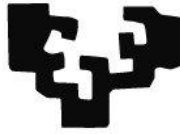


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Universidad
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**The use of Information and Communication Technologies in
the Foreign Language Classroom: Students' Attitudes,
Motivation and L2 Selves**

Marta Kopinska

Supervisor: Professor David Lasagabaster Herrarte

PhD Programme: Language Acquisition in Multilingual Settings (LAMS)

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ABSTRACT

In recent decades, the widespread accessibility and use of technologies have altered many aspects of our daily life, among others, the way of interacting with each other or our learning and searching for information, to such an extent that being an agile user of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) has become one of the basic skills in our society, alongside mastering foreign languages (European Parliament, 2006). It therefore seems that by integrating the use of technologies in the foreign language (FL) classroom teachers may avail themselves of this powerful motivational resource when it comes to boosting learners' digital and FL competence simultaneously (Ushioda, 2011). Nevertheless, learning a foreign language often results a highly demanding, tedious and discouraging task, during the course of which many students finally give in. In order to prevent the motivational wane so often observed in formal language instruction (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006; Henry, 2009), an adequate use of technology-supported activities could be the way to contribute to engaging students in their learning process and increasing their positive learning experiences, which in turn may strengthen their L2-speaking self-concepts and enhance their motivation towards learning the FL. Those self-concepts, which form the pillars of the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei 2005, 2009), are mental representations of what kind of L2 speaker learners “would like to become” (the Ideal L2 Self) and what they feel they “ought to become” to meet others' expectations (the Ought-to L2 Self), together with their experience of the foreign language learning process (the Learning Experience) and all aspects related to its ebb and flow.

The use of technologies in schools is not common in FL classrooms in Spain, especially at high school level, as the majority of ICT-related programmes have been focussed mainly on primary and lower secondary education. The present study has been conducted in a high school with the aim of analysing ICT's potential benefits also for older learners. It should also be borne in mind that learners of English as foreign language (EFL) (Chun, 2014; Watson Todd and Pojanapunya, 2009; see also Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2002, 2005a and 2005b) and their parents, as well as EFL teachers (Árva and Medgyes, 2000; see also Medgyes, 1994) and educational institutions such as language schools (Braine, 1999; Clark and Paran, 2007; Mahboob *et al.*, 2004) very often favour native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) over non-native

English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs), in an attempt to achieve ‘(near) native-like’ proficiency. However, if no NEST is available at school, the core question remains of what can be done in order to boost learners’ motivation and their L2 selves.

To our knowledge, no study on high school students’ motivation has hitherto been carried out through the lens of Dörnyei’s Self framework in the BAC. Therefore, this study’s novelty stems from its intention to contribute to the field of L2 motivation with empirical data gathered at this particular educational level in the Basque multilingual context. In addition to analysing the influence of ICT classroom integration on students’ motivation, this classroom-based study compared the impact of ICT with that of the NEST in the EFL classroom, as the latter is often considered an added value in itself (see *Árva and Medgyes, 2000*). The present study aimed therefore at comparing the motivational and attitudinal disposition of 165 high school students (16-17 years old) from Vitoria-Gasteiz in Spain over one school year and a half. The participants were involved in two educational interventions, the first one involving a native teacher (NS-group) and the second one a non-native teacher supported by technologies (ICT-group). The results obtained from the analysis of the data gathered via both quantitative and qualitative measurements indicate that the contrast between the two interventions did not bring any significant difference to light. Both groups of students exhibited a relatively favourable motivational disposition towards EFL learning and their motivation was sustained over time. Gender was not found to have any influence on students’ Motivational L2 Self System, except for the Ought-to L2 Self, where males from both groups showed significantly higher means than females. No difference of students’ generally positive disposition towards technology after employing it during their English classes was revealed in the analysis, with the exception of their view on the questionable quality and quantity of the school’s ICT equipment. Nevertheless, the students systematically emphasised the positive motivational support offered by the NEST and the non-NEST assisted by technologies, and, therefore, it may be argued that, in those educational contexts where there is limited or even no possibility of having the support of native speaker teachers, as is the case in the Basque Autonomous Community, ICT can help non-native teachers to boost their students’ motivation and keep them interested in their English class.

Keywords: Motivation in SLA, L2 Motivational Self-System, NESTs vs. non-NESTs, ICT in EFL

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CALL	Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
DIGCOMP	European Framework of Digital Competence
DMC	Directed Motivational Currents
EFL	English as Foreign Language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
FLL	Foreign Language Learning
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IST	Information Society Technologies
L1	First Language, Mother Tongue
L2	Second Language
LOTE	Languages Other Than English
NEST	Native English Speaking Teacher
non-NEST	non-Native English Speaking Teacher
NS	Native Speaker
NNS	non-Native Speaker
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TAI	Technology-Assisted Instruction
TESOL	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
VLE	Virtual Learning Environment
WELL	Web-Enhanced Language Learning
WWW	World Wide Web

La presente tesis doctoral se centra en un estudio empírico longitudinal llevado a cabo en la CAV (Comunidad Autónoma Vasca) en España sobre la motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera (EFL), para lo que se contó con una muestra formada por alumnado de Bachillerato. Su novedad se basa en el empleo del marco teórico del Sistema Motivacional del Yo (*L2 Motivational Self System*) de Dörnyei (2005, 2009), la teoría de la motivación en L2s (segundas lenguas) actualmente más influyente en el área de estudio de la adquisición de segundas lenguas (SLA). Las tres principales dimensiones que forman parte de este sistema son: el Yo Ideal (*Ideal L2 Self*), el Yo Deóntico (*Ought-to L2 Self*) y la Experiencia de Aprendizaje (*Learning Experience*) de una L2. Estos tres elementos del Sistema Motivacional del Yo en L2 rigen la conducta motivada del individuo durante el proceso de aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera. Por una parte, cada alumno alberga unos auto-conceptos o las representaciones mentales del tipo de hablante de una L2 que le gustaría llegar a ser (el Yo Ideal o *Ideal L2 Self*) o bien en el que debe llegar a convertirse, porque es lo que se espera de él (el Yo Deóntico o *Ought-to L2 Self*). Por otra parte, lo que interfiere en su motivación son también todos los aspectos relacionados con la experiencia que haya tenido durante el aprendizaje de una L2 (*Learning Experience*). El poder motivacional de la imagen del Yo Ideal y del Yo Deóntico radica por lo tanto en el deseo y la disposición del alumno a disminuir la brecha existente, o bien la discrepancia percibida, entre su propia imagen actual como hablante de una L2 y la representación ideal de tal hablante que visualiza en su mente y desea alcanzar.

Esta teoría de la motivación de los alumnos de L2 nos permite conocer las dimensiones interiores de la disposición actitudinal y motivacional del individuo a la hora de aprender una lengua extranjera. Reforzar la auto-imagen en una L2 del alumnado, así como el aumento de las experiencias positivas relacionadas con el aprendizaje, se antoja la manera más adecuada para evitar el declive motivacional hacia el aprendizaje de idiomas que se observa frecuentemente en contextos de enseñanza formal (Dörnyei y Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér y Németh, 2006; Henry, 2009).

Hasta el momento no se ha realizado ni en España en general ni en la CAV en particular estudio alguno sobre la motivación de alumnos de Bachillerato utilizando el marco

teórico del Sistema del Yo, de ahí que la finalidad de la presente investigación haya sido contribuir al campo de estudio de la motivación en el aprendizaje de una L2 con datos empíricos recogidos en este particular nivel educativo en el contexto multilingüe vasco.

El objetivo principal del estudio ha sido, por lo tanto, el análisis del posible efecto que el uso de las TIC (Tecnologías de Información y Comunicación) pueda ejercer sobre la motivación de los alumnos, especialmente, sobre su Yo Ideal. Según Dörnyei (2009), la tarea crucial de los docentes es ayudar a los alumnos a construir su Yo Ideal, es decir, a crear su visión de un hablante de la L2 competente y exitoso. Su siguiente labor consistiría en proporcionarles un marco de aprendizaje que cautivase su interés a fin de sustentar y mantener activo el Yo Ideal del alumnado.

La accesibilidad y el uso generalizado de las tecnologías han cambiado a lo largo de las últimas décadas numerosas áreas de nuestra vida cotidiana, afectando, entre otras, la manera en la que nos relacionamos e interactuamos, el modo cómo aprendemos cosas nuevas y cómo buscamos información. El cambio ha llegado a un punto en el que ser un usuario hábil de las TIC se ha convertido en una destreza básica en nuestra sociedad, junto a la competencia comunicativa en segundas lenguas o lenguas extranjeras (Parlamento Europeo, 2006). Además, debido al proceso globalizador que está teniendo lugar actualmente, se requiere un nivel de conocimiento de idiomas extranjeros cada vez más alto por parte de las nuevas generaciones.

Es por ello que a través de la integración del uso de las tecnologías en el aula de lengua extranjera, los docentes podrían beneficiarse de este poderoso recurso motivacional a la hora de desarrollar al mismo tiempo la competencia digital y lingüística de sus alumnos (Ushioda, 2011). Sin embargo, el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera a menudo resulta ser una tarea larga, exigente, tediosa y desalentadora, durante la cual muchos de los alumnos finalmente desisten. Para poder prevenir este tipo de tendencia, un uso adecuado de las actividades apoyadas por las tecnologías puede contribuir a involucrar más a los alumnos en su proceso de aprendizaje, a aumentar su motivación para aprender la lengua extranjera y a reforzar su auto-concepto como hablantes de una L2.

A pesar de que apoyar el aprendizaje mediante el uso de tecnologías en el aula debería ser hoy en día uno de los objetivos principales de todo el sistema educativo, en el caso del aula de lenguas extranjeras (mayoritariamente el inglés) no es muy común aún, al menos en España, aprender a través de las TIC, sobre todo al nivel de Bachillerato,

debido a que la mayoría de los programas de fomento de las TIC se han venido centrando exclusivamente en las aulas de primaria y secundaria obligatoria. El presente estudio se ha realizado en este particular contexto educativo, con el objetivo de atraer la atención al análisis de los potenciales beneficios del uso de las TIC también para los alumnos preuniversitarios de más edad.

Los resultados de diversas investigaciones indican que el alumnado está dispuesto a utilizar ordenadores en las aulas de L2 y que creen que realmente aprenden el idioma extranjero en cuestión por medio de su uso incluso en mayor medida que mediante las prácticas docentes tradicionales, normalmente basadas en el libro de texto (Bueno-Alastuey y López-Pérez, 2014; Cantos, 1994; Martínez-Rico, 2006; Pérez-Torres, 2005). La integración de actividades basadas en las TIC en las clases de inglés podría de este modo actuar como el incentivo y el combustible necesarios para la visión motivacional del Yo de los alumnos.

Aparte del análisis de la influencia del uso de tecnologías en el aula sobre la motivación del alumnado, este estudio tiene el propósito de contrastarla con el impacto que pueda tener el contacto con un hablante nativo de inglés en la motivación de los alumnos, puesto que el profesor nativo a menudo se considera un valor añadido *per se* (véase Árvá y Medgyes, 2000). Un asunto a tener en cuenta en relación con la enseñanza de lenguas es que tanto los alumnos que aprenden inglés como lengua extranjera (Chun, 2014; Watson Todd y Pojanapunya, 2009; Lasagabaster y Sierra, 2002, 2005a y 2005b) y sus progenitores, como los propios profesores de inglés (Árvá y Medgyes, 2000; Medgyes, 1994) e instituciones educativas (como, por ejemplo, las escuelas de idiomas) (Braine, 1999; Clark y Paran, 2007; Mahboob *et al.*, 2004) expresan a menudo una preferencia explícita hacia profesorado nativo de inglés (*native English-speaking teachers NESTs*) frente a los que no lo son (*non-native English-speaking teachers non-NESTs*). Sin embargo, en situaciones en las que un profesor nativo no está disponible en el aula, nos encontramos con una pregunta fundamental: ¿Qué se puede hacer entonces para estimular la motivación de los alumnos y sus auto-imágenes del Yo en la L2?

El presente estudio tiene como objetivo arrojar luz sobre los mecanismos de la motivación en un entorno particular como es el aula de inglés específica, dado que estudios de este tipo, con un enfoque local, siguen siendo escasos en la actualidad (Ushioda, 2016). En definitiva, la novedad de la presente investigación no radica sólo en su enfoque local, sino también en la combinación de tres importantes áreas en la

educación de hoy en día: la motivación del alumnado para aprender una L2, el uso de las TIC y la presencia de profesores nativos (*NESTs*) vs. no nativos (*non-NESTs*) en el aula de lengua extranjera.

El propósito del estudio es, por lo tanto, el de comparar la disposición actitudinal y motivacional de 165 alumnos de Bachillerato (16-17 años de edad) de un centro escolar ubicado en Vitoria-Gasteiz (la capital administrativa de la CAV), que tomaron parte en dos intervenciones educativas distintas. Una intervención se basaba en clases con un profesor nativo (grupo NS), mientras que la segunda fue dirigida por un profesor no nativo apoyado por tecnologías (grupo ICT). Las dos intervenciones se llevaron a cabo en el periodo de un año escolar y medio resultando en un total de 21 sesiones a lo largo de 32 semanas. Aparte de las intervenciones correspondientes, los alumnos siguieron con sus clases de inglés habituales. Las preguntas de investigación que se formularon en el estudio fueron las siguientes:

PI 1: ¿Hay alguna diferencia significativa en la motivación de los estudiantes que usaron las tecnologías en sus clases de inglés y los que tenían clases con una hablante nativa?

PI 2: ¿Influye el género de los alumnos de ambos grupos (ICT *versus* NST) en el Sistema Motivacional del Yo en L2?

PI 3: ¿Tiene algún efecto el uso de las tecnologías en el aula de inglés en la actitud de los alumnos hacia las TIC?

Según la hipótesis de partida no se esperaba detectar ninguna diferencia entre el efecto de ambas intervenciones (la basada en el uso de las TIC y la dirigida por la profesora de inglés no nativa vs. las clases con la profesora de inglés nativa) sobre los auto-conceptos de los alumnos y otras variables motivacionales. Esto se debería a la posible influencia positiva tanto de las TIC (Cantos, 1994; Martínez-Rico, 2006; Osuna y Meskill, 1998; Taylor y Gitsaki, 2004a, 2004b; Pérez Torres, 2005), como de la presencia de una hablante nativa en el aula (Chun, 2014; véase también Doiz, Lasagabaster y Sierra, 2014) en la motivación de los alumnos descrita por otros estudios en el campo. Tampoco esperamos encontrar ninguna diferencia motivada por el género, en vista de que los resultados de otras investigaciones han sido diversos, demostrando, por un lado, que las alumnas tienden a obtener unas puntuaciones más elevadas en las escalas motivacionales (Henry, 2009), aunque las diferencias entre géneros aparecen en cuanto

al Yo Ideal en una segunda lengua extranjera pero no en el caso de la primera lengua extranjera (Henry y Cliffordson, 2013), y por otro lado, porque no existe ninguna diferencia entre alumnos y alumnas en lo que a la motivación se refiere entre alumnado vasco de la CAV (Lasagabaster, 2016). Por último, postulamos que la experiencia con el uso de las TIC en el aula ejerce una influencia positiva sobre la actitud hacia el empleo de la tecnología en el ámbito educativo (Warschauer, 1996b).

La metodología del estudio es la de métodos mixtos, complementando los datos cuantitativos (cuestionarios) con la recogida de datos cualitativos (grupos de discusión). El instrumento de recogida de datos cuantitativos fue una encuesta de tres partes que consistía en un total de 128 ítems. La primera parte estaba compuesta por una serie de preguntas personales sobre los participantes (edad, sexo, uso de las lenguas, etc.), mientras la segunda parte trataba los aspectos relacionados con la motivación y las actitudes hacia el inglés y estaba basada en estudios llevados a cabo por Taguchi, Magid y Papi (2009; cf. Dörnyei, 2010a) y Lasagabaster (2005b). Esta parte incluía seis escalas (tipo Likert): *el Yo Ideal*, *el Yo Deónico*, *Las actitudes hacia el aprendizaje de inglés*, *La instrumentalidad-promoción y la orientación hacia poder viajar*, *La instrumentalidad-prevención*, y, por último, *Las actitudes hacia el inglés*. La tercera parte de la encuesta trataba las actitudes de los alumnos hacia las TIC y fue adaptada del estudio de Ipiña (2012) y Gray *et al.* (2009). Esta parte final consistía en seis escalas: *Las TIC como apoyo para el aprendizaje*, *Las TIC como medio para mejorar el inglés*, *El uso de las TIC en el aula*, *Las TIC como medio para mejorar habilidades y la futura carrera académica/profesional*, *El acceso escolar a las TIC*, y *Las dificultades con el uso de las TIC*.

Aparte de las mediciones cuantitativas, al final del proyecto longitudinal se llevaron a cabo grupos de discusión con todos los grupos implicados en el estudio, con el fin de recoger ideas cualitativas sobre los aspectos motivacionales bajo estudio. En total, se realizaron 15 grupos de discusión formado por entre 6 y 10 personas, ocho de los cuales se desarrollaron con los alumnos pertenecientes al grupo ICT, mientras que los siete restantes se llevaron a cabo con los alumnos del grupo NS. El guion para el grupo ICT incluía preguntas sobre las diferentes dimensiones del Sistema Motivacional del Yo, el uso de las tecnologías, los blogs, Internet y las sesiones con el profesor no nativo (non-NEST). En el guion para los grupos NS las referencias a estos temas fueron sustituidas por preguntas referentes a la experiencia con la profesora nativa (NEST). Los alumnos

fueron preguntados también sobre su opinión y experiencia con las clases de inglés habituales en el instituto. La razón por la cual esta pregunta fue incluida en la entrevista fue la posterior comparación de la experiencia de aprendizaje que los alumnos tuvieron durante sus clases de inglés habituales y las clases del proyecto (por medio de las TIC o con profesora nativa). Aparte de esto, los alumnos fueron preguntados sobre su opinión en cuanto a la importancia del inglés para el uso de las TIC, mientras que el grupo ICT tuvo que responder también sobre el desarrollo de sus competencias digitales una vez acabada la intervención educativa.

Los alumnos realizaron la encuesta tres veces: al principio del primer año escolar (pre-test/T1) cuando los alumnos estaban en su primer año de Bachillerato, en septiembre del año 2013, una segunda vez en el último trimestre de aquel año escolar (T2), en marzo-abril de 2014, y, por última vez, en el segundo trimestre del siguiente año escolar, en enero de 2015, cuando los alumnos estaban en su segundo año de Bachillerato (post-test/T3). Estos dos años forman parte de la educación secundaria post-obligatoria en el sistema educativo español, tras cuya finalización los alumnos pueden proceder a matricularse en la universidad. De todas maneras, los datos recogidos en T2 no están mostrados en el análisis de los resultados, dado que el propósito de la investigadora fue examinar los datos recogidos al final de la investigación. En cualquier caso, ha de señalarse que los resultados del T2 no revelaron ninguna diferencia entre los grupos, por lo cual el análisis se ha centrado en la comparación entre los datos obtenidos el pre-test (T1) y el post-test (T3).

En resumen, en el análisis de los datos no apreciamos ninguna diferencia significativa en la motivación de los alumnos que usaron tecnología en sus clases de inglés y los que tuvieron clases con el profesor nativo (PI 1) y la motivación de los alumnos se sostuvo en el tiempo. Asimismo, el género no resultó ser un factor influyente en el Sistema Motivacional del Yo de los alumnos de ambos grupos (ICT y NS), a excepción del Yo Deóntico (*Ought-to L2 Self*). En esta variable los alumnos de ambos grupos obtuvieron una media significativamente más alta que las alumnas (PI 2). En general, los participantes del estudio mostraron un Yo Ideal (*Ideal L2 Self*) relativamente alto, con medias de entre 3.3 to 3.5 en el T1 y de 3.5-3.7 en el T3. La orientación instrumental con el enfoque promocional y hacia poder viajar (*Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation*) fue también bastante alta (puntuación media 3.6-3.7 vs. 3.5-3.7), mientras que la orientación instrumental con el enfoque preventivo (*Instrumentality-prevention*)

resultó ser neutral (puntuación media 2.9-3.1 vs. 2.9-3.3). El Yo Deónico (*Ought-to L2 Self*) de los alumnos resultó bastante bajo (puntuación media de 2.4-2.9 en T1 y de 2.4-3.1 en T3), aunque los alumnos mostraron un Yo Deónico significativamente más alto que el de las alumnas en los dos tiempos de medición. Las actitudes hacia el aprendizaje de inglés de los alumnos fueron bastante neutrales (puntuación media 2.8-3.1 vs. 2.9-3.2), al tiempo que sus actitudes hacia el inglés como lengua extranjera pueden considerarse positivas (puntuación media 3.5-3.6 vs. 3.5-3.6). Estas dos últimas variables apenas experimentaron cambios en el tiempo.

No pudimos observar ninguna diferencia con respecto al efecto del uso de las tecnologías en el aula de inglés sobre la actitud de los alumnos hacia las TIC (PI 3). La disposición de los alumnos hacia la tecnología antes y después de emplearla durante sus clases de inglés no resultó diferente en el análisis excepto para la variable *El acceso escolar a las TIC*. La razón que explica el descenso que experimentó esta variable desde una actitud bastante neutral (puntuación media de 2.9) hasta una más desfavorable (2.5), es la menor puntuación otorgada por los chicos en el post-test. En general, aparte de esta única variable, las actitudes de los participantes resultaron ser positivas, con una puntuación media en todas las variables restantes relacionadas con las TIC que oscilaron entre 3.4-3.8 en el pre-test y 3.5-3.6 en el post-test.

Las ideas y las opiniones del alumnado mencionadas en los grupos de discusión respaldan y aportan más detalles a los resultados puramente cuantitativos por medio de comentarios cualitativos. Los extractos cualitativos de ambos grupos resultaron de gran valor a la hora de poder entender mejor la razón por la que las diferencias entre los grupos no resultaron significativas. Estos comentarios revelaron que los grupos mostraron similares grados de disposición, emoción y motivación hacia ambas intervenciones educacionales. Los datos cualitativos sirven por tanto como prueba de que los dos grupos de alumnos, en líneas generales, pasaron por unos procesos motivacionales paralelos.

En definitiva, los resultados obtenidos en el análisis de los datos tanto cuantitativos como cualitativos indican que el contraste entre las dos intervenciones no resultó diferente de manera significativa. Ambos grupos de alumnos, tanto los que hicieron uso de las tecnologías en sus clases de inglés dirigidas por un profesor no nativo, como los que tuvieron clases con el hablante nativo albergaron una disposición motivacional hacia el aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera relativamente favorable y sus

niveles de motivación se mantuvieron invariables en el tiempo. El género no resultó ser un factor influyente en el Sistema Motivacional del Yo de los alumnos, salvo para el Yo Deónico (*Ought-to L2 Self*), debido a que en esta dimensión los chicos de ambos grupos exhibieron una puntuación media significativamente más alta que la de las chicas. Los chicos parecen, por tanto, sentirse más obligados que las chicas a aprender inglés y lo perciben como algo que deben hacer o se espera que hagan. Esta sensación del deber se vio incrementada, de manera parecida, por ambas intervenciones educativas. Así, después de la intervención o bien con la profesora nativa (NEST) o bien usando las TIC para aprender inglés con la profesora no nativa, los alumnos parecen más preocupados que las alumnas por la inevitable necesidad de tener una competencia comunicativa alta en inglés. El análisis no reveló ninguna diferencia entre la actitud generalmente positiva hacia las TIC del alumnado antes y después de hacer uso de ellas durante sus clases de inglés, aparte de su opinión sobre la cuestionable calidad y cantidad del equipamiento digital escolar. Aun así, el alumnado hizo hincapié sistemáticamente en el apoyo motivacional positivo ofrecido tanto por la profesora nativa como la no nativa ayudada por las TIC. Por lo tanto, parece fundamentado concluir que en los contextos educativos en los cuales la oportunidad de contar con el apoyo de profesorado nativo es limitada o inexistente, como es el caso de muchos centros de Bachillerato en el País Vasco en España, las TIC pueden servir de ayuda a los docentes para estimular la motivación del alumnado y mantenerlo interesado en la clase de inglés.

Palabras clave: Adquisición del inglés como lengua extranjera, Motivación, Sistema Motivacional del Yo en una L2, uso de las TIC en el aula de inglés, Profesorado nativo y no nativo.

1.1. Background

Being initially a native Polish monolingual, who started learning English at the beginning of primary education (at the age of 7), basic German in grade 5 (11 years old), Spanish in high school (14 years old), Basque at university (19 years old), and some basic French a couple of years ago, prompted me to wonder how different languages are acquired and what motivates people to become successful language learners (and users), even beyond the “critical period”. Both personal and professional experience led me to embark on this PhD thesis dissertation. When I was studying ethnolinguistics I learned that different language communities or cultures perceive the world in a different manner, which means that each new language may introduce us to a new (linguistic) viewpoint, broadening the array of possibilities in which the reality is understood and one’s thoughts are expressed. Given that becoming multilingual seems highly advantageous in all areas of our lives, why is that learning foreign languages is for many learners often such a tedious undertaking?

I had spent a few years teaching Polish to Basque university students, when I discovered the field of motivation in SLA and, in particular, Zoltán Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System during my M.A. in applied linguistics. Investigating L2 motivation within this thought-provoking approach to understand the different dimensions of learners’ motives which interplay throughout their FL acquisition process seemed a very promising field of research, especially when combined with such educational innovations as the use of technology in the classroom. The learning experience of a more frequent and autonomous classwork through ICT appears to be an appropriate way to help the “digital natives” generation students enhance their learning possibilities and get on well in the English-mediated virtual environment, which may in turn increase their motivation towards EFL. This was what originally inspired this research.

There was, however, another aspect in SLA which also drew my attention as a focus of inquiry. I had the chance of having a look at the foreign language classroom through the lens of a non-native speaker of English who has spent the last five years teaching both English as a foreign language and content subject classes in English to Basque students.

That is why the scholarly debate over NESTs (native English speaking teachers) vs. non-NESTs (non-native English speaking teacher) also sparked my interest. Hence, in addition to the search for effective ways to boost students' L2 motivation and strengthen their FL-speaking selves, being a non-NEST myself has made me wonder whether this was a handicap or there was no reason why I should be in a disadvantageous position when compared to a NEST. Nevertheless, technology may nowadays provide such non-NEST as myself with an unlimited source of varied input, be it native or non-native. It seemed thus worthwhile to compare the effect of two different types of teachers (a NEST vs. a non-NEST supported by ICT) on learners' motivation in EFL context.

These three areas of SLA, namely, ICT in foreign language teaching and learning, the dichotomy between native vs. non-native EFL teachers, and, last but not least, language attitudes and motivation in language learning became the focus of attention of this thesis. Studies using the L2 possible selves' paradigm to examine EFL learners' motivation in the Spanish and Basque contexts are still in short supply, and, to my knowledge, no study has hitherto been conducted on Basque high school pupils' motivation within this approach.

Working on the research project for this thesis has taught me many substantial lessons about how to improve as a teacher and researcher, which has helped me to develop both personally and professionally.

1.2. Organisation of the thesis

The present thesis is organised in nine chapters. Whenever it was considered suitable, a summary of the main information included in the corresponding chapter is provided. First of all, after this brief introductory part (Chapter 1), the focus is placed on the use of technologies in foreign language learning (Chapter 2). This part includes a brief overview of the history of ICT in education, an explanation of the phenomena of digital natives, digital immigrants and digital divide, the role of ICT in FLL, and digital competence and the use of technology in Spanish education. Also, a review of the main findings of studies on the effectiveness of ICT in language teaching and learning is presented. The chapter finishes with a closer look at the research on students' and

teachers' attitudes towards ICT integration in the language classroom, eventually paying special attention to the use of blogs and the Internet as tools for FLL.

Secondly, the issue of native vs. non-native English speaking language teachers in EFL classrooms is dealt with (Chapter 3). The chapter commences with the description of the context of the present study, the Basque Autonomous Community in Spain. Then, the general situation of ELT in the Spanish and Basque context is examined. Next, the focus shifts to the broad NESTs vs. non-NESTs debate. Lastly, research findings on students' attitudes and beliefs regarding their (native and non-native) EFL teachers are reviewed.

Afterwards, attitudes and motivation in foreign language learning are introduced (Chapter 4). In the beginning of this chapter, definitions and key concepts of attitudes and motivation are specified. Then, a brief historical overview of the concept of motivation in SLA is presented. The L2 Motivational Self System paradigm is described in detail, as it plays a paramount role in this dissertation, followed by a summary of studies conducted within this framework, with particular attention given to the links to the possible selves, L2 motivation and vision. Finally, the main findings of research on the L2 Motivational Self System in Spain and the Basque context are summarised.

Subsequently, the present study is introduced (Chapter 5), a piece of research in which the interconnections between the three above-mentioned SLA fields of research are examined. In this part, the research questions entertained are stated and hypotheses set forth. Then, the sample and the methodology are described, while the study's design is outlined. The chapter finishes with the description of the data collection instruments employed in the study, together with the procedure followed to gather and afterwards analyse the data.

In the following chapter (Chapter 6), the results of the study are presented. In order to answer the research questions put forward in the previous chapter, both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data were employed.

The next chapter (Chapter 7) begins with the discussion of the main findings of the present research. After presenting the discussion part, conclusions are drawn. Following, some pedagogical considerations are suggested (Chapter 8). Last but not least, the study's limitations are acknowledged and possible lines for further research are proposed (Chapter 9).

CHAPTER 2: INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

The widespread access to technologies has modified our way of living, the way we interact with each other, and the way we learn and search for information, as a result of which being an agile user of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) has become one of the basic skills or key competences in our current society, on a par with mastering foreign languages (European Parliament, 2006). The integration of new technologies in the foreign language (FL) classroom is thus a powerful tool when it comes to boosting learners' digital and FL competence at the same time. Moreover, technology-supported activities may contribute to engaging students in their learning process and to motivating them. Despite the fact that supporting learning with the use of technologies in schools is nowadays a primary objective, it is not common in FL classrooms (at least in Spain) to learn with and through ICT, especially at high school level, as the majority of ICT-related programmes have been focussed mainly on primary and lower secondary education. This is the case, for instance, of the so-called *Eskola 2.0* programme implemented in the Basque Autonomous Community. The present study aims at filling this gap by addressing the issue of high school students' motivation and ICT integration in the EFL classroom.

In this chapter, after determining the definitions and key concepts of ICT and digital competence, a brief overview of the history of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in education will be presented. Subsequently, the social change of Digital Natives, also known as the Net Generation, will be shortly explained. Then, the situation of ICT in the Spanish school curriculum will be described, together with the place given to the digital competence in it. Afterwards, the connection between ICT and foreign language learning will be reviewed, and the potential benefits of the use of new technologies in the learning of languages will be considered, in the view of the effectiveness of ICT in FLL emerging from the relevant research in the field. Next, students' attitudes towards ICT and their integration into foreign language classroom will be addressed. The description of some necessary definitions concerning the concept of attitudes will be the starting point of this section. Then, the focus will be shifted to the main findings of studies carried out to analyse learners' attitudes towards

technology and the use of blogs and the Web as tools for language learning. To conclude the chapter, a brief summary of the main issues is provided.

2.1. Information and Communication Technologies and digital competence: definitions and key concepts

ICT refer to “a diverse set of technological tools and resources used to communicate, and to create, disseminate, store, and manage information. (...) They are not single technologies but combinations of hardware, software, media, and delivery systems” (Blurton, 1999: 46), which include computers, the Internet and the World Wide Web (WWW henceforth), telephones, digital access to media, such as films, videos, television, press or radio. This definition is, however, very broad and so is the research scope of the field. With a view to narrowing such wide scope, the present section will centre on the use of computers in EFL lessons, in particular on the use of the Internet and blogs.

It is necessary to define also the digital competence itself, as being ICT savvy has been the focus of attention of international institutions such as the European Union and UNESCO. For instance, the European Parliament (2006) considered it one of the eight key competences, subsuming knowledge, skills and attitudes, which are fundamental in a knowledge-based society. According to European authorities, the key competences should be acquired by each young person at the end of their compulsory education, equipping them for adult life, while they form a basis for lifelong learning (p. 11). The digital competence is thus broadly defined as follows (European Parliament, 2006: Annex p. 15):

Digital competence involves the confident and critical use of information society technologies (IST) for work, leisure, learning and communication. It is underpinned by basic skills in ICT: the use of computers to retrieve, access, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet.

Ferrari (2013) described the European framework for the digital competence, the so-called DIGCOMP project, and synthesised the above definition of digital competence as

the “confident, critical and creative use of ICT to achieve goals related to work, employability, learning, leisure, inclusion and/or participation in society” (p. 2). Among areas of digital competence, she specifies some which are particularly relevant to the present study, namely information, communication in digital environments, and creation and editing of new content.

2.2. A brief overview of the history of ICT in education

Computers have been used in various manners for language teaching since the 1960s. According to Warschauer and Healey (1998: 57), this over 30-year history of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) can be roughly divided into three main stages: *behaviouristic CALL*, *communicative CALL*, and *integrative CALL*. Each of these stages corresponds to a certain level of technology advancements, as well as a certain pedagogical approach popular among scholars at the time. As such, *behaviouristic CALL*, conceived in the 1950s and implemented in the 1960s and 1970s, corresponded to the behaviourist learning model, and consisted in repetitive language drills, referred to as drill-and-practice methodology.

The next stage, *communicative CALL*, emerged in the late 1970s and early 1980s, and corresponded to cognitive theories which stressed that learning was a process of discovery, expression, and development that resulted in the change of focus from what students did with the machine, to rather what they did with each other while working at the computer. In the following decades, task-based, project-based, and content-based approaches emerged, seeking to integrate learners in authentic environments, and also to integrate the various skills of language learning and use.

This led to a new perspective on technology and language learning, which has been termed *integrative CALL* (Warschauer, 1996a; Warschauer and Healey, 1998), a perspective which aims to both integration of various skills (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and a more thorough integration of technology into the language learning process. Hence, the multimedia networked computer is the technology of *integrative CALL*.

As acknowledged by Warschauer and Healey (1998), the three stages of CALL mentioned above do not fall into neatly contained timelines, as while each new stage

has emerged, previous stages continued, and, what is more, current uses of computers in the language classroom correspond normally to all three paradigms, depending on the task at hand.

The WWW, referred to by the authors as “part library, part publishing house, part telephone, part interactive television”, represents “one of the most diverse and revolutionary media in human history” (p. 64). Moreover, back in the 1998 Warschauer and Healey observed that the global Web was “already starting to transform academia, business, and entertainment; there seems little doubt that it will eventually have a profound impact on education as well” (p. 64).

With the change of our society from the industrial age towards the information age, and the knowledge-based global community, the exchange and interpretation of information and the development of knowledge has become essential for success (Castells, 1996) in a way that preparing students to function in the interconnected society, enabling them to master such skills as finding, evaluating, and critically interpreting net-based information and effective online writing, together with communicating effectively over computer networks, will soon become a major role of language instruction (Warschauer and Healey, 1998). In the present scenario, as a result of all these changes, the teacher has become “a facilitator of learning rather than the font of wisdom, and will find, select, and offer information in a variety of ways on the basis of what the students must learn in order to meet diverse needs” (Warschauer and Healey, 1998: 58).

Observing the advances of technology and the developments of the WWW, Kárpáti (2009: 140) compared the differences between the shift from the original Web 1.0 to nowadays' 2.0 version, stating that:

the most important feature of Web 2.0 for language education is the *change of direction in communication on the internet*: while Web 1.0 was the “readable web”, where the dominant activity was *reception* of texts, sounds and images, Web 2.0 is the “writable web”, where *creation* of new content is dominant (emphasis in original).

As such, Web 2.0 paradigms are closely associated with the emergence of collaborative paradigms in education (Kárpáti, 2009). In the light of the present changes in society, ICT literacy is regarded as the set of skills and competences that teachers and learners of the 21st century should possess. According to Kárpáti (2009), participating in

learning communities “enhances self-respect and through learning, it creates a shared identity and places learning in the context of our lived experiences” (p. 142). The researcher gives as an example the blended learning environment, “where virtual and real learning spaces are organized to create a synergy of experiences” (p. 143), which allows students to engage in tasks involving more full integration of ICT in classroom practices. Oberg and Daniels (2013: 180) also see the advantages of the so-called “blended learning” programmes, in which “elements of event-based activities, e-learning, self-paced study and live classroom interaction are mixed together, can be highly effective methods of instruction.” The present research study focuses precisely on such aspects as the ones mentioned above, since it is aimed at analysing the benefits of classroom integration of ICT in action.

2.3. Digital natives or the Net Generation, digital immigrants and digital divide

In the information age, not only has society changed towards a more globalised, more knowledge-based community, but students have also changed, in such a radical way that, as argued by Prensky (2001), they no longer resemble the young people the traditional education system was designed to teach. Nowadays’ students are *digital natives* (Prensky, 2001), since they have spent their entire lives surrounded by technology, internet, computers, smartphones, videogames, and other mobile digital devices. Due to this “native” use of technologies by the younger generation, this author reflects on what we should call these “new” students of today and comes up with the following term (Prensky, 2001: 1):

Some refer to them as the N-[for Net]-gen or D-[for digital]-gen. But the most useful designation I have found for them is *Digital Natives*. Our students today are all ‘native speakers’ of the digital language of computers, video games and the Internet (emphasis in original).

On the contrary edge to this “native” Net Generation are *Digital Immigrants*, that is, people “who were not born into the digital world” (p. 1), but at some later point in their lives became fascinated (or not) by the new technology and adopted many or most of its aspects and uses in their daily lives. Digital immigrants are not considered very technology savvy, and sometimes may hold rather negative attitudes towards it.

Such a dichotomous classification of these two generations gave rise also to the concept of *digital divide*, which represents the inequality in the access to and the use of technology, seen as “the gap between those who can effectively use new information and communication tools, such as the Internet, and those who cannot”, according to Mancinelli’s (2008: 174) definition. This difference refers to ICT use in people’s daily lives, not only in terms of the physical access to it, but also the ability or knowing how to use digital resources and devices effectively, which is often conditioned by geo-political and socio-economic factors, and may contribute to social exclusion (Warschauer, 2003).

Therefore, according to Prensky (2001), Digital Immigrant educators need to think about how to teach Digital Natives in the language of the Digital Natives, which would involve a major translation and change of methodology, as well as new content and thinking. In Kárpáti’s (2009: 151) words, teachers should “develop a Net Native frame of mind”.

White and Le Cornu (2011), dissatisfied with Prensky’s clear-cut division, proposed a more fluid definition of “digital residents” and “visitors”, understood as a fluctuating continuum. According to White and Le Cornu (2011), digital visitors understand the Web as similar to an “untidy garden tool shed”, where they enter in search of an appropriate tool they need in order to attain certain goal or task, and thus see the Internet as “primarily a set of tools which deliver or manipulate content”, including an interpersonal communication (Visitors and Residents section, para. 1). In contrast, digital residents see the Web as a place similar to “a park or a building in which there are clusters of friends and colleagues whom they can approach and with whom they can share information about their life and work” (Visitors and Residents section, para. 3), and they tend to spend a large proportion of their lives online, within a network of individuals or groups who generate and share content.

However, some scholars, such as Bennett, Maton and Kervin (2008) or Crook (2012) have criticised students’ “native” knowledge of technologies and proficient skills being taken for granted, as remarked by Crook (2012: 77):

As is often the case in education, there is a need to be conscious of the differences students bring to school in terms of their readiness to take advantage of innovative practices and resources.

Likewise, Kennedy and his associates (2009) point at the more than likely mismatch between what some scholars may expect from the “Net Generation”, in terms of their digital literacy and preferences for using ICT, and students’ actual capabilities and desires: even if their general access to and use of technologies is frequent, it is certainly not so in all the contexts of their lives. Some of the possibilities ICT have on offer were not very widespread among the university students surveyed by Kennedy *et al.* (2009), for instance, more than 70% had never kept their own blog, over 50% had never used a social networking site, read someone else’s blog or downloaded a podcast (p. 17). Nevertheless, students reported being very skilled at using the Internet for activities such as sending emails and instant messaging, for fun and for finding information, or using their mobile phones. On the other hand, they reported the lack of skills with other digital tools, such as social bookmarking and producing podcasts, and in fact few students made use of these activities. However, in the area of producing and editing new media, such as manipulating digital photos or images, creating media-rich presentations (e.g. PowerPoint), or creating and editing audio-visual material, between 15% and 25% of students perceived themselves as “not very skilled”, even though the majority of students reported using these technologies and tools with a high frequency (p. 18). These findings and the relatively low levels of prior exposure to ICT many students reported led the researchers to highlight the caution with which assumptions should be made about what students already know (p. 52; see also Kennedy *et al.*, 2007) and their willingness to apply their digital skills to the benefit of learning.

