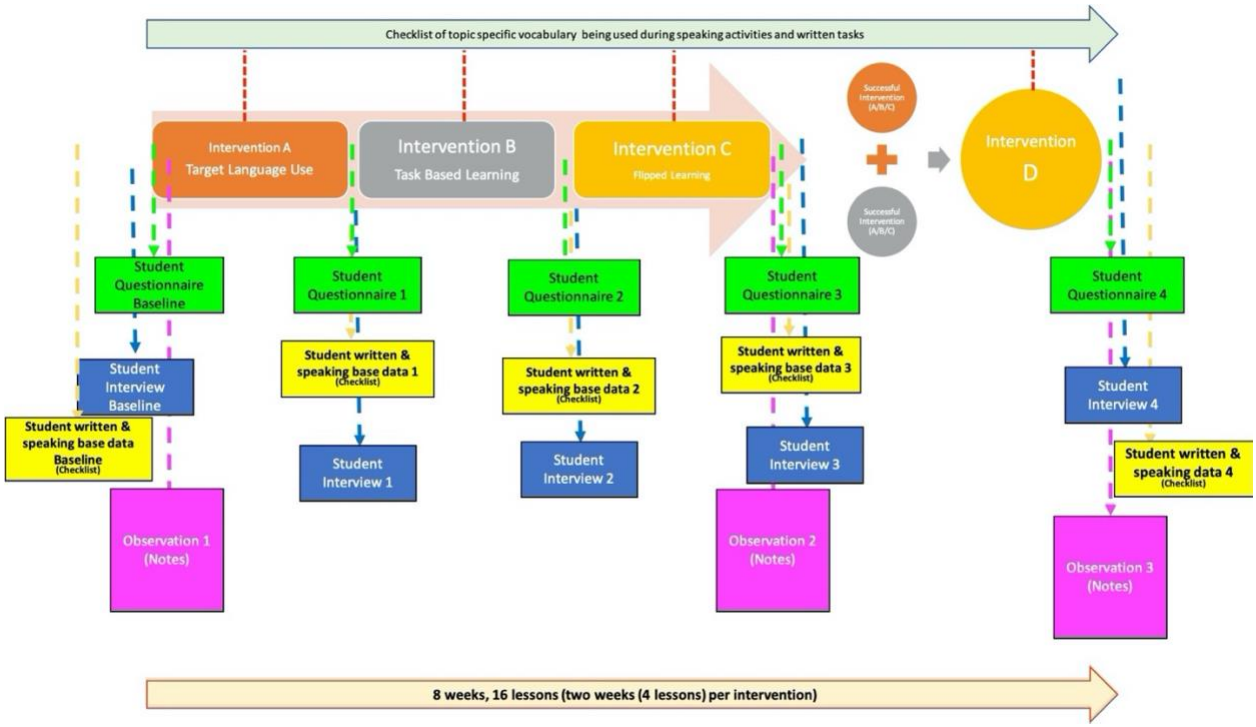

Figure 2 Research plan showing the sequence of each intervention and the research instruments used

3.4 Intervention Designs

The interventions fall into two phases, the first involving interventions A, B and C and then the second, combined method, as represented in Figure 2. The first phase seeks to understand enhancements through each CLTM. The two most positively impactful CLTMs from phase one will then be combined in phase two. This will allow the research the chance to identify a presumably stronger teaching method to enhance productive skills in French.

3.4.1 Target Language

The first intervention (Intervention A) takes the two tools suggested by Christie (2016) of target language management and context management and the recommended quantity of target language from Macaro et al. (2016) of 80-90% target language use. While target language is a recommended as a standard practice in classrooms, as suggested by Molway et al.'s work (2020), it is not at an appropriate ratio with English as L1 in the classroom. In my own classroom, while target language is part of the teaching, the recommendation of 90% will be an increase and further to this, tools directly given to learners and contexts for use are new. A maximal approach to target

language use may present as overly uncomfortable to students, so the intervention uses a contextually optimal use (Macaro, 1997). That is to say, the teacher used the target language for greetings, instructions (both general and specific), general conversation, and during the contextualised tasks. Recovery tools such as repetition, gesture, rephrasing and use of cognates are employed as a way of modelling to learners the manners in which they might communicate with the target language too. Emergency situations, such as unforeseen circumstances or fire drills, for example, and communication which needs to be clear, such as discipline or when speaking to a student while someone from outside of the classroom would need to understand what was being said, would be examples of moments when L1 is used. The context management tool is brought out of the way in which the classroom is run. Expectations are clear that students are to use the target language, but given an appreciated short-term anxiety around this, opportunities are presented for students to use the target language for communicative purpose. Routine use of 'Comment dit-on…en anglais?', 'Qu'est-ce que tu penses de…?', 'Est-ce que tu peux ajouter quelque chose?' provides such opportunities. However, following Christie's research (2016), communicative opportunities are realised through 'techniques of a team competition and competition-based activities as well as the technique of learners acting in the role of the teacher' (Christie, 2016, p.87). In addition to Chamot's (2018) proposal to prepare students with essential questions, the beginning of lessons will involve a routine of answering repeated questions around the topic. Alongside, teaching includes activities such as students explaining points of language use, guiding others through answers as well as teams within the classroom competing with each other during answer feedback.

3.4.2 Task Based Learning

In designing Intervention B (task-based learning), it is felt appropriate to follow the approach laid out by Mutton and Woore (2014) as shown at Figure 3 was followed given this framework is proposed within the MFL classroom context. This means that the teacher holds three considerations in the task design to ensure engagement in the task but in addition to this the task was communicative in nature. This manifests itself in role-plays and information-gap style

activities, such as those suggested by Mitchell (1993). An example of the information-gap style activity is the well-known survey activity where learners collect information from each other (speaking) in order to write about the information they collected. This is not the only task design to be followed, however, and others used were largely based around some of those proposed by Klippel (1984) given her consideration of motivational as well as physiological learning influences. For example, Klippel's (1984) identity cards design combined with the proposed guessing game sees students writing information personal to them on an identity card, preferences, for example, and then speaking to a partner to guess the preferences the other student has on their identity card. This is similar to the opinion poll task she suggests, which is also used. A key part of motivation in the task, though, and a significant consideration in Mutton and Woore's 'what the learner might bring to the task; (2014, p.139), is that we must not be prescriptive with the productive communication resulting from the activity as this will ensure there is a motivational link with desire (Beglar and Hunt, 2011). Therefore, activities are ensured to contain that element of choice.

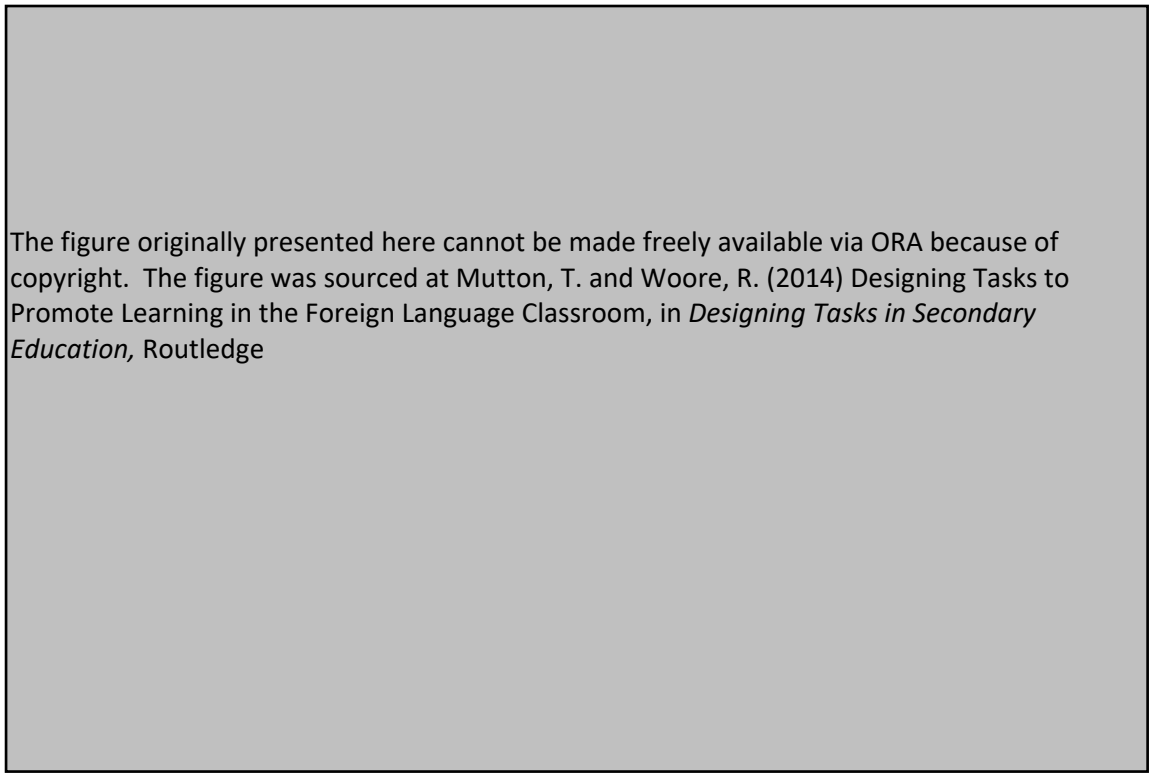

Figure 3 A dialogical approach to foreign language task design taken from Mutton and Woore (2014, p. 139)

3.4.3 Flipped Learning

Flipped learning is the basis of Intervention C and involves both in-class teaching as well as homework activities. The intervention meant that students were given the topic language *before* the teaching around that language began. The flipped classroom, as it has been referred to, not only helps to personalise the experience, but also ensures the learning process is purposeful- the language learned in the homework is going to have communicative purpose in the classroom activities which follow (Bergmann and Sams, 2007). The model here closely follows advice taken from Bergman and Sams (2007). Their table of comparison between a flipped classroom and the traditional classroom allows us to understand how much more purposeful, communicative time might be available (see Figure 4).

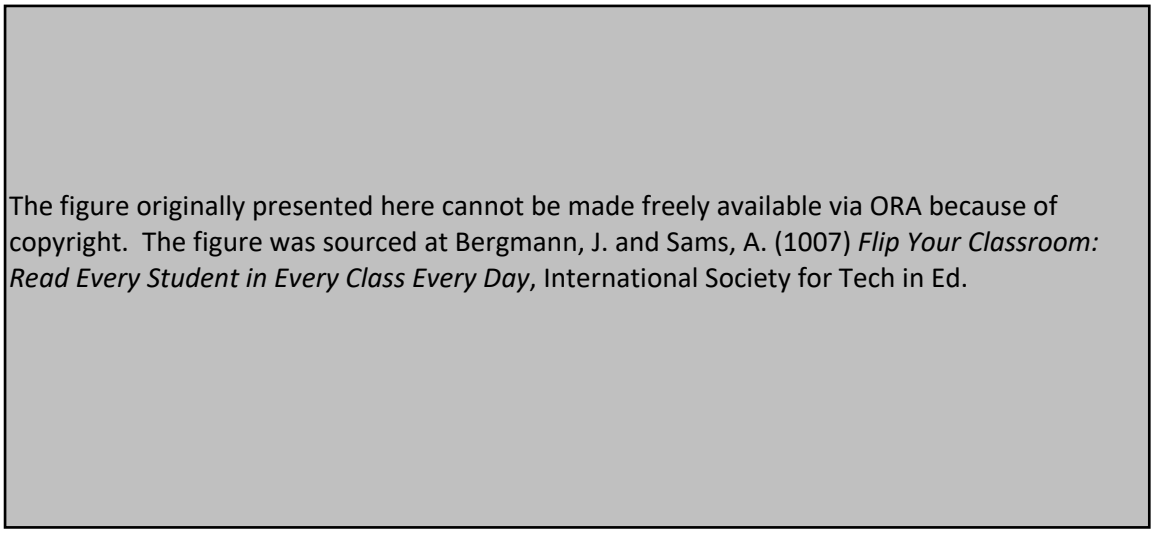

Figure 4 Comparison of Class Time in Traditional versus Flipped Classrooms from Bergman and Sams (2007, p.15)

Bergman and Sams (2007) work their flipped classroom by pre-teaching with videos but admit that this is not necessarily the medium through which the flipped learning might take place. For their approach, flipped learning is present when there is a 'desire to redirect the attention in a classroom away from the teacher and onto the learners and the learning' (Bergmann and Sams, 2007, p.96). In this study, the interventions focus attention on to the communicative value of the language, away from a more traditional classroom experience and gage this impact on motivation and self-efficacy. In a similar method to that used by Namaziandost and Çakmak (2020), the content required for in-class pair-work and discussion is studied beforehand, at home. Given the

time constraints to the study, it is important to use a medium which the participants were already familiar with. The students already use a vocabulary learning website and app called Memrise to revise sections of language. Given the use of mobile technologies, such as apps, has been seen to have positive results with flipped learning (Andujar et al., 2020), it was felt that Memrise would be an appropriate tool to employ given the study's intention. Therefore, I assign, as homework, a Memrise language list for the learners to study which corresponded with the language needed for the following lessons. The language studied in those homeworks then appears in the lesson. There is an additional advantage of Memrise given there is an element of gamification in the learning and gamification is related to increased learning motivation (Burguillo, 2010; Rachels and Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2018), although this may not necessarily be the case (Wingate, 2018).