In a similar vein, Oblinger and Oblinger (2005a) observe that the “native” status of the young generation, or, as they call them, the “Net Gen”, meaning that they have grown up with widespread access to technology, and are able to “intuitively” use a variety of digital devices and navigate the Internet comfortably without an instructional manual, does not guarantee that their grasp of ICT is that of an expert. On the contrary, their understanding of the technology or source quality may often be shallow (p. 5).

The extent to which students are digitally literate may vary. Crook (2012) observes that the rather slow appropriation of ICT into educational practice in the majority of contexts may be due to “conservative hesitancy on the part of schools and an exaggeration of digital fluency among young people” (p. 77; see also Collins and Halverson, 2010, and Crook, 2008). In a similar vein, Tearle (2003: 567) remarks that while ICT use is generally increasing, the thorough transformation of educational pedagogy “has not yet

occurred, and the extent and nature of ICT application in schools is still very varied, and in many instances limited”. Although Tearle’s words date back to over a decade ago, in many contexts they are still valid. Moreover, as suggested by Li *et al.* (2015: 450), such advances of technology, as social media and other applications enabled by different devices “offer many possibilities for second language learners to improve their learning, if they are interested in doing so”. Both teachers and learners should show some enthusiasm and interest in applying ICT so as to benefit from it in EFL lessons.

As is the case of the present study’s context, even if some steps have been made to promote the use of technology with younger learners, at high school level ICT are hardly integrated into EFL classes in Spain in general and in the Basque Autonomous Community in particular. This clearly shows that, despite all the technological discourse that permeates schools in particular and society in general, the use of ICT is not as widespread as it is believed. The need for the present study stems thus from an attempt to address gaps in the uneven school-level distribution of ICT-incorporation efforts and informing the research on the possible motivational advantages of letting technology into the high school EFL classroom.

2.4. ICT and Foreign Language Learning

As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, the integration of technology in the EFL classes is generally considered a very useful tool to support the digital and the linguistic competences of our students, that is, to kill two birds with one stone, since the use of technologies in the classroom can certainly add value to the process of learning by engaging students in it and motivating them, as noted in some recent studies in the field (Golonka *et al.*, 2014; Ushioda, 2011).

Moreover, in contexts where the learners “devote more hours to English outside of school than there are hours in school devoted to English” (Sundqvist and Sylvén, 2014: 17), as is the case of Sweden, for instance, there is an urging need for practitioners to engage with authentic language experiences via ICT inside the EFL classroom. In other contexts, when the availability of the English-mediated leisure activities, including media and online activities, is scarce, ICT classroom integration may foster the access to authentic source materials.

However, Hockly (2013: 82) turns the attention towards the ways in which ICT are employed and insists that “as with any technology, it is not the technology itself that enhances teaching or learning, but rather the use to which it is put”. Similarly, it is not only a good technology knowledge what we should pursue that our students acquire, but also a meaningful application of such knowledge rather than the mere access to it (Li *et al.*, 2015).

Nevertheless, the potential of CALL could be explained following Puentedura’s (2010, see also Hockly, 2013) SAMR model, which suggests that technology can be used in learning activities in either of the four ways illustrated in Figure 1.

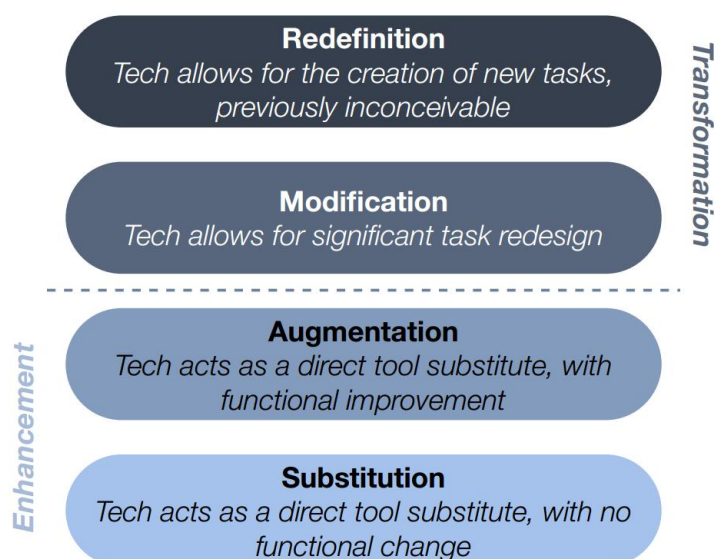


Figure 1. The SAMR model (Puentedura, 2010)

According to this model, technology may solely act as a tool or medium substitute with no functional change (Substitution), a direct substitute with a functional improvement (Augmentation), it may allow for significant task redesign (Modification), or even for the creation of new tasks, which were previously inconceivable (Redefinition). Substitution and Augmentation are seen here as an enhancement of teaching and learning, whereas Modification and Redefinition are understood as its transformation. However, the common use given to technologies which can be observed in the classrooms very frequently does not reach beyond a mere substitution of traditional tools, and the ICT are being employed for the sake of using them (Puentedura, 2010; Hockly, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2015; Fitzpatrick, 2004).

In a similar vein, Fitzpatrick (2004) observes in a report prepared for the UNESCO, that there are some important prerequisites for successful integration of ICT in lessons, emphasising the fact that the vast potential of ICT use for learning purposes should lie in quality rather than quantity. The author remarks (p. 14) that technology has been shown to be

the most successfully deployed in the language classroom when there is a real reason for using it; [it is important that] alternative activities are to hand, if problems arise; training and support is given to learners; the use of technology is integrated and ongoing; the activities engaged in are stimulating and worthwhile to the learners; communication is taking place between learners; [and] learners are asked to use language in meaningful ways.

All these aspects should be taken into account, provided that our aim is to make the most of technologies' application to foreign language learning. Nonetheless, the mere use of ICT cannot act alone, as they are not a "panacea for teaching/learning problems, nor are they a replacement for present models of language learning", but must be "integrated into present, proven, and successful practice if full benefits of their advantages are to be reaped" (Fitzpatrick, 2004: 18). The present research project has aimed at addressing technology's function of augmentation and modification of EFL classroom activities, in the pursue of enhancing and transforming "traditional" learning, while bearing in mind Fitzpatrick's (2004) suggestions for successful ICT integration into classroom practice.

2.5. Digital competence and the use of technology in Spanish education

Spain has been taking some steps to follow the European Parliament's (2006) and the DIGCOMP framework's (Ferrari, 2013) recommendations described in section 2.1, by trying to apply the guidelines concerning the development of digital competence of Spanish pupils and the integration of technologies in the education system to its core curriculum. Nevertheless, their effects can be mostly seen in primary and, to a lesser extent, lower secondary education, while high schools have not undergone the necessary transformation yet. In the following subsections more detailed information will be given on ICT's place and role in Spanish legislation with regard to the school curriculum. A

snapshot of Spain's effort to integrate technology in classroom practices in comparison with other European countries will also be presented.

2.5.1. Digital competence in the Spanish school curriculum

As announced by the official bulletin of the Spanish state (BOE, 29 January 2015), the new educational law, *La Ley Orgánica 8/2013, de 9 de diciembre, para la Mejora de Calidad Educativa (LOMCE)*, specifies that digital competence is one of the key competences for the Spanish education system (p. 6988). As a matter of fact, both the prior law, *La Ley Orgánica 2/2006, de 3 de mayo, de Educación (LOE)*, and the new *LOMCE* law, include a broad reference to digital competence.

Hence, the digital competence is understood in this legislation as the one which implies a creative, critical and safe use of information and communication technologies in order to achieve goals related to one's work, employability, learning, leisure time, as well as social inclusion and participation, which is similar to the definition offered by the DIGCOMP framework (Ferrari, 2013: 2). Moreover, the development of pupils' digital competence brings about an adaptation of the traditional education system in the light of the changes introduced by ICT to basic literacy, reading and writing, as well as a new set of knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to become a competent person in a digital environment nowadays (BOE, 29 January 2015: 6995).

In the present study's context, the Basque Autonomous Community in Spain, which will be further described in section 3.1, *HEZIBERRI2020*, the new Basque school curriculum has been recently published in the official bulletin of the Basque Country (EHAA, 15 January 2016 for basic education, and EHAA, 23 September 2016 for high schools). We can also find there a direct reference to the key competence of digital literacy. In order to foster this multimedia literacy, it is vital to have digital resources available and make use of them in all areas and subjects, enabling in this way their normalised incorporation into teaching and learning processes (EHAA, 15 January 2016: 14). The novelty in the Basque decree lies in the fact that the Basque educational authorities consider ICT literacy an integral part of the key cross-curricular competence of communication, understood as the "verbal, non-verbal, and digital communication competence" (p. 61). Such key cross-curricular competences permeate the whole

curriculum and all school subjects, forming the basis of the acquisition of other competences. These three pillars of communication comprise the ability to use verbal, non-verbal, and digital communication in a complementary way, so as to communicate efficiently and in adequate manner in personal, professional, social, and academic environments (see also EHAA, 23 September 2016: 10).

2.5.2. The integration of ICT in Spanish schools: current situation

Spain has been taking important steps in order to integrate ICT in its educational system. Educational authorities' projects, such as *Eskola 2.0* in the Basque context aim at total digitalisation of classrooms, starting from grades 5 and 6 in primary education (10-11 year olds) and grades 1 and 2 in lower secondary (12-13 year olds). Moreover, this particular project, which, up to date equipped the Basque classrooms with about 80,000 computers, encompasses also providing teachers with professional training with ICT and the new type of methodology their classroom integration demands, as well as guidance and help throughout the implementation of new resources, and the creation of new multimedia contents and materials. The overarching goal of *Eskola 2.0* is a substantial improvement of teaching quality, an adaptation to the globally networked social needs, and the reduction of digital divide, among others. However, similar projects at higher levels of secondary education can hardly be found.

Notwithstanding, there is still a lot of effort to be expended in this matter, especially if we compare Spain's situation to other European countries. The European Commission (2013) conducted a survey of schools across various countries (24 European members, plus Croatia, Norway and Turkey) to analyse the situation of ICT in education, benchmarking access, use and attitudes to technology in European schools, in terms of the grade of schools' digitalisation, computer per student ratio, and frequency of ICT use, among other variables. The educational levels surveyed were grade 4 (primary school, 9-10 year olds), grade 8 (lower secondary, 13-14 year olds), and grade 11 (upper secondary, 16-17 year olds), both general and vocational. The main findings of the study reveal that students' ICT use during lessons "still lags far behind" their use of technologies outside of school, which seems to affect their confidence in their digital competences (European Commission, 2013: 15), since, across the countries surveyed,

students were found to be more confident in their digital competences when they have high access to ICT and use them frequently both at home and at school, compared to students having such access only at home. The low use of digital resources and tools is still a concern for the European authorities.

The data showed that digital textbooks and multimedia tools are the most frequently used resources, however, only 30% of students use them once a week or almost every day, while more than 50% of students at all grades never or almost never use such resources (p. 18). Nevertheless, as illustrated by Figure 2, in the majority of the countries the ratio of students per computer in upper secondary is between 4 and 6, with Spain (ES) fitting within the European Union's (EU) mean of 4 students, on average, working with one computer.

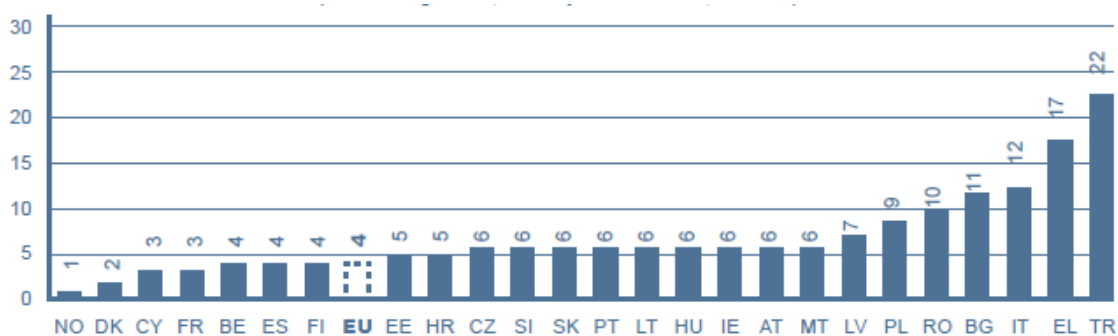


Figure 2. Students per computer ratio, general education, grade 11 (16-17 year olds) (European Commission, 2013: 35)

Although Spain is within the EU mean, on average two thirds of the computers are located in special computer rooms. As specified in the report, about 75% of Spanish primary school pupils (9-10 year olds) attend a school which is highly digitally equipped, with a relatively high number of equipment and a high, good quality connectedness, whereas this percentage falls to just over 50% in case of higher secondary (grade 11), namely, Spanish high schools (European Commission, 2013: 52-53). Thus, there is still room for improvement in terms of physical transformation and digitalisation of Spanish high schools, if the use of ICT is to be duly integrated into teaching practice.

With regard to high school teachers' use of ICT, the percentage of those who use them in at least or more than one in four classes is 32% in the case of Spain (ES), which is also the mean for the EU, as represented in Figure 3.

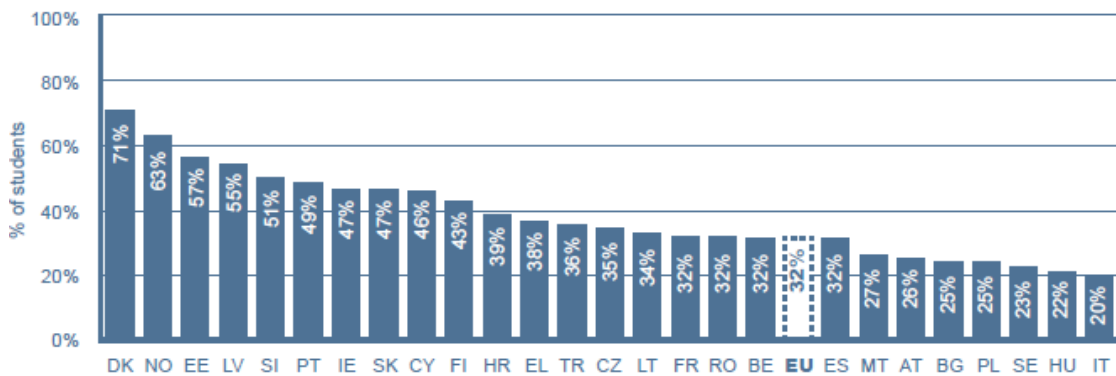


Figure 3. Teachers' use of ICT in more than 25% of the lessons, general grade 11 (European Commission, 2013: 58)

Notwithstanding, there was no strong relation found between the school's provision of ICT and frequency of their use reported by students, which suggests that the focus of EU's policy attention regarding the integration of ICT in education should rather be placed on learning management and not only on provision (p. 61), as the mere fact of the availability of the necessary devices and resources does not seem to guarantee their actual integral use in classrooms. Figure 4 below reflects the percentage of students who reported they (almost) never used a computer during their lessons.

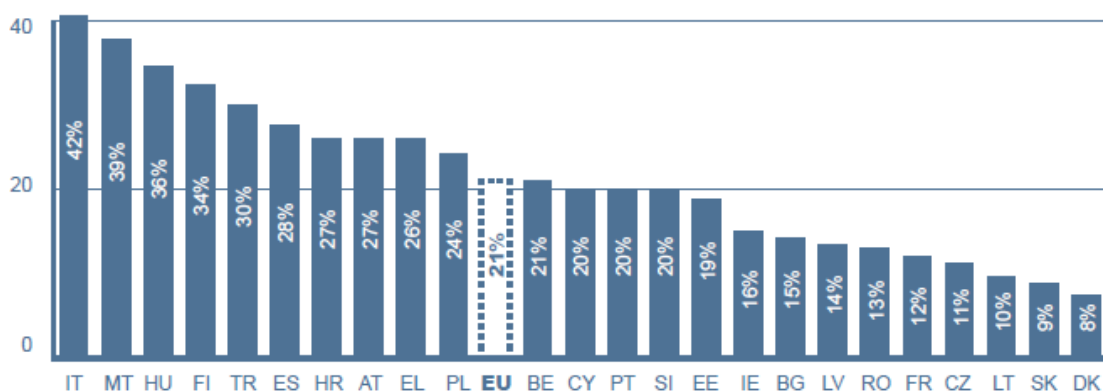


Figure 4. Percentage of students "never" or "almost never" using a computer in lessons, general grade 11 (European Commission, 2013: 64)

Over a quarter (28%) of Spanish (ES) high school students reported very scarce or no use at all of technologies in their classrooms during the last year, which is worth consideration, as, on the other side of the coin, 32% of the teachers claimed being ICT-supportive, by employing technologies quite frequently in their practice. Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that the issue is not only the amount of the teachers' use of the ICT in class, but rather the learners' "hands-on" interaction with technology, with the emphasis on the students being the ones who should manipulate ICT in their classroom activities.

Among other Spanish communities, the Basque Country is at the top of the list when it comes to the number of computers per citizen, computers at home and the use of the Internet (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2003: 301). Regarding the frequency of the use of technology at school, it is close to the EU mean, yet it should be improved. However, and despite the fact that the general majority of Spanish pupils attend rather digitally supportive schools, both teachers' and students' confidence in their ICT skills is below the EU mean in most grades, contrary to what might be expected (European Commission, 2012a: 26).

In another European survey, which gathered the key data on language competences and language teaching (Eurydice, 2012b), the presence of ICT in language teaching and learning was examined. According to the overall findings, in most of the countries or regions within the 14 countries participating in the survey, ICT were not regularly used during language lessons, as reported by the majority of students, although there was a substantial variation between countries (p. 12). As a matter of fact, on average, the percentage of students (aged 15-16) who claimed they regularly use ICT (i.e. Internet, computer programmes or language laboratory) during their language lessons did not reach 20 % (p. 107). Some countries, such as the Netherlands and, to a lesser extent, Sweden, or Slovenia showed higher percentages, at least for two of the three mentioned technologies, as can be observed in Figure 5.

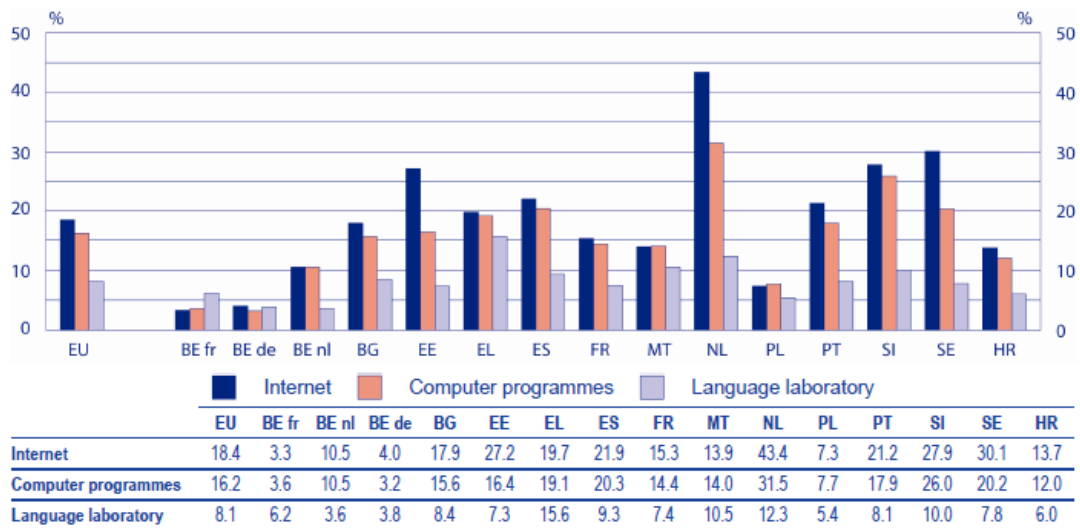


Figure 5. Percentages of students (15-16 year olds) who say that ICT is regularly used during their language lessons (Eurydice, 2012b: 107)

Spain's (ES) average was somewhat higher than the EU mean, with slightly above the mean of one in five (20%) secondary students reporting a regular use of the Internet and computer programmes in their language lessons. Nevertheless, much more could be done to raise the frequency of ICT use in FL classrooms, given the potential of such resources in the learning and teaching of a foreign language. These measurements were made on the secondary level, and thus the situation in high schools is likely to differ from this snapshot, as at this education level the ICT use in EFL classes tends to be rather uncommon.

2.6. Effectiveness and benefits of ICT use in foreign language teaching and learning: evidence from research

As Chapelle (1997), Felix (2005), as well as Golonka and her associates (2014) highlight, in spite of the fact that CALL has been a subject of investigation for over 30 years now, the research on CALL is rather problematic in terms of evaluating the effectiveness of new technologies in the FL classroom, as it lacks a unified agenda and durable, validated findings. Others report that even though technology-assisted instruction (TAI) has long been implemented in language literacy education, the results of research on the effectiveness of TAI have been mixed (Li *et al.*, 2015).

Golonka *et al.* (2014) analysed the available empirical, research-based evidence for the effectiveness of technology use in FL learning. The authors consider describing technology's uses and students' enjoyment when using it as an "admirable and useful goals", yet they remark (p. 92) that "it remains unclear to what extent the activities supported by the technology or the potential increased motivation attributed to them actually increase students' learning". In their review, they report moderate support found for claims that technology enhanced learners' output and interaction, affect and motivation, among others. Although the researchers state that "well-established technologies, such as the personal computer and Internet access, have become nearly ubiquitous for foreign language learning in many industrialised countries" (p. 70), this is not the case still in many settings, such as the one of the present study, where the integration of technologies in classroom practices is still not fully fledged.

Margaryan, Littlejohn and Vojt (2011) questioned the digital nativeness of university students by taking a closer look at their use of technologies for learning, and their perceptions of their educational value. These authors investigated the extent and nature of use of digital technologies by 160 undergraduate students in two British universities. The findings of this study suggest that students use a limited range of technologies for both learning and socialisation, and their level of use and familiarity with collaborative knowledge creation tools, virtual worlds, personal web publishing, and other emergent social technologies is rather low. As regards learning, the students used mainly such established ICT as institutional virtual learning environments (VLE), Google, Wikipedia, and mobile phones, whereas they made only limited, recreational use of social technologies, such as media sharing tools and social networking sites. As the authors remark (p. 439), many young students

may not have the characteristics of epitomic global, connected, socially-networked technologically-fluent 'digital natives', (...) [who are reluctant to] conventional, passive and linear forms of learning and teaching. Indeed, their expectations of integration of digital technologies in teaching focus around the use of established tools within conventional pedagogies. (...) Students have limited understanding of what tools they could adopt and how to support their own learning.

The authors observed that the use of technologies among students was generally limited in terms of range and nature, yet there was some evidence that younger students use

some tools more actively than older students, however, neither of these two groups effectively applied these technologies to their learning's advantage.

The knowledge of how to apply one's ICT skills to the benefit of learning is not innate, it seems that it is the teacher's role to help students and guide them through an effective use of digital possibilities for learning. The data of Margaryan and her associates' (2011) study showed no evidence to support the widespread claims that young people adopt radically different learning styles, as the findings suggest students' "deficit of learning literacies" through technology, and they appear to "conform to traditional pedagogies" (p. 438). Although the authors deem the calls for transformations in education legitimate, they consider grounding the arguments for such change in nowadays' students' changing patterns of learning and technology use as rather misleading, as it cannot be taken for granted that all young students are "digital natives" who naturally know and understand what technology and how to use it to support and enhance their learning. A similar stand was represented by Levy (2009), who observed in his analysis of technologies in use for second language learning that students themselves may not necessarily recognise the connection between their personal use of ICT and exploiting the possibilities it offers for language learning, hence, teachers should guide and mediate this process.

On the other hand, there is also some evidence in the research that students do use ICT in their learning process consciously. For instance, Conole (2008) described the changing landscape of technology use of language students, reporting on the findings from a larger study (Conole *et al.*, 2006) that aimed to elicit the students' voices about the ways in which they were using technologies to support their learning. The researcher found that British university students highly integrated ICT in their learning, they admitted being comfortable with technologies and had no problems with working in multi-modal environments, and they were able to "seamlessly integrate online resources and desktop applications with paper-based materials" (p. 131). The findings of this study demonstrated that students would use a variety of communication tools to support their learning needs and all aspects of their learning processes (p. 136). Contrary to the findings of Margaryan *et al.* (2011), technology was "not simply seen as an 'add-on' for these students", but rather as "central to how they organise and orientate their learning" (p. 138).

Nonetheless, there are also some critical voices on the ICT itself, mentioning that the use of new technologies “can result in (...) student frustration with software and hardware; distraction from learning task; and a general over-emphasis on delivery modality over learning objectives” (Golonka *et al.*, 2014: 71), or that “urban adolescents may lack the language and literacy skills to make optimal use of online resources for learning” (Li *et al.*, 2015: 451).

For instance, the latter study aimed to identify behaviours and purposes of technology use among American adolescents from a variety of language backgrounds and with varying levels of English proficiency, by means of a survey carried out among 531 students in an urban public secondary school in the USA. In spite of the fact that the researchers suggest that “adolescent students may be particularly sensitive to the benefits of technology-based interventions” (p. 465), the results show that “high access to computers and mobile devices alone has not resulted in higher actual usage for common purposes that promote literacy development” (Li *et al.*, 2015: 462).

Cheung and Slavin (2012) reviewed the research on how features of educational technology programmes affect student reading outcomes. In their meta-analysis of 84 studies conducted in various educational levels (K-12, i.e. basic education from kindergarten to grade 12) they found that, in general, educational technology applications produced a positive, although small, effect in comparison to traditional methods. The findings of this study suggest that the supplementary computer-assisted instruction programmes, which have largely dominated the classroom use of educational technology in the past few decades, did not produce educationally meaningful effects on reading for the participating students. However, innovative technology applications and integrated literacy interventions showed “more promising evidence” (p. 198). This supports again the call for a meaningful integration of ICT in the classroom practice, as a part and parcel of the subject’s curriculum, rather than using them as a mere enjoyable add-on.

There are also some problematic issues concerning the use of technologies by the Net Generation at school and at home. Crook (2012) interviewed secondary school adolescents on issues related to the use of Web 2.0 services inside and outside of school. He observed that “when it comes to importing tools (such as Web 2.0 services) from everyday settings into a more structured context (such as school), there will be various possibilities of ‘fit’ between them” (p. 66). In other words, there may appear differences

and tensions between the uses of technology in the two contexts, i.e. inside and outside of school, as students' uses of digital tools and their willingness to use them in the private, leisure domain could be different in the school setting. A similar issue was raised by Henry (2013: 147), who warns against the school intruding too far into students' personal lives, as could happen, for instance, with attempts of classroom use of social networking, or by Stockwell (2013: 168), who signals potential controversies of mobile learning advances in education, which may result in learners' resistance to such blurred division between private and studying space.

However, some students interviewed by Crook (2012) recognised communicative opportunities associated with Web 2.0 and their potential to support learning in a school setting. The students valued, above all, working with others through wikis or blogs and allowing the products of that work to reach an audience, as it produced a rewarding sense of achievement and good work (p. 77). A chance for ICT classroom integration without trespassing learners' privacy is seen also by Henry (2013: 105) in the development of a more creative or creativity-supportive activities, such as personalised wiki or blog compositions which aim at encouraging students to use foreign language in creative ways.

In a similar vein to Golonka *et al.* (2014), Hew and Cheung (2013) analysed the use of Web 2.0 technologies in different basic educational levels up to higher education, in search for evidence-based practice. The general picture found in the results of their review suggests that "actual evidence regarding the impact of Web 2.0 technologies on student learning is as yet fairly weak" (p. 57). Hew and Cheung's (2013) meta-analysis of 27 articles on the impact of Web 2.0 technologies on students' learning in a broad range of disciplines mentions five types of the technologies found in the articles' sample, among others, blog writing. The authors observed that the most commonly investigated Web 2.0 technology was the audio podcast, followed by 3-D immersive virtual worlds, and that the majority of the studies dealt with ICT use in higher education. The present study's novelty is that it focuses on two types of the technologies (the Internet and blogs) used in the educational setting, not just one as most studies do.

Nevertheless, no longitudinal study on the impact of Web 2.0 technologies on learning was found by Hew and Cheung, as most of the studies examined the effect of ICT use over just one semester or less, with some as short as one week (2013: 52). The researchers referred to the consequences of the lack of a wider span of examination of

ICT's impact on students' learning improvement reported in those studies, given that they may be due to the novelty effect "whereby participants knowingly react positively to any new intervention regardless of its merit" (p. 52), as suggested by Clark (1983) and Prince (2004). Prince (2004: 223) pointed at the effect of an introduction of novel methods resulting in an "active learning", which may in fact be an outcome of "any instructional method that engages students in the learning process", whereas Clark (1983: 454) remarked that such novelty effect for newer media tends to disappear over time, and that ICT's benefits in learning seem to result from an entertainment value, or enjoyment which is being attributed to the digital media, which might influence instructionally relevant outcomes.

In the light of the results reported in research, Hew and Cheung (2013: 57) argue that even though at present actual causal effects of Web 2.0 technologies on improvement in students' learning achievement cannot be determined with certainty, due to various methodological concerns, mainly due to a relatively short span of the studies reviewed, broad differences in their design (type of ICT and the specific EFL skill on which impact of ICT use was measured), lack of reported effect sizes to properly judge the magnitude of the differences found in the results, or to small effect sizes to be deemed significant, "the use of Web 2.0 technologies does appear to have a general positive effect", as argued also by Cheung and Slavin (2012). The researchers note that none of the studies they analysed reported a negative influence on learning, however, the beneficial effects found in the studies "are not necessarily attributed to the technologies *per se* but to how the technologies are used" (Hew and Cheung, 2013: 58), and how one conceptualises teaching and learning in order to help students enhance their performance. They put forward that more longitudinal research is required in order to mitigate the "novelty effects" of the ICT use in the classroom (p. 58).

All in all, although the empirical evidence supports claims for the beneficial influence of the ICT use on EFL only moderately (Golonka *et al.*, 2014; Hew and Cheung, 2013), its effectiveness has been shown, above all, in relation to students' motivation. However, evidence of ICT effect on actual improvement of students' learning is scarce. Although the specific impact of technology-mediated activities on the improvement of students' FL skills is beyond the scope of the present research, the participants' oral and written productions were evaluated, in order to ascertain whether ICT use would not

result detrimental to the students' language development (as compared to their counterparts who did not use technologies in their EFL classes).

The objective of the present study is to take a closer look at the integration of ICT-related educational intervention comprising technology-mediated sessions which would not be considered a simple "add-on" to the project, but become the core of the learning activities (Conole, 2008). The present research aims to cater for the need of longer studies as those called for by Hew and Cheung (2013), as it has been developed throughout one school year and a half. Thus, its novelty stems from its focus on two types of technologies (the Internet and blogs) and their impact on high school EFL learners, as the majority of the studies reviewed so far were carried out among university students.

2.7. Attitudes towards ICT in the language classroom

Students' as well as teachers' attitudes towards technologies and their use in the classroom are, without any doubt, an important issue, since they can largely influence their (un)willingness to interact with them. Unlike the previous section 2.6., which deals with the general (lack of) evidence from research on the benefits and effectiveness of ICT, this part is specifically focused on attitudes towards ICT. It should be highlighted that investigating such attitudes is one of the main objectives of the present research. Hence, in this section a general definition of attitude will be provided, followed by a review of research findings on teachers' and students' attitudes towards the integration of ICT in their EFL lessons. Since research into the use of ICT in ELT and CALL is exceptionally broad, and a comprehensive review of all sorts of technology applied in EFL is beyond the scope of this study, only studies concerning foreign language learners' attitudes towards ICT, the use of blogs and the Web in particular will be considered.

2.7.1. Attitudes: definition and key concepts

The direction and persistence of human behaviour can be explained, according to Baker (1992: 10) by the construct of attitude. Ajzen (2005: 3) defines attitude as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution or event”. Its nature is evaluative and may vary in terms of intensity, which means that attitude can be, to a different degree, pro-something or against it, or considering something pleasant or unpleasant. For Allport (1954, in Garrett, 2010: 19) attitude is “a learned disposition to think, feel and behave toward a person (or object) in a particular way”. This extended view of attitude subsumes cognition (beliefs about the world and the relationships between the objects), affect (feelings about the attitude object), and behaviour (predisposition to act in certain ways) (Garrett, 2010: 25). Hence, this led Gass and Seiter (1999: 41) to claim that attitudes are “by and large, predictive of behaviour”.

Similarly, Sarnoff (1970: 279) refers to attitudes as “a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects”, which embodies evaluative orientation towards a social object. What is more, considering attitudes’ relation to people’s behaviour, Garrett (2010: 21) remarks that it is “generally accepted that attitudes can function as both input into and output from social action”, for instance, the reception and production of a language.

That is why it can also be hypothesised that attitudes towards the use of ICT in the EFL classroom may affect students’ learning process and, therefore, the present study focuses on the analysis of learners’ attitudes towards the use of new technologies, such as the Internet, as a basis for classroom learning activities. I will refer to language attitudes further in section 4.1.

2.7.2. ICT use in foreign language teaching and learning: teachers’ stand

Nevertheless, attitudes towards integrating the technology in the classroom practice may affect also teachers’ behaviour. As far as the ICT awareness and willingness to embrace new technologies in schools are concerned, a recent study by Cassany (2014), based on 36 secondary teachers’ interviews in Catalonia in Spain, shows a set of good practices

of educating with and through the Internet and a general concern for digital competences for future teachers and the willingness to use ICT in classrooms. The teachers are aware that Internet connection allows for a diversified input for the learners and multimodal materials (apart from texts, videos and photos), while it also provides classroom activities with more vitality and versatility (Cassany, 2014: 42). The main use they make of the Internet is as a source of information (search engines, key words). ICT enable the teachers to practise more action-oriented classroom dynamics and methodology, rather than the one based on transferring the knowledge to the students. The author underscores the importance of some examples of a “good practice” a secondary teacher of a foreign language may apply to his or her teaching owing to ICT. Such good practice is, among others, less dependent on a course book, while it fosters frequent and thorough information searches, more cooperative work, implementation of learning projects of a long duration, and developing digital writing skills. However, the author is aware of the widespread and problematic issue of students “copy-pasting” information to their own productions (p. 45). An emphasis is also put in the inclusion of explicit teaching to secondary students of how to use digital writing tools, such as dictionaries, correcting software, and translation on-line assistance properly, even if the exam format is always pen and paper. As regards the Web-based information search, Cassany underlines that it has become a core and most widespread practice of the reading skills in the Internet era (2014: 43). Therefore, the present study employed the Internet information search format as the essential activity in the ICT-intervention’s implementation in the EFL classes.

Notwithstanding, Yang (2012: 105) expresses rather critical comments on British schools urging to equip their classrooms with ICT infrastructure without really integrating their use, and remarks that “pedagogical practice and ICT equipment should go hand in hand”. Apparently, the rapid rise in funding for ICT “did not bring about the desired pedagogical transformation needed to harness technology’s potential” (p. 107). This is a very important issue, which is not exceptional to the British context.

A similar situation can be found in Spain, where, in some regions, such as Extremadura, which have pioneered the school provision of one computer per student, yet this far-reaching ICT equipment did not bring about any major change in education. As a matter of fact, the teachers were concerned with the authorities’ project of classrooms’ digitalisation, because despite having new computers, they actually had little idea of

what to do with them in their lessons. As Cabanillas (2008, February 13), remarks in *Hoy.es* newspaper, when the schools' digitalisation started, it was seen as an advance of a thorough transformation of the whole educational system. Four years after, not only had the long-awaited change not occurred, but the project had not resisted problems with maintenance and update of the infrastructure and the computers, which run the risk of becoming obsolete. What is more, the adaptation of the teaching system to the incorporation of ICT tools in schools in many cases needs yet to be done. What the author argues is that, before the introduction of the equipment, what is needed is a methodological revolution and an "update" for the teachers (para. 6), otherwise, he claims, without teachers' collaboration, no matter how many computers may be installed in a classroom, they would not be employed in their classroom practice. Accordingly, Moral (2011, December 27) in an article published in *El Periódico de Extremadura* observes that the digitalisation of the classrooms had not translated into an improved academic and pedagogical performance, contrary to what was expected by the authorities. Apparently, the resources were being "under-used" (para. 3), and only one third of the teachers used them frequently, whereas the remaining percentage used ICT only occasionally, or not at all.

In the same vein, Livingstone (2012) provides some critical reflections on the benefits of ICT in education from a teacher's stand, and observes that technology is widely seen as enhancing learning, but it is "not yet so embedded in the social practices of everyday life so as to be taken for granted, with schools proving slower to change their lesson plans than they were to fit computers in the classroom" (p. 9). This is still the case in many settings, such as the one of the present study, where the integration of technologies in classroom practices is not yet thorough. The researcher is convinced, however, that ICT have the potential to bridge forms of knowledge and literacy, by bringing together traditionally separated "analogue" educational technologies, such as books, writing, telephone, television, photography, databases, games and more, and intersecting places of learning, between home, school, work and community (p. 10). As such, the purported beneficial power of technology lies, according to the author, in that:

it may liberate teachers and pupils from the rigid hierarchies which have locked them to their desks, curricula and assessment straitjacket, mobilising multiple activities as mediators of learning – not only reading and writing, but also creating, designing, performing, searching and playing (p. 17).

Such hypothesised transformation of the educational system would render the role of the learner (and the teacher) more flexible, because knowledge itself may be understood as fluid and open to interpretation. However, as Livingstone remarks, some critical voices have doubted that “more or better ICT will automatically mean more and better education” (2012: 10), because despite the enthusiasm towards new initiatives to transform the learning process by means of the integration of technology, the evaluation system has still a traditional exam format, and these tests and the possession of knowledge they assess “continue to be crucial for pupils’ future success (and failure)” (p. 18).

Yunus (2007: 88) investigated 530 Malaysian teachers’ voices, fears and attitudes towards the integration of ICT in ESL classes, as the research data indicate that ESL teachers “perceive that ICT enhances the need to know how to integrate it in teaching”, yet they acknowledge that it “helps their students understand English better, facilitates their students’ language learning, enables them to use real or authentic language with people and meets the individual language learning needs of their students”. The majority of teachers displayed a positive attitude towards using ICT in teaching English, as they regarded them as having the potential to support new learning experiences for their students (p. 91). Indeed, as Guo and Stevens (2011: 234) remark, the importance of teacher’s attitudes towards technology may in turn exert a beneficial effect on students’ technology perceptions. Therefore, Yunus (2007) underscores the importance of an adequate preparation for teachers, enabling them to integrate ICT into teaching, and calls also for an ongoing training and support with ICT (p. 93). A similar need for CALL in teacher training was highlighted as well by Gallardo del Puerto and Gamboa (2009), Kessler (2013), and Yang (2012). To the end of fostering future teachers’ expertise in digital skills, Bueno-Alastuey and Kleban (2016) suggest that first-hand experiences in ICT’s educational possibilities should be promoted (see also Kleban and Bueno-Alastuey, 2016).

According also to Warschauer (1996b: 41), teachers can contribute to enhancing pupils’ motivation by helping them gain the necessary knowledge and skills to use computers, “giving them ample opportunity to use electronic communication, and carefully integrating computer activities into the regular structure and goals of the course”. A decade ago, this scholar remarked that most research regarding the motivating aspect of computer assisted instruction was outdated, as new technologies, such as multimedia

programmes and computer-mediated communication, popularised in the early 1990s, “allow new ways of using computers in the classroom, and thus new ways of motivating students” (Warschauer, 1996b: 30). Nowadays, the rhythm of creation of different programmes, applications, and devices is much more accelerated than a decade ago, which makes it difficult for teachers and researchers to keep up with its pace and requires a constant update of the great array of possibilities offered by ICT, lest we pursue boosting students’ motivation by means of an obsolete technology.

In the same line, Yang (2012: 103) considers the implications of British teachers’ personal attitudes for “harnessing technology’s pedagogical potential” of utmost importance, even if they may (still) place themselves “on a spectrum of attitudes from dedicated, through willing, to resistant in terms of engaging in pedagogical development and innovation” (p. 112). ICT’s major advantage in assisting teachers in their practice is situating learning in an authentic context and offering different perspectives (p. 103).