3.4.4 Combination method

The final intervention (Intervention D) is the combined method and forms the second phase. Here the two most positively impactful of Interventions A, B and C, as determined by the evaluation criteria of impacts on motivation and self-efficacy as discussed at 4.2, are combined in order to test the impact of a fourth method and to see if , in combination, CLTMs have an even stronger impact while also determining the engagement of students where more than one intervention is employed at once. The possible design of this combination method is represented in the Figure 5 below within each of their conditional circumstances. Although three scenarios are presented in Figure 5, only one of these would be implemented in phase two.

Intervention Design 1	Intervention Design 2	Combined Intervention Design (Contingent D)
Intervention A (Target Language)	Intervention B (Task-Based Learning)	The task-based learning design would be conducted within the same target language quantity as with Intervention A.
Intervention A (Target Language)	Intervention C (Flipped Learning)	Flipped learning model would be applied (with the pre-teaching homework) and the same target language quantity is used in the classroom as with Intervention A.
Intervention B (Task-Based Learning)	Intervention C (Flipped Learning)	The language learned within the flipped learning design would be applied in classroom through the tasks which are set by the same design as seen in Intervention B.

Figure 5 Design for each possible combination method

3.5 Impact of COVID-19

Before interventions and completion of baseline data collection could take place, schools in the United Kingdom were closed as part of a lockdown to limit impacts from the COVID-19 disease. Prior to the closing of schools, as confirmed on the 18th March 2020 and enacted on 20th March 2020 (Williamson, 2020), some baseline data was obtained as part of the piloting stage within the research process. This has allowed the research to have some understanding of the pre-intervention motivation and self-efficacy of participants. However, due to the lockdown, baseline data collection was interrupted, and normal teaching stopped. Baseline data is therefore limited to a student interview to gather perspectives on possible interventions, the questionnaire and checklist data for writing. The baseline observation and baseline checklist for speaking did not take place. The participants did not all have access to online learning at all times, and so it was not possible to implement the interventions or collect the data virtually. However, further baseline data was gathered through a self-efficacy survey (see Appendix E) sent out to all students once those who initially did not have internet access had been given assistance. Data from participants within this study was then extracted and will be used to supplement data gathered from the baseline data. Given the circumstances, the project describes what would have taken place and proposes future research given baseline data understandings.

3.6 Participants

The study involved one set of participants, but further data was provided by observations and notes from another teacher. The research was to be conducted with one mixed-ability class of Year 8 students learning French. The total number of student participants was 14. This number was higher when the project was proposed but due to class changes, student movement and withdrawals from studying MFL, the number was reduced to 14. Overall, four lower-attaining students were moved or withdrawn away from the participating class. Therefore, within the participant population, nine were higher-attaining learners and five were lower-attaining learners, based on the school's own measures (see Appendix B). Given the end size of the group, and the lack of balance between those higher- and those lower-attaining student, the selection of student

to participate in interviews was done to ensure 'the sample in fact represents the whole population in question' (Cohen et al., 2018, p.212). In recognition of the influences ethnicity may have on the data from both previously conducted research and the literature reviewed (Schunk and Pajares, 2002; Bondy et al., 2017), it is important to note the backgrounds within the population. Figure 6 shows the proportions of different ethnicities within the data. Given the small population, the number of participants and the percentage is shown in in the data labels.

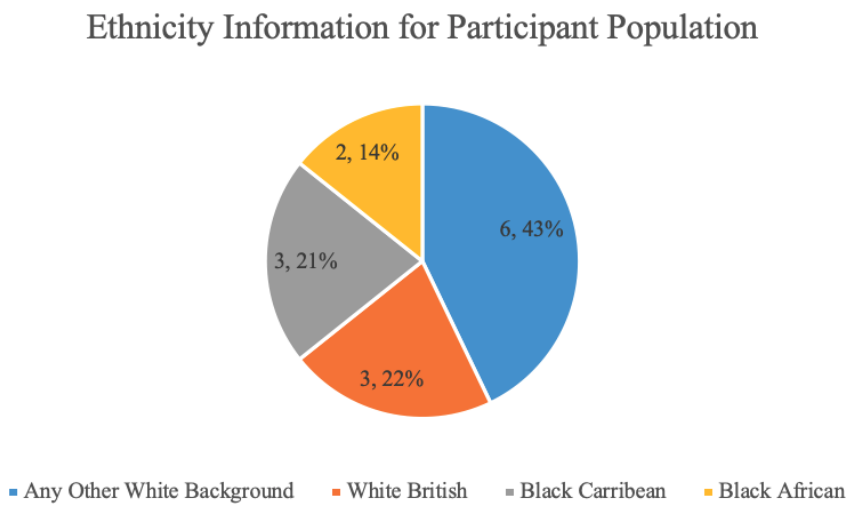

Figure 6 Ethnicity information for participant population

The class attend French classes twice a week, once on a Wednesday morning and once during the final period on a Friday afternoon. Another teacher was involved to collect observation data. The observer was a senior member of staff at the school with a direct responsibility over the MFL department.

3.7 Methods of analysis

Data arising out of the research instruments are analysed to allow for evidence answering the research questions to emerge. Both qualitative and quantitative methods are employed in the analysis. In order to answer the research questions specifically, it is important to separate the questionnaire into data on motivation and data on self-efficacy. Questions 1-6 will be used as data on motivation while 7-11 will be used for self-efficacy data. The questionnaire sections are then analysed with two foci: differentiation by intervention, in response to research questions 1a

and b, and differentiation by attainment band in response to question 1c. In differentiating by intervention, a total score from the Likert-scale will be calculated for each participant and descriptive statistics will be conducted to allow for comparable data. These baseline questionnaire results will then act as comparable data for post-intervention questionnaire data. In differentiating by attainment band, the statistical data from post-intervention questionnaires will be brought together and then an analysis of variance (ANOVA) will take place. The ANOVA will determine if there are any significant differences in changes in motivation and self-efficacy between higher- and lower-attainers. Interview data will first be reduced to distil them into trends through listening back to recordings which will offer perspectives around motivation and self-efficacy. These trends will then be looked at together to see if further reflection allows for additional. The data found between interviews will then be analysed to notice any differences in response. Similarly, observation notes will be organised into categories to notice any changes in the noted behaviour taken. Observation data separated into self-efficacy and motivation will supplement the data arising from the questionnaires to understand impacts on selected participant behaviours and participation. Tallies will also be subjected to a descriptive statistical analysis. Differences in tallies, if any, will be used to understand impacts from the interventions.

Descriptive statistical analysis will be conducted for data arising from the speaking and writing checklists to understand any changes in proficiency to use taught language. If the students are accurately using the vocabulary taught during each intervention, to communicate a relevant message for example, then they have demonstrated proficiency. Box plots will then be used to represent results from each intervention so that any differences are clear.