Blake (2013: 2) also suggests that technology in the “brave new digital classroom”, provided that it is used reasonably, “can play a major role in enhancing L2 learners’ contact with the target language, especially in the absence of study abroad” option, which is the case with the majority of the students who participated in the present study. Internet is without any doubt an ideal tool to use so as to allow students gain access to authentic source L2 materials (p. 4), however, its potential depends on how it is used or integrated in the curriculum, a question also raised by Hew and Cheung (2013). Technology presents both a promise and a challenge to communication in an L2, since computer mediation, apart from its advantages, may also present some pitfalls, and it is “far from being a panacea” (Kern, 2014: 354) to improve foreign language education on its own.

It has been over two decades since some scholars detected teachers’ reticent mindset as far as the “ICT revolution” is concerned, although the inclination towards doubtfulness as to whether to use or not to use technologies is still widespread among many EFL teachers, especially in high schools, as reported in the recent data on the frequency of employing ICT in European classrooms (European Commission, 2013). Back in the ‘90s, Tella (1996) wondered whether the relationship between foreign language teaching and technology was “harmony or hell”. The researcher advocated for allocating more time to teachers, so that they could learn to make “full use” of ICT during official

school time (p. 13), as he observed that FL teachers' relationship with ICT could be generally described as varying on a scale from being:

worried, scared of ICT, disliking, superficial or reluctant towards it, following suit but with no authentic enthusiasm, imitating other colleagues so as not to be taken for backbenchers, at once hating and loving ICT, getting fond of it little by little, pioneering, being enthusiastic about educational applications of ICT to crackers, hackers, leading the way (p. 4-5).

In the view of such attitudinal variation regarding the use of ICT among teachers, learners' beliefs should also be looked at.

2.7.3. Students' attitudes towards ICT and their use in the EFL classroom

Once teachers' opinions on ICT implementation in the classrooms have been analysed, students' attitudes to the educational use of technology should be examined. The vast majority of the research on this matter, which is reviewed in this section, has been carried out at university level, which is why the present study was conducted precisely in upper-secondary education (high school), to address this existing gap.

Warschauer (1996b) surveyed 167 ESL and EFL university students enrolled in academic writing courses in three different countries (Hong Kong, Taiwan and the U.S.) on their feelings about using a computer for writing and communication (e-mail). All students showed positive attitudes towards learning with computers, as they regarded computers helpful in learning better and more independently, enabling them to write faster, more creative and better essays, enhancing the learning opportunities (p. 39). The most favourable attitude was displayed by the students from groups in which computer work was "absolutely integral to the class", rather than included as "an informal add-on" (p. 40).

Nevertheless, the author puts forward that it is not clear whether more knowledge and experience with technology cause a more positive attitude towards it, or whether a more positive attitude towards technology causes one to gain more knowledge and experience using it (p. 40), and thus suggests a bi-directionality of such causal relationship.

Therefore, as stated by Ushioda (2011: 207), ICT use during EFL classes may have a positive impact by participation in the “cyberworld which has become an integral part of our identity, motivation and daily life” on the learners’ attitudes and motivation to learn English. ICT are simply a part of students’ lives, so they should be let in the foreign language classrooms and become thoroughly integrated into classroom practices.

Stockwell (2013), in his article on the nature of the relationship between the use of technology and motivation in language learning, reviews the mainstream ICT used in FL teaching, namely, communication, social, and mobile technologies. As this researcher asserts, “the potential of technologies to enhance motivation of both teachers and learners of English is certainly powerful” (p. 170), however, the relationship between ICT and motivation could be bi-directional, as suggested by Warschauer (1996b) when he referred to attitudes towards ICT and digital skills. Pondering on the relationship between students’ motivation to use ICT as means to improve language learning, Stockwell (p. 163) argues:

Motivation to use a technology could very well lead learners to develop motivation to learn a language (although unlikely automatically) and, conversely, sustained motivation to learn a language could result in a desire to use technology.

Although the motivational increase is not automatic, ICT integration into classroom practices may be beneficial for FL learning, and can be used to “assist and maintain learners’ motivation”, however, regarding sustained use of technologies, as Stockwell remarks, studies have given mixed results, but generally, rather than relying on learners’ autonomous work with technology outside of class, teacher’s supervision is required so as to learners continue to engage actively with technology (p. 159). All in all, ICT themselves are not “inherently” motivating for the learners to study, but rather the manner and the context of their use, and they should certainly not be regarded or used as an alternative to a good teaching practice (p. 171), which is in line with Hew and Cheung’s (2013) suggestions.

On the other hand, the general “fun factor” usually associated with the use of technology in learning should not be overlooked, as it contributes to pupils’ positive learning experience. In the already mentioned European survey on ICT in education

(European Commission, 2013), an overwhelming majority of students exhibited positive to very positive attitude towards the impact of ICT use on the classroom atmosphere and on the learning process. Regardless of the specific issue or grade concerned (grades 4, 8, and 11), 70-75% of the students agreed that “using a computer is fun”, and that they use them for “learning to help with future adult life” (European Commission, 2013: 121).

Positive attitudes are considered essential for successful language learning processes and for meaningful use of technologies, as suggested by Guo and Stevens (2011) in their study on use and usefulness of wikis conducted among 205 first year Australian university students. The students appeared not to especially like wikis, however, they showed a more positive attitude towards it if they believed that wikis would be useful for the completion and improvement of their assignment quality. As the authors (p. 225) note:

If students feel uncomfortable with the technologies that they use in their learning and do not feel confident in their ability to use the technology effectively, they may experience difficulty in their interactions with peers and instructors, and in the completion of their work.

They thus warn against a possible negative effect of such feelings on students’ attitudes towards the use of technology, which may also impact on their learning outcomes (p. 225). Such complex cause-effect relationship between learners’ experience with ICT, their disposition towards their educational use and, as an effect, the gains or loss in students’ learning process was also partially claimed by Stockwell (2013) and Warschauer (1996b).

A number of studies concerning students’ attitudes towards ICT in EFL setting revealed that participants were in general positive towards ICT, and towards the use of ICT for learning process, as they acknowledged the advantages of the employment of technologies in language learning (Liu, 2009), and regarded them an important and useful tool for searching information and broadening their knowledge (Hernández *et al.*, 2010).

Golonka *et al.* (2014: 92) remark also that “a large number of studies confirmed that learners enjoy using technology in FL learning and that they prefer using technology over more traditional methods and materials”. It seems that learners tend to be more

engaged in the process of learning, and have a more positive attitude towards learning by virtue of technology. For instance, in the aforementioned study by Hernández *et al.* (2010) university students' (teacher trainees) attitudes towards ICT were measured, and they turned out to be positive. The participants highlighted the importance of favourable attitudes and acceptance of ICT in their lives and the society in general, and they deemed technologies a useful means of assignments' elaboration, information search, as well as quite helpful in enriching their academic knowledge and results. Hernández and his associates' research (Hernández, Hernández, De Moya, García and Bravo, 2010; De Moya, Hernández, Hernández and Cózar, 2011) was carried out among 146 Spanish university undergraduate students to determine their level of acquaintance with ICT, their use and attitudes towards them. The data showed that the students did possess the knowledge of different technologies, yet what they used by far the most was the Web search, basic programmes (such as, blogs, chats, forums, and Web search engines, among others), and interpersonal communication software (De Moya *et al.*, 2011: 146).

The experience of interacting with ICT in the learning environment was also assessed positively by the participants of two studies by Siragusa and Dixon (2009) and Ipiña (2012), who found overall favourable mindset regarding the ICT among the participants, in addition to a positive change in students' attitudes towards English after the implementation of ICT in the classroom. Siragusa and Dixon (2009) analysed 21 Australian university students' attitudes towards ICT-based learning interaction. They used a quantitative survey, followed by a 20-minute ICT-based activity, upon completion of which students responded a qualitative questionnaire on their feelings before engaging with the activity, and during its progression, as well as their views about whether such activities were useful for teaching and learning (p. 972). In general, the students believed that ICT activities play an important role in the overall process of teaching and learning, and they should be a part of the learning context, as 81% of the participants responded ICT activities were important to very important (p. 977). Nevertheless, the majority of the students expressed feelings of anxiety and lack of confidence when they started the ICT-based activity and some felt even overwhelmed and confused, what may be accounted for by the unfamiliar topic or type of activity, although, as they progressed, they tended to feel relieved and did not find the ICT-interaction as difficult as they initially thought it would be (p. 978). Since attitudes,

beliefs and behaviours are linked, an integration of ICT in classroom practice is important in the formation of positive learning experiences and favourable attitudes.

Furthermore, Ipiña's (2012) study was conducted also at tertiary level and it aimed at analysing the impact on Basque students' attitudes towards English as foreign language and ICT of a CLIL experience based on the use of wikis as a tool for improvement of collaborative writing. The study's measurements were taken three times over one academic year: at the beginning of the academic year, after the implementation of a one-semester project involving ICT use, and 5 months after its end, at the end of the academic year. The ICT-based project was a CLIL experience where collaborative writing tasks were developed by students through wikis. Apart from questionnaire data gathering students' attitudes towards EFL and ICT, focus groups were also carried out to obtain a qualitative insight into students' responses, and their individual and group written productions were assessed by means of the ESL Composition PROFILE tool (Jacobs *et al.*, 1981). The results of this study showed that students' attitudes towards both English and ICT improved after the implementation of the experience and were sustained over time, regardless of gender or other individual variables. Although they seemed not that enthusiastic about the use of wiki itself (p. 568), their written compositions improved, and they regarded ICT use as important aspect in their learning.

In a similar line with Ipiña's (2012) study's results, Liu (2009) found overall positive attitudes towards ICT and the integration of technology into English learning among university students, irrespective of their ICT competence, although the students reported scarce use of ICT in English classrooms on a daily basis, and that their incorporation into the curriculum was far from being the norm, as already noted elsewhere in the case of European schools (Eurydice, 2012b). Liu (2009) surveyed 140 Chinese undergraduates, and interviewed them also by means of focus groups. The study's focus was to examine participants' attitudes towards ICT as a medium for learning English and possible association between the subjects' ICT attitudes and their learning outcomes, which were observed to correlate positively. Students appeared to be fully aware of the advantages of ICT in their English learning, however, they displayed some reservations about the "compatibility of ICT use" with the institution's policy, and the goals set by the curriculum (p. 104).

Likewise, Ayres (2002) investigated students' attitudes towards the use of computer-assisted language learning and their perceived view of its relevance to their learning.

The researcher was concerned about how much 157 non-native undergraduates studying English in New Zealand valued the use of CALL in their language courses, and gauging their overall attitudes towards the use of computers in the language learning process. To this purpose, the students used CALL laboratory with an access to broad materials for 1-2 hours per week, which were part of their core class contact hours. The results of this study showed that CALL was highly valued in terms of flexibility and interest for the learner (p. 247), although the preferred model of learning and the most interesting option indicated by students was the combination of classroom contact with a teacher and a computer. Learners appreciated and valued learning with ICT, as they indicated that it was easy to use and simple, relevant to their needs, and an important part of the course. They also asserted that CALL helped to improve their English skills, while it also provided useful information, it was motivating and should certainly be used more. Ayres (2002) emphasises the need for CALL experiences to be integrated into language classes, forming an important part of the course. This claim is in line with Warschauer's (1996b) findings, which indicate that the computer work which is an integral element of a core class, rather than an add-on, yields students' more favourable attitudes towards technology.

Similarly, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2003) analysed students' insights and impressions concerning CALL. By means of self-report measures, 59 Basque undergraduate learners of English expressed their opinions and experiences with 4 different CALL software they were using in a multimedia laboratory as an additional, remedial support for their normal EFL courses. As showed in the results, the students clearly saw ICT as a useful complementary tool in the foreign language classroom, and the activities they enjoyed the most involved listening, vocabulary and pronunciation skills (p. 298). The areas of self-perceived improvement identified after using CALL were, above all, vocabulary, grammar and listening. However, as in Ayres' (2002) study, the vast majority preferred the combined option of teacher and software (p. 299), although they did not use computers to support their learning as often as it may have been expected.

Keeping students motivated in their EFL class in the digital era may result a difficult task, as reported by Henry (2013, 2014) in his research conducted in Sweden, due to the lack of ICT presence into usual teaching practice. On average Swedish students tend to spend about 20 hours per week in English-mediated environments outside school, in leisure time activities such as watching TV or films, browsing Internet sites, playing

digital games, and listening to music (Sundqvist, 2009; Sundqvist and Sylvén, 2014; Olsson, 2011). This is in sharp contrast with a very rare integration of students' interests into classroom activities, and a scant use of digital technologies and authentic, meaningful materials in the formal, textbook-dominated school setting. Analysing the official data from the Swedish Schools Inspectorate, Henry (2014) found out that the pupils (aged 12-15) felt that their English classroom's practices rather demotivated them, because the majority of them perceived the outside school context was equally good or even a better source for learning English than the classroom. About 16% of the students claimed they learned most or (nearly) all their English outside of school (p. 100), however, there were some gender differences, as girls did not report having learnt as much English outside school as boys, which may result from boys' general higher interest in digital gaming (Sundqvist, 2009).

As Henry (2014: 109) observes, if the boys believe that they learn more English outside school, "they may be less likely to exert themselves in the classroom", what may lead to undervaluing instruction in the formal elements of language, emphasised in EFL classes, and thus failing to benefit from it, "risking losing out skills important for higher education and future professional communication" (p. 111). Similar findings were reported in an earlier study by Henry (2013), where he pointed at the lack of authenticity of EFL classroom activities perceived by the students as artificial and distant from (their) reality, which often resulted in a reluctance to engage or invest in classroom work. The author emphasises the importance of developing pedagogical practices in order to "address the authenticity gap" between the worlds inside and outside the EFL classroom (Henry, 2013: 139), by making the most of ICT in educational setting, a call which has also been made by other scholars, such as Ushioda (2011, 2013b). This is, however, not the case of the present study's context (the Basque Country), where contact with English outside school is, as it will be described in detail in section 3.2. and 3.3., still rather limited, even in the mass media and the digital dimension.

On the whole, the scholars call for more frequent use of ICT in EFL classrooms (Henry, 2013; Ushioda, 2011, 2013b), yet students may not recognise the possibilities offered by personal use of ICT applied to the learning environment (Levy, 2009), while scholars warn against too much interference of school in students' private use of ICT (Crook, 2012; Henry, 2013; Stockwell, 2013). It has to be noted that, as highlighted by Golonka

et al. (2014) and Hew and Cheung (2013) the research studies evaluating CALL's effectiveness in the FL classroom (see also Chapelle, 1997; Felix, 2005) are rather inconclusive, due to the lack of strong evidence. What is more, as Ipiña (2012: 285) remarks, in recent years attitudes towards ICT have gained more attention from scholars, but still more empirical evidence is needed. Despite students' overall positive attitude towards ICT use in learning, the bulk of studies on students' disposition towards educational use of technology were conducted at tertiary level (Ayres, 2002; Conole, 2008; Guo and Stevens, 2011; Hernández *et al.*, 2010; Ipiña, 2012; Kennedy *et al.*, 2009; Liu, 2009; Margaryan *et al.*, 2011; Siragusa and Dixon, 2009; Warschauer, 1996b). Secondary school adolescents were subjects of such kind of investigation in fewer cases (Crook, 2012; Henry, 2013, 2014; Li *et al.*, 2015). There is also moderate evidence of a positive effect of ICT use on students' attitudes towards technology (Ipiña, 2012; Siragusa and Dixon, 2009) and EFL (Ipiña, 2012), although the participants were once again university students. The present study aims at addressing this gap by informing about attitudes towards ICT displayed by high school students.

2.8. Blogs and the Web as tools for FL learning

Blogs have only recently been gaining popularity as an educational tool for improving language learning, therefore, research on using blogs in the classroom setting in order to increase students' motivation to learn a foreign language are not very abundant (Pinkman, 2005).

The present study encompasses the use of the Web and blogs' influence on students' motivation and English learning, which is why this subsection deals with studies focusing on the use of these tools in language learning.

2.8.1. Blogging as a tool for FL learning: main findings

First of all, in this section the focus will be placed on teachers' use of blogs. Then, it will be switched to the findings of studies examining students' use of blogs conducted with, first, primary pupils, and, then, university students. To my knowledge, no study on

the effect of blogs' use on learning carried out with high school students has been reported in the literature.

2.8.1.1. Research on teachers' use of blogs

In order to take a closer look at the use teachers give to this particular ICT, García Gómez (2008) analysed 25 educational blogs (*edublogs*) created by different secondary teachers of English in Spain. The researcher observed that they may indeed serve as a useful tool in order to improve learners' reading skills and habits (p. 123), as their contents encompass all the key competences of the foreign language curriculum, with a special focus on the communicative competence and the development of the four language skills. Activities included in the blogs examined were designed to complement teachers' classroom practice, and allowed for a relatively easy completion of tasks, while they also served the function of learning to use the Internet with educational aims, as pupils learn to complete an on-line exercise but they also discover the use of the Web as source of information and knowledge. Blogs' applications where pupils can upload information, leave comments or share their opinion foster writing and reading skills with communicative aims, which are necessary for the development of the key competences pupils need to be equipped with in the 21st century (p. 134).

Nevertheless, some sceptical voices on technology integration in the classroom may be found in research on blogs' use. One example is that of González *et al.* (2013), who were somewhat critical on the effectiveness of the pedagogical use of ICT in learning Spanish as a foreign language, as they observed little interaction on some of the five different teachers' personal blogs analysed. However, even if this space is usually characterised by offering rich interaction, if teachers' personal blogs are compared with typical "classroom blogs", it seems to work well in different communicative contexts but the educational one, due to a rather scarce interaction found by these researchers. The present study employed the blog writing, yet it emphasised the students' collaborative work previous to actual posting, as the blogs were individually created by each student and the posts were also evaluated individually.

2.8.1.2. Research on students' use of blogs

Regarding the implementation of blogs' use in primary education, Wong and Hew (2010) reported the positive effect of the use of blogs in English learning. These researchers carried out a study with 36 primary pupils from Singapore (grade 5) to determine the effectiveness of blogs and scaffolding to improve their narrative writing in English. Over the course of three weeks, pupils developed blogging activities to draft their narratives, making use of a writing model guide, which consisted of useful linking words, helpful phrases and questions to scaffold and assist the planning of their written assignment (a story). Apart from assessing the impact of blogs and scaffolding on pupils' writing skills, their perceptions of using the blog as a tool for writing were also explored. The results seem to indicate that the pedagogical intervention was successful in terms of improvement of pupils' scores, as their narratives were better after the implementation of blogging activities. It appears that primary school pupils enjoyed using blogging as a writing tool as compared to writing on paper (p. 9), since they made much more positive than negative comments about the experience. The researchers claim that blogs were thus confirmed in their study as a "useful motivational tool" that prompts pupils to write better, as they present "a fun and authentic writing environment" for their posts, that may reach a broader audience apart from the teacher (p. 10). However, as remarked by the authors, such short-term studies on innovative method introduction as theirs may be influenced by a novelty effect (Hew and Cheung, 2013; see also Clark, 1983). Similarly, Wong and Hew (2010) acknowledge an important issue in educational blog use, as they noted that some pupils experienced difficulties in using blogs due to their limited typing ability (p. 11), and they propose a typing workshop for such kind of pupils before an actual start of blog use, in order to help "bring their typing ability up to par with the rest of the pupils so that they would not be disadvantaged when using blogs in the classroom". However, as showed in the study, overall, being less skilled in typing did not result in pupils' dissatisfaction with blog or curb its positive effect.

All remaining studies reviewed in this section were conducted at the tertiary education level. The integration of blogs' use in the classroom was analysed by Armstrong and Retterer (2008), who observed in their qualitative study on blogging that a group of 16 American undergraduate students of Spanish students preferred working with

technology over traditional non-technological materials. The participants of the study indicated that they preferred blogging to traditional writing tasks, they felt motivated and they believed that blogging improved their writing. The participants were tested to determine whether blogging could provide an opportunity to help learners become more actively immersed in a foreign language, by means of an online class journal (community blog) and personal blogs writing over the course of a semester, as an additional activity to the normal course. Such ICT-based activities are deemed helpful to counterbalance the lack of the target foreign language input outside of school, as some scholars suggest (Hsu, 2013).

In Armstrong and Retterer's (2008) study, the blogs served different functions: on their personal blogs students posted their more formal and structured writing assignments on particular topics, which were graded, whereas the community blog was a kind of discussion board, where students were asked to participate twice a week. All participants reported being frequent users of the Internet and word processing applications. On average, the students wrote more in the ungraded blog. At the end of the semester students were asked to complete an online anonymous survey about their blogging experience. The results showed that 84.5% said they liked the blog writing. Sixty-nine per cent indicated that they felt that they wrote more because they were writing online (p. 246) and all students reported being more comfortable and confident using the target language (p. 233). These results led the authors to claim that "this generation of computer literate students found blogging an appealing way to communicate in a foreign language" (p. 247), and to further argue (2008: 249), that:

Using blogs in a course does not necessarily make students more proficient or guarantee that students will write better, but we are encouraged by the fact that students, in writing more frequently, and perhaps, more informally, reported feeling more confident in their ability to write in the target language. As with many of the new technologies that we now can bring into the classroom, blogs offer us an additional medium for foreign language interaction.

Furthermore, Pinkman (2005) in her action research investigated using blogs in the foreign language classroom as a means to encourage out of class learning among 15 Japanese university students, learners of English during one semester. The findings of this study suggest that the learners perceived using blogs as beneficial to their learning of reading and writing skills, since they contributed to increased interest and motivation

to use English, owing to their interaction with classmates and teachers (p. 12). Blogs can thus contribute to motivational increase by practicing English out of the classroom in an authentic (digital) environment.

Similarly, Simpson (2013: 186) admits that communication using new literacy technologies “offers the opportunity to develop and emphasise different aspects of identity with new sorts of writing, and new, multimodal, multilingual and globally-spread social spaces”, although his case study’s observations revealed that the pedagogic use of technology (blogging) did not enable the learner to develop a new identity, in contrast to often cited affordance of electronic media in language learning contexts (p. 183). Instead, student’s conventional linguistic behaviours did not vary from the ones they are used to in class while writing on the blog (p. 197). Nonetheless, the adult Indian learner of English Simpson interviewed and observed in his study saw the class blog in a positive light, as a pedagogically useful tool (p. 194) in this way of electronically mediated interaction.

Arslan and Şahin-Kizil (2010) reported the positive effect of the use of blogs in English learning, in line with Wong and Hew (2010). This study examined the impact of a blog-centred writing instruction on 27 Turkish EFL university students’ writing performance, as compared to a control group. Both groups received in-class process-oriented writing instruction during one academic term, whereas the experimental group was supported with blog use out of the classroom, which enabled them to access more information and materials through the tutor’s blog. Moreover, during the drafting process of their assignments, blogging students received feedback and comments not only from their tutor, but also from a larger audience, peers and family members. Results of Arslan and Şahin-Kizil’s (2010) study revealed that students involved in the blog writing outperformed in writing their counterparts from the control group. Even though the authors acknowledged that students’ writing improvement could be a result of having access through blogs to more materials, such as sample paragraphs, language input, and feedback, rather than an effect of the mere use of the blog itself; the authors, however, argued that these opportunities were made possible by the use of blogs (p. 194).

Nonetheless, contrary to Wong and Hew’s (2010) findings among primary pupils, the use of blogs has also been found to exert no significant effect on learning and motivation, as reported by Hsu and Wang (2011). Unlike the other studies on blog use in improving learners’ writing, Hsu and Wang (2011) analysed the impact of using blog

on American undergraduate students' English reading comprehension skills and learning motivation. Forty students were involved in supplementary blogging activities during a one-semester developmental reading course for underachievers, whereas another group of 60 students did not make any use of blogs. Students submitted their assignments digitally via personal blog entries or on paper, respectively. The experimental group's members were prompted to research and evaluate reliable Internet resources, and they were also required to read and comment on their peers' blog entries every week. As showed in the results, using blogs did not result advantageous to participant students' reading performance, as no significant difference regarding the students' reading scores between the blogging and non-blogging groups was found (p. 75), and the two groups of students exhibited similar learning motivation toward taking the developmental reading course after taking that class (p. 76). Although new media and online literacies in form of blogs and digital texts did not affect students' reading skills or their disposition towards learning, the researchers observed several minor phenomena, such as that upon the completion of the project the blogging students were more confident when using a computer for written communication (p. 83). What could be to some extent problematic here is a possible reason for the lack of motivation displayed by this study's participants, as compared to all the previous positive results shown in other studies. In the case of Hsu and Wang's (2011) study, the students were encouraged to research and evaluate reliable digital resources, and they were also required to read and comment on their peers' blog entries, which may have been perceived as a not very motivating activity, but rather as an additional workload. Besides, blog writing was implemented as means to improve reading skills, which may be controversial, since the direct relationship between these two is unclear, although, implicitly, an improvement in reading may have be implied by the Web-search tasks prior to blogs' use for assignment writing.

2.8.2. The Web as a tool for FL learning: main findings

As remarked by Delgado *et al.* (2015; 397), "there is more information than any one person could ever acquire available at one's fingertips via the Internet". This is the idea behind the integration of the Web resources in EFL classrooms. From search engines to

webquests, researchers have been focusing on the educational use of Internet and its influence on learners' motivation and achievement since the spread of the Internet in the 1990s.

Cantos (1994) examined the use of computers in EFL class and its influence on students' motivation. The participants were Spanish students (aged 16-17), 27 in the experimental, and 23 in the control group. The experimental group was involved over one three-month term in a weekly class during which they completed a series of computer-based activities, created by the British Council, and consisting of the completion of different tasks, such as a simulation, a game, text reconstruction, or problem-solving. Results of the questionnaire the students filled in before and after the experience showed a general increase in motivation in both groups, however, only in the experimental group the change was significant (p. 188). As regards the particular aspects in which the motivational increase took place, the data revealed ICT's favourable effect, above all, in terms of perceived enjoyment of the English class, creativity/variety of activities, students' evaluation of the grammar exercises and additional materials used in the English class, and the general interest in English tasks outside of the classroom. Even though the researcher insists on the fact that a computer "is not a panacea and it is not always useful in class" (p. 35), he acknowledges that the use of computer-based activities in an EFL classroom may seemingly influence more those students who are *a priori* less motivated or disposed to learn English, as a bigger surge in motivation was observed among students who were in the beginning less positive about English, whereas the difference was not statistically significant in comparison with students originally favourable towards English (p. 192). In general, computer-based activities contributed to the development of students' motivation to learn English.

In a similar vein, Martínez-Rico (2006) carried out a research to determine the influence of ICT on students' motivation towards learning English, as well as their perceptions of the experience of using ICT and the Web, and its influence on their learning. The participants were Spanish lower secondary pupils from 3 different schools (56 experimental group and 60 control). The experimental group had 10 sessions of one weekly hour of using a website (one out of 3 weekly hours of English) over the period of 3 months and a half. They used a specially designed website, an activity bank for grammar and vocabulary practice through varied types of exercises, adapted from a

broad array of on-line resources, ranging from interactive multiple choice or cloze activities, to games, tutorials and webquests. According to the results of a survey conducted after the experience, the use of the website seemed to influence students' motivation towards learning English, as their attitudes were more favourable than those of the students from the control group. As regards students' perceptions of the experience, only the variable related to enjoyment appeared to be directly affected positively by the ICT use (p. 207). Such enjoyment was due to the work done with computers in class. In general, the author observed that the students involved in ICT use showed more motivation to learn English, had better opinion about the English class and had also the impression that the ICT were beneficial for their learning. These last two students' perceptions, as suggested by Martínez-Rico (2006: 208), may account for motivational improvement, as the students liked their ICT-supported English class and they perceived that the use of the Web was an advantage in learning, what motivated them more.

Regarding the research conducted at tertiary level, Osuna and Meskill (1998) and Taylor and Gitsaki (2004a; see as well 2004b) also found a motivating effect of the Web. Taylor and Gitsaki (2004a) replicated Osuna and Meskill's study's methodology, bringing it to a different context. Both studies investigated Web-enhanced language learning (WELL) and its benefits for learning the foreign language. The former study was carried out with 13 American university students of Spanish, whereas the latter, with 106 Japanese EFL university students. The Web-based course lasted one semester of the academic year, and involved five Web-search projects, each of which consisted of two class sessions (one session weekly), separated by computer work conducted outside of class (either at home or university's computer labs). In the first session, after the introduction of a topic on Spanish or English-speaking countries' culture respectively, the students completed vocabulary activities, and then were asked to choose what information they would like to find on the Web in relation with the topic, or what research question they could have in mind before performing the search. Then they brought back the information they found and shared it with their class-mates during the next session, by means of interviewing each other, presentation of their reports or role-playing.

Upon the completion of all the tasks, students in both studies responded to a similar survey, in which they stated that they perceived the Web as a valuable learning tool,

however, whereas in Osuna and Meskill's (1998) study the entire group agreed with the statement that they felt they had learned more Spanish by doing the Web activities, in Taylor and Gitsaki's (2004a: 141) 66% of the participants said the Web helped them learn more English. Nevertheless, in both studies the vast majority of the students stated that the Web provided more up-to-date information than printed sources, they said they liked using the Internet for their English course and that the use of the Web made the course more interesting. Moreover, in both studies the students felt comfortable using the Web to find information and they felt also more confident with computers after the course. The participants admitted that they liked learning English and computer skills at the same time. As remarked by the researchers, WELL is having a considerable impact in language pedagogy, and becoming widespread, as it is "easy to incorporate into the existing curriculum and it is rewarding to use" (p.145). Taylor and Gitsaki (2004b: 279) also emphasise that since the students were allowed to personalise the activities, this brought more diversity into the classroom and made it more motivating, while it promoted active participation in class, which in turn enhanced language learning. Nevertheless, the students received the necessary guidance, as they had to narrow down their Internet searches by formulating the specific research question they wished to answer based on the information found on-line, and were advised to list a number of key words, and fill in a chart with specific information they needed to find on the Web. All in all, as the researchers point out, "the Web is like an ocean offering an abundance of information, but without navigation tools students can get lost" (Taylor and Gitsaki, 2004a: 134), so teachers need to guide and assist their students in using the Web and learning the target language at the same time.

Another example of how the Web may enhance FLL was recently reported by Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez (2014), who analysed university students' perceptions and opinions on blended learning language course's usefulness for the development of different language skills and language areas. Moreover, the researchers compared two groups, one of which used ICT fully (36 Spanish EFL students), whereas the other one used ICT less and was composed of 46 international students enrolled in a course of Spanish as a foreign language. Both courses lasted one semester and consisted of two weekly sessions, which involved compulsory CALL tasks requiring the use of various ICT tools, especially, a virtual platform called *MiAulario*, which hosted a broad range of materials and links to useful websites, as well as other tools (Skype and *Word* text

processor). The group of learners of Spanish made use of CALL to a lesser extent than the EFL group, as they used ICT as tool for implementing some contents, an extra work and resources, however, some CALL tasks were compulsory. The students completed a satisfaction questionnaire once the courses were over. Roughly half of the participants from both groups reported little or no previous experience with ICT in their FL classes, which may be a concern, as it points to a lack of integration of ICT into language learning courses (p. 518), despite the fact that learning with and through ICT in all schools on a daily basis should be nowadays a primary objective in order to better meet the objective of “educating the Net Generation” (Oblinger and Oblinger, 2005b).

Overall, the results of Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez’s (2014) study showed students’ positive attitudes towards the use of ICT for the development of all skills and areas of language. The great majority of students considered the Internet, ICT and the virtual platform they used as “useful” or “very useful” for the development of all skills in different areas of language (p. 520). Similar findings were reported also by López-Pérez and Bueno-Alastuey (2015) as a result of a more detailed analysis of the survey conducted among the university level students of Spanish. Regarding the importance of ICT in developing different language skills, the intense-CALL group and less-intense-CALL group indicated a slightly divergent order, the former listed first pronunciation, listening, then vocabulary, grammar and reading, whereas the latter ranked first vocabulary and grammar, followed by listening and reading. Speaking skills were the last ones for which ICT is important, as indicated by both groups. The researchers were surprised by the fact that students with less ICT used in class seemed to value them more than the ones who worked with ICT more, and they pointed at its possible explanation, which may be that those students may have become aware of some of intense-ICT involvement’s disadvantages, such as work overload, more control of work progress, distractions, or one’s poor digital abilities. There was also a small percentage of students reticent to any forms of ICT integration. Nevertheless, as argued by the researchers (Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez, 2014: 524), “from a pedagogical point of view, we should stress the value of using ICT in language learning”, as students generally appreciated the use of technology, and considered it helpful in their learning process, what may in turn increase their motivation.

However, Hidalgo (2003: 209) reports some “reasonable scepticism about the theoretical miracles” associated with the use of the Web in learning, terming it a

“challenging disappointment and a disappointing challenge” at the same time (p. 210). This researcher worked with Spanish university students, and developed a webpage on English morphosyntax as an additional support to the traditional course, with a broad bibliography made available to students. The students’ involvement was, however, not as high as expected, which led the author to emphasise the fact that the mere possibility of having access to high amount of information does not necessarily mean education (p. 216). Nevertheless, these disappointing results may be due to the fact that, as indicated by Barr (2004: 30) “students are often reluctant to dedicate considerable amounts of their limited spare time to independent learning tasks unless there is a clear incentive to do so, such as coursework marks or other form of assessment”, however, it must be acknowledged that a webpage on morphosyntax as such does not seem very appealing and it appears to be a mere substitution of traditional printed materials, with no functional change (Puentedura, 2010), which has a rather limited motivational potential. Nonetheless, there is an activity the Web enables, which is quite often used in language learning, as it is regarded highly motivating: the webquest. The scholar who pioneered webquest development was Bernie Dodge, who defines it (1995, para.: 2) as “an inquiry-oriented activity in which some or all the information that learners interact with comes from resources on the internet”. Dodge’s associate, Tom March (2003: 42), expands and gives more detail to this definition, explaining that:

a webquest is a scaffolded learning structure that uses links to essential resources on the World Wide Web and an authentic task to motivate students’ investigation of a central, open-ended question, development of individual expertise and participation in a final group process that attempts to transform newly acquired information into a more sophisticated understanding. The best webquests do this in a way that inspires students to see richer thematic relationships, facilitate a contribution to the real world of learning and reflect on their own metacognitive process.

Webquests are thus considered to contribute to motivating learners, as they have to search on the Web and find answers to a series of questions, making use of several links they are provided with, which lead to a final question or task to be completed. The answers to the questions are usually not directly found on the visited websites, so that this activity requires students’ critical thinking about the information they find on-line while it fosters reading comprehension and digital reading skills (Adell, 2003).

Students' reactions to the implementation of webquest-type activities in EFL classes and its benefits for learning have been examined for instance by Pérez Torres (2005). Based on a larger project called ADELEX (Pérez Basanta *et al.*, 2004), of which it formed part, Pérez Torres (2005) reports on a study of an experience of the design and implementation of a webquest aimed at enhancing EFL students' vocabulary and reading skills. In her study, 26 English majors took part in a course consisting of 10 sections or modules, which made use of digital materials of varied types (texts, images, audio, and interactive exercises) over one academic year. The webquest was integrated into one of the modules, which lasted five weeks, and comprised 4 different stages, with a final written task. A very elaborate webquest on British newspapers, involving numerous activities, appropriately contextualised and integrated in the course, was specially designed to improve reading skills of journalism texts and the acquisition of characteristic features and vocabulary of the language of the media. Apart from performing the webquest, students were tested twice on vocabulary and reading skills and comprehension of media and newspapers' texts (pre- vs. post-test). The data revealed significantly better results on the post-test (p. 458), which seems to confirm that webquest may be considered beneficial in order to improve students' reading skills and vocabulary knowledge. Accordingly, the questionnaire data showed learners' self-reported gains in knowledge of vocabulary, reading skills and cultural aspects related to the topic (p. 474). The experience of using the Internet and the webquest was highly valued, as the students considered it enjoyable and pleasant, useful and motivating. In their view, such experience is an advantage in comparison with the more traditional foreign language learning. What is more, over 73% of the students agreed that their on-line reading skills improved quite a lot or a lot (p. 494).

Nevertheless, it should be highlighted that some of the ICT use interventions reviewed in this section span rather short periods of time (three- or five-week interventions, and even shorter ones), which leaves too many questions unanswered as regards the lasting effect of technology on students' motivation (Siragusa and Dixon, 2009; Pérez Torres, 2005; Wong and Hew, 2010). Some other interventions lasted more, for instance, one hour per week over 3 months (Cantos, 1994; Martínez-Rico, 2006), or one 4-month academic semester (Armstrong and Retterer 2008; Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez, 2014; Hsu and Wang, 2011; Ipiña, 2012; Osuna and Meskill, 1998 and Taylor and

Gitsaki, 2004a), although there is a need for studies analysing ICT implementations carried out over a longer time span.

2.9. Summary of the chapter

While the “digital revolution gains momentum” (Delgado *et al.*, 2015: 410) in our lives and our schools, the research on the integration of technology in the foreign language classroom and its effects on learning is increasing rapidly. However, whether technology exerts a beneficial influence on students’ achievement still remains unclear (Delgado *et al.*, 2015). In general terms, it can be affirmed that ICT does positively affect learners’ motivation towards language learning, and their self-perceived improvement. Therefore, there is a need to find ways to support and harness the opportunities offered by technology to the benefit of language learners, as the ICT are here to stay, and being digitally savvy is one of the key competences of school curricula. The communicative competence not only subsumes being able to communicate in multiple languages, but also the digital communication. In spite of educational authorities’ efforts and funding aimed to equip the classrooms with the necessary infrastructures, the integration of technology in FL classrooms is not yet as widespread as expected. Moreover, most of the digital programmes are intended for primary and lower secondary pupils, with high school pupils often lagging behind (e.g. *Eskola 2.0*). What is more, the existing body of research has been conducted majorly at the tertiary level, with few studies relying on high school adolescents. That is why the present study aims at investigating ICT’s classroom integration on learners’ attitudes and motivation to learn the foreign language at this particular level of education, as there is currently a dearth of studies aimed at examining this question.

This chapter has introduced the reader to the necessary definitions and key concepts concerning ICT and digital competence and it has overviewed the brief history of the use of ICT in education. Afterwards, the age of Digital Natives or the Net Generation has been presented, together with some critical voices putting in doubt the technological “nativeness” of the learners and their conscious “innate” capability of applying their digital skills to support their language learning. Then, focusing on the context of the present study, the importance given to the digital competence and the introduction of

ICT in the Spanish school curriculum has been described. Here as well, the authorities have been taking steps to digitalise the classrooms, although this has not been yet broadly met with the corresponding change in teaching methodology. Subsequently, the relationship between ICT and FLL has been reviewed, summarising the suggestions made by scholars on the potential benefits of new technologies and their effectiveness in language learning in the light of research findings. Last but not least, the attention has been shifted towards students' attitudes regarding ICT and their integration into the foreign language classroom, especially when blogs and the Web (the Internet as a source of information, webquest-type activities) as tools for FLL are concerned, as this is what the present study focuses on. This is particularly important to our research, which aims at understanding the way in which "current L2 learning experiences and classroom practices may interact with the development of possible future selves" (Ushioda, 2011: 202). Students' possible selves will be tackled in chapter 4.

Overall, studies reported positive effects of ICT use on students' attitudes and motivation to language learning, and the learners often perceived technology as beneficial in their learning process (Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez, 2014; Martínez-Rico, 2006), and even acknowledged that they improved their language skills as a result of using technology (Pérez Torres, 2005). Nevertheless, some researchers claim such results may be accounted for by the "novelty effect" of the ICT and call for more longitudinal studies. This is precisely the challenge that the present study intends to meet by focusing on the implementation of two types of ICT (the Internet and blogs) among upper-secondary education students (high school) of EFL, through a 32-week long intervention carried out over a period of one school year and a half.

CHAPTER 3: NATIVE VS. NON-NATIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Since the present study compares the outcomes in terms of students' motivation of two educational interventions, one of which was led by a native teacher assistant, whereas the other was conducted by a non-native teacher supported by technology, special mention has to be made to some main issues concerning the two types of teachers in EFL formal instruction. In this chapter I will briefly describe the context of the present study, the Basque Autonomous Community in Spain, together with its specific characteristics related to its complex sociolinguistic setting, and the consequences for language education which derive from this particular situation. Afterwards, the general situation of English teaching in Spain will be introduced, followed by a description of the context in the mainstream Basque schools regarding teaching of English. Then, the key issues in the research and debate on native vs. non-native English-speaking teachers (NESTs vs. non-NESTs) in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) will be reviewed. Last but not least, the main findings of research on ESL/EFL students' beliefs and attitudes towards both types of teachers in their classrooms will be described, and, finally, a summary of the issues gathered in this chapter will be presented.

3.1. Basque Autonomous Community in Spain: description of the context

The Basque Autonomous Community (henceforth BAC) is a region in north-eastern Spain along the Bay of Biscay, and its neighbouring regions are the French department of *Pyrénées-Atlantiques* (since 2016 forming part of new administrative region of *Nouvelle-Aquitaine*) and Navarre to the east, La Rioja to the south, and the province of Burgos (Castile and León) and Cantabria to the west. The BAC is composed of three provinces: Bizkaia, Gipuzkoa and Araba, however, together with the Spanish region of Navarre and the French provinces belonging to *Pyrénées-Atlantiques* (*Iparralde* in Basque). It is often referred to as the Basque Country or *Euskal Herria* (in Basque), as represented in Figure 6.

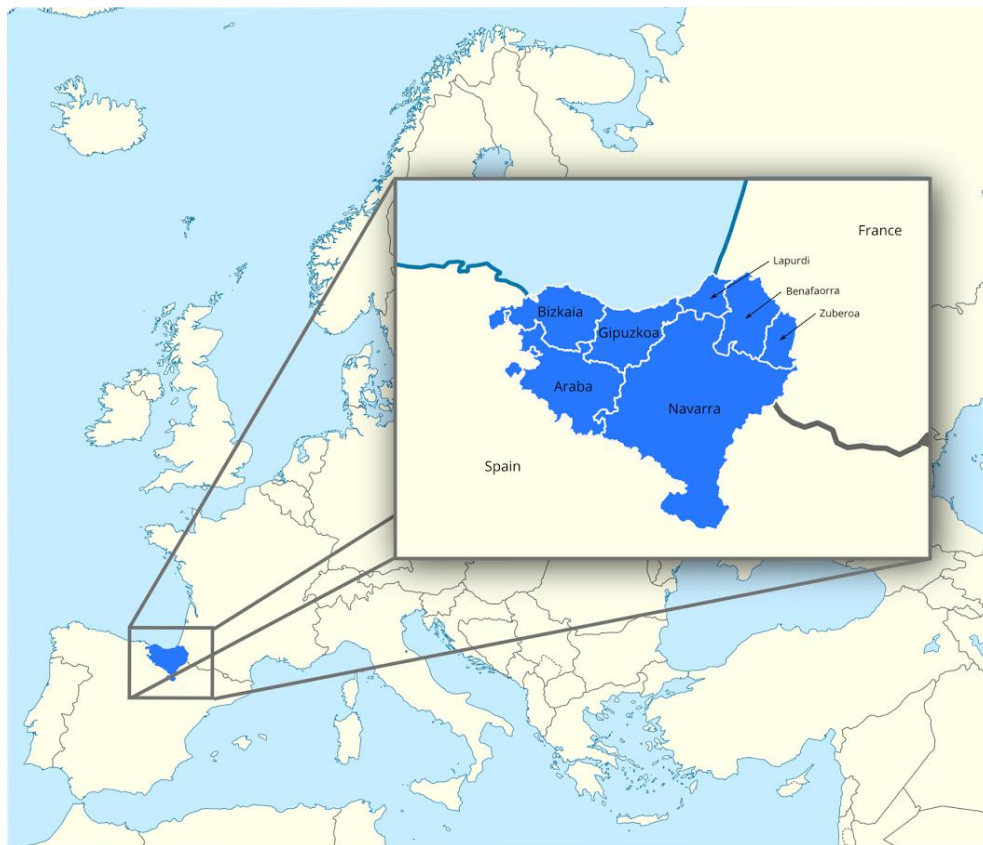


Figure 6. Basque Autonomous Community's (Spain) location (Gabriel Trisca/Wikimedia Commons)

The three provinces which comprise the BAC are the three in blue that appear to the left on Figure 6. According to the latest statistical information, the number of inhabitants of this relatively small region (7,234 square kilometres) is 2,162,626 (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2016). The BAC is a bilingual community, where both Spanish (the majority language) and Basque (the minority language) are official languages. The Basque language, *euskara*, is the only non-Romance language of the Iberian Peninsula and non-Indo-European language in Western Europe, of currently unknown origin, and no known linguistic relatives (Cenoz, 2009). The actual number of Basque-speakers among 1,873,000 inhabitants older than 16 is 600,000 (as to 2011), as estimated by the last official data of the Basque Government's (2013) sociolinguistic survey, what makes up 32 % of the population (aged 16 or over). However, if we take into account the speakers who possess at least the receptive skills in Basque, the ones who are "passive" bilinguals, the percentage rises up to 49.4 %. Figure 7 below represents the percentages of Basque bilingual speakers (*elebidunak*, in yellow), passive bilinguals (*elebidun*

hartaileak, in green), and non-Basque speakers (i.e. Spanish speakers, *erdaldunak*, in blue) in the BAC. All Basque speakers are referred to as bilinguals (Basque/Spanish), since there are no speakers of Basque-only, so virtually all Basque speakers also speak Spanish (Cenoz, 2005).

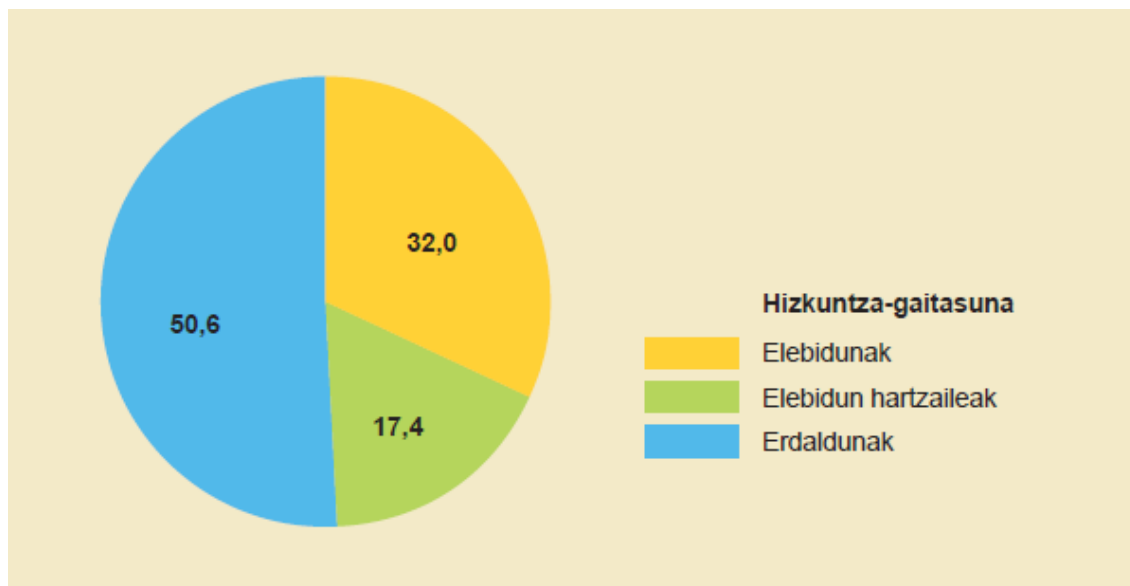


Figure 7. Basque bilingual vs. non-Basque speakers. V Sociolinguistic Survey 2011. (Basque Government, 2013a: 67)

Nevertheless, these percentages could be even higher if children and adolescents under 16 were taken into account, since the highest numbers of Basque speakers are among the youngest. This situation was revealed in the data, wherein among the youngest population group (aged 16-24) the percentage of bilinguals was almost 60 % (Basque Government, 2013a: 73; see also Altuna *et al.*, 2012). The Basque sociolinguistic survey is conducted every 5 years, which means that the new data is now being collected. This trend fits into the general increase of the number of Basque speakers, if we compare the official data from 1991 through 2011, represented in Figure 8 which shows a steady rising trend.

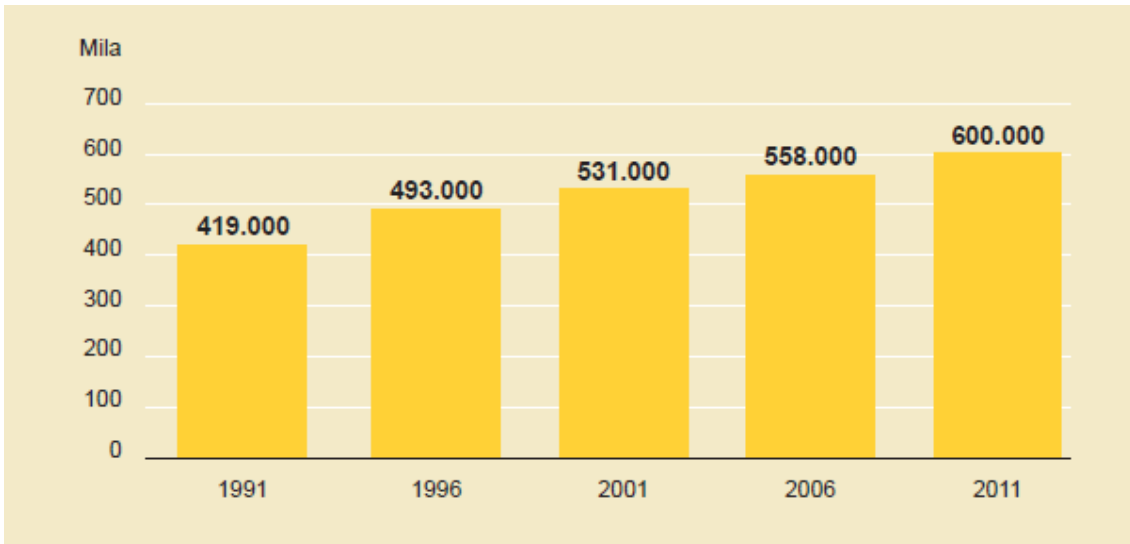


Figure 8. Number (in thousands) of Basque bilingual speakers in the BAC 1991-2011 (Basque Government, 2013a: 70)

The growing number of the so-called “new” Basque speakers (*euskaldun berriak*, that is, those who speak Basque but learnt it as an L2), as reflected in Figure 9, is worthy of attention, since it clearly shows the effect of conscious linguistic policies aiming at reversing language shift (Fishman, 1991), and revitalising this language among the Basque society by focusing primarily on schoolchildren, by means of Basque-medium education (Cenoz, 2009), and teaching Basque to adult learners.

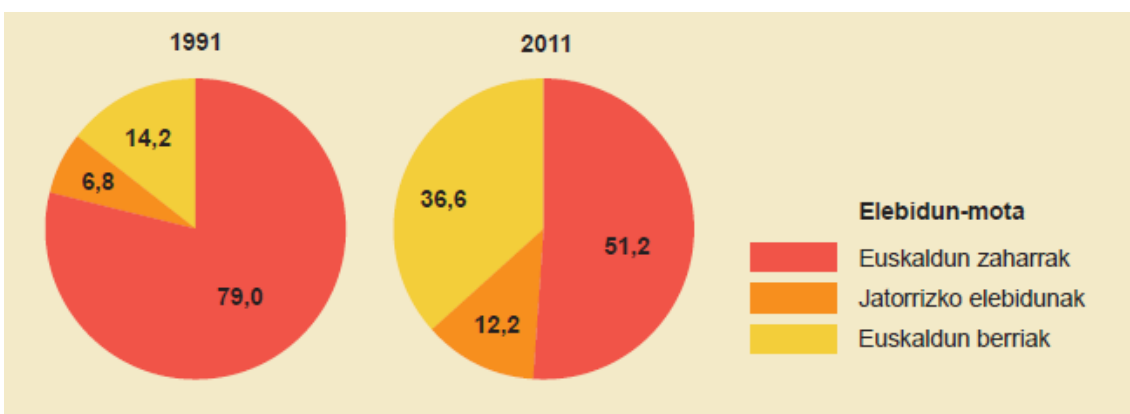


Figure 9. Types of bilingual speakers of Basque by L1 (Basque Government, 2013a: 92)

From all Basque speakers, the ones to whom the language was transmitted at home (*esukaldun zaharrak*) make up 51.2 %, those who are bilingual from birth (*jatorrizko elebidunak*) represent 12.2 %, whereas the “new” Basque speakers (*euskaldun berriak*) are a third (36.6 %). The number of the former almost doubled, and the latter group is now (as to 2011) more than twice as large as a decade ago.

However, as observed in the survey, the knowledge of Basque and its use have not experienced the same development, as even though the numbers of speakers is relatively high, much less people reported they used Basque in their day-to-day lives (Basque Government, 2013a). The main factors which have an influence on this situation may be, as the data suggest, the ease or fluency with which one can communicate, and his or her social environment or network (p. 126), or, in other words, the lack of interpersonal relationships in Basque.

The main concern about the mismatch between the actual knowledge of Basque and its use in everyday life was further corroborated by another large-scale study, The Street Measurement of Basque Use (*Euskararen kale-erabileraren neurketa*), reported by Altuna and her associates (Altuna *et al.*, 2012; Altuna and Urla, 2013), and which focuses on the question of how the use of Basque evolved over the years, in search for signs of its social vitality measured by the actual amount of Basque being used or heard on the streets. This periodically organised data collection started in 1989 and was performed every 4 years, and from 2001 every 5 years, as an attempt to “take a ‘snapshot’ of the relative amount of Basque being spoken in public” (Altuna and Urla, 2013: 213), based on quantitative measurement of observed, rather than reported, language use. The current edition is the 6th one and concerns the data from 2011, and the author of this thesis herself took part in the data collection as a volunteer surveyor. As revealed in the results, in the BAC 16.1 % of the conversations heard on the street was in Basque (Altuna *et al.*, 2012: 35), a percentage that increases in the last decade from 13.5% to 16.1% (p. 40), yet quite modest if we take into account the huge increase in the number of Basque speakers which occurred at the same time (roughly 1/3 of the population). The researchers observed that children (aged 2-14) were the age group with the highest percentage of Basque users, 19.2%, and almost 50% in the case of Gipuzkoa, traditionally the most “Basque-speaking” area of the BAC (p. 45-46). Therefore, these data show that increasing competence in Basque does not translate directly into a greater usage of Basque in public spaces (Altuna and Urla, 2013: 224).

Another diagnostic study, the Arrue Project 2011, conducted in school environment by the Basque Government (2013b), focused on two groups of schoolchildren, i.e. 4th grade of primary (9-10 years old) and 2nd of secondary (13-14 years old), with the vast sample of 18,636, and 17,184 pupils respectively, that is, all the school population in those two grades. It revealed that lower secondary pupils tend to use less Basque in the classroom interaction with each other than their younger counterparts, and the majority of them (75%) switch to Spanish outside school, however, both groups show similar pattern of Basque preference when addressing to their teachers, both inside the classroom, or in the playground (p. 71). These data confirm the societal situation of Basque: knowing Basque does not guarantee that it is going to be actually used. Additional findings of this study were that children, when asked to indicate which language goes best in different contexts (such as family, friends, education, politics, technology, or work), tended to associate Basque with education and school environment more than with any other daily life situation (p. 25-26). Curiously enough, even though more than a half of the pupils indicated Spanish option, English was identified more than Basque with the domains of politics/public speaking and technology.

These data are of special importance, since a particular effort has been made to restore Basque into the mainstream education and to strengthen its presence in the Basque society, and now, with the early introduction of English and support for it in the official curriculum, linguistic tensions may arise (Etxeberria, 2004; Lasagabaster, 2004, 2005a, 2009; Osa, 2003). As described in this section, the advancements in the number of minority language speakers and the struggle to achieve it, is now faced with the evident problem of the youth not actually using Basque outside school. To this picture, yet another concern is added: the presence of a practically obligatory language of global communication, a “must” for educated world citizens of the 21st century. The current situation of English teaching in Spain and the BAC will be described in the following subs-sections, nevertheless, this introductory snapshot of the situation of the minority language is deemed necessary in order to understand the specific background of the Basque context, as far as learning of languages and attitudes towards them are concerned.

3.2. English language teaching in Spain

Foreign language teaching in Spain refers, in most cases, to teaching English, as it is by far the most commonly taught foreign language in Spanish schools, a similar scenario as in nearly all European countries at all educational levels (Eurydice 2012b: 11). The state curriculum supports and reinforces it, which has led to the current situation, in which it is compulsory from the third year of primary school (eight-year-olds), but early instruction in English (even from the age of four) is widespread (Cenoz, 2005). According to the Eurydice (2012a) report, which summarises the key data on education in Europe, the participation of 3-year olds in pre-primary English education in Spain was almost comprehensive (as to 2009), reaching more than 95% (2012: 12).

Apart from this early onset of English teaching, programmes involving the use of English as an additional language of instruction have become increasingly popular in Spanish schools, as they provide the opportunity to enhance the limited time devoted to English in the timetable. This is also a way of a continuation and a follow-up of the early introduction of English, which aims at providing more hours of instruction to lower secondary school pupils, who, although they have been learning English for at least six years, before had probably only two or three weekly hours of exposure to English (Cenoz, 2005: 47).

Nevertheless, as pointed out by Cenoz (2005, 2009), programmes which introduce English as a language of instruction face some difficulties at the organisational level, because such projects require the teachers to have a high level of proficiency in English and in the subject matter. This may be sometimes a problematic issue, as, observed by Cenoz (2005: 47): “it is not always clear whether it is better for the subject teacher or the language teacher to teach a subject in English or whether content teachers have to be trained in English or teachers of English in specific subjects”.

This adds to another delicate aspect of Spanish secondary teachers’ training, since, as observed by Brady (2015: 52), with regard to the preparation they obtain at the university level, future FL teachers (English majors) tend to be “highly specialised in knowledge of the morphosyntactic and phonological features of the English language and diverse aspects of its history, culture and literature, but with a weaker skill set

regarding proficiency in English and/or EFL methodological competence”, and they hardly receive any actual specific ELT didactics training.

Notwithstanding, the results of the joint effort of Spanish education authorities, schools, and pupils regarding the foreign language competence achieved in formal instruction are far from satisfactory. As a matter of fact, the data gathered in the European survey on language competences (ESLC) analysed by Vez, Martínez and Lorenzo (2012: 38) revealed that France and Spain have the highest (over 60%) percentage of students (aged 14-15) with up to A1 level, understood as a “breakthrough” or “beginner” FL user within the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), with Malta and Sweden at the other extreme, as they have more than 70% of their students at the B2 level, followed by the Netherlands with 60%. Among students from 11 different European countries, in which English is the main FL in formal education settings, Spanish students were found to be the ones who spend the least time in contact with English through the communication media, such as, for instance, watching programmes and movies in English with or without subtitles, ranking second lowest, only ahead of pupils from France (Vez, Martínez and Lorenzo, 2012: 39).

These authors emphasise the importance of the link between the amount of environmental exposure, and the use of a foreign language outside school and FL performance results, especially in listening, as the data revealed that students from countries that led the ranking of top results in listening skills had, at the same time, a high exposure to English in environmental situations out of the school setting, whereas Spanish and French pupils, with the lowest listening skills results, had very limited contact with this language in the same type of extracurricular setting (p. 43). This view is supported also by Kormos and Csizér (2007) and Csizér and Kormos (2009b, p. 179), who claim that:

The importance of contact through cultural products calls attention to the fact that the mere frequency with which students read, listen to, and watch English language media enhances language learning attitudes.

Therefore, foreign language learners should be encouraged to take advantage of the opportunity to spend time in contact with English-mediated environment, not only because it provides them with valuable input for learning, but also because it contributes to the development of more positive attitudes to the FL, its speakers, and their culture

(Csizér and Kormos, 2009b). With regard to these recommendations, Spain is in stark contrast with, for instance, the Swedish context described by Henry (2014), in which pupils find as many –and even more– opportunities to learn English outside, as inside school, by means of communication or digital media.

As mentioned before, studies show that the majority of Spanish 14-15-year-olds do not reach beyond the CEFR A1 level, while according to Spanish educational authorities, at the end of post-compulsory secondary school (17-18 years old) they should reach CEFR B1 level in their first foreign language (English) in the four language skills, namely reading, writing, listening and speaking. However, oral skills are often left less space in EFL classrooms, as they are not assessed on the official exams, such as the A levels (*Prueba de Selectividad*). As a matter of fact, Rubio and Tamayo (2012) analysed assessment tools used by EFL teachers in seven Spanish lower secondary schools located in the south of Spain and their findings indicate that written exams, which usually assess pupils' grammatical and lexical knowledge, and, to a lesser extent, written production and written text comprehension, represent between 60-70% (secondary school) and even 80% (high school) of a learner's total assessment (p. 300), whereas pupil's active participation in classroom activities, homework, or general attitude comprise the remaining percentage. Listening and oral skills are rarely evaluated and usually do not have major influence on final grades. Taking into account the fact that at the final A level exams pupils' EFL competence is largely assessed by means of reading comprehension and multiple choice tasks, which evaluate their grammatical and lexical knowledge, and short written production tasks on topics related to the ones of the reading comprehension texts, as remarked by Brady (2015: 59), "it is coherent that the teaching methodology and assessment measures in secondary education are heavily guided" by the types of task and assessment measures for the final school-leaving examination. And this despite the fact that there are plans to include oral tasks at the A level exams, which has been echoed in scholars' voices supporting the stand in favour of paying more heed to the development of speaking skills in high schools (Bueno-Alastuey *et al.*, 2014).

3.3. English language teaching in the Basque context

From the '90s on, the learning of foreign languages (English being hegemonic) usually started at the age of eight in the Basque education system, that is, in the third grade of primary education. However, in the first decade of the year 2000, the beginning of English language learning at the age of four became widespread, and nowadays it is compulsory from the first grade of primary education (6 years old). In the BAC, as in the rest of Spain, English has been traditionally taught in schools as a subject, rather than as a means to teach subject content. This is often the picture in the majority of EFL contexts, even at the other side of the globe, such as in Korea, as some researchers report (e.g. Chun, 2014). Nevertheless, with the goal of improving pupils' generally dissatisfactory English competence, communicative holistic approaches such as CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) have been on the rise since the introduction of various pilot programmes in the late nineties (*Early Start to English*, *INEBI* and *BHINEBI* in the pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education respectively), which aimed at the integration of content to the foreign language classroom, or the *Plurilingual Experience* in 2003 (Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010). CLIL, for instance, is a specific integrated approach with a dual simultaneous focus on content and language, which has received strong support from European institutions, and which has also exerted a great influence on the teaching of English in the Basque Country (Cenoz, 2009). These projects aim to give students more opportunities for the acquisition of English through the content of the core non-linguistic subjects (Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010), without adding extra hours to an already crowded curriculum (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010).

The Basque Government's 97/2010 decree introduced some modification to the standard curriculum, adding in the area of language and literature teaching and learning a new social dimension of linguistic aims to be achieved by secondary students. This dimension concerns, among others, the multilingual and multicultural situation of current society, the ability to identify some phenomena and attitudes created by the linguistic contact of languages in everyday life, as well as the importance of all languages in contact, and the development of positive attitudes towards them.

In the school-year 2010-2011, the Basque Government's Department of Education announced its plan for the introduction of the Trilingual Framework for the standard

school curriculum, which resulted in establishing the three languages (Basque, Spanish and English) as languages of instruction as a pilot project in a number of schools. Scholars such as Cenoz (2009) and Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) point out that the different multilingual projects introduced in schools by the Basque authorities seem to indicate that it is possible to integrate the efficient protection and development of the minority language (Basque) with the imminent need to be proficient in languages of international communication (English).

These attempts on the part of education authorities to foster a multilingual curriculum and language learning may be due to a general effort to impulse foreign languages as well, since according to the last Eurobarometer (European Commission, 2012b: 15), only 46% of Spanish citizens know at least one foreign language well enough to follow a conversation. Among 27 member states of the European Union this is the sixth place from the bottom, while the mean for the whole Union is over a half (54%), with a quarter (25%) of the citizens able to hold a conversation in at least two additional languages, whereas one in ten (10%) can speak at least three languages apart from their mother tongue. For Spain, these percentages are 18% and 5% respectively.

Establishing English as an additional language of instruction is believed to represent the best way to enhance Spanish (and Basque) pupils' traditionally low English command (Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2011). Moreover, the Basque Government actively supports and promotes the development of multilingual education considering multilingualism as one of the main aims of the Basque educational system, an idea widely approved also by parents. As observed by Cenoz (2005), research findings on the acquisition of English as a third language in the BAC point at a positive relation between the levels of bilingualism and the levels of proficiency in English (Cenoz and Valencia, 1994; Lasagabaster, 1997, 2000; Sagasta, 2001).

Similar to the case of other Spanish regions, English is by far the most spread FL in Basque schools, although it is not used in daily life's communication, or in the media (Cenoz, 2009; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010), and exposure to it is very limited out of the EFL instructional setting, resulting in Basque pupils being no exception to the relatively insufficient command of English achieved by the end of secondary education. Parents have recently demanded more and better quality English instruction in school to counteract these poor English language results, which can often be accounted for, as suggested by Cenoz (2005: 46), by a number of factors, including large class sizes, the

use of rather outdated or more traditional instructional approaches, and the shortage of well-trained teachers with adequate proficiency in English. This proficiency is usually not very high among primary and secondary teachers in the BAC, due to the fact that English is not used in everyday life, and, what is more, for many years French was the most widespread foreign language (Cenoz, 2005). However, in the last decade the Basque government has promoted various programmes to improve teachers' command of English including specific in-service language training courses on site or in English-speaking countries, as obtaining level C1 proficiency in English is recommended and set by the authorities as an objective to achieve in the near future.

Most EFL teachers in the Basque schools are non-native speakers, although some private educational centres may have native English speakers on their staff, yet it is a generally uncommon situation (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2002 and 2005a). The large part of primary and secondary teachers in the BAC are bilingual in Basque and Spanish, but it is usually the case that only teachers of English can speak English (Cenoz, 2005). In fact, only about 13% of Basque teachers not specialised in EFL possess the B2 level language certification, a prerequisite to teach non-language subjects in English (El Diario Vasco, 7 April 2016).

Many students and their parents do not acknowledge the learning opportunities offered by the schools and chose private language schools ("academies") for extracurricular classes, where they may have classes with NS teachers, which are often offered teaching positions regardless of not having any proper qualifications, just for the sake of having a native status (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2002; 2005a). The Basque Department of Education, Language Policy and Culture in collaboration with the Spanish Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport have been fostering the attempt to provide NS teachers for Basque educational centres by granting scholarships for assistant English teachers (mostly students from English-speaking countries). Nevertheless, no teaching qualifications or experience is required to apply. What is more, the assistant teachers are often allocated only conversational classes and are not involved in any evaluation processes (see the official website on language assistants – *auxiliares de conversación*). The fact that NSs are often assigned exclusively speaking and pronunciation classes has been reported in research conducted in other contexts as well (see for example Árvai and Medgyes, 2000).

This situation reflects the general belief that the presence of a NS assistant in the classroom is a “bonus” and a motivating factor, an opinion shared by students (Chun, 2014; see also Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2014) and teachers (Árva and Medgyes, 2000; see also Medgyes, 1994), which may be due to an opportunity to a more intensive exposure to the foreign language they offer by employing it much more frequently than other EFL teachers, as reported by Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2009).

However, NSs are not usual as full teachers in Basque schools, which may be partially attributed to a relatively long teacher formation training, together with the issues concerning the recognition of foreign university documents and complicated procedures for getting a teaching position in Spain – the author of this PhD thesis herself has experienced this situation. Nevertheless, not all mainstream schools host NS teaching assistants, as, for instance during the current 2016-17 school year only 60 different (public) secondary schools in the BAC have been assigned an English teaching assistant, and even if there is a NS assistant at a given school, often not all the groups can enjoy conversation classes with him or her, as they cannot be assigned more than twelve teaching hours per week (Basque Government, 2016).

Moreover, as noted by Dafouz and Hibler (2013) in Madrid’s bilingual education setting, there is hardly any coordination between the main EFL teachers and language assistants regarding their corresponding teaching roles in the classroom, the latter acting mainly as foreign language and cultural informants.

3.4. The native vs. non-native English-speaking teacher debate

There is a widely held view in our society favouring teachers who are NSs of a given language over the ones who are NNSs. NSs have traditionally been considered in theoretical linguistics as the only reliable source of linguistic data (Chomsky 1965), and in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) the ‘near-native’ or ‘native-like’ proficiency is the highly desirable goal for all learners. The NNS (and teacher) has long been “held in disregard” (Árva and Medgyes, 2000: 356), and, as one of the key scholars of the Non-Native Speaker movement, George Braine (2013: 1), puts it:

The commonly accepted view in language pedagogy has been that NNS English teachers are second in knowledge and performance to NS English teachers.

Phillipson (1992: 185) criticised this widespread assumption that NSs are the ideal English teachers, terming it the “native speaker fallacy”. What is more, it is worth noting that NNSs and learners of English as Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) from the “outer” and “expanding circle” (Kachru, 1982, 1985) outnumber NSs (Braine, 1999; Moussu and Llurda, 2008), even by three to one (Crystal, 2003). Moreover, the vast majority of English language teachers worldwide are actually non-native English speakers, especially in the public sector (Seidlhofer, 1996), and, according to Canagarajah (2005; see also Braine, 2010), they comprise about 80% of all English teachers.

Clark and Paran, (2007) criticise “this elusive concept of ‘native speaker’ that is provided as a model for language learners and against which they are measured, (...) [while] most teaching materials still focus on NS of English interacting with one another” (2007: 409), even though the NNS learners will probably end up interacting in English with other NNSs (Graddol, 2006; Timmis, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2011). The apparent preference of the students to be taught by NSs may simply result from the NS-centred ELT materials (Clark and Paran, 2007).

Notwithstanding, as numerous reports confirm, NNSs often face discriminatory attitudes and are discouraged from job offers in English teaching (Braine, 1999; Clark and Paran, 2007; Mahboob *et al.*, 2004) by institutions, which, in this manner “address a hypothetical preference by L2 learners for NS rather than NNS teachers” (Moussu and Llurda, 2008: 316). It is this ‘myth’ that the learners prefer NSs over NNS teachers (Selvi, 2014) that has thus been used as justification for the employment discrimination of NNSs.

In their state-of-the-art article Moussu and Llurda (2008) underscore the limited number of research on non-NESTs that have been conducted prior to the 1990s. However, since the publication of three main anthologies (Medgyes, 1994; Braine, 1999; and Llurda, 2005), we can observe a dynamic surge in academic research and publications on non-NESTs’ issues, which reflects the raising attention given to them by the SLA field.

Medgyes (1992, 1994) pioneered a thorough discussion on non-NESTs by comparing the characteristics of NESTs and non-NESTs as perceived by ESL/EFL teachers. The

results of three surveys conducted by the author indicated that both types of teachers may become successful professionals, even if he considered them as belonging to “two different species” (1994: 27), as they differ in terms of their language proficiency and teaching behaviour. Nevertheless, according to Medgyes (1994), there are several advantages non-NESTs possess over the NESTs, which are, above all, (1) the representation of a good learner model to the students, (2) the ability to teach language learning strategies more effectively, (3) to supply learners with more thorough information about the language (because non-NESTs possess a higher language awareness), (4) to better anticipate and prevent learning difficulties of their students, (5) to understand students’ needs and problems by being more empathetic, and even (6) to use the students’ native language to their advantage.

Bearing in mind all these positive aspects of being a non-NEST listed above, it thus seems that to the question of “who is worth more?” (Medgyes, 1992) there is no “either-or” answer, as NESTs and non-NESTs teach differently in several respects, yet “both are potentially equally effective teachers, (...) [as] their respective strengths and weaknesses balance each other out” (Medgyes, 1994: 76), leading to the conclusion that both types of teachers have some advantages and drawbacks, in certain areas and contexts.

Árva and Medgyes (2000) revisited the claims made in Medgyes’ (1994) book by comparing the self-reported and the actual teaching behaviour of native and non-native teachers of English, providing qualitative insights on the issue under scrutiny. They confirmed the differences found in previous research between the teaching behaviour of the two types of EFL teachers, yet again, they believed that there was no clear evidence to incline towards NS or NNS as teachers, as both groups have several strengths and weaknesses. Notwithstanding, the authors pointed out that non-NESTs’ unique advantage over NESTs is that they can indeed empathise with the difficulties their students experience throughout the learning process, since they have been EFL learners themselves.

Despite this argued vantage point non-NESTs have in EFL context, having a NEST was found to be an enriching experience for the students, as one of the NESTs interviewed in Árva and Medgyes’ study (2000) stated that their presence in the classroom “in itself has a lot of value”. This belief was further corroborated by a non-NEST, who acknowledged that “the mere presence of a native acts as a motivating factor” to the

students (2000: 361). Likewise, nearly 68% of the EFL teachers surveyed by Medgyes (1994) reported that NESTs exerted a positive influence on their students' attitudes towards the learning process.

Seidlhofer (1996) delves as well into the issue of being a non-native teacher of English in a study conducted with EFL teachers in Austria, who were asked to evaluate, among others, whether the fact of being a non-NEST was for them a source of confidence or insecurity. The majority of the respondents indicated that that fact made them feel rather insecure. However, some ambivalent accounts were reported, for instance, one of Seidlhofer's participants stated that being a non-NEST was a source of "confidence: as a teacher – insecurity: as a speaker" (1996: 76). This reflects the reality of many non-NESTs, as the author remarks (p. 64):

Countless EFL teachers tend to think, at least at times, that they are somehow deficient in comparison with native speakers, who are often regarded as role models, aspired to but never reached.

The advantage the aforementioned authors ascribed to non-NESTs over the NESTs is further explained by Seidlhofer (1996), as the author acknowledges that non-native teachers can be "versatile mediators", since they are "insiders" of the culture in which they teach, and therefore, "they are in a position to exploit materials and methods in a way which is meaningful in their setting and enhances their students' learning" (p. 67). The author recognises EFL teachers' role as a twofold task of being "competent speakers of the language (informants)" on the one hand, and "competent pedagogues (instructors)" on the other (1996: 68), while she emphasises that being a competent speaker of a language does not mean in a straightforward manner being as well a competent teacher (see also Phillipson, 1992; for a summary of studies of non-NESTs' self-perceptions see Moussu and Llorca, 2008).

All in all, such publications as Medgyes' (1992, 1994) and Braine's (1999) somehow legitimised non-NESTs' status in the field of ELT and contributed to the interest in their positive role in English teaching (Llorca, 2004). Even if starting this debate was, as recently noted by Medgyes himself, an experience comparable with "opening a can of worms" (2014: 176). However, this "self-awakening process" (p. 180) encouraged non-NESTs to make their voices heard and to add to informing this line of research, and this development, as observed by Braine (2010: 29) was "an indication of the empowerment

of [non-native English speaker] researchers who are no longer hesitant to acknowledge themselves as [such], and venture into uncharted territory” of international research within this emerging field.

Overall, the main advantage of non-NESTs put forward by the researchers is that, if supported by a good teacher training, they may be better qualified than NESTs, as they went through the same language learning process as their students (Phillipson, 1992), hence, providing a successful language learner model to be imitated by their students (Medgyes, 1994). As Llurda (2004: 318) puts it:

With the increasing establishment of English as the world lingua franca (EIL), non-native speakers will be in optimal positions to lead their students into the realm of EIL.

Llurda (2004) argues that while English has become the means for international communication, “it can be used separately from its original culture and ideology” (2004: 321), which paves the way for professionally well prepared non-NESTs as legitimate EFL teachers, free from any “inferiority complex”.

What is more, some evidence has been found in recent research on the potential benefits of synchronous-voice computer mediated communication for improving students’ pronunciation. In fact, Bueno-Alastuey (2010) observed better development of phonetic aspects among pairs of NNSs with a different linguistic background (Spanish and Turkish students interacting in English) than in pairs formed by a non-native and a native speaker. As remarked by the researcher (p. 16), the study may also contribute to “demystifying the native speaker fallacy which posits NSs as the best interlocutors and models for language learning”, since—at least for pronunciation improvement—this did not seem to be the case, given a greater improvement in pronunciation, which occurred in NNS-NNS dyads (with different L1 or the same L1) rather than NNS-NS, and such non-native interaction in both combinations “may have also contributed to reducing anxiety levels and providing more opportunities for self-repair” (see also Bueno-Alastuey, 2011). Students reported having experienced less anxiety due to the fact that the interlocutor was another L2 learner, not a NS (Bueno-Alastuey, 2011: 427); they also felt satisfied with the audio-interaction experience and felt that their pronunciation and speaking skills improved, which produced an increase in their motivation.

3.5. Students' attitudes and beliefs regarding native and non-native English teachers

As mentioned before, the body of research addressing the NESTs vs. non-NESTs issue has been remarkably growing since the nineties, and it mainly analysed the views and beliefs of the teachers and other agents involved in the teaching profession. However, only a few studies focussed on ESL/EFL students' attitudes and impressions regarding their native and non-native English-speaking teachers (Cheung, 2002; Cheung and Braine, 2007; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2002; 2005a, 2005b; Madrid and Pérez Cañado, 2004; Moussu, 2002, 2010; Pacek, 2005).

Moussu (2002, 2010) compared ESL students' attitudes towards their NESTs and non-NESTs at the beginning and at the end of a semester-long intensive ESL course and found that teachers' linguistic background played a minor role among other numerous variables that affected students' attitudes. In these two studies, students appreciated both NS and NNS teachers in a variety of teaching contexts. In addition, their attitudes towards both types of teachers were not as significantly different as may have been expected and they remained generally "positive and constructive" by the end of the semester. The author found as well that teachers' as well as students' native language was the determinant variable influencing how the teachers were perceived, whereas students were significantly more positive towards their NNS teachers as the time spent with them passed (Moussu, 2002, 2010).

Similarly, Cheung (2002) and Cheung and Braine (2007) focussed on EFL context in Hong Kong by analysing students' attitudes towards NESTs and non-NESTs, the possible advantages and drawbacks of both types of teachers, as well as their capability to boost motivation from the students' perspective. Their findings indicate that teachers' professional skills were more important than their language skills. Students appreciated NSs language proficiency, fluency and cultural knowledge, while they acknowledged NNSs' ability to show empathy with students, their understanding of cultural background and rigorous standards maintained in their classroom. This study revealed generally favourable attitudes towards non-NESTs, who were perceived as effective as NESTs.

In the same vein, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2002, 2005a, 2005b) investigated university students' perceptions on NS and NNS teachers of English in an EFL context of the

Basque Country. In the first two studies, one of Lasagabaster and Sierra's hypotheses was that the students would not show a clear preference for either a NS or NNS English teacher. However, the students' general preference found in these reports was for NSs, or a combination of NSs and NNSs (with a higher percentage of students choosing the latter option). Students' preference for a NEST increased with the level of education (the strongest preference at the university level). These findings resulted partially in contrast with those of Medgyes (1994), who advocated for the equality of both types of the teacher, supported by the lack of differences in the preferences for either a NEST or a non-NEST he found among teachers. In their study Lasagabaster and Sierra suggested then a more team-teaching approach in the mainstream EFL teaching, an option which is becoming a norm in private language schools, at least in the Basque region (2005a: 32). This kind of combination has been recently recognised as beneficial to EFL learners also by Medgyes, (2014: 183), who calls for providing opportunities for NEST/non-NEST cooperation in as many schools as possible.

Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005b) article further develops the findings of the two previous studies by providing students' insights on their NS vs. NNS English teachers. Qualitative data showed that students perceived positively, above all, NSs' pronunciation and cultural knowledge of English speaking countries; whereas they made negative comments on intelligibility issues, NSs' monolingualism, as well as questionable qualifications and teaching skills. As far as students' perceptions of their NNS teachers are concerned, they valued especially the area of learning strategies and learning process, as well as NNS teachers' bilingualism. Likewise, the students mentioned pronunciation as a negative aspect with respect to the NNS teachers. Similar findings were recently reported by Walkinshaw and Oanh (2012, 2014) in two studies carried out among 100 Vietnamese and Japanese EFL students, and also by Díaz (2015) in her research with 78 students learning English and Spanish at a university in France. It thus seems important to delve into learners' beliefs and attitudes towards their EFL teachers in order to contribute to the improvement of the teaching processes and strategies, as Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005b: 235) put it:

(...) these results should help us to reflect on our everyday work and help both NSTs and NNSTs to become aware of their weaknesses and strengths, which is a first step to endeavour to overcome the hurdles we may come across in our classes. And, above all, they clearly show us what students believe, a very

important question that is often set aside and which should turn out to be helpful to beef up our teaching.