3.8 Methodological Limitations

A key limitation to the study is the lack of a comparable control group resulting in a threat to validity from cohort effects (Ho et al., 2012). Given the school context and lack of availability of such a suitable control group, this ideal situation was not possible. Therefore, there is no way of knowing if any effect on motivation or self-efficacy caused by the CLTMs could have

materialised anyway as part of normal classroom practice alongside maturity in age, progress of time within the school year or any other factor. In other words, the researcher was not able to isolate and control all variables except for the teaching method meaning that interference within the causation of any impact on motivation or self-efficacy could have been caused by other connections. While this could have been addressed with randomisation, the nature of the participants and the study context meant that it was not possible for randomisation to allow for a *ceretis paribus* condition where there is an assumption that 'many other variables are evenly distributed across the groups, such that there is no need to control them' (Cohen et al., 2018, p.100). However, this study is a piece of practitioner research and does not intend to generalise any results to other contexts.

The project would also benefit from taking place over a longer period. Although a compromise was established within the research plan, more observations and interviews would have led to more conclusive and would have increased data validity. Similarly, collaborator observations would have been enhanced in validity had 'multiple observers or teams' (Adler, 1994, p.381) been available. In addressing such limitations, given the disruption caused by the COVID-19 lockdown, an opportunity arises to implement this research over two terms to allow for more time between data collection and there could be opportunity for additional collaborator involvement.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The Headmaster at the school where this study took place gave permission for the research to go ahead meaning the research was guaranteed to remain within the school's safeguarding guidelines as recommended within the British Educational Research Association (BERA) ethical guidelines (BERA, 2018) as well as those of the Central University Research Ethics Committee (CUREC). In addition to this all participants within the study were informed of the purpose and aims of the study before any data were collected. Students were 'unable to be fully informed about the implications of their participation' not only given their age, but also due to the use of

attainment bands and the possible harmful implications of raising such information (BERA, 2018, p.9). Given the approval gained from the Headmaster, consent was negotiated 'within relationships of mutual trust' (BERA, 2018, p.10). However, the research aim is designed to improve the language teaching within the school and there were no foreseeable harmful implications out of participating in the research.

Participants' right to withdraw was recognised throughout the data collection process and participants were informed of this right and that any data which may reveal the identity of participants was to be removed before any research dissemination took place. Additionally, participants were made aware that any data collected would be anonymised as per research norms. Where interview recordings were stored, this was compliant with General Data Protection Regulation 2018 (GDPR) and CUREC. Participants were given a number which was written on any task paper after collection to ensure the codes were kept confidential. The list of names against codes was stored securely and will be destroyed after the project is completed. All identifiable data will be destroyed five years after the publication of the work. This will occur by permanently deleting the files from the OneDrive. As stipulated within BERA guidelines, where there could be Freedom of Information Act (2000) requests given the research takes place in a public domain (a state school) this does not apply given 'research data in [state school] settings would be exempt from such requests where explicit confidentiality arrangements are in place' (BERA, 2018, p.30).

Potential emotional or otherwise harm to participants was considered and any risks recognised were minimised to 'manage any distress or discomfort that may arise' (BERA, 2018, p.19). For example, interview participants were asked if they felt a group or individual interviews were preferable. Preferences were accommodated. Consideration was taken towards the potential for power differentials also from a participant perspective (Eder and Fingerson, 2011). Some interview questions may have made students uncomfortable given they were being asked by their teacher. As a teacher who uses a high proportion of French in class, where a question asking how

a student feels about this is raised, the student may worry they criticised the teacher if they said they feel negatively. Therefore, it was made clear this is to better understand how students learn and interviewees would be encouraged to answer as openly as possible and would be reassured that any responses given would not affect the teacher's evaluation on them or their study. As per school policy, detentions are given for incomplete or missing homework and so students will have wanted to answer that homework is important. Again, it was made clear that honesty enables the research to have the most accurate outcome and there were no other consequences for student responses. Similarly, some students may have been anxious about having a member of the senior leadership team in the classroom where classes are observed to assess any change in motivation. The school has a learning walk policy which means members of senior leadership were often in lessons for short periods of time which should normalise this situation for students. Students were nonetheless made aware of the fact that when other staff members are staying in the room to observe and they will be told why that member of staff is present (as part of the research project) but they will not be reminded directly of what response types will be observed so as not to impact behaviours.

4 Baseline Data Analysis

4.1 Baseline Findings

4.1.1 Baseline Interviews

Perspectives around language learning	Perspectives around teaching approaches
• Enjoy the practical use of language and positive motivation from the thought of real-world interactions • Enjoy thinking about how language will be useful in the future • Feeling of progress is important • Difficulty with words not associated with a context	• Concerns about understanding teacher target language use • Useful to have time away from the classroom to grasp the language • Using the same words in different exercises as useful • Useful to be able to get things wrong

Figure 7 Student perspectives around their own language learning and their thoughts on teaching approaches

Three students (two higher- and one lower- attaining) were interviewed using the baseline question schedule. The interview lasted 20 minutes and each student was given opportunity to answer the questions asked. Perspectives around their language learning experiences as well as their opinions on the language teaching they receive were gathered to bring about helpful information for post-intervention data. Figure 7 is a selection of the most pertinent perspectives given to the purpose of the interview. Interventions which involve a purposeful use of the language would be welcomed by the students involved. Language with a proximal use was noted to be particularly motivating and a student gave an example of being able to understand the translation of the sandwich shop chain *Prêt à Manger* as was language which has use to the future self as the same student revealed they are learning French to be able to use it in his future career.

The semi-structured nature of the interview allowed for further perspectives to be offered by participants. There were no direct questions on the standing of error in the classroom, for example, but this was revealed nonetheless. Semi-structured interview is therefore important to maintain given the additional data it might reveal. There is suggestion that an intervention which involves time away from the classroom to learn language would be beneficial in the students' eyes with specific mention that Memrise would help speaking' given the pronunciation feature of the software. Concerns were raised over teacher target language use and being able to understand all instructions. This is important to bear in mind for Intervention A as clearly differentiation will be key to impact positively. There is implication that this differentiation might be facilitated through provision of context, for example, perhaps using pictures to give a reference point when speaking in the target language. Students also mention that a variety of tasks was motivational. Within Intervention B, therefore, it will be important to ensure there is a diverse set of tasks which the key language can be used in.

4.1.2 Baseline Questionnaire

The baseline questionnaire has been analysed and the five students with the lowest motivation and self-efficacy have been identified for focused observation. The data has then been analysed

with two foci. The first has been to establish the level of student motivation and self-efficacy before the first intervention. This has been achieved by separating the questionnaire and converting each tick point on the Likert scale into a score out of five and calculating their sum. The maximum score the questionnaire could yield for motivation was 30 and the maximum score for self-efficacy was 25. To keep this maximum in mind and ensure the data is clear, data from each participant is analysed a percentage. There were two absences in this data collection, one higher-attainer and one lower-attainer (N=12). Statistical analysis has been undertaken.