In other study carried out by Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2004) the authors analysed students' and teachers' perceptions of NS and NNS English teachers and their effectiveness in the EFL classroom in the Andalusia, Spain. Both groups of participants were asked whether, in their opinion, one learns more with a NEST or a non-NEST. The findings of their study showed that both students and teachers perceived differences in teaching behaviour of NSs and NNSs, yet, as far as the students' opinions were concerned, there was no clear-cut preference for either type of teacher, what was in accordance with Medgyes's studies. Nevertheless, the results showed that students' preference trend for NS teachers increased with the level of education, in other words, the students regarded NSs most preferable as teachers at the university level, which was a similar finding to that of Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2002, 2005a).

Pacek (2005) examined foreign students' and teacher-students' perceptions of their non-NEST at a British university. The students were asked to identify the most and the least important features of an EFL teacher. Likewise, they were asked about their impressions about their NNS teacher and requested to state the weak and strong points of having classes with one. In general, favourable views were found among the participants, as the NNS met fully the students' expectations as regards the desirable personality characteristics. Here again, the teacher's lack of 'nativeness' was fully compensated by their professionalism and personality.

In a recent study by Chun (2014) EFL Korean students' perceptions about NS and NNS English teachers were analysed. Both types of teachers were reported to have strengths and drawbacks and the students did not favour either of them over the other, as previously found, for instance, in the study by Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2004). According to the author, the study's findings supported the view that the EFL learners may benefit from being taught by both types of teachers, a scenario recommended as well by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2002, 2005a) and Medgyes (2014). Nevertheless, as far as students' motivation was concerned, over one third (39%) stated that they were more motivated in the NEST's class, while only 18% agreed that they were more motivated in the non-NEST's class, which suggests that students "are more likely to be motivated in NESTs' classes" (Chun, 2014: 572), and the study's participants "seemed

well aware of the benefits of having NESTs to get ready for real-world English use” (p. 574).

A slightly different focus from the ones mentioned in the research reviewed above was that of a study carried out by Watson Todd and Pojanapunya (2009), who examined implicit and explicit attitudes of Thai students towards NESTs and non-NESTs. The participants showed warmer explicit feelings towards non-NESTs, yet, at the same time, they revealed as well an explicit preference for NSs. This predilection, however, was not found in implicit attitudes’ measurements, where no clear preference for either of the teacher types was found. The results of the study suggest that in certain contexts such as Asia, attitudes towards NS and NNS teachers are a very complex issue, as “explicitly stated preferences do not provide the whole picture of students’ attitudes” (Watson Todd and Pojanapunya, 2009: 30). Nevertheless, as the authors suggest, the reason for such overt “commercial preference for NESTs” found among the students “appears to be that, despite the academic arguments and evidence, there is still a broad social acceptance of the native speaker model” (p. 24; see also Pacek, 2005).

On balance, it thus seems that students’ purported preference for NS teachers and the belief that the ideal teacher should be a NS is not supported by the main body of research (Cheung, 2002; Cheung and Braine, 2007; Chun, 2014; Madrid and Pérez Cañado, 2004; Moussu, 2002 and 2010). However, this is not that clear in Lasagabaster and Sierra’s studies (2002, 2005a and 2005b), where students showed an inclination towards NSs and a combination of both NSs and NNSs as English teachers. It may have been due to the fact that the students preferred NSs explicitly, although unconsciously they may have not felt any clear preference for NSs or NNSs (Watson Todd and Pojanapunya, 2009). Nevertheless, it seems that there is a clear-cut perception among the students that “the higher the linguistic competence required, the more necessary a native speaker teacher is” (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2005a: 33), so that, in the students’ view, at certain stages of language learning, the NS model appears to be essential.

Even though, as Moussu and Llurda (2008: 331) observe, “no study has demonstrated that ESL/EFL students see NNS teachers in a negative light, although the myth of the native speaker seems to hold strong among students and teachers as well”, research findings suggest that students generally do not hold negative attitudes towards their NNS English teachers and seem to acknowledge teachers’ experience and professionalism over their linguistic background. However, it seems that NESTs may

generally remain “disengaged” from the scholarly debate over the changing ELT and TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) paradigm (Aboshiha, 2008, 2013), in which “native-speakerism” (Holliday, 2006) has been deeply embedded.

3.6. Summary of the chapter

In this chapter the present study’s context has been described. The Basque Autonomous Community in Spain is a bilingual region where a minority language (Basque) and a majority language (Spanish) coexist with English in the school curriculum. That is why a brief presentation of the particular characteristics of this complex sociolinguistic setting was deemed necessary, as specific consequences may derive for teaching of the languages involved. Then, the general landscape of English teaching in Spain has been detailed, from which a rather discouraging picture emerges of upper-secondary pupils not reaching a minimum English level aimed at by the educational authorities (CEFR B1), especially when compared to other European contexts. Afterwards, the situation of the mainstream Basque EFL teaching has been briefly described as not differing from other Spanish regions, despite Basque authorities’ effort and support for multilingual education and the introduction of English as additional language of instruction. Subsequently, the key issues in the debate on native vs. non-native English-speaking teachers in the field of SLA and ELT have been introduced, followed by the overview of the main findings of the research on NESTs and non-NESTs and ESL/EFL students’ insights and attitudes towards both types of teachers.

On the whole, EFL students seem to appreciate both NS and NNS teachers, as they value effective professional skills over a teacher’s linguistic background. However, as the learners’ proficiency improves, they tend to look forward to a NS model, although a combination of a native and a non-native teacher seems the most preferable option (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2002, 2005a, 2005b). Such NS-NNS team-teaching approach could be fostered in mainstream schools in such context as the Basque Country, for instance, by the native assistant teachers’ projects. Even though, at times intelligibility issues may appear when a native teacher is involved, what appears to support the need for introducing a wider array of native and non-native accents or varieties in EFL classrooms, as a large part of global communication takes place between non-natives

interacting with other non-native English speakers. Such supply of different voices in schools could be provided by the use of ICT, especially when contact with the foreign language and its speakers (both inside and outside of school) is limited, as is the case among many students in the Basque Autonomous Community.

Likewise, a more widespread use of technology in the classroom may come to a great benefit also to make up for situations when an NS is not available at a school, especially when the combination of NS and NNS teachers' team for all EFL groups turns out to be impossible. It could be also a way to cater for the needs of the students to get acquainted with a broader assortment of English native and non-native varieties, since, as Moussu and Llurda (2008) postulate, it seems that "exposing ESL and EFL students to multiple accents and culture can only be beneficial to them" (2008: 331), even if carried out digitally.

CHAPTER 4: ATTITUDES AND MOTIVATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Factors such as motivation and attitudes towards languages, which affect the behaviour and emotionality of a learner when he or she is in the process of acquiring a new language, have always attracted the attention of applied linguists and researchers, as it is taken for granted that during the process of mastering a foreign language “without sufficient motivation even the brightest learners are unlikely to persist long enough to attain any really useful language” (Dörnyei, 2010b: 74).

Indeed, as observed by Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015; see also Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015) in their recent review article, “the pursuit by researchers to better understand L2 motivation has traditionally been the most developed area in the study of the psychology of the language learner” (p. 145). These authors report an unprecedented surge in the number of published works related to L2 motivation in the last decade and aim to examine its origins and nature. In addition to this boom in motivational studies described in journal articles and book chapters, after the release of a highly influential collection of articles edited by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009a), various book-length anthologies have been published recently on the evolution of our understanding of the motivation construct over the years (Csizér and Magid, 2014; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009, 2011; Lasagabaster, Doiz and Sierra, 2014; Ushioda, 2013a), whereas others have focused on teachers’ motivation (Dörnyei and Kubanyiova, 2014) or on new directions developed within the field, such as the Complex Dynamic Systems perspective (Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry, 2015) or the so-called Directed Motivational Currents (Dörnyei, Henry and Muir, 2016).

However, as Boo *et al.* (2015) observe, within this vast L2 motivational research an underrepresentation of secondary school pupils can be observed, a situation “far from ideal” and worth attention, since this age group “might be considered the most suitable age group for instructed SLA” (p. 151). In relation to this need, Ushioda (2013c) calls for classroom-focused empirical studies to look closer on how motivational processes are being shaped in instructional settings. The present study intends thus to contribute to the field by analysing high school pupils’ motivation change in two educational interventions.

In this chapter, after presenting definitions of the main concepts of attitudes toward languages and motivation, firstly, I will briefly review the major stages in the history of the SLA field of motivation (namely, the social-psychological period, the cognitive-situated period, and the process-oriented period), taking as a starting point the traditional approach to understanding L2 motivation, which referred to “integrative” vs. “instrumental” motives. Secondly, I will take a closer look at the reasons that conducted the leading researchers in the field to a theoretical shift towards the current socio-dynamic approach, which resulted in the development of the L2 Motivational Self framework (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009), and, most recently, to the concept of Directed Motivational Currents (DMC) (Dörnyei, Henry and Muir, 2016; Dörnyei, Ibrahim and Muir, 2015; Dörnyei, Muir and Ibrahim, 2014). The main tenets of the L2 Motivational Self System, which represent the lynchpin of this thesis, will be described, followed by an overview of the main findings of research carried out within this approach which is relevant to the present study. Last but not least, a review of the studies on attitudes and motivation conducted in the Basque context will be presented, and three different research papers on possible selves and motivation currently available in Spain will be detailed. To conclude this part, a summary of the chapter will be offered.

4.1. Attitudes towards languages: definition and key concepts

Even if they are not always clearly articulated and we are not always conscious about them, language attitudes “permeate our daily lives” (Garrett, 2010: 1). Attitudes, together with personality and motivation, are considered one of the “central affective variables of language learning” (Dewaele, 2005: 118). As Gardner and McIntyre (1993: 1) point out, affective variables are seen as “emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence how she/he will respond to any situation”. Bringing Sarnoff’s (1970: 279) definition of attitudes, referred to previously in section 2.7.1., into SLA ground, a person’s “disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects” involves evaluative orientation or positive or negative feelings attached to a certain social object, in this case a language. For one of the main voices in the field of language attitudes, Baker (1992: 10), the hypothetical construct of attitude explains “the

direction and persistence of human behaviour". Hence, attitudes are attributed the potential of shaping and affecting our behaviour.

According to Cenoz (2001: 38), "attitudes can be considered evaluative reactions towards an object and in the case of language learning, they are evaluative reactions towards the activity of learning languages." As such, they can largely condition students' affective and cognitive responses towards different languages, and motivate them for certain behaviour as far as the learning of a language is concerned. In addition, Garrett (2003: 3) highlights the following:

In language attitudes, cognitive processes are likely to be shaped by the individual and collective functions arising from stereotyping in intergroup relations. Linguistic forms, varieties and styles can set off beliefs about a speaker, their group membership, and can lead to assumptions about attributes of those members.

Therefore, language attitudes, that is, "evaluative reactions" towards an attitude object with "behavioural implications" (Cenoz, 2009; Gardner, 1985), constitute one of the most influential factors in language acquisition and are somehow learnt or acquired through social interaction in the specific context we are raised, and may change as a result of experience (Baker, 1992). The role of school in these attitudinal-shaping processes is highlighted also by Baker (1992: 43), who observes that:

Schools, can in themselves, affect attitudes to a language, be it a majority or a minority language. Through the formal or hidden curriculum and through extra curricula activities, a school may produce more or less favourable attitudes and may change attitudes.

The role of attitudes has been recognised by education authorities. For example, in the Spanish curriculum, the specific curriculum of each language subject comprises three content categories: apart from conceptual and procedural contents, the third one focuses directly on attitudes, although it is usually being given little attention in the language class (Lasagabaster, 2009). It is thus important to pay heed to the development of positive attitudes in formal education settings, as they can undoubtedly affect the emergence and development of pupils' language attitudes and lead them to behave in a more or less favourable manner in the future when it comes to learning languages.

4.2. Motivation: definition and key concepts

When we perceive that our students are “motivated” or “demotivated”, what do we actually have in mind? While it is a universally accepted fact that motivation is one of the most important factors in learning in general, and mastering a foreign language in particular (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005a), as it influences its rate and success (Dörnyei, 1998), the definition of the term has experienced variation in terms of its “conceptual range of reference” (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 3).

Both teachers and researchers agree that motivation is “one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second/foreign language learning, (...) [as it] provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process” (Dörnyei, 1998: 117).

Since the very word “motivation” stems from Latin *movere* ‘to move’, motivation theories and research are based on what moves a person or a learner towards his or her learning objective, by means of engagement in certain behaviour, choices, readiness to expend effort to achieve that aim and to persist in these actions (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 3).

The concept itself is not at all simple, but multi-dimensional, and, what is more, motivation to learn a foreign language “presents a particularly complex and unique situation even within motivational psychology” (Dörnyei, 1998: 118), therefore, there is no uniform agreement in the literature with regard to the term’s exact meaning (Oxford and Shearin, 1994; Dörnyei, 1998). However, it seems that researchers do agree at least on the fact that it “concerns the *direction* and *magnitude* of human behaviour”, that is, following Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 4, italics original):

- The *choice* of a particular action – or *why* people decide to do something,
- The *persistence* with it – or *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity,
- The *effort* expended on it – or *how hard* they are going to pursue it.

There have been various attempts to define the concept of motivation towards learning a language. The major scholar whose works represent the “traditional” view of L2 motivation, Gardner, defines it as “the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language” as a result of the “desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in

this activity” (1985: 10). On the other hand, Heckhausen (in Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998: 64) provides us with wider and more detailed conceptualisation, as he understands motivation as:

a global concept for a variety of processes and effects whose common core is the realization that an organism selects a particular behaviour because of expected consequences, and then implements it with some measure of energy, along a particular path.

Which is in line with Bandura’s definition of motivation, seen as a “multidimensional phenomenon” understood in terms of “selection of pursuits from competing alternatives, intensity of effort, and persistence of exertion” (1991: 158). This “selection of pursuits” followed by effort and persistence accords with Goal-setting theory, according to which all human action is caused by a purpose, a goal that has to be set and pursued by our choice, which triggers actual action, so that the idea (i.e. the desired aim) “guides action to attain the object” (or condition) sought (Locke, 1996: 118). Inasmuch as the goals we set and seek to attain “affect performance by affecting the direction of action, the degree of effort exerted, and the persistence of action over time” (p. 120), the researchers who attempt to explain the motivational sources of behaviour try to clarify “the determinants and intervening mechanisms that govern the selection, activation, and sustained direction of behaviour” (Bandura, 1991: 158).

In the same vein, Williams and Burden (1997: 120) provide an elaborate definition of motivation, which can be construed as:

a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals).

Hence, based on the previous conceptualisations and attempts to define it, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998: 64) presented a comprehensive idea of motivation seen as:

the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out.

In the light of all the above-mentioned definitions, motivation to learn a language is what triggers and sustains our desire to learn a language, and leads us through the process of its acquisition, in order to reach the aim of mastering it. Once the attempt of defining the key construct has been made, a brief historical overview of motivation to learn foreign language will be presented.

4.3. An overview of the history of the concept of motivation in SLA

In order to better grasp the development of the concept of motivation in the field of SLA, which led to the creation of the L2 Motivational Self framework on which the present study is based and the directions towards which the area evolves, in this section a brief history of approaches to L2 motivation is presented. The historical overview of motivation in language learning could be divided in three key phases or periods, which are, according to Dörnyei (2005) (for a recent thorough review see Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; as well as Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015):

1. The social-psychological period (1959-1990) – characterised by the work of Robert Gardner and his associates in Canada.
2. The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s) – characterised by work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology.
3. The process-oriented period (the turn of the century) – characterised by an interest in motivational change.

As Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 40) suggest, the last phase is now developing to, or even merging with, a new socio-dynamic period of L2 motivation theory, which reflects the current thinking in the field.

4.3.1. The social-psychological period: Gardner and the traditional view on L2 motivation

L2 motivation research is a relatively young field within SLA, and its rise in the late 1950s was mainly due to Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert's work. The social-

psychological period owns its name to those two social psychologists set in Canada, who are the pioneers of the modern field of research on L2 motivation. Their research concerns mainly the L1 speakers of English learning French as the L2, and they understood the languages as “mediating factors between different ethnolinguistic communities” (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 40) and saw people’s attitudes towards an L2 and the L2-speaking community as the direct influence on their L2 learning behaviour, i.e. motivation to master the L2.

This traditional approach to understanding the motivational factors coming into play in SLA was based on the “socio-educational model” and the concept of “integrativeness” vs. “instrumentality” (Gardner and Lambert, 1959; Gardner, 1985, 2001), a parallel concept to “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” motivation in the field of educational psychology (see for example Ryan and Deci, 2000). According to this dichotomy, “instrumental” motivation’s force stems from the possible benefits that we think language proficiency might generate, such as career opportunities, language certificate, or increased salary, whereas “integrativeness” is related to the desire to learn an L2 of a community in order to be able to interact with the community’s members and sometimes even become like them (Dörnyei, 2010). Gardner (2001: 5) defined the concept in the following way:

Integrativeness reflects a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community. At one level, this implies an openness to, and respect for other cultural groups and ways of life. In the extreme, this might involve complete identification with the community (and possibly even withdrawal from one’s original group), but more commonly it might well involve integration within both communities.

Integrativeness will then be “reflected in an integrative orientation toward learning the second language, a favourable attitude toward the language community, and an openness to other groups in general (i.e. an absence of ethnocentrism)” (Gardner, 2001: 5).

In fact, Gardner’s motivation theory’s most widely researched concept of integrative motive consists of three main components, in Figure 10 (see also Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993: 8), which are as follows (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 42):

- Integrativeness, which is made up of integrative orientation, interest in foreign language and attitudes towards the L2 community

- Attitudes towards the learning situation, which is composed of attitudes towards the L2 teacher and the L2 course in general
- Motivation, which comprises the desire to learn the L2, the effort one is ready to expend learning the L2 or the “motivational intensity”, and attitudes towards learning the L2.

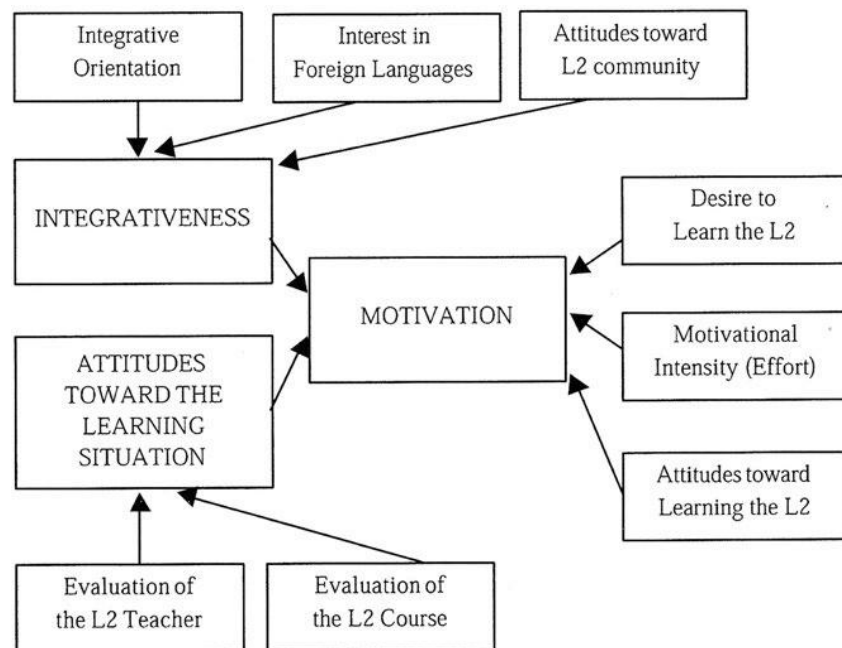


Figure 10. Gardner’s conceptualisation of the integrative motive (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 42)

In this manner, the two types of motivational orientation in language learning, an integrative orientation which reflects “a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group”, and an instrumental orientation which reflects “the practical value and advantages of learning a new language” (Gardner and Lambert, 1972: 132) became for several decades the core of L2 motivation research (Dörnyei, 2009; 2010).

4.3.2. The cognitive-situated period

An attempt to revitalise and change the focus of the main motivational approach came in early 1990s, led by Graham Crookes and Richard W. Schmidt (1991), who saw little

connexion of the field with other related educational research and therefore advocated for (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 46):

1. The need to bring language motivation research in line with the cognitive revolution in mainstream motivational psychology
2. The desire to move from the broad perspective of ethnolinguistic communities and learners' general disposition and attitudes to language learning, and sharpen the focus on a more situated analysis of motivation in specific learning contexts.

The cognitive-situated period was thus characterised by an “educational shift” (Dörnyei, 1998: 124), as noted by Dörnyei (1994: 273), even though Gardner's (1985) conceptualisation did include an educational dimension (i.e. the L2 learning situation, including the curriculum, the teacher and the learners' group), the core focus was on “general motivational components grounded in the social milieu rather than in the foreign language classroom”. Therefore, the call for change was based on focusing more on “motivation as reflected in students' classroom learning behaviour” (Dörnyei, 1996: 71), yet by “broadening the scope” of the theory and research to “increase its educational potential”, without rejecting Gardner's theory entirely.

Within this expansion of the theoretical framework of L2 motivation more towards the language learning setting, Dörnyei (1994: 283) proposed a three-dimension framework of the learning process, comprising the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level. This intention to design a comprehensive framework of research resulted in the following idea (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 51):

- The language level, which encompasses a number of components relating to aspects of the L2 (such as the culture and the community itself, as well as intellectual and pragmatic values and benefits associated with it; integrative and instrumental motivational subsystems) – the social dimension
- The learner level, which involves individual characteristics that the L2 learner brings to the learning process (a set of components specific to each individual learner) – the personal dimension
- The learning situation level, which is associated with the motives rooted in various aspects of L2 learning within a classroom setting (related to the L2 course itself, the teacher, and the learner group) – the educational subject matter dimension.

According to Dörnyei (1994) all three levels reflect the complexity of the motivational construct and should be considered as equally influential in overall L2 learner's motivation.

Williams and Burden's (1997) comprehensive framework of motivation was yet another proposal of a more inclusive construct of L2 motivation. They proposed a dichotomous categorisation of motivational factors, internal vs. external factors, either specific to each individual L2 learner or his or her social context, advocating for a "social-constructivist" approach to L2 motivation (1997: 121). Internal factors comprised, among others, such factors as: intrinsic interest of activity, perceived value of activity, sense of agency, mastery, self-concept, attitudes, other affective states, developmental age and stage, or gender, whereas among the external factors the researchers listed the significant others, the nature of interaction of the learner with the significant others, the learning environment, as well as the broader context of the individual learner.

These two expanded theoretical framework proposals reflect the "spirit" which began to draw researchers' attention to a new array of areas of inquiry, focusing on various factors seen as potentially influential in language learning motivation in the classroom context (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011), contributing to the search of a new, broader paradigm that led the field to a more process-oriented approach at the turn of the century.

4.3.3. The process-oriented period

The growing interest of researchers in the motivational process of L2 learning and its variation in a time span brought about the new focus on motivation as a process. Since mastering an L2 is normally a long-lasting process, the dynamics of L2 motivational change in time has been the core of the main research conducted in this period (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011).

Williams and Burden (1997) suggested the distinction between the initiation of motivation and its maintenance during the pursue of the aim, highlighting the fact that motivating learners "is far more" than "sparking an initial interest", but entails

“sustaining interest and investing time and energy into putting the necessary effort to achieve certain goals” (p. 121).

Ushioda (1996, 1998) emphasised the focus on the temporal dimension of L2 motivation and a more qualitative paradigm for motivational research, with the aim of capturing “motivational flux rather than stability” (1996: 240-241), which would lead to a better and more in-depth understanding of motivational phenomena over time. As illustrated schematically in Figure 11, in one of her studies (Ushioda, 1998), the researcher observed that while an L2 is developed by a learner over time, his or her motivation is influenced first by positive learning experience, and then what affects it more is the motivation directed towards future goals.

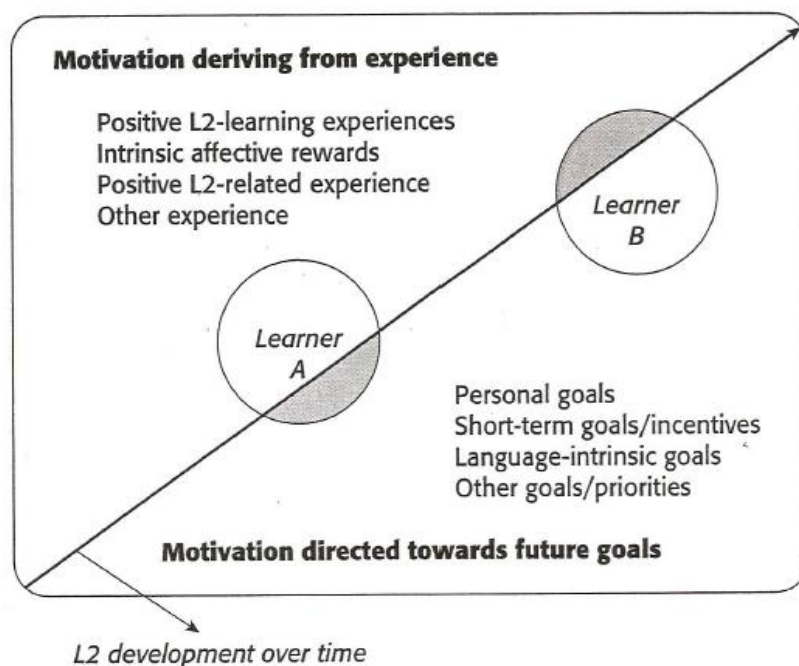


Figure 11. Ushioda’s motivation from a temporal perspective (1998: 82)

Focusing on the process dimension of motivation, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) proposed a very detailed and comprehensive model, which organised a number of factors proper to specific “action sequence” in its corresponding “motivational influences” along three successive stages, namely: preactional phase, actional phase, and postactional phase. Figure 12 presents a schematic representation of this particularly elaborated model, according to which in each temporal segment or phase of learner’s motivated behaviour

different set of “motivational influences” come to the fore. The main dimensions of each phase are as follows (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011):

- Preactional phase, in which the task to accomplish or a goal to reach are selected. The most prominent motivational influences in this phase are the ones related to goal setting, intention formation and the initiation of intention enactment).
- Actional phase, which corresponds to actually “embarking on a task” (p. 65), with the main motivational influences being executive ones, enabling a shift from decision-making to action.
- Postactional phase, involving motivational influences on evaluation of one’s action.

However, the main shortcomings of this overall linear in nature model were the complexity of the interrelationship and interference of L2 motivational factors and actional processes (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011), what made its conceptual validity questionable. All in all, the approach was helpful in expanding the current conceptualisation of L2 research towards the socio-dynamic perspective.

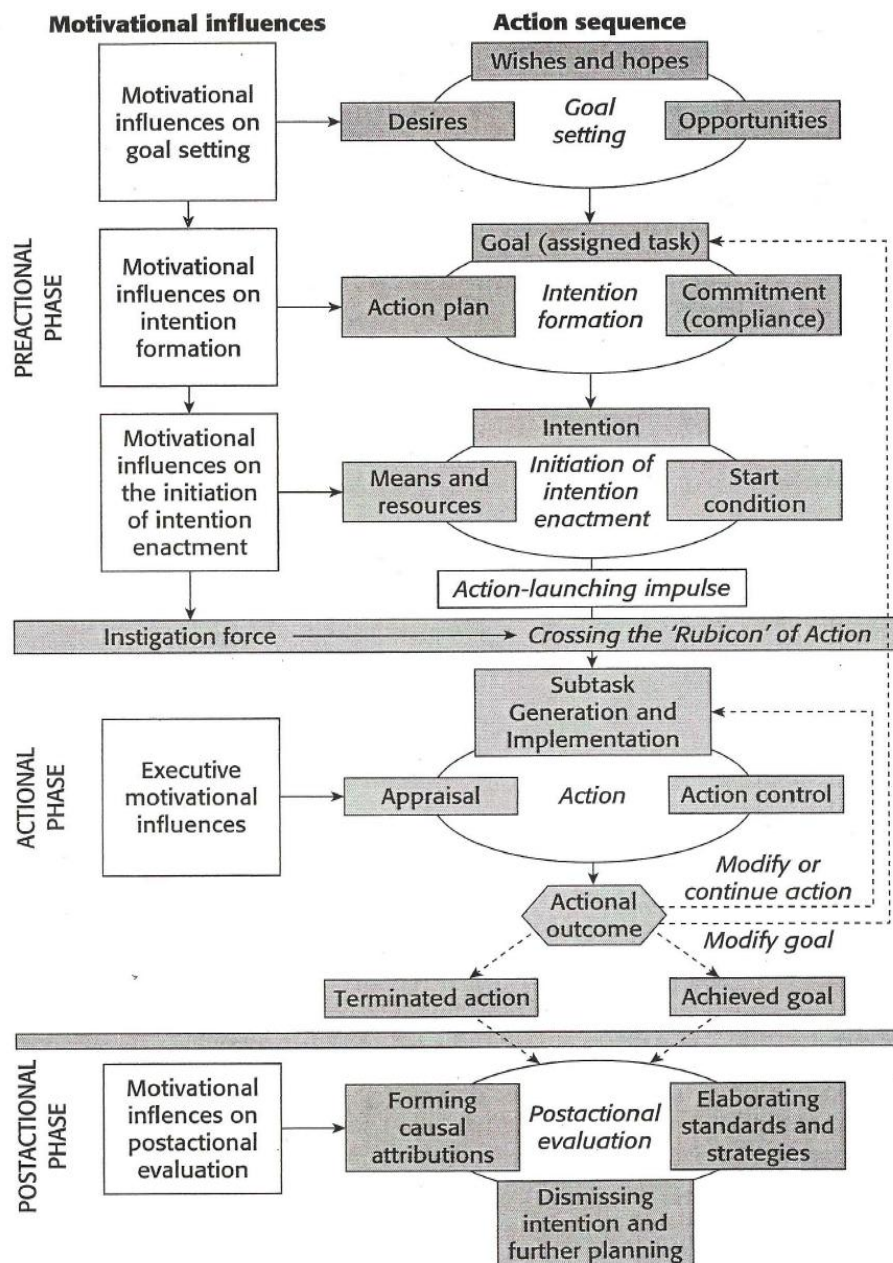


Figure 12. Dörnyei and Ottó's process model of L2 motivation (1998: 48)

4.3.4. Theoretical shift in the conceptualisation of the L2 motivation: the emerging socio-dynamic period of L2 motivation theory

Gardner's integrative vs. instrumental components of L2 motivational construct have been somehow integrated in the new approaches throughout the cognitive-situated period. Nevertheless, the concept of integrativeness has been more and more criticised as rather limiting and ambiguous, especially in formal learning situations where a foreign language is taught as a school subject. In such typical foreign language learning

contexts, as, for instance, teaching English, German or French in Spain, which is normally done without any direct contact with the target language speakers, the integrative motivation does not make much sense indeed (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006; Dörnyei, 2009; 2010; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Lamb, 2004).

Dörnyei and his associates (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér and Nemeth, 2006) found in their Hungarian nationwide longitudinal research, focused on motivation and attitudes towards five different languages, a strong salience of the learners' integrative motives, which put in doubt Gardner's (1985) "traditional" concept. They suggested instead that the "integrativeness" dimension might rather relate not so much "to any actual, or metaphorical, *integration* into an L2 community as to some more basic *identification process* within the individual's *self-concept*" (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002: 456, italics original).

Csizér and Dörnyei (2005b) intended to analyse motivational content for the construct of "integrativeness" which stood out in the Hungarian research by means of structural equation modelling. The analysis of the internal structure of motivation revealed how the various motives were related to measures of learning behaviour, and again confirmed that the concept of "integrativeness" was the core factor in the L2 motivation construct, as it mediated the influence of the other motivational variables on the criterion measures. Nevertheless, given these results and in the light of other studies in the field, they suggested broadening the conceptualisation of the term "integrativeness", for it to gain the necessary explanatory power, thus, their proposed interpretation "equates integrativeness with the Ideal L2 Self, referring to the L2-specific dimension of the learner's ideal self" (p. 30).

In the same vein, Dörnyei *et al.* (2006) reached a similar conclusion while working on the data collected in the vast research involving 13,000 teenage Hungarian learners of foreign languages. Again, they found out that "integrativeness" was the key element mediating the effect of other variables on the criterion measure of the study, even though the context for "integration" did not make much sense, as the study was conducted in a school setting, which led the researchers to question current theoretical modelling.

What is more, nowadays, with the process of globalisation and the growing importance of "World English" as a global language (Crystal, 2003), or the international *lingua*

franca, the somewhat problematic nature of Gardner's "integrative motivation" has been even intensified, to the point that, in Dörnyei's words (2010: 75): "it is not at all clear who 'owns' the L2, and this lack of a specific L2 community undermines Gardner's theoretical concept of integrativeness."

Similarly, according to Lamb, who found in his study that the distinction between integrative and instrumental orientations as separate concepts was hard to make (2004: 3):

as English loses its association with particular Anglophone cultures and is instead identified with the powerful forces of globalization, the desire to 'integrate' loses its explanatory power in many EFL contexts. Individuals may aspire towards a 'bicultural' identity which incorporates an English-speaking globally-involved version of themselves in addition to their local L1-speaking self.

Therefore, the notion of integrativeness was clearly seen "untenable" for second language learners (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006). The growing dissatisfaction with the "traditional" approach to understanding L2 motivation, which did not fit the majority of foreign language learning environments, has finally led to a vital shift in the theoretical conceptualisation in the field, giving way to the L2 Motivational Self framework.

4.4. L2 Motivational Self System

Inspired by thought-provoking findings of the Hungarian research (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006), Dörnyei (2005, 2009) proposed a new approach to understand L2 motivation within the 'self' framework, falling back on the combination of theoretical considerations from the field of psychology with empirical research findings in SLA field. Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System draws thus on the psychological concepts of the 'possible selves' (Markus and Nurius, 1986) and 'future self-guides' (Higgins, 1987), as well as on the previous theories and studies of the field of L2 motivation.

The very concept of the 'possible self' represents "an individual's ideas of what they *might* become, what they *would like* to become and what they are *afraid* of becoming"

[emphasis in the original], concerning the way in which people “conceptualise their as-yet unrealised potential, and as such, it also draws on hopes, wishes and fantasies” (Dörnyei, 2009: 11). In other words, possible selves are hoped-for, “specific representations of one’s self in future states, involving thoughts, images and senses, and are in many ways the manifestations of one’s goals and aspiration” (Dörnyei, 2010: 78).

The psychological ‘future self-guides’, namely the ‘ideal self’ and the ‘ought self’ (Higgins, 1987), are the key components of the new L2 motivation theory. The former concerns “the representation of the attributes that someone would ideally like to possess (i.e. representation of hopes, aspirations or wishes)”, whereas the latter refers to “the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e. representation of someone else’s sense of duties, obligations or moral responsibilities) and which therefore may bear little resemblance to one’s own desires or wishes” (Dörnyei, 2009: 13).

Higgins’s Self-discrepancy Theory (1987, 1998) explains the motivational drive of these possible selves which “act as ‘future self-guides’, reflecting a dynamic, forward-pointing conception that can explain how someone is moved from the present toward the future” (Dörnyei, 2009: 11), and it postulates that “motivation involves the desire for people to reduce the discrepancy between their actual and ideal/ought selves”, which may encourage them for certain language learning behaviour (Dörnyei, 2010).

The motivational power of the ‘future self-guides’, and especially of the ‘ideal self’, stems from the compelling imagery, considered by Dörnyei (2009) the core element of the new theory. In this way, one’s ‘ideal self’-concept involves images and senses, which resemble “what people actually experience when they are engaged in motivated or goal-oriented behaviour” (2009: 15).

Hence, Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System, outlined in 2005 and developed in 2009 comprises the following three major dimensions (2009: 29):

- (1) *Ideal L2 Self*, which is the L2-specific facet of one’s ‘ideal self’, thus, if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ‘ideal L2 self’ is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. According to Dörnyei, the traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives would typically belong in this component.

(2) *Ought-to L2 Self*, which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations of other people or the society, as well as to avoid possible negative outcomes, if those expectations are not fulfilled. This dimension corresponds to the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalised) types of instrumental motives.

(3) *L2 Learning Experience*, which concerns situated, ‘executive’ motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success).

Dörnyei’s ‘self-framework’ fitted very well theoretically with the previous studies’ contexts, as instead of dividing motivational factors into either ‘integrative’, or ‘instrumental’, it offered a revolutionary perspective for looking at ‘integrativeness’. Namely, in Dörnyei’s words, from the ‘self’ perspective, the concept of ‘integrativeness’ “can be conceived of as the L2-specific facet of one’s ideal self.” In this way, “if our ideal self is associated with the mastery of an L2, that is, if the person that we would like to become is proficient in the L2, we can be described in Gardner’s (1985) terminology as having an integrative disposition” (Dörnyei, 2010: 78). Thus, the dimension that has traditionally been interpreted as ‘integrativeness/integrative motivation’ converged now fully within the broader concept of the ‘ideal L2 self’.

As far as the traditional ‘instrumental’ dimension of motivation is concerned, Dörnyei argued that it confused two different aspects of *approach/avoid* tendency in human behaviour, following Higgins (1987, 1998). In the light of this distinction, as he puts it:

Ideal self-guides have a *promotion* focus, concerned with hopes, aspirations, advancements, growth and accomplishments (i.e. approaching a desired end-state); whereas ought-to self-guides have a *prevention* focus, regulating the absence or presence of negative outcomes, concerned with safety, responsibilities and obligations (i.e. avoidance of a feared end-state) (Dörnyei, 2009: 28).

In this manner, when we associate the ideal image of ourselves in the future with being professionally successful, it means that ‘instrumental’ motives with a promotion focus (for instance, to learn English in order to boost our professional or career progress) are related to the dimension of the Ideal L2 Self. As opposed to that, instrumental motives

with a prevention focus (as when, for example, we study in order not to fail an exam or not to disappoint our parents) belong to the Ought-to L2 Self (Dörnyei, 2009).

4.5. L2 Motivational Self System in research

Numerous studies carried out in different —although mainly EFL— settings empirically validated Dörnyei's theory. These studies have included students of German (Busse, 2010, 2013) and French (MacIntyre, Mackinnon and Clément, 2009a) in Great Britain; learners of English and Mandarin in Hong Kong, China (Dörnyei and Chan, 2013); EFL learners in China (You and Dörnyei, 2016; You, Dörnyei and Csizér, 2016) Hungary (Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Csizér and Lukács, 2010; Kormos and Csizér, 2008); Indonesia (Lamb, 2009, 2012); Japan (Ryan, 2009; Ueki and Takeuchi, 2013; Yashima, 2009); Japan, China, and Iran (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009); Pakistan (Islam, Lamb and Chambers, 2013); Poland (Iwaniec, 2014; Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pietrzykowska, 2011); Saudi Arabia (Al-Shehri, 2009); Spain (Brady, 2015; Lasagabaster, 2016); and Sweden (Henry, 2009, 2010, 2011a, 2011b), confirming the Ideal L2 Self-concept's role as a major driving force behind learners' motivated behaviour.

Some researchers proposed new components should be included as part of original theoretical dimensions of the Self System, such as the case of “international posture” proposed by Yashima (2009), who found this construct's role in mediating the influence of other variables on learners' Ideal L2 Selves. On the other hand, Kormos, Kiddle and Csizér (2011), after analysing the data gather among EFL learners in Chile, put forward a comprehensive model of language learning motivation, extending Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) proposal, which subsumes four hierarchically layered and interacting with each other learner-internal factors, such as goals, affective reactions (attitudes), self-guides and self-efficacy beliefs, which are situated in the systems of the learner's social, cultural, and instructional setting and exert a direct influence on the components of learner internal motivation (Kormos, Kiddle and Csizér, 2011: 513).