Statistical Data (Motivation %)	
Mean	67.3
Median	67.0
Mode	77, 67
Range	43.0
Minimum	50.0
Maximum	95.0
Lower Quartile	58.5
Upper Quartile	75.0
Interquartile Range	16.5

Statistical Data (Self-Efficacy %)	
Mean	75.7
Median	80.0
Mode	84
Range	44.0
Minimum	48.0
Maximum	92.0
Lower Quartile	66.0
Upper Quartile	84.0
Interquartile Range	18.0

Figure 8 Baseline questionnaire data analysis. Absent students are not included in the statistical analysis.

As can be seen in Figure 8, the motivation and self-efficacy of the participants is high before intervention. This is unexpected given the study's initial concerns and the space for positive change is relatively narrow, particularly for self-efficacy, before interventions take place. This could be due to Wigfield et al.'s suggestion that boys tend to be more self-congratulatory in their responses to confidence questionnaires (Wigfield et al., 1996 in Schunk and Pajares, 2002). Given, the unforeseen results, supplementary data to substantiate these findings is useful. Therefore, the data collected during the COVID-19 lockdown has been analysed (as seen at Figure 9). This data was collected in addition to the baseline data gathered before lockdown. No interventions had been implemented prior to either data collection. There were more absences here, meaning N=9.

Statistical Data	
Mean	72.2
Median	73.0
Mode	73.0
Range	33.0
Minimum	58.0
Maximum	91.0
Lower Quartile	63.6
Upper Quartile	79.0
Interquartile Range	15.5

Figure 9 Lockdown survey data

At Figure 10 it is noticeable that the scores are within the same range in the baseline questionnaire and the lockdown survey. However, there is a suggested trend of lower scores in the lockdown survey as indicated by the lower mean and median. This is unsurprising given the decrease in teaching time during lockdown but there nevertheless remain similarly highly scores.

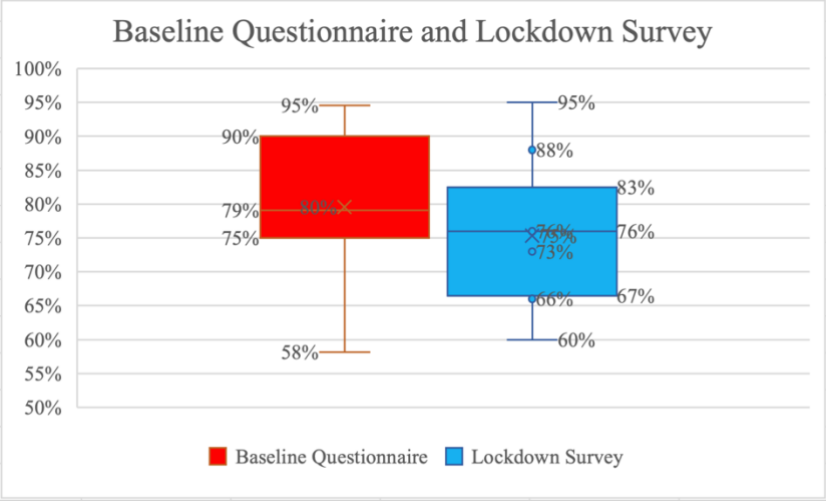

Figure 10 Comparison of scores from baseline questionnaire and the survey conducted during COVID-19 lockdown

Given the similar range of scores within both the questionnaire and the survey, there is suggestion that the data from the baseline survey can be taken forward alone as a more reliable set of results.

Secondly, the data from the baseline questionnaire has been analysed to understand the differences between higher- (N=8) and lower- (N=4) attaining learners. The statistical data from motivation and self-efficacy (as represented at Figure 11) has been analysed through an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to uncover if there are any differences between the two groups. The high P-value given from the analysis of variance for both motivation (Figure 12) and self-efficacy (Figure 13) shows that there is no significant difference in level of motivation or self-efficacy between the higher- and lower- attaining learners ($p>0.05$). These insignificant results are unsurprising due to the small sample size involved. If we take such an understanding forwards into the research, the lack of difference means that two groups can be assumed to be at similar levels of motivation and self-efficacy before any interventions.

	Statistical Data (%)			
	Motivation		**Self-efficacy**	
	Higher-Attainers	**Lower-Attainers**	**Higher-Attainers**	**Lower-Attainers**
Mean	70.9	60.0	76.5	74.0
Median	71.5	61.5	78.0	82.0
Mode	77	No Mode	No Mode	84
Range	40.0	17.0	32.0	36.0
Minimum	53.0	50.0	60.0	48.0
Maximum	93.0	67.0	92.0	84.0
Count (N)	8.0	4.0	8.0	4.0
Sum	567.0	240.0	612.0	296.0
Lower Quartile	62.0	55.0	66.0	64.0
Upper Quartile	77.0	65.0	86.0	84.0
Interquartile Range	15.0	10.0	20.0	20.0

Figure 11 Statistical data of higher- and lower- attaining groups from the baseline questionnaire as separated into motivation and self-efficacy data

Data Summary				
Groups	**N**	**Mean Difference**	**Sig.**	**Std. Error**
Higher Attainers	8	70.88	12.52	4.43
Lower Attainers	4	60.00	7.26	3.63

ANOVA Summary					
Source	**Degrees of Freedom (DF)**	**Sum of Squares (SS)**	**Mean Square (MS)**	**F-Stat**	**P-Value**
Between Groups	1	315.38	315.38	2.51	0.14
Within Groups	10	1254.87	123.49		
Total	11	1570.24			

Figure 12 ANOVA from baseline questionnaire data on motivation

Data Summary				
Groups	**N**	**Mean Difference**	**Sig.**	**Std. Error**
Higher Attainers	8	76.50	11.60	4.10
Lower Attainers	4	17.44	17.44	8.72

ANOVA Summary					
Source	**Degrees of Freedom (DF)**	**Sum of Squares (SS)**	**Mean Square (MS)**	**F-Stat**	**P-Value**
Between Groups	1	16.67	16.67	0.09	0.77
Within Groups	10	1854.00	185.40		
Total	11	1870.67			

Figure 13 ANOVA from baseline questionnaire data on self-efficacy

Given the small sample population of both the whole sample, and the smaller still population of each attainment group, it is challenging to take trends forward. In response, post-intervention interviews are scheduled to supplement questionnaires and a final, open-ended question is

included in the post-intervention questionnaires (see Appendix D). Such amendments allow for more data to be taken.

4.1.3 Baseline Checklists

Only the data for writing was taken before interruption. The checklist, aimed to measure the students' proficiency at the baseline level, has been analysed and the statistical data is presented at Figure 14. Five participants were absent (N=9). The data shows that the mean proficiency amongst the sample present is low as less than a quarter (23.9%) of the vocabulary is used in written production pre-intervention. There is a degree of disparity between the participants, given the interquartile range, and so it will be important to watch the spread of results as post-intervention data is collected to note effects more accurately. Further data in the form of a speaking checklist is necessary before any conclusive baseline in the checklist data can be determined. Should the speaking checklist also show a low proficiency, then any post-intervention significant changes could be attributed to the teaching method employed.

	Checklist %
Mean	23.9
Median	25.0
Mode	30.0
Range	25.0
Minimum	10.0
Maximum	35.0
Lower Quartile	15.0
Upper Quartile	30.0
Interquartile Range	15.0

Figure 14 Baseline writing checklist data

4.2 Evaluation Criteria and Proposed Further Analyses

Additional baseline stages are necessary before evidence from post-intervention data can be analysed to note any changes. A baseline, pre-intervention observation is necessary for the

observer to note any changes in student engagement post-intervention and the speaking language checklist needs to occur for there to be a full baseline data set to compare with post-intervention data collection. Following this, post-intervention data would be evaluated in order to provide evidence for the inquiry's research questions:

1 a) Do communicative language teaching methods (CLTMs) affect learner motivation in speaking and writing French?

b) Do CLTMs affect learner self-efficacy in speaking and writing French?

c) Are the impacts on motivation and SE different between higher-attaining and lower-attaining learners?

2 Do CLTMs have an impact on learner language proficiency?

Data from post-intervention questionnaires and the observation protocol would be used to answer 1a and 1b in order to track changes in participant motivation and self-efficacy with the productive skills. Questionnaires would be analysed in the same way as the baseline with statistical analysis after having split data between motivation and self-efficacy and the difference between baseline data and post-intervention data would then be calculated. If a significant difference in the mean is noted with significant difference in the interquartile range, then an effect would be deemed as present. Points of significance would be a change of 5% from baseline data. Focusing on any changes of engagement in lesson activities, observation notes are then used to supplement reflections on student motivation and bring detail to the findings so that evidenced and valid conclusions around the CLTMs can be reached.

Data from questionnaires, observation notes and interviews would be used to answer 1c. The data used to calculate 1a and 1b would be differentiated by attainment bands rather than by intervention and ANOVA would take place in order to determine any significant differences in the data. ANOVA results would then be supplemented by any noted changes within trends noted

in the interview and observation notes analysis to substantiate any presence or absence of difference.

Research question 2 would be served by calculated differences within checklist data as differentiated by intervention. Differences within the data analysis would serve to understand if proficiency in using taught language increases or decreases within the different CLTMs.

5 Conclusions and Implications

5.1 Pedagogical Reflections

Despite interruption and the absence of research outcomes, the study remains valuable to my professional development. In designing an in-depth proposal, partially informed by baseline data, I am able to bring student perspectives, such as the value of time away from classroom learning and the value of practical purpose, into innovative teaching approaches based in CLT to continue to develop my teaching. The literature review, rigorous intervention design, methodological consideration and student perspectives have all contributed to an enhanced and more reflective level of practice. The relationship between teaching approaches and student motivation and self-efficacy is multifaceted and complex. It is hoped that communicative language teaching methods can play a positive role within that relationship for productive skills particularly. The study has shown that it is possible to design methods borne out of CLT principles and take into account the many influences on motivational and self-efficacy behaviours. Further to this, it is important to keep in mind how distinct groups can be affected by these influences and thus how teaching methods might impact differently. It is only in remembering this fact that the project can provide a deep understanding around the impacts of communicative language teaching.

5.2 Implications for Further Research

The project has revealed further research needs to fully address the pedagogical issues raised around motivation, self-efficacy and CLT. In order to get a complete picture, most pressing is research into the impacts of this project's communicative language teaching methods (CLTMs)

on the receptive skills. While it was noted productive skills do not necessarily exclude listening and reading, it would be important to ensure that any impact on speaking and writing is not to the detriment of those receptive skills in language learning. Similarly, it would be important to examine the impacts of these teaching methods within other languages- particularly those with a more phonetically written language, such as Spanish- to note if the impact of CLTMs changes significantly between languages.

In further pursuit of enhancing the productive skills in French, it is valuable not just to understand the impacts on higher- and lower- attaining groups, as was of paramount use in the present study's context, but also between other key research groups. Previous research within the context has unveiled the differences in motivational styles between different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, particularly between White British and Latin American backgrounds. Therefore, it would be important to note the impacts of the interventions between the backgrounds present in the classroom in addition to attainment band.

By addressing the many different influences on motivation and self-efficacy within the MFL classroom, we can begin to understand the full extent of CLT's impact on students and practitioners will be far better placed to create classrooms in which we can enhance specific skills and facilitate the positive behaviours which can lead to proficient language use.