Generally, in the above mentioned studies the instrumentality-promotion dimension was found to correlate stronger with the Ideal L2 Self dimension, and instrumentality-prevention dimension with the Ought-to L2 Self, but the two aspects of instrumentality

displayed low correlation between each other, which further supported the idea they did not belong to the same construct, but should rather be treated as distinctly separate aspects, as suggested originally by Dörnyei (2005, 2009). With regard to the Ought-to L2 Self, it was not always found to play such a significant role as the Ideal L2 Self or the Learning Experience dimension on students' motivation to learn a FL, however, it seems that it exerts a stronger influence on learners' motivation in the Asian context than in the European EFL settings, as in Oriental cultures wishes and desires of the "significant others" and family members are identified within a relatively high Ought-to L2 Self, whereas in Western cultures, such sense of obligation is not as immediately traceable, resulting in a weaker association of external influences with learners' motivated behaviour (see, for example, Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Lasagabaster, 2016). This general cultural difference, as indicated by, for instance, MacIntyre *et al.* (2009b), has been observed in mainstream psychology, where Eastern cultures view the self as interdependent and intertwined with other people surrounding them, while Western cultures construe their self as much more independent, distinct and separate from other members of their community (p. 55). What is more, Csizér and Kormos (2009) point at the fact that students view speaking English indispensable for their future lives and careers, perceiving the global significance of English, which does not act as an external motivating factor, but is instead internalised and becomes forming a part of their (ideal) L2 Self-concept (p. 107).

In Spain, it is only recently when a few studies have been published on the L2 Motivational Self System (Brady, 2014, 2015; Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015; Mackay, 2014, 2015) and one in the Basque Autonomous Community (Lasagabaster, 2016), however, to date no study has used this framework yet to analyse high school pupils' motivation to learn English in the BAC.

Although Dörnyei's model is very comprehensive in nature, as it gives an important place to the Learning Experience dimension, it is the Ideal L2 Self component of the self-framework, based on the vivid image of a student's self as a future fluent speaker of an L2 he or she is intending to become, which seems to be the strongest "central and leading predictor of motivation" (Ibrahim, 2016a: 27). Even though the L2 Learning Experience dimension was conceptualised at a different level than the Ideal and Ought-to L2 Selves (Dörnyei, 2005), up to date little research has been done on the role of the

learning experience either on its own or in relation to the framework's core component of the Ideal L2 Self (Dörnyei and Chan, 2013; Thompson and Vásquez, 2015).

As You, Dörnyei and Csizér (2016: 96) observe, due to the fact that the Learning Experience component did not have its origin in possible selves theory, "its operationalization in actual research terms has been subject to more variation than that of the two future self-guides". Therefore, for instance, in studies conducted by Taguchi (2013) and Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) we can find the reference to this dimension as to "Attitudes to learning English," Kormos, Kiddle, and Csizér (2011) and Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) call it "L2 learning attitude," whereas Csizér and Kormos (2009) "L2 learning experience", and Papi (2010) "English learning experience." Although the reference is not uniform, it is just a terminological variation, as all above mentioned studies made use of similar questionnaire items intended to tap into this component (You *et al.*, 2016).

Since the L2 Learning Experience dimension focuses on the learners' immediate learning environment (as, for example, the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, experience of success), it is related to learners' past and current experience, rather than to the future-oriented vision or image of himself/herself (You *et al.*, 2016: 96). It does, however, have an important role, as pointed out by Dörnyei (2009: 29):

For some language learners the initial motivation to learn a language does not come from internally or externally generated self images but rather from successful engagement with the actual language learning process (e.g. because they discover that they are good at it).

Various past empirical studies, collected in Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2009) anthology, employed structural equation modelling to indicate directional links between the L2 Motivational Self System's three components, as no such links were originally specified in the framework. However, they have not been uniform in determining these interrelationships. You *et al.* (2016) point out that the most important difference among the proposed models concerned the link between the Ideal L2 Self and the L2 Learning Experience dimension, as some studies (e.g., Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Kormos *et al.*, 2011) presented a directional link from the Learning Experience component to the Ideal L2 Self, illustrated by Figure 13, whereas in other studies' findings (e.g., Papi, 2010;

Taguchi, 2013; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Ueki and Takeuchi, 2013) the link was of reversed direction (p. 97), as represented in Figure 14.

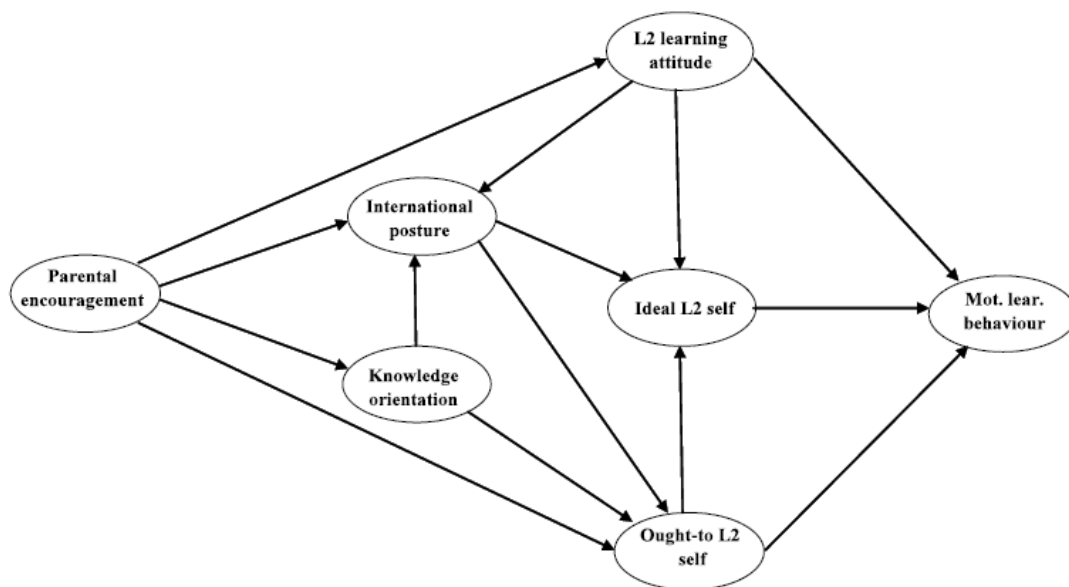


Figure 13. Link from Learning Experience to Ideal L2 Self (here “L2 learning attitude”; Csizér and Kormos, 2009: 100)

The learning environment and enjoyment derived from learning English resulted important in shaping learners’ image of themselves as successful language users, as remarked by Kormos and Csizér’s (2008) study of Hungarian adolescents learning English. Csizér and Kormos (2009) observed that the language learning experience appeared to exert a very strong influence on motivated behaviour of secondary education pupils, a stronger influence than among university students, which may be accounted for by the fact that a less developed L2 self-concept in the younger learners emphasised the importance of their need for intrinsic enjoyment of learning. This led the authors to conclude that teachers should be more aware of their responsibility in motivating students (p. 108). For the older learners, it seems that the significance of such intrinsic enjoyment can be overridden by a well-developed, strong L2 Self-concept, as found by Magid (2011) in his study on university students in China. Considerations that making learning enjoyable is relevant even for adult learners (university students included), particularly among those who do not possess a strong L2 self-concept, are made as well by Brady (2015: 283), who suggests that this may in fact be “a by-product” of negative past learning experiences.

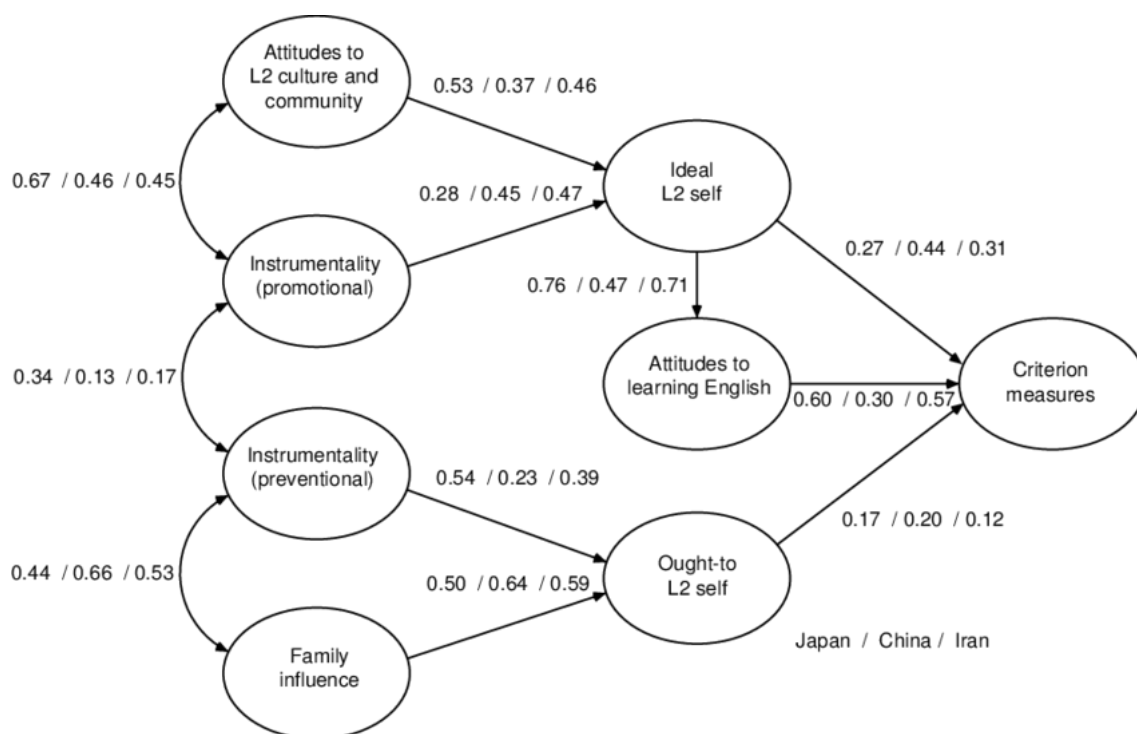


Figure 14. Link from Ideal L2 Self to L2 Learning Experience dimension (here “Attitudes to learning English”; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009: 86)

The reason for the two possible representations of the link between the Ideal L2 Self and the Learning Experience dimension originates in the twofold relationship underlying these components. You *et al.* (2016) point at temporal considerations which suggest that past and current L2 learning experience is expected to affect the future self-image of a learner. On the other hand, positive “disposition” or emotional load induced by the learner’s vivid mental image of himself or herself as a successful L2 speaker may influence learner’s attitudes towards L2 learning. This kind of positive emotional surges have been associated by researchers with DMC phenomena (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2014, 2015, 2016; see also Ibrahim, 2016a, 2016b). What is more, such favourable disposition is believed to hold sufficient power to convert “activities that a person previously considered boring or tedious” to “pleasant and enjoyable (...) because they are perceived as being conducive to the accomplishment of the higher purpose” (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015: 101). However, no matter the modelling of the directionality of these two components’ interrelationship, the importance of the influence of L2 learners’ experience during their learning process and its crucial role in the overall construct of L2 Motivational Self-framework has to be underscored.

In the same vein, in their qualitative study on three foreign teachers' narrative accounts of their foreign language learning in search of their motivational profiles within L2 Motivational Self System framework, Thompson and Vásquez (2015) found out that the learning experience had an important impact on one of the participants' motivation. Learning experience made him "visualize and project himself into an L2 context in the future", contributing to the imagery necessary to create his vivid Ideal L2 Self, what seems to indicate "a clear connection between the ideal L2 self and the learning experience" (p. 168). According to these authors, the L2 Learning Experience domain should thus receive more attention, since:

Of the three participants, for Joe, the classroom language learning experience itself served as a powerful motivator, not only in terms of providing him images of distant lands that he wanted to visit, and in providing him with German teacher role models he wanted to emulate, but also in his repeatedly successful experiences as a classroom language learner (p. 169).

Hence, it seems that the positive L2 learning experience itself might play a significant role in learner's motivation towards the L2 and enable a successful engagement in the language learning process. This suggestion is particularly important for the purpose of the present study, which aims at exploring the technology-assisted learning experience's possible influence on learners' attitudes towards the FL, and their L2 selves by helping them to develop the experience of using technology in English in a comfortable manner and unfold their possible L2 selves in the digital world.

4.6. Possible selves, L2 motivation and vision

One of the key conditions needed for the future self-image to be able to exert motivational power over an L2 learner is its vivid mental representation, or vision (Dörnyei and Chan, 2013; You and Dörnyei, 2016; You, Dörnyei and Csizér, 2016). According to Dörnyei and Chan, "the intensity of motivation is partly dependent on the learners' capability to generate mental imagery" (2013: 439), since:

Learners with a vivid and detailed ideal self-image that has a substantial L2 component are more likely to be motivated to take action in pursuing language

studies than their peers who have not articulated a desired future goal-state for themselves (p. 440).

There is also a relevant practical pedagogical implication of these authors' study, as the learners' imagery capacity "is an important internal resource that can be intentionally harnessed", and therefore L2 teachers may help students to "generate personal visions supported by vivid and lively images and then to sustain this vision during the often challenging everyday reality of the language learning process" (p. 457). This is corroborated by the fact that there is research evidence indicating that such imagery skills can be acquired by means of specific training (Dörnyei and Kubanyiova, 2014; see also Csizér and Magid, 2014; Magid and Chan, 2012 and Sampson, 2012). Dörnyei and Kubanyiova's (2014) book-length practical suggestions for teachers on motivating language learners through vision and imagery enhancement training includes advice for motivating language teachers by helping them visualise their L2 teacher-selves. Accordingly, the imagery is deemed crucial to persist in the often long and tedious pursue of mastering an L2, because "where there is a vision, there is a way" (Dörnyei and Kubanyiova, 2014: 2).

Sampson (2012) conducted a study in Japan based on learners' vision training during 10 sessions over a 15-week university semester, in which he observed that through initial inquiry among students as to their L2 self-images, followed by self-enhancement activities, more compelling lessons could be created. This positively affected learners' motivation, even though at the starting point of the research the majority of the students involved in the study did not possess a developed vision of their future L2 self (Sampson, 2012: 324).

In the same vein, Magid and Chan (2012) explored how two different intervention programmes based on the Motivational L2 Self System's tenets resulted effective in motivating Chinese students to learn English due to enhancing their vision on their Ideal L2 self. The training in an English and a Chinese university lasted for four and three months, respectively, involving four workshops made in England and six in Hong Kong. The study revealed that the students benefitted from both interventions by becoming more confident in their English, and clarifying their future vision as successful L2 speakers by specifying their goals with regard to the L2.

Nevertheless, Henry (2009) argued that in Dörnyei's framework gender was of particular importance, as a core element of the learner's self-concept. In his longitudinal study carried out in Sweden among compulsory education pupils (6th grade) he found that between the end of the first year and third year of learning a FL (French, Spanish, German, or sign language), although pupil's Ideal L2 self-concepts remained stable, gender played a major role. The analysis revealed that girls' Ideal L2 self-concepts strengthened, while boys' weakened (Henry, 2009: 189). Pupils' attitudes to English were favourable from the start, but the enthusiasm increased among girls while it decreased for boys. As regards FL other than English, students' attitudes towards the learning situation (learning experience) decreased over time, which, as the author suggests, may be due to a general "disenchantment with school" at this age (p. 184), and the sensation of frustrated expectations as to FL learning resulting from the classroom-based learning. Such motivational wane particularly in formal settings was suggested also by other studies (Chambers, 1999; Williams, Burden and Lanvers, 2002). On the other hand, as put forward by Kormos and Csizér (2008), such gender-related differences may be accounted for by the significant changes in self-concept occurring during adolescence.

Such decline in favourable attitude towards learning a foreign language was also found in other contexts, such as Hungary. Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh (2006) surveyed over 13,000 13-14 years-old Hungarian pupils and observed that over five years their engagement in studying a FL (German, French, Italian, and Russian) diminished (see also Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002). However, this decreasing enthusiasm towards those languages was in the same time accompanied by pupils' stable commitment towards learning English. These authors found as well some differences depending on pupils' gender as far as the learning of the languages is concerned, as female learners outscored their male counterparts with regard to their intention of learning a FL. The Hungarian results suggest that the growing popularity of English among language learners does not necessarily stem from their motivation to learn it, but because they "study the language as an obvious and self-evident component of education in the 21st century" (Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006: 89; see also Csizér and Kormos, 2009).

All in all, various studies on motivation and vision revealed gender differences (for a recent review see Henry, 2011a; Henry and Cliffordson, 2013). As argued by these researchers, female learners tend to "invest more in interpersonal relationships and self-

other interaction” (p. 271) and this may have an impact on their capability of envisioning themselves in future L2 communication situations (see also Ryan, 2009).

Accordingly, You and Dörnyei (2016) and You *et al.* (2016) found in their vast sample of secondary and university Chinese students significant differences between females and males as far as the motivational scales were concerned, with female learners exceeding their male counterparts (apart from the Ought-to L2 Self dimension in the former study). Nevertheless, the differences disappeared in the case of the more motivated subsample (i.e. English majors). The reason for this gender variation, as the authors point out, may be due to the fact that there were many more females than males who reported being capable of using mental imagery with ease (i.e. having L2 visualisation experience), and they were more likely to expand positively their future self-imagery over time, that is, the ongoing dynamics of their mental imagery take a “positive trajectory” (You *et al.*, 2016: 119). The authors also indicate that this positive/negative trajectory, specifically related to the vividness of the self-image, Attitudes to L2 Learning, and the ease of using one’s mental imagery, may relate “to the individual’s ongoing *experience*, related both to the overall experience of visualization and the overall language learning experience” (p. 119; italics in original).

However, in Henry and Cliffordson’s (2013) study no gender differences among secondary students in Sweden were found regarding the Ideal English Self, but it was not the case of other Ideal L3 Selves (i.e. French, German, Spanish). As the authors point out, in the case of French and German it might be “part of a much more distinctly personal identity project” (p. 286) (see also Henry, 2011b), whereas English is perceived as an undeniable must in Swedish society (see also Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006).

4.7. Further developments of the field: current socio-dynamic perspectives

Apart from Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self framework, there are two recent developments in the field of L2 motivation in the current socio-dynamic phase: the approach to understanding motivation to learn a language from a Complex Dynamic Systems perspective (Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry, 2015), and the conceptual

framework of Directed Motivational Currents. The latter will be shortly reviewed in the following sub-section, as the present study appertains to some of its tenets.

4.7.1. Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs)

Recently, Dörnyei and his associates (Dörnyei, Muir and Ibrahim, 2014; Dörnyei, Ibrahim and Muir, 2015; Dörnyei, Henry and Muir, 2016; Henry, Davydenko and Dörnyei, 2015; Muir and Dörnyei, 2013) presented us with the idea of the Directed Motivational Currents (DMC), which evolved from the Motivational L2 Self System and the concept of the motivational role of mental imagery and vision. Dörnyei *et al.* (2014) define DMC in terms of a conceptual framework which is characterized by “unique periods of intensive motivational involvement both in pursuit of and fuelled by a highly valued goal/vision” (p. 9). As such, in terms of L2 learning contexts, individuals or groups involved in a DMC experience a “heightened motivational state”, an intense motivational drive, which “energises language learners to perform beyond expectations” and is “capable of both stimulating and supporting long-term behaviour, such as learning an L2” (*ibid.*), as well as “a prolonged process of engagement in a series of tasks which are rewarding primarily because they transport the individual towards a highly valued end” (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015: 98).

Dörnyei *et al.* (2014) suggest DMC’s similarity to a motivational Gulf Stream, or a Jetstream (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015):

The ensuing fusion between vision and complementary action, in turn, releases a motivational jetstream that is almost self-propelling and thus carries the individual towards the target the same way an ocean current carries fish and other life forms (cf. the film *Finding Nemo*) (p. 99).

The main components of DMS is the goal/vision-orientedness, the salient and facilitative structure of this phenomenon (i.e. a clear starting point, triggered by a powerful stimulus, followed by a “semi-automatic” behavioural routine, a strong perception of progress provided by processes of regular progress check, and finally, an evident end point), and last but not least, positive emotional loading (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2014; Henry *et al.*, 2015; for a comprehensive account of the various stages of the

DMC's lifecycle, see Ibrahim, 2016a). These unique properties of DMC allow learners to function "at a heightened state of productivity" and motivation, which is "over and above normal levels" (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015: 97). Ibrahim (2016a; 2016b) in his retrospective in-depth qualitative interviews found out that the positive emotionality is "the dominant form of affect while one is in a DMC which comes from two main sources: making meaningful progress toward a valuable DMC vision, and a sense of productivity, learning, and personal growth" (2016a: p. 235).

Nevertheless, the researchers do not claim DMC is to replace usual motivational classroom practices and techniques, but they propose triggering DMC as something additional, to be applied at various time-levels (lesson level, term level and course level, corresponding to the context of, for instance, a task, a project work or a language course as a whole, respectively), for DMC goal comprises multiple sub-goals or proximal goals (Ibrahim, 2016a) to be reached in a time sequence, and a DMC itself can be of varied length.

As such, DMC, being an "intense motivational pathway", may thus allow for, as Dörnyei *et al.* (2014: 27) suggest:

(...) directed, goal-oriented action and can serve as a motivation boost in contexts where a system –whether a single learner or a larger learner grouping– drifts somewhat aimlessly and without focus. In such situations, we believe DMCs may be consciously generated to align diverse factors along a directional pathway, and therefore they can be seen as an intense motivational strategy to combat apathy and demotivation.

Although the present research is based on Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System framework, it is believed that it could touch upon issues related to in-class creation of intensive motivational involvement in form of individual or group DMCs, possibly triggered by the technology-driven activities.

4.8. L2 Motivational Self System research in Spain

Even though it is currently the most influential theoretical framework in L2 motivation field, research within Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 Motivational Self System in Spain is

still scarce. Two recent PhD dissertations have focussed on students' motivation within this approach, the first one carried out by Mackay in Catalonia (2015; see also Mackay, 2014), and the second one in Murcia by Brady (2015; see also Brady, 2014 for pilot phase results of this research). Heras and Lasagabaster's (2015) and Lasagabaster's (2016) latest study, which has been conducted in the Basque context, will be described afterwards. A detailed description of these studies is deemed necessary here, as they are the only attempt to apply Dörnyei's model in the Spanish context. It is worth noting that three studies relied on university students, whereas only one, a small-scale research carried out by Heras and Lasagabaster (2015), on lower secondary pupils.

Mackay (2015) analysed possible implications for Self-concept, motivation and engagement with the target language (English) of an Ideal L2 Self intervention in Barcelona, Catalonia, which is another bilingual community in Spain. The researcher looked at how 98 university students' and adult EFL learners' motivation was influenced by specifically designed classroom practice. The design of the study was based on an intervention vs. control group's analysis after the implementation, over 12 weeks, of a 12-hour programme (1 hour out of 4 weekly hours of English), which involved visualisation techniques and exercises focused on the use of mental imagery, and aimed at the development of students' future self-guides, the vision of their Ideal L2 Self.

The study also examined students' perception of the learning experience itself and their motivated behaviour, operationalised here as the time spent engaged with the target language outside classroom, since Spanish learners tend to spend very little time involved in activities in an English-mediated environment out of school, in comparison with other European countries (Vez, Martínez and Lorenzo, 2012), and last but not least, students' and teachers' reactions to the intervention. Data was collected by means of various tools, such as a quantitative questionnaire (to measure contact with target language outside classroom), semi-structured interviews, students' language logs, and a feedback questionnaire. Interviews were made with a number of participants, and there were 5 "focal learners" with whom more in-depth interviews were made on repeated occasions.

Mackay (2015) found in her data differences in the Ideal L2 Selves between the intervention group and control group after implementing the programme. As observed by the researcher, it seems that the intervention helped the students develop and enhance

their mental image, and positively affected learners' generally negative past learning experience. The intervention group spent slightly more time in contact with the target language, and it reported more varied sources of contact with English, which was more regular outside the class when compared with the control group (p. 278). The Ought-to-Self was not found to be subject to influence of the intervention (p. 344). Feedback from both learners and teachers resulted positive, and the intervention was regarded highly useful, enjoyable, and well received by them. These findings lead the author to make a call for more extended use of such practices in formal learning settings, although she suggests that six 2-hour sessions would be preferable by students, although she also acknowledges that it might result too demanding or intense for some teachers (p. 348-349).

Brady (2015) conducted a study on the role of the Ideal and the Ought-to L2 Selves as well as their interplay among 529 Spanish university students, learners of English in Murcia (participants came from various degrees at 2 universities in Murcia). The data gathering methods involved exploratory interviews, a questionnaire, and explanatory interviews. The researcher adapted and employed an extended Spanish version of a Motivational Factors Questionnaire (Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009), including a psychometric scale to explore the orientation of "international posture" (Yashima, 2000, 2002, 2009). The Learning Experience was addressed in detail, as attitudes to past learning experiences were differentiated from current attitudes, given the students' repeated reports of rather negative learning experiences with the EFL in compulsory education.

Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) construct has been validated in the Spanish context by this study, as the three pillars of the theory have proved separate entities that each influence L2 motivation (Brady, 2015: 155). The analysis revealed that the Ideal L2 Self construct was a relevant and significant concept across the sample (reaching a 3.75 mean for the whole sample out of 5) and exerted the most important influence on Spanish EFL learners' motivation, although this tendency was stronger among English majors. Ought-to L2 Self's role was not found as significant. The Education studies group were supposed to exhibit a rather high Ought-to self, as English is a part of their professional requirements, however they did not show the expected trend and, in fact, the whole sample exhibited very low means on this scale: an average of 1.43 out of 5 (p. 223). This may be the result of embracing and internalising external incentives to learn

English on the part of students, who see it as a prerequisite for a prosperous future, in such a way that they eventually become harmonious with an individual's own Ideal self-concept (p. 306).

Although some gender differences were found, with males generally scoring lower than females, and with females showing a more developed Ideal L2 Self and males a stronger Ought-to Self, the differences were not statistically significant. Language learning experience seemed substantial, as negative past experiences, reported by the whole sample, affected their attitudes towards learning the FL at the time of the study and were thus influential in the construction of the L2 self-concept.

Brady (2015: 283) observes that an important source of motivation for adult EFL learners in Spain is their perception of enjoyment in class, which is in line with Mackay's (2015) study, as the participants' feedback on the intervention programme commonly referred to the amusement factor.

In the Basque context, Lasagabaster (2016) carried out a study on the relationship between motivation towards English as an L3, gender, L1 and possible selves among 189 university students involved in an English-medium instruction (EMI) context, in contrast to the two studies summarised above which included EFL students. This research validated Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) construct in the BAC at the university level, as instrumentality-promotion dimension was found to correlate significantly more with the Ideal L2 Self dimension. However, the instrumentality-prevention dimension did not correlate significantly with the Ought-to L2 Self among university students, which, according to Lasagabaster (2016: 325), may point to the fact that they were not motivated "by the expectation of significant others and the need to avoid negative outcomes", leading the less internalised, extrinsic instrumental motives to assume a more "subsidiary role" among the sample. Nevertheless, the two aspects of instrumentality displayed low correlation, which means they did not belong to the same construct, but should rather be treated as distinctly separate aspects, as suggested originally by Dörnyei (2005, 2009). The Ought-to L2 Self was found not to play such a significant role as the Ideal L2 Self and experiences of EMI courses in students' motivation towards the L3 (English) (Lasagabaster, 2016: 327-328). As a matter of fact, students' Ideal L2 Self and their attitudes to EMI underpinned by the family influence and instrumental promotion motives were found to be the driving force behind students' motivation towards learning English. These findings suggest that even if the students

may be encouraged by their parents to study English (or through English, as it is the case here), they do not regard it as a “determinant extrinsic motive that pushes them to avoid disappointing their parents” (p. 328). Moreover, gender differences and important dissimilarities between students with different L1 seem to disappear in EMI university setting, since, although some differences were found, their magnitude was too small to be meaningful. The researcher suggests that these findings may be due to the growing importance of English as international *lingua franca*, which raises students’ awareness and makes them more motivated to learn the L3, irrespectively of their L1. Therefore, it seems that interaction between the multilingual students’ different selves does not show any negative side-effects on the Ideal minority language self-concepts (p. 329), in contrast to some previous findings (Lasagabaster, 2004; Henry, 2011), nor does gender seem to affect EMI students’ motivation.

On the other hand, Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) reported the results of a small-scale study, conducted with a group of 46 16-year-old pupils in their last year of lower secondary education in a bilingual area of Navarre in Spain, of whom 25 were involved in CLIL classes and 21 were not. The study examined CLIL environment’s influence on pupils’ motivation with a special heed paid to the purported blurring effect of CLIL on gender-related differences. No differences were found in the motivation of participants from both groups (CLIL vs. non-CLIL). As to gender-based differences, results showed that CLIL group’s females tended to show a stronger Ideal L2 Self than males, however, males were found to exhibit stronger Ought-to L2 Self than their female counterparts, the latter difference being statistically significant. The non-CLIL group confirmed the trend of the CLIL students, yet this group’s females’ higher Ideal L2 Self differed significantly from the males’. CLIL experience seems thus to reinforce male pupils’ extrinsic motives to learn English (p. 84). Since this study was undertaken within the CLIL context, it was deemed of interest to investigate Basque upper-secondary students’ motivation within the L2 Motivational Self System in the EFL setting.

To my knowledge, no previous study has examined high school pupils’ motivation and possible selves through L2 Motivational Self System lens in the Basque EFL context yet. This is thus one of the novelties of the present PhD thesis, as the Basque context is an interesting language laboratory where three languages are involved in the school curriculum.

4.9. Research on language attitudes and motivation in the Basque context: overview of the main findings

As already mentioned in section 3.2., in the Basque context English is by far the most spread FL at schools, even though it is not used in everyday communication, or in the media (Cenoz, 2009: 19), and exposure to it is rather limited, as there is hardly any contact with the language outside the classroom (p. 114). Learners usually have few opportunities to be in contact with English speakers (either native or non-native), however, it is considered necessary by the authorities and society as a whole, as a result of which English has gained importance in the school curriculum over the last decade. As remarked by Cenoz (2009: 115), “traditionally, students in the BAC have not reached a good command of English by the end of secondary education”. Even the introduction of the *Early Start to English* initiatives, answering the growing social demand for getting a head start on learning English, “the sooner, the better” belief has not produced revolutionary improvements. In addition, as Cenoz underscores (2009: 208), it seems that the “more exposure to English does not necessarily result in better attitudes”, because unless the learners achieve a basic command of English, they may get bored and tired of their FL learning process. This may be partially attributed to a generally very communicative approach based on storytelling and projects, through which English is introduced to younger learners in the first grades, which contrasts sharply with a more grammar-based and textbook-centred approaches in later grades (Cenoz, 2009: 209; see also Lasagabaster, 2000). Such change in the learning experience, if too abrupt, may in turn affect pupils’ initial favourable disposition towards EFL as they realise learning foreign language is not that enjoyable anymore.

Accordingly, Lasagabaster (2007) observed that Basque teacher training college students had a relatively low level of English, as nearly 60% of the participants reported they knew English only “a little” (p. 75), a result that could be defined as preoccupying: In any case, it is worth noting that Basque adults have been recently found to be the best at English from all Spanish regions (El Correo, 10 February 2016). In the English Proficiency Index (EPI) report 2015, conducted by the Sweden-based Education First (EF) organisation, Spain as a whole ranked 23rd out of 70 countries from all over the world. However, among European countries, it occupied the 5th place from the bottom (only ahead of Slovakia, Lithuania, Italy and France). The member of the EF,

interviewed by El Correo newspaper, pointed at the lack of proper foreign language formation during their schooling period as the major problem of Spanish youth, since, in the end of secondary school, after more than seven years of EFL instruction, they only reach, on average, an intermediate level of proficiency.

Due to this unsatisfactory situation, the interest of Basque educational authorities has turned now from bilingual education to multilingual education (Cenoz, 2009: 118), with the aim that the pupils achieve communicative competence in three languages (Basque, Spanish and English) throughout their compulsory schooling, and, what is equally important, develop positive attitudes towards all three languages, as remarked by Cenoz (2009) and Lasagabaster (2007, 2009).

With regard to the fact that there are three languages in the official curriculum, one of which is a minority language (Basque), another one a majority language (Spanish), and the third one a language of global communication (English), there are some controversial matters regarding languages in education in the BAC, and there are as well many “hot debates” on different issues related to this linguistic situation in the Basque Parliament, the media, the Internet, as well as other forums (Cenoz, 2009: 171). Consequently, the coexistence of the three languages in the curriculum raises some concerns and sometimes produces tensions (Lasagabaster, 2004, 2005a, 2009).

Nevertheless, the implementation of various “multilingual experience” projects with emphasis on English (referred to previously in section 3.3.) is not considered harmful to the normal development of students’ competence in the two co-official languages. According to the Basque education authorities, a flexible trilingual framework should be thus used to boost the learning and use of Basque, to foster and consolidate bilingualism, and to activate English, in response to the present social demand (Basque Government, 2010; see also Etxebarria *et al.*, 2002).

Due to the BAC’s bilingual status, the studies on language attitudes conducted in this context have been focussed mainly on the minority and the majority language (i.e. Basque and Spanish) (Etxebarria, 1995; García, 2001; Larrañaga, 1995), including Spanish speakers’ attitudes towards Basque (Amorrortu *et al.* (2009).

Nevertheless, English has also been the focus of research, and examined in contrast with Basque and Spanish, given its status as the principal foreign language in Basque schools (Cenoz, 2001; Etxebarria *et al.*, 2002; Lasagabaster, 2009; Lasagabaster and Sierra,

2009; Sagasta, 2001). The results of the studies revealed general positive attitudes towards all three languages among the participants (Cenoz, 2001; Etxeberria *et al.*, 2002; Lasagabaster, 2001, 2003, 2004; Sagasta, 2001), and the belief that English is a valuable asset for the future (Etxeberria *et al.*, 2002).

However, even though the students were overall positive as far as multilingualism and English as foreign language are concerned, they tend to show the most favourable mindset towards their own mother tongue (i.e. Basque L1 students had more positive attitude towards Basque, and Spanish L1s towards Spanish), as reported by Lasagabaster (2001, 2003, 2004; see also Lasagabaster and Ó Laoire, 2008, for comparison between Irish and Basque contexts and Cenoz, 2001, for Basque primary and lower secondary pupils). In addition, L1 Basque students were found not as enthusiastic towards English as their L1 Spanish counterparts, although their attitudes towards English resulted more positive than towards Spanish (Lasagabaster, 2003, 2004).

Since speaking Basque is considered “an important indicator of identity for Basque speakers” (Cenoz, 2009: 188), these findings may be due to the special attachment Basque students show with regard to the minority language, as a reaction to a perceived potential threat from two strong international languages, Spanish and English, resulting in their building such “attitudinal fences” (Lasagabaster, 2004: 221; see also Lasagabaster, 2005a, 2009). This tendency was largely confirmed by Huguet and Lasagabaster (2007) through a comparison of language attitudes among teacher training college students from different European bilingual communities.

Regarding the influence of age on students’ attitudes towards Basque, Spanish and English, Cenoz’s (2001) results displayed a relatively positive attitudinal trend among all the students, although secondary and high school students turned out to be less enthusiastic as far as learning of these three languages and multilingualism are concerned, than their primary school counterparts. Likewise, Cenoz (2003) also found more positive attitudes towards English and motivation to learn it presented by primary school learners, in comparison to those held by secondary pupils. The author points at the possible reason for this trend, which might result from the amount of attention being devoted to grammar and vocabulary learning in secondary school, or in other words, factors associated with the change from primary to secondary school teaching methodology, which is much more teacher-centred, and far less enjoyed by learners (p.

90; see also Lasagabaster, 2000, 2011). Similar motivational decrease as the pupils get older was observed in other context also by Henry (2009), who suggested it may be attributed to an overall disillusionment with the formal language instruction (see also Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002 and Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006).

Lasagabaster (2005b) reported on the analysis of students' responses to attitudes-measuring questionnaire in which the focus was on three languages (Basque, Spanish and English) interacting together, as opposed to a traditional questionnaire for separate languages (p. 30). The participants of this study exhibited positive attitudes towards multilingualism, especially as far as social, economic, and cognitive advantages are concerned, and they did not believe that the learning of three languages may become a hurdle (p. 38). Yet still, as reported in some previous research papers (Lasagabaster 2001, 2003, 2004), students' L1 was found to play a significant role in their attitudes towards multilingualism, as L1 Basque students held the less favourable attitudes than L1 Spanish group, with the ones that were bilingual from birth showing the most enthusiastic disposition. As a matter of fact, the grade of multilingualism seems to exert an influence on students' attitudes, since those who could speak, apart from English, another foreign language, were more favourable towards English (Lasagabaster, 2005a). On the other hand, the degree of language competence was found to be the most influential variable affecting attitudes towards Basque, Spanish and English Lasagabaster (2005a).

The growing popularity of the CLIL approach in the Basque context has yielded several studies on the effect of its implementation in schools and attitudes towards trilingualism (Lasagabaster, 2009; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2009). It turned out that CLIL can boost a plurilingual mindset dimension, as students of both groups (secondary school, CLIL vs. traditional EFL) referred to multilingualism as an asset for the future labour market, as well as valuable issue for individual and social sphere. However, CLIL group showed more positive attitudes, which may be due to the fact that the CLIL approach "provides more intense exposure and more meaningful opportunities to use the target language", and, given that "language is best learned in authentic situations", and traditional FL class is "too often an artificial environment where the focus is on language itself", then, if such learning is compared with "good CLIL practice, the latter is clearly far ahead in this respect" (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2009: 13). This was confirmed by Lasagabaster's (2011) study, in which lower secondary CLIL students were compared to their EFL

counterparts. Although both groups were highly motivated towards learning English, CLIL students were significantly more enthusiastic and tended to perform better on the English tests (oral and written) than those in traditional EFL classrooms.

Furthermore, multilingual education was deemed advantageous in a study by Basque Institute for Evaluation and Investigation in Education [ISEI-IVEI] (2007), where the perceptions, attitudes and motivation of lower secondary students who participated in various multilingual projects were analysed. The results revealed positive attitudes towards the learning of different languages, considered a personal enrichment. They recognised a utilitarian advantage of English in the future, for such reasons as travelling opportunities, knowing other countries and their cultures, learning, and job opportunities. Learning three languages was seen as an advantage, which requires, however, an additional effort. It may result a rather demanding endeavour, as expressed also by participants of Lasagabaster's study (2009), who considered learning three languages a difficult and tiresome task, which could be attributed to methodology issues and the need for more active and motivating teaching style and methods, as suggested by the researcher (Lasagabaster, 2009: 38).

The role of motivation in language learning of Basque lower secondary pupils (1st and 3rd grade) involved in CLIL was examined by Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2014), who paid special attention to the factors which contribute to increasing or decreasing students' motivation. This qualitative research revealed, among others, that the 3rd graders (14-15 years old) valued the opportunity to practice with native teachers and using computers (both mentioned in the top 5 categories of things they liked the most of their CLIL class), tokens which did not appear in the advantages list of their younger counterparts (p. 131-132). Nevertheless, both groups were concerned with difficulty of learning through English, however, younger students pointed as well at hard work involved in CLIL classes, and problems with understanding the content (p.132, see also ISEI-IVEI, 2007 and Lasagabaster 2009).

While students' motivation to learn a foreign language may be negatively affected by rather monotonous language activities in EFL classes, it is believed that it can be "recovered and fuelled if they face new positive and motivating experiences", such as CLIL (Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2014: 118), which may help in boosting students' disposition and favourable attitudes by providing them with challenging and interesting activities, resulting from such methodological change. More widespread use of

technologies in EFL classes seem to be also a way to foster students' motivation, even in "traditional" contexts.

On the whole, the picture to be drawn from the research findings reviewed in this section is that Basque students seem rather positive towards all the languages taught in schools and their disposition towards learning them appears to be favourable. However, the majority of the studies participants surveyed were university students, and –in fewer cases– primary and lower secondary pupils. There is a dearth of studies conducted on attitudes and motivation of Basque high school students.

4.10. Summary of the chapter

As pointed out by Dörnyei and Ryan (2015: 104), the last decade has been "an exciting time to be involved in L2 motivation research". Interest of SLA scholars in the field has risen dramatically, which is reflected in the number of publications concerning language learning motivation: moreover, this surge has been accompanied by an "invigorating openness to new ideas and perspectives". In this chapter the main definitions and key concepts of attitudes to languages as well as L2 motivation have been presented, followed by a brief review of the history of the SLA field of motivation, specifying its major stages, such as the social-psychological period, the cognitive-situated period, and the process-oriented period, starting from the Gardnerian dichotomy of "integrativeness" and "instrumentality". Afterwards, a theoretical shift in the conceptualisation of motivation to learn languages, which occurred at the turn of the century, has been described. This turn in thinking led the field towards the current more socio-dynamic approach, and, as a result, to the development of the L2 Motivational Self framework (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). This approach is nowadays the most influential in the field, and it is the theoretical basis of the present dissertation. Some further lines of developments in the field have also been reviewed, namely, the Directed Motivational Currents (DMC).