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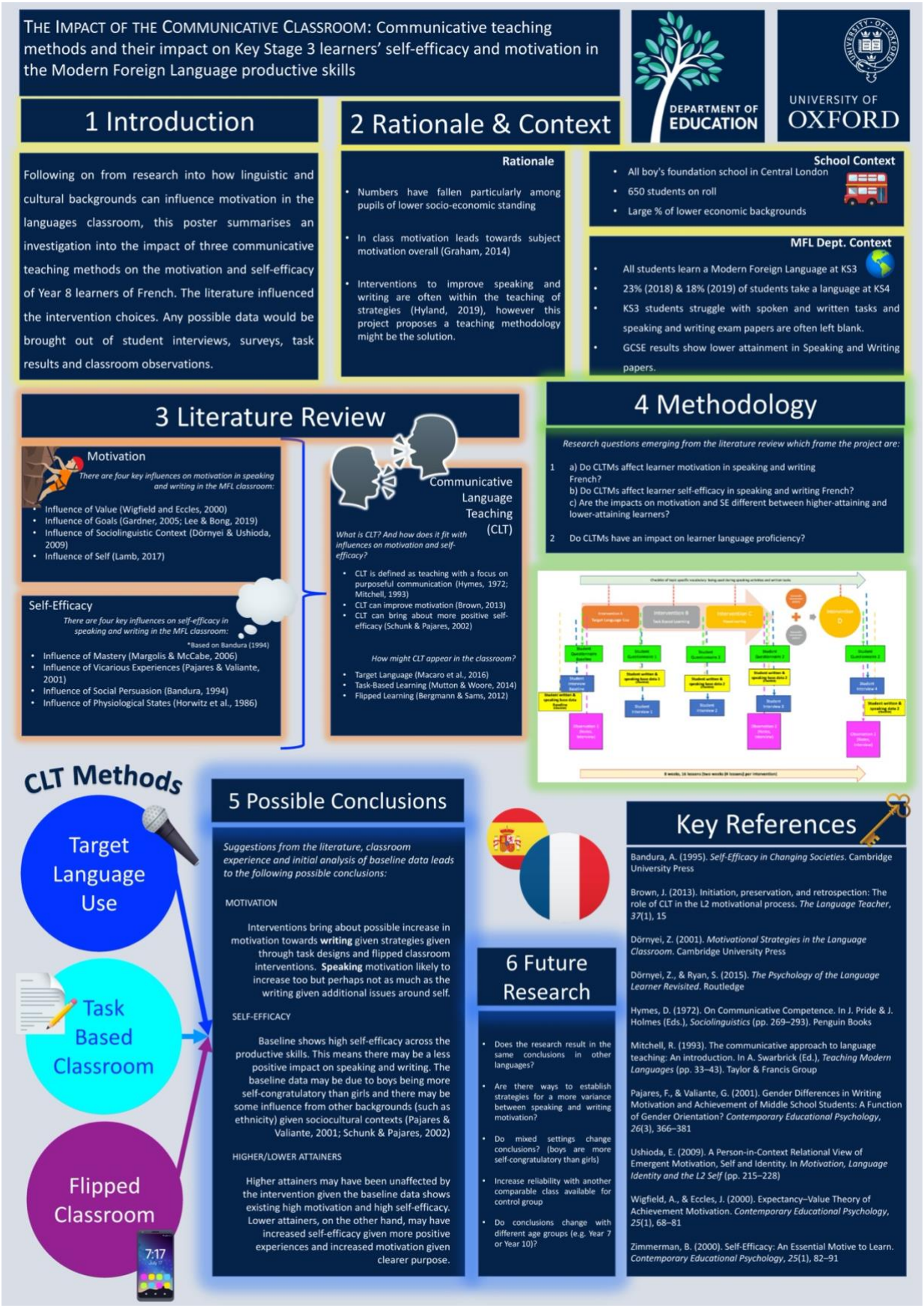
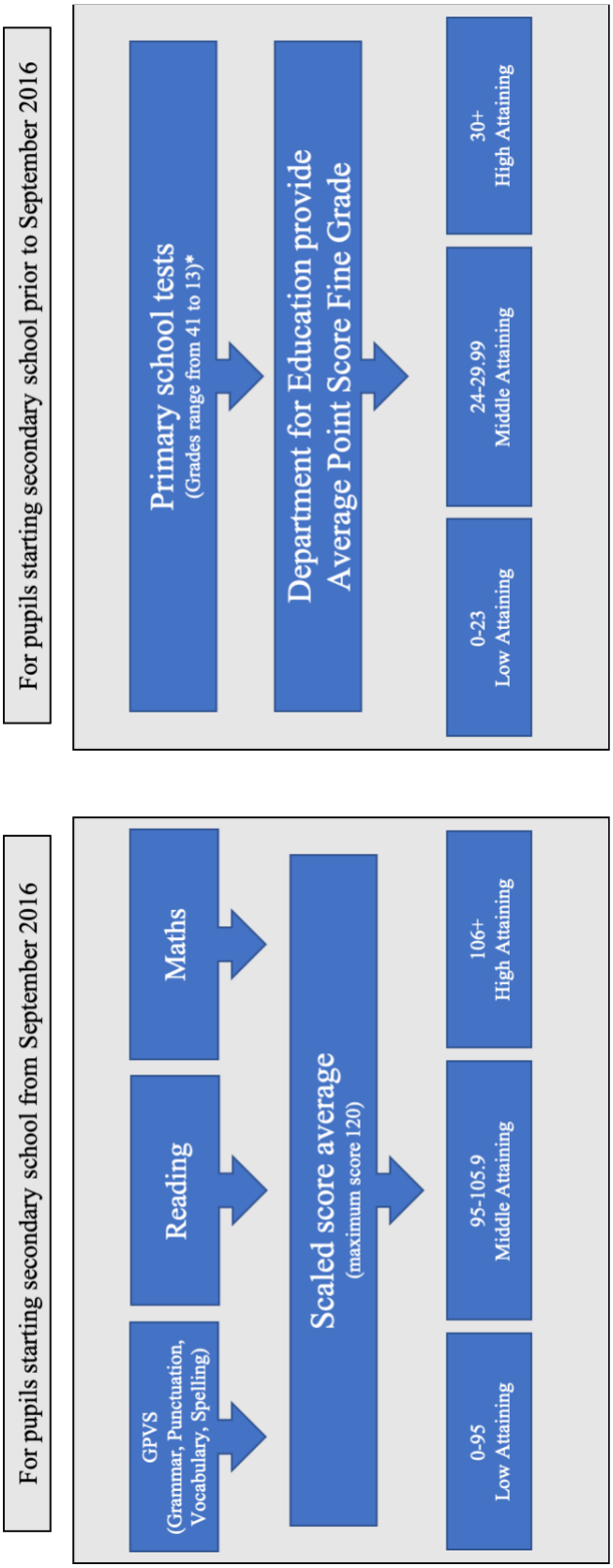
7 Appendices

Appendix A - Project poster used for initial dissemination



Appendix B - End of Key Stage 2 prior attainment calculations



Appendix C – Participant questionnaire used for baseline data collection

Motivation and Self-Efficacy
Questionnaire

Code:

By reflecting on the last four lessons, please complete the following questionnaire by placing a CROSS in the appropriate box.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I can speak in French at my level	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	I can write in French at my level	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	I can speak in French about (Food and Drink)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	I can write in French about (Food and Drink)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	I am confident about using all of the language for (Food and Drink) in writing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	I am confident about using all of the language for (Food and Drink) in speaking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	I am confident about speaking in French	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	I am confident about writing in French	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	My French classes make me feel confident about my French	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	I have noticed a change in the way my French classes help me learn	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	I am aware of the sort of language I need for (Food and Drink)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Motivation and Self-Efficacy
Questionnaire

Code:

By reflecting on the last four lessons, please complete the following questionnaire by placing a CROSS in the appropriate box.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I can speak in French at my level	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	I can write in French at my level	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	I can speak in French about (Food and Drink)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	I can write in French about (Food and Drink)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	I enjoy the challenge of using all of the language for (Food and Drink) in writing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	I enjoy the challenge of using all of the language for (Food and Drink) in speaking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	I am confident about speaking in French	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	I am confident about writing in French	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	My French classes make me feel confident about my French	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	I have noticed a change in the way my French classes help me learn	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	I am aware of the sort of language I need to learn for (Food and Drink)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	Do you have any further comments about your experience of French over the past four lessons?					

Please continue on the back

Appendix E - Self-efficacy survey (Lockdown Survey)



23/07/2020 End of Year MFL Check

End of Year MFL Check

This form will check how you are feeling towards your language learning this year, given the circumstances this is going to be a great way to see how you're doing in preparation for next year.

Read each statement and choose the option which suits you best.

There are no right or wrong answers.

*Required

1. Email address *

2. Name *

3. Surname *

4. CURRENT Year Group (Select One) *

Mark only one oval.

- Year 7 Spanish
- Year 8 Spanish
- Year 9 Spanish
- Year 10 Spanish
- Year 7 French
- Year 8 French
- Year 9 French
- Year 10 French

5. Confirm Language of Study *

Mark only one oval.