The tripartite construct of L2 Motivational Self System (Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, and Learning Experience) and its empirical validation in subsequent research has been described in an overview of the main findings of research carried out within this approach. On the whole, the body of research from different parts of the globe confirms

that “integrativeness” should not be considered the major drive behind language learners’ motivation, since current EFL learners do not wish to become part of any culturally-specific L2-speaking community, but rather speakers of a global English community, citizens of the “global village”, which is why the Ideal L2 Self has come to the fore. With regard to the Ideal and Ought-to self-concepts, there have been some differences between Eastern and Western cultures reported in some studies, as the members of the two contexts differ in the way they construe their self-concept (see MacIntyre et. al. 2009b). Even though the Ideal L2 Self has been the core part of the L2 Motivational Self System, the Learning Experience dimension has also been found to play a vital role in influencing learners’ motivated behaviour.

Last but not least, the main findings of the studies on attitudes and motivation conducted in the Basque context have been reviewed, according to which Basque students seem generally positive towards learning the three languages coexisting in the school curriculum. However, speakers of Basque, tend to exhibit a “protective” attitude towards it in front of two ethnolinguistically strong languages such as Spanish and English. As regards the L2 Motivational Self System, to date only three research studies on possible selves and motivation have been carried out in Spain, as described in detail in the penultimate part of this chapter. The number of studies in the Spanish context is thus scant and circumscribed to the tertiary level.

CHAPTER 5: THE STUDY

In this section, the practical potential of the integration of ICT in the EFL classroom as regards the L2 Motivational Self System and DMC will be explored. Subsequently, the rationale of the present project will be presented, together with the research questions it entertains. Afterwards, the sample, methodology and data collection instruments will be described. Next, data analysis and results will be presented, followed by the discussion with the findings of previous studies in the field. Last but not least, conclusions will be drawn, and some pedagogical implications suggested. To finish with, the study's limitations will be acknowledged, and future research lines proposed.

5.1.1. The L2 Motivational Self System, NESTs vs. non-NESTs and ICT integration in the EFL classroom

The present study has been conducted within the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009) theoretical framework, summarised in section 4.4, due to the fact that it is currently the most influential theory of L2 motivation. The three major dimensions comprising this system are: the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self, and the L2 Learning Experience, and their motivational power lies in learner's willingness to bridge the perceived gap or discrepancy between his or her own current image as an L2 speaker and the ideal representation of such they visualise in their minds and wish to attain. No study on high school students' motivation has been carried out through the lens of the Self framework in the BAC, apart from the one by Lasagabaster (2016), but the former was conducted at university level. Therefore, this study intends to contribute to the field of L2 motivation with empirical data gathered at this particular educational level (high school) in the Basque multilingual context.

The present research focuses on the effect that ICT use may have on students' motivation, in particular, on their Ideal L2 Self. According to Dörnyei (2009), the crucial step teachers should make is to help learners to construct their Ideal L2 Self, that is, to create their vision of a successful L2 speaker and then, their task is to provide an

engaging framework in order to keep their students' vision alive, to maintain their Ideal L2 Self active.

As Ushioda (2011: 202) argues, "L2 learning experiences and classroom practices may interact with the development of possible future selves". The use of technologies by students during EFL classes may thus bring about the boost of the L2 Learning Experience dimension of Dörnyei's Self-framework, which is related to the learning environment and positive learning experiences. Ushioda also refers to the new technologies as to "the highly interactive digital world of current net generation that we need to connect with and tap into as a motivational resource for language learning and language use, since participation in this cyberworld has become such an integral part of their identity, motivation and daily activity on life" (2011: 207).

However, as revealed for instance in the Swedish context (Henry, 2013, 2014), the students may in some cases feel rather demotivated by the classrooms' practices, as they perceive they learn outside of the school at least the same amount of L2 or, in case of male students, even more than during formal classes. The majority of students in Henry's studies reported very scarce use of digital technologies and authentic source materials, the fact that could account for the lack of motivation in the classroom.

Nevertheless, we should bear in mind that the context of the present study differs completely from the Swedish one in terms of the availability of the English-mediated leisure activities, including media and online activities, and the time spent on them.

However, when Basque students were given the opportunity to express what (de)motivated them in class (Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2014) the use of computers for classroom activities resulted one of the most appreciated aspects. As a matter of fact, for those aged 14-15, it turned out to be the 3rd top category of what they liked the most in their CLIL classes.

Since, as shown in the above-mentioned study, the students are willing to use computers in their L2 classes and they do believe that they actually learn the foreign language through their use, even more than with textbook-driven traditional classroom practices, the integration of ICT-based activities in EFL classes may act as the necessary ignition and fuel for learners' motivational L2 Self vision, or even initiate a Directed Motivational Current. Not only may it contribute to boosting the students' Ideal L2 Self in the long run, but it could also help to create intensive motivational involvement in

form of DMCs, which could last, depending on the design of the technology-driven activities, one lesson, one term or the whole course, as a lesson level, term level or a course level DMC, respectively (corresponding either to the sub-goal-oriented single task, project work or a language course as a whole; see section 4.7.1).

In addition to analysing the influence of ICT classroom integration on students' motivation, this study intends to contrast it with the impact of the contact with a native English language speaker, as the latter is often considered an added value in itself (see *Árva and Medgyes, 2000*).

Moreover, students' written and oral production was measured in order to ascertain the relevance and any possible difference in the influence of either ICT-based intervention or native speaker's presence on their foreign language achievement.

Thus, this classroom-based study carried out in the Basque Autonomous Community aims to contribute with empirical data to inform current research by lending further insights into the local and particular understanding on how motivation works, since, as suggested recently by *Ushioda (2016: 566)*, such studies remain still in short supply.

5.1.2. The rationale of the present study

The present study is a longitudinal research, which was conducted in a public high school in Vitoria-Gasteiz, the capital of the Basque Autonomous Community in Spain. The researcher spent three academic years working in this particular high school while carrying out the study. During the first academic year (2012-2013), she became familiar with the institution, observed the EFL classes, analysed the teaching materials and got accustomed to the EFL teaching methodology implemented by the school EFL teachers, while she piloted the research instruments.

The pilot phase of the study encompassed the translation of the questionnaire items into Basque, followed by a revision by a native speaker of this language. A group of 27 students from the high school filled in the Basque version of the questionnaire (February 2013) with the aim of identifying any possible hurdles to understanding of the items, and evaluating the time required to complete it. The educational intervention with the use of ICT in EFL classes carried out in the two subsequent years was then prepared

and piloted with the same group of students (March-April 2013) in order to validate student-generated data evaluation tools (for written and oral production) presented more in detail in section 5.5.4.

It has to be highlighted that during the first year it was observed that the EFL teachers made very limited use of ICT, which is why it was believed that the incorporation of technology would help to enhance students' motivation, to a similar extent as in the case of classes with a native speaker (Chun, 2014; see also Árvá and Medgyes, 2000), while improving their English language proficiency. The emphasis was put on the students' actual "hands-on" interaction with ICT, that is to say, on learning by completing tasks which required the use of technologies. The use of "authentic" digital materials was underscored in order to create a "real life" experience and digital, varied native input for the ICT-group. In such educational contexts as Spain the presence of a NEST in the classroom is widely considered a "bonus" and longed-for option (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2002, 2005a, 2005b; see also Watson Todd and Pojanapunya, 2009), although the number of such trained native teachers is limited and it is not within the reach of every school. Therefore, the study aimed at comparing motivational and attitudinal responses of students involved either in classes with a NEST or with a non-NEST supported by technologies. In this particular school the use of ICT in the EFL classroom was almost inexistent, as the researcher could bear out during the first year of this project.

During the second and third academic years, the researcher implemented the use of ICT in the EFL class with a twofold objective: firstly, to analyse the impact of ICT use on students' motivation (L2 Motivational Self System) and their attitudes towards the use of ICT in the learning environment and, secondly, to explore the effect of ICT integration in the EFL classroom on the development of learners' language skills, as compared to classes with a native English teacher assistant.

Thus, during the second year (2013-2014) all first year students became participants of the project. The whole cohort was tested in September 2013. The pre-test measurements comprised filling in the questionnaires, and performing the Oxford Quick Placement Test (UCLES, 2001), a written composition and an oral presentation (the latter was done in pairs). Then, once the classes were divided in either ICT-group or NS-group, the researcher launched the technology-supported educational intervention with the ICT-group, whereas classes with a native speaker started for the NS-groups.

All the groups had 3 weekly hours of English: two of them were delivered by the usual EFL teacher, who followed the *Speakout* course book with the class, Intermediate students' book (Clare and Wilson, 2011) and Upper Intermediate students' book (Eales and Oakes, 2011) during their first and second year, respectively, while one weekly session was devoted to the project (either a session with the NNS teacher and ICT or with a NS).

Upon a special request on a part of the school's EFL teachers, a decision was made to work in a half class-half an hour rotation system in all groups (ICT and NS) during that year. This resulted in an average of half a session a week during 22 weeks (early October 2013 to mid-March 2014), 11 project hours in total, for both NS and ICT groups (one sixth of the total number of EFL sessions in that period). In mid-March the NEST used to leave the high school to teach throughout the last term in the second centre of the institution (a lower secondary school), that is why no ICT session was carried out with the ICT-group beyond that time point. A detailed explanation of the activities performed within the two educational interventions are provided in sections 5.4.2. (ICT) and 5.4.3 (NS). In the final term of that year (April 2014), six focus groups were conducted with the students from the ICT-group in order to obtain a snapshot of the range of topics elicited by the participants.

During the third school year (2014-2015), second year students continued with the project. Nevertheless, the original groups were mixed, although the students who belonged to ICT-group in the previous year followed with the ICT educational intervention sessions, whereas the ones who belonged to NS-group, continued with the NS' sessions. Further explanation on the distribution of the participating students in both groups is provided in section 5.3. However, such combination of students from both groups in one class allowed for a change of the schedule, resulting in, on average, one whole project hour (with either ICT or NS) out of 3 EFL classes per week during 10 weeks (early October 2014 to mid-December 2014), 10 project hours in total, for either of the groups (one third of all EFL sessions in that period). In January-February 2015, the post-test measurements were made and final focus groups conducted with both cohorts (ICT and NS).

All in all, out of three weekly hours of their usual English language course with the corresponding EFL teacher, the ICT-group had in the first year of the project's implementation, on average, a half-an-hour session per week of ICT use with a non-

NEST (the researcher herself) with technology-mediated activities, whereas the NS-group had a half-hour weekly session with the NEST. In the following year, the average for both groups was one-hour weekly session (one out of three EFL classes per week). The total number of contact hours the students spent with the two educational interventions' teachers is displayed in Table 1 below.

Table 1. The number of contact hours students spent with their NEST or non-NEST teacher, respectively (NS-group vs. ICT-group)

	NS-group	ICT-group	Average/week
Year 2013-2014 (22 weeks)	11 hours	11 hours	0.5 hour
Year 2014-2015 (10 weeks)	10 hours	10 hours	1 hour
Total	21	21	

On the whole, the researcher spent 21 hours in contact with the students over a span of 32 weeks over one academic year and a half (11 hours during the first school year, and 10 the following year), while the NEST spent the same amount of time with her group.

5.2. Research questions and hypotheses

Despite the fact that the Motivational L2 Self framework and ICT use in foreign language learning have become popular among a growing number of SLA scholars and researchers, empirical studies addressing both ICT and L2 selves is still scant, hence the conception of the present project. With this in mind, the following research questions were formulated:

RQ1: Is there any significant difference in the motivation of the students who used technologies in their EFL classroom and the ones who had classes with a native English speaker?

RQ2: Does gender have any influence on students' Motivational L2 Self System in both groups (ICT *versus* NEST)?

RQ3: Does the use of technologies in the EFL classroom have any effect on learners' attitudes towards ICT?

It was hypothesised that no difference would be found between the two interventions' (ICT-based, led by a non-NEST vs. classes led by a NEST) influence on learners' self-concepts and other motivational variables, since the studies reported positive contribution to participants' motivation of both ICT use (Cantos, 1994; Martínez-Rico, 2006; Osuna and Meskill, 1998; Taylor and Gitsaki, 2004a, 2004b; Pérez Torres, 2005), and NEST's presence in the classroom (Chun, 2014; see also Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2014). No gender differences were expected either, as the research findings revealed mixed results, showing, on the one hand, that females tend to exhibit higher means on motivational scales (see for example Henry, 2009), gender differences appearing in relation to the Ideal L3 Self, but not to the Ideal L2 Self (Henry and Cliffordson, 2013), or, on the other hand, showing no differences between male and female students at all (Lasagabaster, 2016). Last but not least, the actual experience with classroom use of ICT was expected to influence positively students' attitudes towards the educational employment of technology (Warschauer, 1996b).

5.3. Participants

A convenience sample of a total of 165 first-year high school students took part in the study (age range 16-17). This was the entire population of 1st year learners in that particular educational centre. They were divided into group A (84), whose members were involved in a series of ICT-integrated classes throughout two school years (the ICT-group henceforth), and group B (81), who very rarely made use of any ICT in the EFL classes, but had classes with a native English teacher assistant instead (the NS-group). Both, the ICT-session and NS-session took place during one out of three usual EFL classes per week, and lasted, on average, either half an hour (1st year) or an entire hour (2nd year). During the remaining 2 weekly EFL hours all the participants had the normal classes (without neither ICT nor NEST) with their usual EFL teacher.

At this stage, three students were eliminated from the analysis, as they reported English was one of their L1s. Apart from those 3 cases, by means of analysing pre-test's writings' and oral scores, 8 outliers were identified and eliminated from the sample.

Seven students did not fill in the pre-test questionnaire. Therefore, the final total number of the sample in the analysis was 147, as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2. The characteristics of the participants at the pre-test data collection

Pre-test	ICT-group	NS-group	Total
Females	48	47	95
Males	29	23	52
Total	77	70	147

The division of the participants into the ICT-group or the NS-group was made on the basis of the groups' availability and their timetables, with no pre-selection as they were included in one of the groups at random. All the students came from families with a medium-high socio-economic status and they were bilingual Basque-Spanish speakers learning English as a foreign language: all of the participants were enrolled in Basque educational D model, which means that Basque was their usual means of instruction, except for the Spanish and English language classes, implying a good working knowledge of Basque.

In the post-test the sample suffered some subject attrition, which is an innate problem of longitudinal studies. What is more, some of the participants had to be eliminated from the analysis because of either having enrolled in an optional subject of Oral English (10 students), or due to the changes of groups and timetables (3 students), which made them unavailable for the continuation of the project. At the final time of questionnaire collection (post-test) 23 students were missing, resulting in a total number of 117 (61 ICT-group's students and 56 NS-group's ones), as summarised in Table 3.

Table 3. The characteristics of the participants at the post-test data collection

Post-test	ICT-group	NS-group	Total
Females	38	37	75
Males	23	19	42
Total	61	56	117

In the first year of the project’s intervention in the high school, out of 6 whole classes of first-years 3 were ICT groups and the remaining 3 NS groups. In the second year, the students were reassigned to different classes. In this manner, students belonging either to ICT or NS groups in their first year were mixed in the same classes in their second year, so project’s sessions’ redesign was necessary to keep track of the original groups. Due to this change, during the second year, ICT and NS sessions ran parallel once a week. In each group half of the class was involved in the ICT activities, while the other half had a session with the NS at the same time.

5.4. Methodology

5.4.1. The design of the study

The present study is a mixed methods research, combining qualitative and quantitative approaches in order to obtain insights from both the individual and the broader societal context through data triangulation (Dörnyei, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). It is also a longitudinal study, an aspect advocated for in both areas, motivational research (Dörnyei, 2009) as well as the ICT-related field of research (Hew and Cheung, 2013). The interventions reported usually in the literature on ICT use in foreign language learning differ in terms of time span and intensity, and lasted from one 20-minute activity (Siragusa and Dixon, 2009), to 3 weeks (Wong and Hew, 2010); 5 weeks (Hsu, 2013; Pérez Torres, 2005); 3 months (Cantos, 1994; Martínez-Rico, 2006), a quarter of a semester (Oberg and Daniels, 2013), or one academic semester (Armstrong and

Retterer 2008; Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez, 2014; Hsu and Wang, 2011; Ipiña, 2012; Osuna and Meskill, 1998 and Taylor and Gitsaki, 2004a).

Similarly, the L2 motivational literature includes reports of interventions' span ranges from 10 weeks (Sampson, 2012); or one weekly hour during 12 weeks (Mackay, 2015); or one semester (Fukada *et al.*, 2011); or 8 hours over 4 months (Magid, 2011); to 4 workshops over 4 months and six sessions over 3 months (Magid and Chan; 2012). In contrast to the aforementioned examples, the present study's educational intervention (either led by the non-NEST teacher making use of technology-mediated activities or a NEST) lasted 32 weeks (over a span of one school year and a half from September 2013 to February 2015), comprising, on average, a half-an-hour to one-hour long weekly session (out of 3 hours per week devoted to English in the high school).

5.4.2. ICT-use integration in the EFL classroom: ICT intervention

The methodology of the ICT use-based classes consisted of the use of the Web as an unlimited source of “authentic”, “real life” input and information for classroom activities and video viewing, blogs creation and blog posts writing for written performance, as well as the use of the Power Point programme as a support for digitally recorded oral presentations. Despite little empirical evidence of the effectiveness of authentic source learning materials on students' motivation, there is a widespread belief that such materials affect learners positively, since in this manner they may realise that they can actually cope with “real” language (Gilmore, 2007). Also, the ICT-intervention was based on the notion of a functional improvement (Augmentation) and redesign of the EFL activities (Modification), that is to say, an enhancement and transformation of traditional teaching and learning (Puentedura, 2010), bearing in mind that the use of technology should be integrated into the classroom practice (Fitzpatrick, 2004), and not treated as a mere add-on (Cheung and Slavin, 2012; Warschauer, 1996b), in order to leverage the positive influence ICT use may exert on students' motivation (Martínez-Rico, 2006; Osuna and Meskill, 1998; Taylor and Gitsaki, 2004a, 2004b; Pérez Torres, 2005), above all, of those who are *a priori* less favourably disposed to learn English (Cantos, 1994).

Regarding the use of blogs, students were instructed on how to set up and design their own blog on *Blogger.com*, a popular and easy-to-use free blog provider. They were also provided with instructions on how to customise each one's blog's graphic appearance during the first class training session, and they were encouraged to experiment with the outline of their blogs and posting. They were also informed on privacy issues.

It was believed that the integration of ICT in the classroom may affect positively students' language competence by engaging them in the interaction with technology and boosting their foreign language motivation. The use of digitally supported activities was considered as possible compensation for the lack of contact with a native speaker. The learning outcomes considered in the study were essay writing and oral presentations, the two language skills that students usually find more challenging.

The content and language of thematic units treated global affairs, as for instance, equal rights for men and women, garment factories' poor working conditions, advantages and dangers of living in waterfront cities, the spread of the Internet and digital gaming, or hoax news stories. These global affairs were closely linked to the types of discourse and topics dealt with in the students' textbook units, in an attempt to pay more attention to the integration of language and content, as the EFL teachers focused mainly on language aspects. Another linguistic aim was the students' acquisition of the technology-specific basic language. In their usual EFL classes the students followed the *Speakout* course book, namely, Intermediate (Clare and Wilson, 2011) and Upper Intermediate students' book (Eales and Oakes, 2011) during their 1st and 2nd year, respectively. This particular textbook includes a number of audio-visual support activities and a digital book, yet little use was made of them due to the lack of class time alleged by the teachers.

The ICT use experience of the ICT-group comprised, on average, half-an-hour to one-hour session per week of technology use for English language learning. Every thematic unit (one cycle) consisted of three stages, in which students' prior knowledge and some topic vocabulary was briefly discussed, then, the students were engaged in reading and audio-visual comprehension tasks with the use of online resources and performing some activities in pairs. The work with the web-based videos and texts was self-paced and students could access the resources as many times as needed (during the sessions, as well as out of school). In the following phase, they searched the Web also in pairs in order to brainstorm ideas, agree upon the specific topic for the written composition and

oral presentation, and to prepare the necessary schemes or outlines to organise their ideas, the phase which was consequently followed by individual written production and oral performance (previously prepared during class time with Power Point) in pairs as a final stage. The students were not allowed to reference their notes or textbooks during the writing, but they were allowed to hold some notes while performing oral presentations, although they were advised against simply reading them out, as this was one of the evaluation criteria. The types of written production went hand in hand with the ones suggested by the course book, and included news report, advantages vs. disadvantages (argumentative) essay, website review, and opinion essay (discursive).

In each three-month term a whole ICT-intervention cycle was carried out, five in total (three cycles the first year, and two the following year). Apart from those cycles, and between them, students performed webquest-type activities working on current classroom issues in order to boost their experience with the use of technology for learning inside the classroom (see Appendix 1 for an example of classroom activities performed by students who participated in the project). There were seven webquests in total, five performed during the first school year and two in the following year. Students' work with the on-line resources during webquest-sessions was self-paced, however, they were required to complete the final task before the lesson's end.

Blogs were used only during the first year of the project's implementation, as problems with typing were reported, and given that the time for written production was limited (30 minutes to write a post of 150-180 words approx.) and students' grades were at stake, they did not continue with blogging during the second year, and their written production were pen and paper instead. A similar issue was reported in Wong and Hew's (2010) study, where some pupils experienced difficulties in using blogs due to their limited typing ability, although it did not result in pupils' dissatisfaction with blogs, nor it curbed its positive effect on their motivation.

5.4.3. Classes with a native speaker: NS intervention

The high school in which the project was developed was allocated a native speaker teaching assistant from the USA who held a scholarship within the programme of the Basque Government to provide schools with support in the EFL classes by hosting NSs

(the so-called *auxiliar de conversación*). Usually, the NEST used with her group topics related to the textbook the students followed in their EFL course, and global affairs, similar to those tackled in the ICT group. The NS-intervention had the same frequency as the ICT-intervention, namely, one weekly session, which lasted for half an hour to one hour. In the second year, ICT and NS sessions ran parallel, in each group half of the students, who belonged to the original ICT group, was involved in the ICT activities, while the other half, who originally belonged to the NS group, had a session with the NS at the same time.

The native teacher assistant was free to choose her own activities, although she kept the relation to the textbook (*Speakout*), with an addition of current events and topics in the news, such as pollution, social media networking, or privacy rights on the Internet, with the aim to make them interesting for this age group. The NS sessions' primary goal was the development of the students' speaking skills and the teacher would incorporate different short articles, usually news articles printed out from the BBC website, and she would adapt the vocabulary to a more adequate proficiency level. The articles were employed to prompt speaking activities, after reading an article the students worked in small groups (approximately for 20 minutes) to share their opinions and ideas in relation to the text, and then they would discuss it all together. As the NS teacher mentioned in the interview at the end of the project, the groups were very heterogeneous, in terms of command of English. Sometimes class discussions were successful, some other times not as much.

Apart from speaking activities, the NS was sometimes required by the school's EFL teachers to revise certain areas of the language, such as reflexive pronouns, possessives, and pronunciation and phonetics, and she then incorporated a number of activities or worksheets about these particular issues. As for the latter, she was well aware of the fact that pronunciation is not given much attention in the school curriculum and she considered it important (above all, the shwa, different vowels in English, and final -ed). Students seemed to like pronunciation activities and she felt it could really help improve their English level. Once, in addition to short texts used in the NS class, she put a short video (of a couple of minutes) that students watched once on the classroom's screen, to prompt the speaking topic, however, the typical prompt involved a brief article. The NS-group performed a number of oral presentations (with the NS teacher and their usual EFL teacher) and written compositions, similarly to the ICT-group.

The total time the NEST spent in contact with her group is, as mentioned previously, 21 hours over a span of 32 weeks (11 hours during the first school year, and 10 the following year), identically to the non-NEST with her ICT-group.

5.5. Data collection instruments

Data collection was carried out three times during the project's duration, as a pre-test (T1) in September 2013, before the project sessions started, then again after the first year of the project's launch (T2) in March-April 2014, and as a post-test (T3) at the final stage, in the second year of the project's implementation (January 2015). In the present section, the instruments of data collection will be described in detail: the questionnaire, students' written and oral productions' evaluation tools, as well as focus groups. A summary of all the data gathering instruments employed in the study, along with the exact time the measurements were made are presented in the procedure section 5.6., Table 6.

5.5.1. Attitudes and motivation questionnaire

A three-part questionnaire of a total of 128 items was employed in the study. The first part consisted of some background questions (27 items, concerning, for example, sex, students' mother tongue, their self-perceived level of competence in Spanish, Basque and English, the frequency they used Spanish and Basque on a daily basis, and the importance given to these three languages in a series of daily activities, such as browsing the Internet, or using social networks and chats to communicate with friends). The second part, which focused on the motivational and attitudinal issues, was based on studies conducted by Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009; see also Dörnyei, 2010a) and Lasagabaster (2005b), and comprised six scales:

- *Ideal L2 Self* (sample item: I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends and colleagues.)
- *Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation* (sample item: Studying English can be important to me because I think I'll need it for further studies.)

- *Ought-to L2 Self* (sample item: Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.)
- *Instrumentality-prevention* (sample item: I have to study English; otherwise, I think I cannot be successful in my future career.)
- *Attitudes towards learning English* (sample item: I find learning English really interesting.)
- *Attitudes towards English as FL* (sample item: I like hearing English spoken.)

Forty-four five-point Likert-type items were used in order to gather information about the participants' L2 Self and their attitudes towards English and its learning. The negatively worded items were recoded before data analysis. The items were part of the already mentioned six scales: *Ideal L2 Self* (7 items), *Ought-to Self* (7 items), *Attitudes towards learning English* (5 items), *Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation* (9 items), *Instrumentality-prevention* (7 items), and *Attitudes towards English language* (9 items). These scales from Taguchi *et al.* (2009) and Lasagabaster (2005b) were maintained as in the original studies, apart from *Instrumentality-promotion and Travel orientation*, which were merged, as the students in the pilot phase of the study seemed to regard travelling opportunities offered to proficient English speakers as part of the *Instrumentality-promotion* domain, by mentioning new friendships, travelling and job possibilities conjointly, while they were making some comments to the researcher on the questionnaire. Afterwards, during the analysis, this decision seemed to be supported by the Cronbach's Alpha values, which were much higher for the merged *Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation* scale, than when each of the two scales was analysed individually.

Table 4 below presents the internal reliability coefficients for the main factors of the L2 Motivational Self system (6 factors, all coefficients above .66) measured by the questionnaire at two different times, that is, in the pre-test and the post-test, respectively.

Table 4. **L2 Self System and EFL-related motivational and attitudinal** main factors and corresponding reliability coefficients

Factors	Cronbach's Alpha values		
	N° of items	Pre-test	Post-test
Ideal L2 Self	7	.88	.82
Instrumentality-promotion and Travel orientation	9	.78	.67
The sum of the two above factors	16	.88	.83
Ought-to L2 Self	7	.72	.86
Instrumentality-prevention	7	.66	.80
The sum of the two above factors	14	.81	.89
Attitudes towards learning English	5	.84	.72
Attitudes towards English as a Foreign Language	9	.78	.75
The sum of the two above factors	14	.87	.80

5.5.2. ICT questionnaire

The third part of the questionnaire regarded attitudes towards ICT and was adapted from Ipiña (2012) and Gray *et al.* (2009), and consisted of six scales:

- *ICT as a support for learning* (5 items; sample item: The use of technologies in my studies will help me get better results in my subject.)
- *ICT as means to improve English* (3 items; sample item: The use of technologies in my studies will help me improve my level of English.)
- *ICT use in the classroom* (6 items; sample item: The use of technologies in my studies will help to make the class more interesting.)

- *ICT as means to improve skills and career* (2 items; sample item: The use of technologies in my studies will improve my career or employment prospects in the long term.)
- *ICT school access* (2 items; sample item: The quality of the equipment at my school is not very good.)
- *ICT use difficulties* (4 items; sample item: It is difficult to use technologies in English classes.)

The 22 five-point Likert-type items which were used with the aim of investigating students' attitudes towards ICT, as well as their experience using them, comprised issues regarding the attitudes towards the use of technologies in the learning environment, and were classified into the abovementioned scales. Originally, there were 24 items in this section, nevertheless, two were eliminated from the analysis: *Technologies improve students' autonomous learning* (19) and *Students do not use technologies for their learning process* (22). These two items were intended as part of the first scale, namely *ICT as a support for learning*, but they did not contribute to the scale's reliability coefficient and thus did not withstand the internal consistency analysis.

Table 5 below represents internal reliability coefficients for the main factors of Attitudes towards ICT (6 factors, all coefficients above .61) measured by the questionnaire at two different times, that is, in the pre-test and the post-test, respectively.

Table 5. **Attitudes towards ICT**: main factors and corresponding reliability coefficients

Factors	Cronbach's Alpha values		
	N° of items	Pre-test	Post-test
ICT as a support for learning	5	.79	.71
ICT as means to improve English	3	.76	.87
ICT use in the classroom	6	.70	.72

Table 5. (continued) **Attitudes towards ICT**: main factors and corresponding reliability coefficients

Factors	Cronbach's Alpha values		
	N° of items	Pre-test	Post-test
ICT school access	2	.63	.79
ICT use difficulties	4	.63	.61
The sum of the 6 above factors	22	.84	.83

Since the Cronbach's alpha values of the questionnaires' scales are above .60, both parts of the instrument, namely, the motivational questionnaire and the ICT questionnaire can be regarded as reliable (Dörnyei, 2007).

Apart from the ICT-related attitudinal items, this part of the questionnaire also included 20 items related to the frequency with which the students used ICT, and the perceived mastery of their digital skills. Last but not least, 13 items regarded their previous experiences with ICT in educational settings (in EFL classes and other subjects) prior to reaching the high school. There was some space left in the questionnaire after the motivational part and the ICT-related part, with the intention to encourage any additional students' comments on the issues tackled in the survey.

The items of the questionnaire were translated into Basque by the author to avoid students' problems with language while filling them in, and the translation was then revised by a native speaker of Basque. The Basque version was subsequently piloted on a group of 27 students from the same high school (1st year) in the preparatory phase of the study (February 2013), in order to identify any possible problematic issues concerning the understanding of the items, and to measure the time required to complete it. No major difficulties were detected at this stage and the completion time was, on average, about 30 minutes. All the motivational and ICT-related attitudinal scales' items, together with the final version of the questionnaire used in the present study are included in Appendix 2 and 3, respectively.

5.5.3. Focus groups

Apart from quantitative measurements, focus groups were performed at the end of the longitudinal project with all groups involved in the study, in order to gather qualitative insights into the motivational phenomena under scrutiny. In total, there were 15 focus groups, 8 were performed with students who belonged to the ICT-group, while 7 focus groups consisted of students from the NS-group. The number of students in each focus group varied from 6 to 10, as suggested by the researchers, who recommend the number of participants being between 6 and 10 (Dörnyei, 2007), or 5-10 with 8 being the ideal number (Murillo and Mena, 2006).

The questions for the semi-guided focus groups were built-up on the themes mentioned by students in 6 pilot focus groups conducted with the students from ICT-group towards the end of the first year of the project's implementation (April-May 2014), and also on the issues included in the questionnaire. These focus-group interviews were carried out by the researcher herself and a fellow PhD student from the area of applied linguistics and English studies. However, they served as a pilot for the focus groups conducted with both, ICT and NS-groups in the final stage of the project, and thus were not included in the qualitative analysis. The final guide used in the study is presented in Appendix 4.

The guide for ICT-groups included questions about technology use, blogs, the Internet, etc. and the non-NEST, whereas references to these issues were substituted by the ones regarding the experience with the NEST in the guide for the NS-groups. It consisted of some general suggestions and instructions for the moderator followed by 22 questions, related to students' Ideal L2 Self and aspects concerning the *Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation* factor (8 questions), their Ought-to L2 Self and *Instrumentality-prevention* factor (5 questions), and their attitudes towards learning English as foreign language, English itself, and their learning experience with ICT-based project led by the non-NEST or, in the case of the NS-group, their experience and impressions with regard to the NEST's presence, as well as their opinions and experiences with the traditional EFL classes at school (9 questions). The latter was included among the questions in order to enable comparison of the students' learning experience during usual EFL classes to the project's sessions (either ICT or NS). Students were also asked about their

views on the importance of English for ICT use, and the ICT-group was further enquired about the development of their digital skills after the intervention.

5.5.4. Written and oral production: evaluation tools

In order to determine whether either ICT-based intervention or NS-led classes had different influence on students' foreign language achievement, a series of written and oral tasks were performed by the students and evaluated by the teachers. Students' written compositions were evaluated by two judges, one of whom was the researcher herself, while the other was a fellow PhD student from the area of applied linguistics and English studies. The evaluation tool used was the ESL composition PROFILE (Jacobs *et al.*, 1981), a holistic scoring guide widely used in the SLA field, which tests the communicative proficiency of the learner, as emphasised by Jacobs *et al.* (1981: 3). In such holistic evaluations, readers (the evaluators) should “base their judgements on their impression of the *whole* composition” (p. 29, emphasis original), the comprehension of the writer's meaning, and consider the errors' “*effect on meaning* as chief criterion” of the communication's effectiveness (p. 91).

ESL composition PROFILE form is composed of five scales, each focusing on an important aspect of composition writing and weighted according to its estimated significance for effective written communication: content (30 points), organization (20 points), vocabulary (20 points), language use (25 points) and mechanics (5 points). There are four numerical ranges that correspond to four mastery levels: on the one hand, excellent to very good, and good to average, both indicating successful communication, and on the other hand, fair to poor, and very poor, both of which indicate a partial or complete communication breakdown. Each level is characterised and differentiated by key words or “rubrics” (key-word descriptors) representing specific criteria and providing an interpretative framework for the reader-evaluator (see Appendix 5). As Jacobs *et al.* (1981: 32) argue, the most reliable indicator of an EFL learner's ability to communicate effectively in writing “comes from a sum of the five judgments, rather than from individual component scores”. The scores range from 34 (minimum score) to 100 (maximum), so in the present study an adjustment was made when performing

analyses to put PROFILE scores on a scale from 1 to 10 (Spanish grading system), so that written and oral outputs' scores were on the same scale.

The authors suggest 30-minute composition writing of about one page of length (120-150 words), nevertheless, in the present study the learners had to write each time between 150-180 words, due to the precise petition of the school's teachers, as this is the length of the writings they are required to produce at the A levels exams.

The compositions were evaluated by the 2 judges with the PROFILE tool, and the averages of the scores allocated by the 2 evaluators to each participant (and adjusted later to the 1-10 scale) were used in the analyses. The inter-rater reliability was high, as the statistically significant ($p < .001$) correlation coefficient between the scores of the two evaluators was between .72 and .84 in each of the time points' measurements (.84 in the pre-test/T1; .81 in T2 and .72 in the post-test/T3).

With regard to the oral tasks, pairs of students performed oral presentations of about 5 minutes with or without support of the Power Point programme. The topics of the presentations went hand in hand with the ones of the written tasks'. Evaluation form to assess these speaking tasks was adapted from Lim (2007), and focussed on such areas as the organisation of the presentation (appropriate introduction, body and conclusion/summary), clearness of the opinion on the issue stated, sufficient and relevant details supporting the main points, language use (grammar accuracy, speech fluency, correct pronunciation, appropriate choice of vocabulary), the manner of presenting and interaction with the audience (confidence, eye-contact, the degree of dependence on one's notes, verbal and non-verbal interaction, gestures), communicativeness (clear and audible speech, clear explanations), and last but not least, balanced participation of all members of the group during the presentation (see Appendix 6). Students' oral performance in both groups was assessed on a scale from 1 to 10 (Spanish grading system) by the usual teacher and the researcher herself. All the teachers used the same evaluation forms and shared the assessment criteria. The oral scores used for analyses were the average of both evaluators' grades for each student. The inter-rater reliability was high, as the statistically significant ($p < .001$) correlation coefficient between the scores of the two evaluators was between .62 and .74 in each of the time points' measurements (.73 in the pre-test/T1; .74 in T2 and .62 in the post-test/T3, respectively).

The same group of students with whom the questionnaire was piloted performed one whole cycle of ICT-intervention, with a topic concerning the spread of the Internet and digital gaming, and a final production of a website review (written composition and oral presentation in March-April 2013), to validate the methodology and students' output evaluation tools.

5.6. Procedure

The questionnaire was administered three times, at the beginning of the first school year (pre-test/T1) when students were enrolled in the first year of Baccalaureate in September 2013, again in the final term of that academic year (T2) in March-April 2014, and finally, in the second term of the second academic year in January 2015 when students were enrolled in the second year of the Baccalaureate (post-test/T3). These two years are part of the post-compulsory upper-secondary education in the Spanish education system and, after its completion, they can enrol at university. After filling in the questionnaire for the first time, students also completed a Quick Placement Test (UCLES, 2001) to measure their general English proficiency at the pre-test stage.

As was the case with the questionnaire, the analysis of students' oral and written production was carried out at three time points (pre-test/T1, T2 and post-test/T3). Writings were an individual task, whereas oral presentations were performed in pairs. T2 written compositions were part of the students' first year's final exam (early May 2014). Table 6 below summarises all the data-gathering instruments used in the present research, together with the corresponding times of measurement.

However, T2 measurements that were originally included in the design of the study are not presented in the analysis of the results, as the researcher intended to look at the longest possible time difference in the data collection. Since T2 results showed no significant differences between the groups, the analysis focussed on the comparison between pre- and post-test data. Nevertheless, all T2 results are presented in Appendix 7.

Table 6. Summary of the instruments used and times of measurement

Data collection instruments	Pilot phase	Pre-test (T1)	T2	Post-test (T3)
OPT quick placement test	-	September 2013	-	-
Questionnaire	February 2013	September 2013	March-April 2014	January 2015
Written compositions	March-April 2013	September 2013	May 2014	January 2015
Oral presentations	March-April 2013	September 2013	March-April 2014	January 2015
Focus groups	-	-	April 2014	January-February 2015

The last year's focus groups were carried out with both groups (ICT and NS) once the final measurements were made, by three different researchers, all of them fellow PhD students from the area of applied linguistics. This was done in order to elicit students' anonymous voices on the issues important to the study, as the author of the present research was known to the participants and had been the teacher of some of the interviewees, a fact which may have otherwise biased students' answers. The three researchers were previously familiarised with the guide and instructed on the procedure of this kind of group interviews. Interviews were conducted in Basque so that the students could express their feelings and opinions freely, without any linguistic hindrance. They were encouraged to use whichever language they preferred, some responded in Spanish, but the majority in Basque. The semi-structured interviews with groups of students lasted, on average, 30-40 minutes. They were digitally recorded, transcribed by the author of this study and coded in order to search for patterns and recurrent themes mentioned by the participants. The coding system and how validity and reliability was achieved will be explained in section 5.7.2.

5.7. Data analysis

Students' answers to the questionnaire items which concerned background information revealed their quite high self-perceived level of competence in Spanish ($M=8.7$, $SD=.95$) and Basque ($M=7.8$, $SD=1.2$), and a rather fair mastery of English ($M=6.5$, $SD=1.3$). However, surprisingly enough, the participants did not seem to consider neither their proficiency in Basque nor Spanish native-like, as on a scale from 1 (very bad) to 10 (very good) the mean level of language mastery pointed out by the students did not reach the maximum. This may be due to the fact that they showed the inclination towards indicating their corresponding school subjects' grades instead of falling back on their own judgement on their linguistic abilities.

Moreover, the frequency of the participants' daily use of Basque and Spanish showed their tendency to employ the latter more in their everyday lives, as indicated by an average around 4 on a continuum from 1 (always in Basque) to 5 (always in Spanish) for all activities but one. Apparently, the music they listen to tends to be either in Basque or Spanish ($M=2.8$, $SD=.84$), in an almost equal proportion. The only exception to this dominant position of Spanish has to do with the school teachers: almost always the language of communication is Basque ($M=1.5$, $SD=.63$). As a matter of fact, 58.9% of the students stated they spoke with the teachers in Basque only. These findings are in line with the latest data shown by the Arrue Project 2011 (Basque Government, 2013b), where secondary pupils would identify Basque with school environment and use it to communicate with their teachers, while they switch to Spanish out of school.

Insofar as the importance given by the students to Basque, Spanish and English in a series of daily activities is concerned, all of them were considered rather valuable in all aspects. With the exception of Basque, not regarded too important in the domain of playing on-line video games (an average of 2.5), and, on the other hand, English, in the domains related to social relationships, such as reading friends' messages and sending them, as well as using chat with friends, in which it obtained means below 2.6-2.7 (not very important), all remaining means were greater than 3 on a scale from 1 (not important at all) to 5 (very important). In all domains but one Spanish was considered by the students the most important language of the three. However, playing video games on-line resulted by far the realm of English, which was viewed as the most substantial language to carry out this particular activity.