- Fre
- Spanish

6. Form Group *

7. Teacher *

Tick all that apply.

- Mr Carr
- Mr Roghi

8. Please check ALL the assessment activities you have completed. (These are uploaded to Google Classroom and must be completed on paper before you fill out this check) *

Tick all that apply.

- Translation Assessment
- Reading Assessment
- Writing Assessment

Translation Skills

This section will help us understand how you're feeling about your writing skills after you have completed the translation assessment

Choose the option which best suits you

--



Spanish/ French > English

9. I can accurately translate single words from Spanish/ French into English *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
I do not do it well at all	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	I do it very well

10. I can accurately translate small phrases from Spanish/ French into English *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

11. I can accurately translate whole sentences from Spanish/ French into English *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

12. I can accurately translate paragraphs from Spanish/ French into English *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

English > Spanish/ French

13. I can accurately translate single words from English into Spanish/ French *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

14. I can accurately translate small phrases from English into Spanish/ French *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

15. I can accurately translate whole sentences from English into Spanish/ French *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

16. I can translate paragraphs of information into French/ Spanish *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

Writing Skills

This section will help us understand how you're feeling about your writing skills

Choose the option which best suits you

--



17. I can write interesting and appropriate response to a given topic *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

18. I can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic. *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ I do it very well
- ◯ I do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well
- ◯ I do not do it well at all

19. I can use appropriate style to the task. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

20. I can generate ideas to write about easily. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

21. I can easily find examples to support my ideas. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

22. I can justify my opinions in my writing. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

23. I can write grammatically correct sentences *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

24. I can use complex language in writing without difficulty. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

25. I can produce error free structures. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

26. I can spell very well in French/ Spanish *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

27. I can easily use structures I have learned in my class accurately *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

28. I can use connective words (however, also, on the other hand etc.) correctly to make my composition a better one. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

29. I can use a wide range of vocabulary in my compositions. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

30. I can use synonyms in a composition rather than repeating the same words over and over again. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

31. I can rewrite my wordy or confusing sentences to make them clearer. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

32. I can extend the topic to fit in a given word limit. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

33. I can make long and complex sentences. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

34. I can fulfill a writing task without difficulty within a given time limit. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

Reading Skills

This section will help us understand how you're feeling about your reading skills

Choose the option which best suits you



35. While reading in Spanish/ French, I can tell if a word is a noun, verb, adjective etc. *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

36. When reading in Spanish/ French, I can pronounce individual words *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

37. When I am reading in Spanish/ French, I can sound out words that are new to me *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

38. When reading in Spanish/ French, I understand the meaning of endings that make words plural, change the tense (present, past, future) *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

39. While reading in Spanish/ French I can use what I already know to help me understand new material *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

40. While reading in Spanish/ French, I can recognise the "main points" or theme in a passage or story *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

41. I can tell when a Spanish/ French sentence is written correctly *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

42. I can read and understand complex Spanish/ French sentences *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

Speaking Skills

This section will help us understand how you're feeling about your speaking skills

Choose the option which best suits you



43. I can pronounce words confidently *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

44. I can speak about a topic I have studied (e.g. food/ school/ family) without having to prepare *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

45. I can speak about a topic I have studied if I have had time to prepare *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

46. I can describe a photo in Spanish/ French well and speak for at least 1 minute *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

47. I can reply to questions quickly in French/ Spanish *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

48. I can ask questions in French/ Spanish *

Mark only one oval.

- I do it very well
- I do it well
- I do not do it well
- I do not do it well at all

End of Check

Thank you for completing the check today. There was not a section to look at listening as this would have been difficult to understand. We will have some additional focus on this skill next year.

49. *

Tick all that apply.

- [ ] I confirm that I have read all questions carefully
- [ ] I confirm that I have answers all questions to the best of my knowledge
- [ ] I confirm that I have answered all questions having already completed the assessments on Google Classroom

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Google Forms

Appendix F - Participant Interview Question Schedule

Participant Interview Question Schedule for:

The Impact of the Communicative Classroom: Communicative teaching methods and their impact on Key Stage 3 learners' self-efficacy and motivation in the Modern Foreign Language productive skills

I. Motivation towards French

a) How would you describe your learning experiences towards French at school? Are your feelings positive or negative? Why?

b) How do you feel about your ability in French?

c) Are you considering French as an option at GCSE? Why? Why not?

d) When something is challenging in French, how does this make you feel?

e) In French we have four main skills (Reading, Listening, Speaking and Writing). How do you feel about each of these?

f) When you are writing, what sorts of words do you try to think about first?

g) When you are speaking, what sorts of words do you try to think about first?

h) Do you feel positively or negatively when you are presented with a task where you need to write or speak in French?

II. Reflections on teaching methods

a) What does a French lesson that you enjoy look like? What sort of activities are there?

b) Do you feel positively or negatively about teachers speaking French during class? Why?

c) How do you feel when an activity is part of a larger project? Does this help you engage more in French and learn more?

d) How do you feel about homework in French? Does it matter to your learning?

e) What is the reason you take part in some activities?

Appendix G Post-intervention interview questions

Post-Intervention Student Interviews Question Schedule

Questions on motivation

a) Do you want to write and speak more French after the past four lessons?

b) Is speaking and writing in French a challenge you enjoyed during those lessons?

c) Do you enjoy speaking and writing about (Food and Drink)? Why?

d) Have you thought about how you could learn more in the past four lessons?

e) What sorts of activities did you feel you put your best effort into over the past four lessons? Why?

Questions on self-efficacy

f) If you did well in the speaking and writing tasks in the past four lessons, would you try again?

g) Do you think you can cover all the necessary information about (Food and Drink)?

h) Do you think you can write an appropriate response about (Food and Drink)? What would you need to feel comfortable with this?

i) Do you think you can speak about (Food and Drink)? What support would you need to do this, if any?

j) What do you feel about your ability to speak and write in French generally after the past four lessons?

Appendix H - Observer's structured sheet

Each section contains a code (e.g. N1) so that further notes or tallies could be made and referenced on another sheet of paper should the observer run out of writing space.

Observation Protocol **Intervention Phase (_), Intervention (_)**

Observer:	Date:	Period:

Notes

N1 Pupil engagement

N2 Pupil engagement with speaking & writing tasks

N3 Pupil engagement with speaking & writing tasks (Lower Attaining)

N4 Pupil engagement with speaking & writing tasks (Higher Attaining)

N5 Teaching Method Use

Tally

T2 Motivating Behaviours

Students show that they can see themselves succeeding	
Students show a positivity towards the task	
Students want to use the language taught over other language	
Students demonstrate a value in the task	
Students demonstrate awareness of the end goal	

T2 Self-efficacy Behaviours

Students gain confidence from seeing others succeed	
Students show a confidence in proficiency	
Students readily speak the language without hesitation	
Students readily write the language without hesitation	
Students are comfortable about their level and want progress	