Regarding students' digital skills, the analysis of the answers to the items related to the frequency with which the students used ICT and the perceived mastery of their digital abilities revealed that the participants viewed themselves as quite skilled, as shown by the averages between 3.3 and 4.4 (on a scale from 1 – not skilled at all to 5 – very skilled), except from using the Web for language learning, which obtained a lower mean (3.1). In fact, 37.4% of the students said they had never used the Internet to learn languages, and 21.1% said they had never used the Internet to learn more English or practice it, although among those who had some experience with these activities, they were at least rather skilled at it: 49.7% and 65.3%, respectively. Roughly 43% of the participants said they were (at least) rather skilled with personal blogs' use, while 47.6% had never used blogs. About a quarter of the sample (25.9%) had never used the Web for English classroom activities, however, 66.7% indicated their digital skills regarding this activity were at least rather good.

Thus, the students regarded themselves as rather digitally savvy, despite quite moderate rate of ICT use. The frequency of use of different ICT by students was measured by a 7-point scale: 1 (once/twice a year), 2 (once/twice in a three-month period), 3 (once/twice a month), 4 (once a week), 5 (various times a week), 6 (once a day) and 7 (various times a day). Among those who made use of the ICT-mediated activities included in the questionnaire, the most often reported frequency of use was generally between once or twice a month (3) to various times a week (5). The use of the Web for accessing social networks resulted an exception to this rule, as the majority of the students reported visiting them from various times a week (5) to various times a day (7). Some other non-educational uses of the Internet, such as searching for general information, various pastimes, and chatting appeared to be used by the students more frequently, whereas others, such as using the Web to play on-line, using the computer or the console to play video games was not that popular, as the majority of the students reported its scarce use (from once/twice a year to once/twice a month) or no use at all. Using the Web to learn more English, or to practice it, as well as using it to learn foreign languages was not so frequent either. The majority of the participants admitted having no experience with creating videos and using blogs. Even if it seems that the students were generally not very technology-dependent and ever-connected, over a half of them (55.8%) said they accessed their social networks many times a day. Nevertheless, the questionnaire certainly did not encompass each and every one of the aspects of how the participating

teenagers engaged with technology in their day-to-day lives, yet its purpose was to tap into some of the uses of ICT to be dealt with subsequently in the project and to obtain a snapshot of students' digital experience.

Hence, their experience with ICT in educational settings (in EFL classes, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, in the remaining school subjects) prior to reaching the high school was also examined. The results indicate that the general use of digital tools to support English learning in school is rather infrequent. On a continuum from 1 (never) to 5 (almost always), the only tools which are mentioned by almost the half of the students to have been used in EFL classes more frequently than sometimes (3) are the Internet in general and as a means for information search. All other tools, as reported by the majority of the students were never (1) used or only once or twice (2) during all their previous schooling experience. It seems that in other school subjects the use of digital tools is more supported, since all the reported use of ICT was more frequent than in EFL classes, the majority of the students reported the digital tools were used from once/twice (2) to sometimes (3) during their lessons other than EFL. Since the present study made use of blogs in EFL classes, students' previous experience with their educational use, illustrated in Figure 15, was looked at.

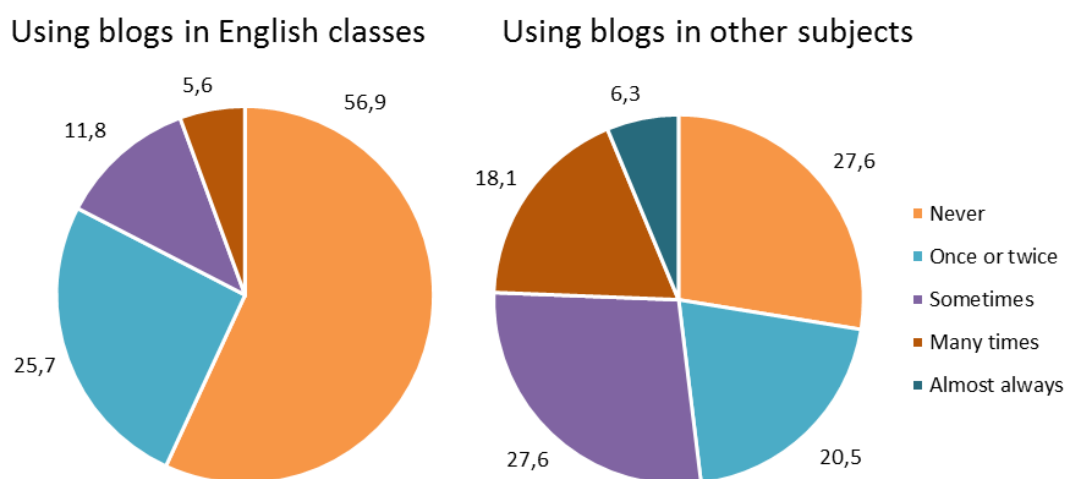


Figure 15. Students' previous experience with the use of blogs

As it can be observed in the above figure, the students were not very experienced blogs' users: 82.6% of them had never used blogs or had used them just once/twice in their EFL class, whereas in other subjects this percentage dropped nearly to a half of them

(48%). The frequency with which the Internet was used by students as means for information search was also examined. The previous experience reported by the participants is shown in Figure 16.

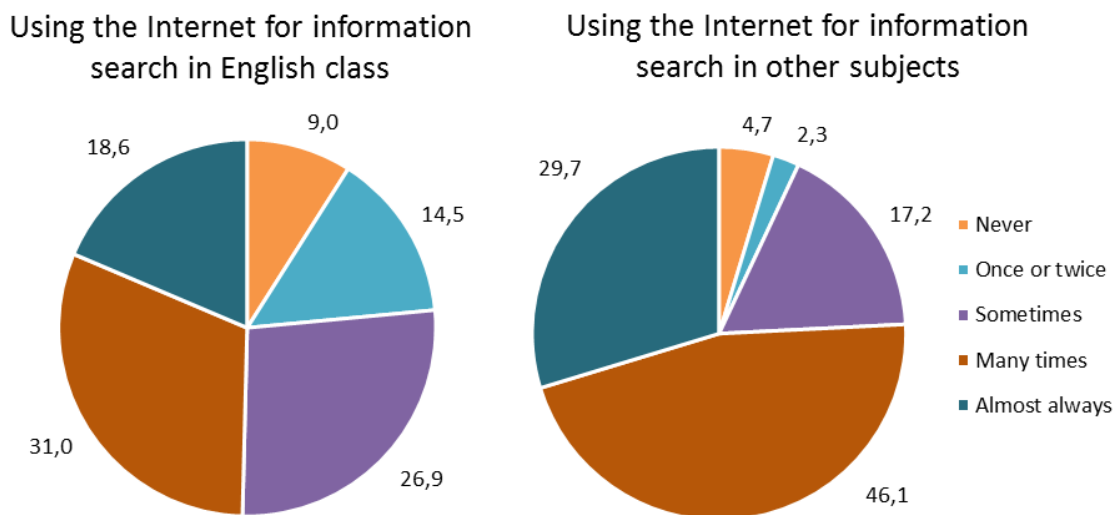


Figure 16. Students' previous experience with the use of the Internet as means for information search

Unlike their experience with blogs, the use of the Internet as means for information search seems more frequent, since 49.6 % of the students reported its rather frequent use in EFL class at some stage in their formal education prior to the high school. However, this percentage raises up by roughly a quarter (75.8 %) when their experience with Web-search refers to other subjects. Nevertheless, almost one in four students (23.5 % of the sample) reported having used it in their English class hardly ever (just once or twice, or never at all).

5.7.1. Quantitative data analysis

Data obtained during the two school years were coded and analysed by means of the SPSS 23 programme. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and *t*-tests were performed in order to answer the research questions. First of all, the two groups under scrutiny (ICT and NS) were compared at the pre-test stage in order to check whether any statistically significant difference was observed regarding English proficiency, motivation and

attitudes towards EFL and ICT. Independent samples *t*-tests performed on the ICT-group and the NS-group's scores on the pre-test examination showed no significant difference between the two groups in terms of general English ability (short OPT test, UCLES, 2001) and written and oral English skills at the outset of the project. Table 7 below summarises the means of both groups at the pre-test measurements.

Table 7. Pre-test measurements *t*-test comparisons between ICT-group and NS-group

Variables	Group	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
OPT (0-40)	ICT-group	77	23.78	3.75	-.715	ns
	NS-group	69	24.29	4.75		
Writings' mean scores (0-10)	ICT-group	77	6.36	0.94	1.874	ns
	NS-group	69	6.01	1.27		
Oral presentations' mean scores (0-10)	ICT-group	76	6.49	1.42	-1.482	ns
	NS-group	69	6.86	1.54		
Ideal L2 Self (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.39	0.65	.218	ns
	NS-group	70	3.36	0.82		
Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.67	0.55	.588	ns
	NS-group	70	3.61	0.60		
Ought-to L2 Self (1-5)	ICT-group	77	2.67	0.63	2.099	0.038*
	NS-group	70	2.46	0.59		
Instrumentality-prevention (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.07	0.62	1.587	ns
	NS-group	70	2.91	0.55		
Attitudes towards learning English (1-5)	ICT-group	77	2.85	0.70	-.746	ns
	NS-group	70	2.95	0.78		
Attitudes towards English (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.49	0.48	-.583	ns
	NS-group	70	3.55	0.65		
ICT as a support for learning (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.62	0.61	.008	ns
	NS-group	70	3.62	0.62		
ICT as means to improve English (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.44	0.69	-.254	ns
	NS-group	70	3.47	0.71		

ns – not significant

Table 7. (continued) Pre-test measurements *t*-test comparisons between ICT-group and NS-group

Variables	Group	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
ICT use in the classroom (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.61	0.55	.246	ns
	NS-group	70	3.59	0.56		
ICT as means to improve skills and career (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.77	0.67	-.972	ns
	NS-group	70	3.88	0.73		
ICT school access (1-5)	ICT-group	77	2.85	0.82	-.673	ns
	NS-group	70	2.94	0.70		
ICT use difficulties (1-5)	ICT-group	77	3.62	0.57	-.681	ns
	NS-group	70	3.68	0.59		

ns – not significant

These results reveal that, at the beginning of the study, the two groups were comparable as far as their general foreign language proficiency (OPT) and writing and speaking skills were concerned.

As regards the L2 Motivational Self System factors, a statistically significant difference was found between both groups by means of a *t*-test only for the factor *Ought-to L2 Self* [$t(145)=2.099, p=.038$], with the ICT-group's means being higher than those of the NS-group (Table 7). This means that, at the initial stage, the ICT-group was more concerned about the attributes they believed they ought to possess to meet the expectations of the people surrounding them. However, the magnitude of this difference between the two groups was rather small (Cohen, 1988), as shown by the calculated effect size of .03 (eta squared).

Attitudes towards ICT were measured in both groups in the pre-test. Hence, in order to analyse the differences between their means, independent-samples *t*-tests were performed. However, as shown by Table 7, the ICT-group's and the NS-group's means were alike, with no significant differences found between them.

The overall ICT-related attitudes of both groups resulted favourable (means above 3.44), with the only exception of the variable *ICT school access*, which obtained rather

neutral answers (means between 2.94 and 2.85). The students regarded the quality of the equipment at their school as acceptable, and its quantity as neither scarce nor abundant.

5.7.2. Qualitative data analysis

Data gathered by means of focus groups were transcribed and coded. A total of 460 minutes were recorded resulting in a corpus made up of 37,647 words. The content analysis of the themes students mentioned in the interviews followed the procedure described by Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2014: 121; see also Garrett and Gallego, 2014) in order to organise the data into categories. To this end, firstly, the discrete ideas expressed by students in each answer (tokens) were identified, then these ideas were classified under the general themes of positive and negative comments, related to either the Ideal/Ought-to L2 Self domain, or the Learning Experience (concerning the educational intervention: ICT or NS-intervention, respectively, as well as students' learning experience related to their usual EFL classes), which were subsequently clustered into thematic categories of favourable or unfavourable ideas concerning the Ideal L2 Self/Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation, the Ought-to L2 Self/Instrumentality-prevention and the Learning Experience/Attitudes towards (learning) English as Foreign Language (see Appendix 8 for the explanation of categories). Percentages were then used as a basis of comparison between the ICT-group and NS-group. The groupings and their contents are shown in the results section 6.2. Additionally, ICT-group was asked about possible digital skills' improvement resulting from the ICT-intervention; this part of qualitative data is presented in section 6.4. The coding of the tokens and their categorisation was done twice with a six-month gap between the first coding and the second, in order to achieve greater validity and reliability. During the second analysis, the codification and the categories were reviewed, and some necessary changes were made where needed.

In this section the results will be presented following the three research questions formulated in the study. First of all, the six motivational scales are examined and the corresponding qualitative data are presented. Then, the results of the ICT-related scales will be dealt with and lastly, the results of students' oral and written production will be exhibited.

6.1. First and second research questions

The first two research questions entertained in the present research concerned the potential differences in the motivation of the students who used technologies in their EFL classroom and the ones who had classes with a native English speaker (RQ1), and the possible influence of gender on students' Motivational L2 Self System in both groups (ICT *versus* NST) (RQ2). The initial hypothesis was that no difference would be found between the two interventions' (ICT-based, led by a non-NEST vs. classes led by a NEST) influence on learners' self-concepts and other motivational variables. Likewise, no gender differences were expected.


Two-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted in order to compare the motivational effectiveness of two different educational interventions (i.e. technology-based classes led by a non-NEST vs. classes with a NEST, while controlling for their pre-test results on the motivational questionnaire (RQ1). The possible effect of participants' gender was taken into consideration, as it may moderate or influence motivational response of males and females to the two different classroom settings (RQ2).

The independent variables were the type of group (ICT-group and NS-group) and gender. The dependent variable was means on the motivational questionnaire administered after the intervention was completed (post-test). Participants' means on the questionnaire administered prior to the commencement of the intervention (pre-test) were used as a covariate to control for individual differences. The ANCOVA was

carried out separately for the six L2 Self/EFL-related motivational and attitudinal variables described previously.

No differences were found between the two groups, once the pre-existing differences (i.e. pre-test means) were controlled for. Table 8 below summarises the main findings from the two-way ANCOVA analyses by presenting all the non-significant *p*-values and small effect sizes found in the comparisons of the ICT-group with the NS-group.

Table 8. Summary of the two-way ANCOVA analyses of L2 Self/EFL-related variables

Variables	Main effects	<i>F</i> (1,112)	<i>p</i>	Effect size³
Ideal L2 Self	Group	.007	.935	.000
	Gender	.865	.354	.008
	Group*gender	.169	.682	.002
Instrumentality- promotion and travel orientation	Group	2.851	.094	.025
	Gender	.197	.658	.002
	Group*gender	.024	.877	.000
Ought-to L2 Self	Group	.914	.341	.008
	 Gender	7.414	.008*	.062
	Group*gender	.250	.618	.002
Instrumentality- prevention	Group	.520	.472	.005
	Gender	1.217	.272	.011
	Group*gender	.527	.469	.005
Attitudes towards learning English	Group	.439	.509	.004
	Gender	.813	.369	.007
	Group*gender	1.193	.277	.011
Attitudes towards English	Group	.044	.835	.000
	Gender	2.280	.134	.020
	Group*gender	.164	.686	.001

³Partial eta squared

After adjusting for pre-test means, there was no significant interaction effect of group and gender on post-test means of all the L2 Self/EFL-related variables. Likewise, neither the main effect of group, nor gender were found statistically significant for all variables but one, *Ought-to L2 Self* [$F(1,112)=7.414, p=.008$], where male students exhibited significantly higher means than female students, regardless of which group they were in (Table 8). However, the magnitude of this difference was moderate (partial eta squared=.062).

To illustrate the main findings of the analysis, I will employ tables with the ICT and NS-groups' means for each L2 Self/EFL-related variables in the pre-test and the post-test split by gender along with the graphical representations of both groups' means for all these variables.

6.1.1. Ideal L2 Self

Table 9 below summarises the means of both groups for the variable *Ideal L2 Self* in the pre-test and the post-test split by gender. There was no significant difference found between them in the analysis (see Table 8).

Table 9. Ideal L2 Self means of the females and males from both groups in the pre-test and the post-test

Variables	Group	Gender	Pre-test			Post-test		
			N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Ideal L2 Self	ICT-group	Female	48	3.35	0.67	38	3.54	0.59
		Male	29	3.46	0.62	23	3.67	0.45
	NS-group	Female	47	3.38	0.76	37	3.55	0.68
		Male	23	3.33	0.94	19	3.50	0.74

Overall, all the students showed rather high Ideal L2 Self, in both the pre-test (all the means were above 3.3) and the post-test (means above 3.5), which suggests that they

had rather positive self-image as English speakers. Figure 17 below illustrates the means of the two groups for the variable *Ideal L2 Self* in the two time points.

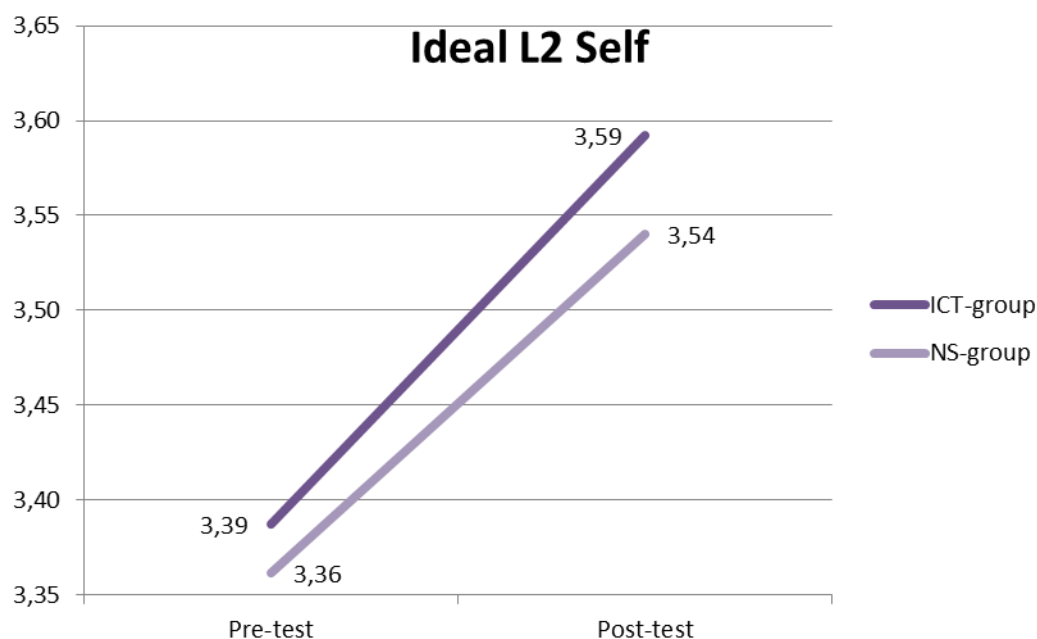


Figure 17. Ideal L2 Self ICT-group vs. NS-group in pre- and post-test

The means appearing on Figure 17 are for each of the two groups as a whole and the scale of the figure is exaggerated on purpose, in order to be able to differentiate between the two groups; however, as already mentioned, the difference was not statistically significant.

6.1.2. Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation

The means of females and males from both groups for the variable *Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation* in the pre-test and the post-test are displayed in Table 10 below. The differences between them were not found to be significant (see Table 8).

Table 10. Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation means of the females and males from both groups in the pre-test and the post-test

Variables	Group	Gender	Pre-test			Post-test		
			N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation	ICT-group	Female	48	3.64	0.62	38	3.71	0.44
		Male	29	3.71	0.42	23	3.66	0.43
	NS-group	Female	47	3.59	0.56	37	3.55	0.40
		Male	23	3.64	0.68	19	3.50	0.65

In general, all the students showed quite high promotion-oriented and travel-oriented instrumental motivation to learn English, in both the pre-test (all the means were above 3.6) and the post-test (means above 3.5), which suggests that they acknowledged the benefits of being a proficient English speaker in our society. Figure 18 below illustrates the means of the two groups for this variable in the two time points.

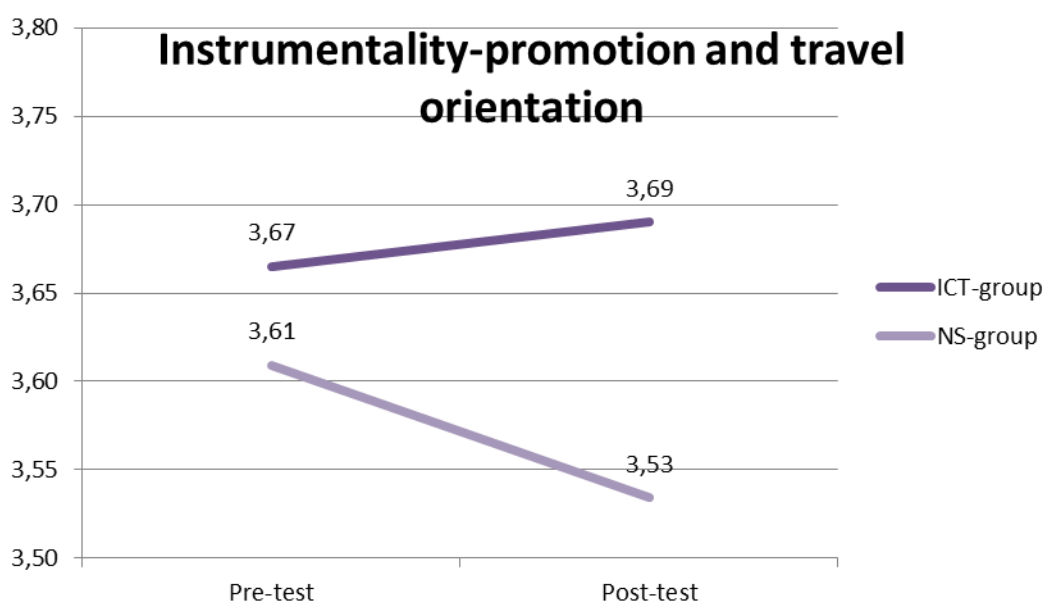


Figure 18. Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation ICT-group vs. NS-group

Although the lines may seem to suggest different trends between the students from both groups, the differences were not statistically significant, and the scale on Figure 18 is once again exaggerated in order to illustrate the development of the two groups' means for this variable.

6.1.3. Ought-to L2 Self

The means of females and males from the both groups for the variable *Ought-to L2 Self* in the pre-test and the post-test are summarised in Table 11 below. The analysis did not reveal significant differences between the two groups as a whole; however, it did reveal a statistically significant difference between genders, as male students tended to show higher means on this variable than female students (see Table 8). This may be due to a slightly stronger feeling of duty and rather external motives to become a proficient English speaker shared by males, while female students do not tend to acknowledge such factors as crucial. Nevertheless, rather negative to neutral means of the *Ought-to L2 Self* variable indicate that the external factors are not the most determinant ones in the L2 Motivational Self System of this study's participants, at least explicitly.

Table 11. Ought-to L2 Self means of the females and males from both groups in the pre-test and the post-test

Variables	Group	Gender	Pre-test			Post-test		
			N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Ought-to L2 Self	ICT-group	Female	48	2.55	0.63	38	2.71	0.77
		Male	29	2.86	0.60	23	3.14	0.67
	NS-group	Female	47	2.47	0.54	37	2.39	0.64
		Male	23	2.43	0.69	19	2.71	0.90

As mentioned before, in general, all the students showed rather negative to neutral means for *Ought-to L2 Self*, in both the pre-test (means between 2.4 and 2.9) and the post-test (between 2.4 and 3.1), which may suggest that they did not consider the external factors and society's pressure to learn English determinant. Figure 19 below illustrates the means of the two whole groups for this variable in the two time points.

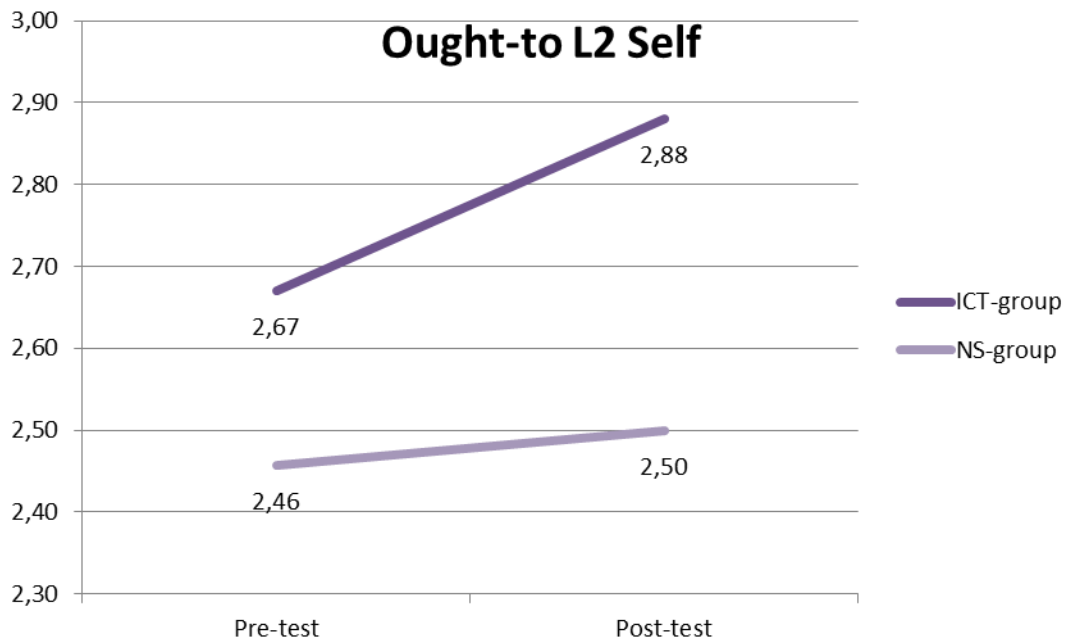


Figure 19. Ought-to L2 Self ICT-group vs. NS-group

The two lines on Figure 19 run quite parallel, and it seems that the ICT-group showed more concern about external factors affecting their learning of English. However, as mentioned before, the analysis revealed differences between genders, which are illustrated by Figure 20, by plotting estimated marginal means of males and females from the two groups for this variable in the post-test, where it gains more salience: ICT-group's males' mean of 3.1 vs. females' mean of 2.7 and NS-group's males' mean of 2.7 vs. females' mean of 2.4 (see Table 11).

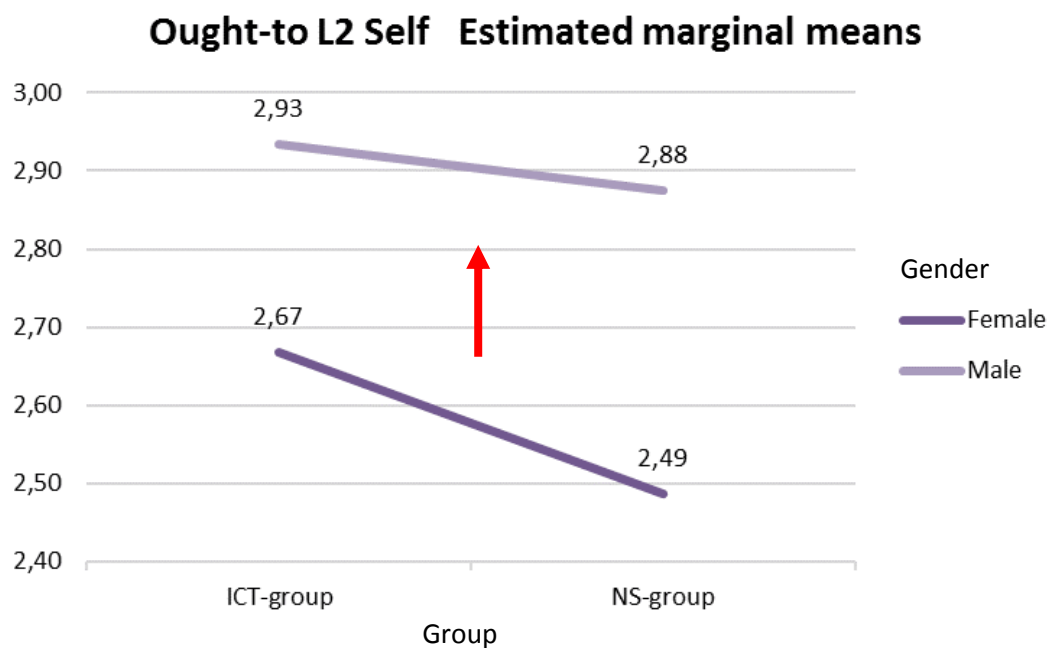


Figure 20. Effect of gender on students' Ought-to L2 Self (estimated marginal means)

Among the students who participated in the project, males seem to feel more determined than females to learn English as something they perceive they ought to or are expected to do, a sense of duty which has been further incremented by both educational interventions. Thus, after either spending time with NEST or using ICT for English learning in their classes, male students seem more concerned about the inevitable need to be proficient in English nowadays. Therefore, both interventions seem to have a stronger effect on male students, an issue which will be tackled in the conclusions.

6.1.4. Instrumentality-prevention

Table 12 below summarises the means of females and males from the both groups for the variable *Instrumentality-prevention* in the pre-test and the post test. The differences between them were not found to be significant (cf. Table 8).

Table 12. Instrumentality-prevention means of the females and males from both groups in the pre-test and the post-test

Variables	Group	Gender	Pre-test			Post-test		
			N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Instrumentality-prevention	ICT-group	Female	48	3.11	0.64	38	3.28	0.72
		Male	29	3.00	0.61	23	3.25	0.74
	NS-group	Female	47	2.91	0.57	37	2.92	0.58
		Male	23	2.92	0.52	19	3.07	0.75

Overall, students' means were rather neutral, in both the pre-test (all the averages were between 2.9 and 3.1) and the post-test (between 2.9 and 3.3), which suggests that the participants were not too anxious about possible negative consequences of not becoming a successful learner of English. Figure 21 below illustrates the means of the two groups for this variable in the two time points.

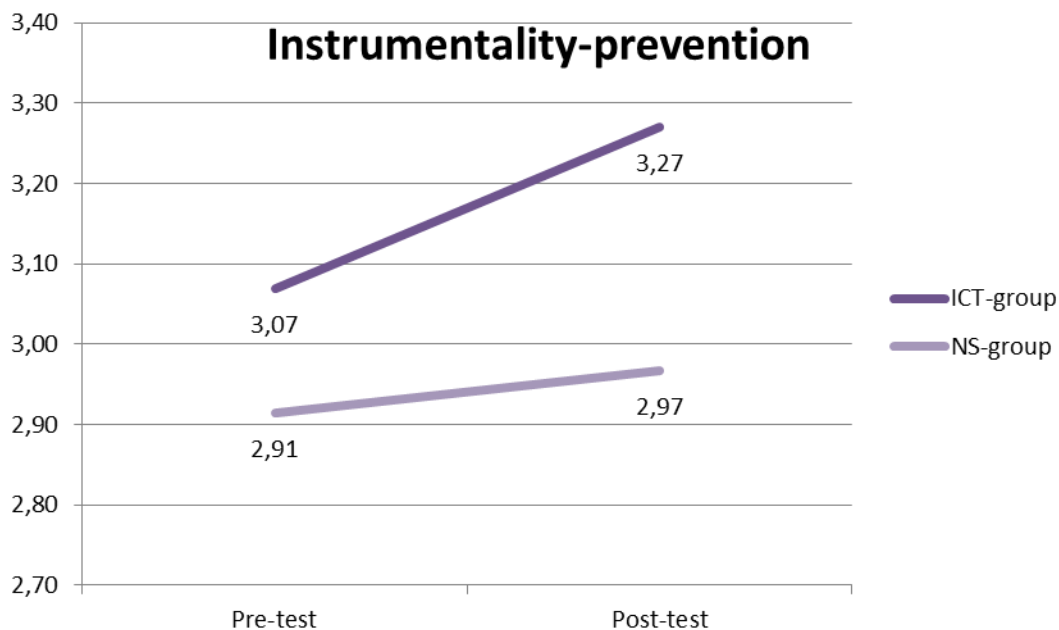


Figure 21. Instrumentality-prevention ICT-group vs. NS-group

Even if the lines in Figure 21 suggest different development of students' prevention-oriented instrumental motives, related to students' willingness to learn English in order to prevent possible negative future outcomes, the differences between the ICT-group and NS-group were not statistically significant.

6.1.5. Attitudes towards learning English

The means of the two groups for the variable *Attitudes towards learning English* in the pre-test and the post-test are displayed in Table 13 below, split by gender. Nevertheless, no significant difference between them was found in the analysis (cf. Table 8), although, surprisingly, male students seem to exhibit higher means than females.

Table 13. Attitudes towards learning English means of the females and males from both groups in the pre-test and the post-test

Variables	Group	Gender	Pre-test			Post-test		
			N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Attitudes towards learning English	ICT-group	Female	48	2.83	0.80	38	2.94	0.65
		Male	29	2.90	0.50	23	3.16	0.74
	NS-group	Female	47	2.89	0.75	37	3.01	0.59
		Male	23	3.05	0.84	19	2.99	0.56

In general, all the students showed neutral attitudes towards learning English, in both the pre-test (all the averages were between 2.8 and 3.1) and the post-test (means between 2.9 and 3.2), which seems to indicate that they were rather neutral as far as learning English in the formal setting is concerned. Figure 22 below illustrates the means of the two groups for this variable in the two time points. This may be, however, not a bad sign, because studies tend to show a decline in students' attitudes towards foreign language learning as they climb up the educational ladder. Therefore, it may be the case that such interventions as the ones implemented in the present research (either ICT or NS) help to stop this motivational wane.

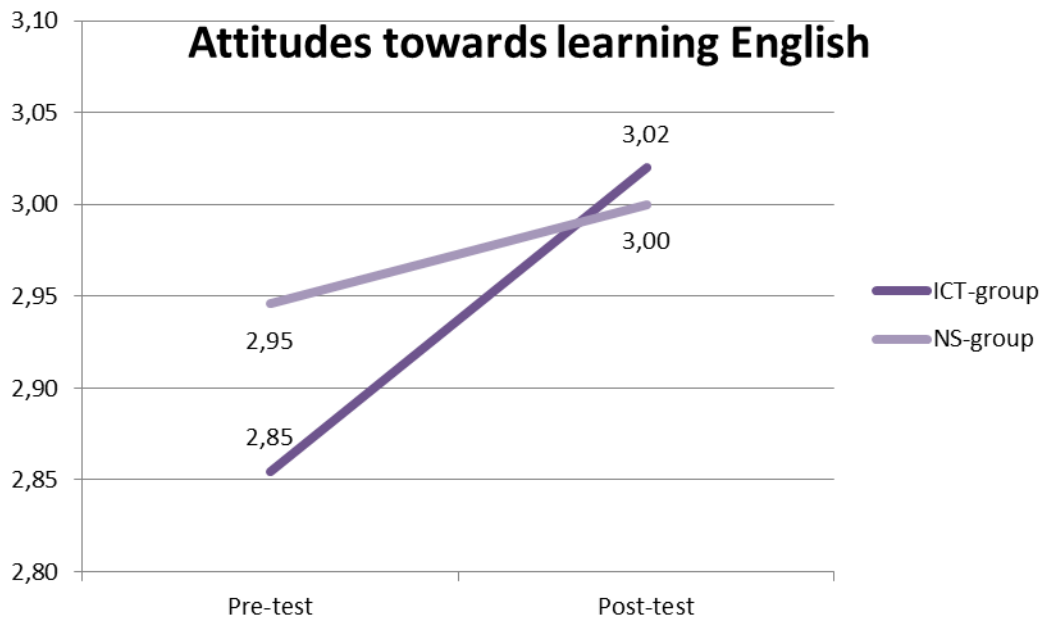


Figure 22. Attitudes towards learning English ICT-group vs. NS-group

Figure 22 illustrates the development of both groups' attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language, however, as it can be observed, the means differ too little to be significant, as showed in the analysis.

6.1.6. Attitudes towards English as a foreign language

Table 14 below summarises the means of females and males from the both groups for the variable *Attitudes towards English as foreign language* in the pre-test and the post test. Although females tend to show higher means, the differences between the groups and genders were not found to be statistically significant (cf. Table 8).

Table 14. Attitudes towards EFL means of the females and males from both groups in the pre-test and the post-test

Variables	Group	Gender	Pre-test			Post-test		
			N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Attitudes towards English	ICT-group	Female	48	3.46	0.52	38	3.53	0.50
		Male	29	3.55	0.41	23	3.50	0.35
	NS-group	Female	47	3.51	0.60	37	3.58	0.57
		Male	23	3.63	0.75	19	3.47	0.52

The students showed an overall quite positive attitude towards English as foreign language, as all the means were above 3.5 in both the pre- and the post-test, which suggests that they were positive towards English as such, while in the case of *Attitudes towards learning English* they remained rather neutral. Figure 23 below illustrates the means of the two groups for the variable *Attitudes towards English* in the two time points.

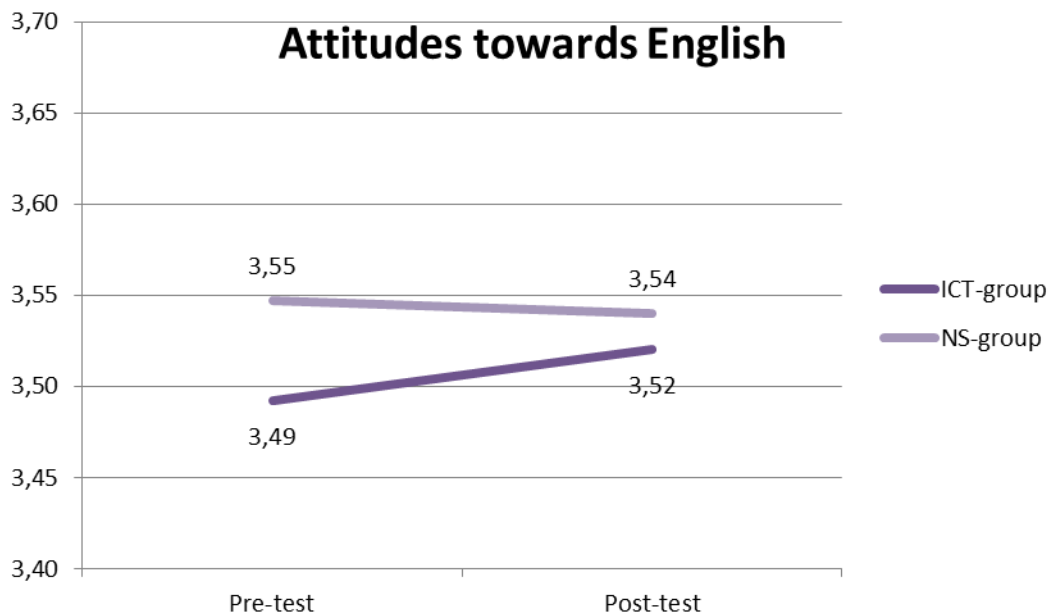


Figure 23. Attitudes towards English ICT-group vs. NS-group

Figure 23 shows that both groups' means were quite similar in both time points. Thus, it comes as no surprise that the analysis revealed no significant differences between them, as mentioned before.

All in all, no differences were found between ICT-group and NS-group, which suggest that the two interventions had a parallel effect on students' motivation. Qualitative data presented in the following section will help to shed more light on these quantitative results.

6.2. Qualitative data

In this section, students' qualitative comments grouped in broad thematic categories of positive and negative ideas concerning the Ideal L2 Self/Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation, the Ought-to L2 Self/Instrumentality-prevention and the Learning Experience/Attitudes towards (learning) English as Foreign Language are presented. Table 15 summarises the total number of tokens, or ideas mentioned by students concerning on the one hand, the future self-guides and motivational considerations, and, on the other hand, their learning experience, either with the corresponding educational intervention, or their usual EFL classes. This twofold grouping of tokens served the purpose of displaying the total count, they are, however, subsequently analysed separately. The reason to enquire into students' traditional classes was to compare their past learning experiences with the changes brought about by the project's sessions (either ICT or NS). Yes/no short answers to the interviewer's questions were not taken into account for the analysis. In cases where one student mentioned the same idea various times, it was counted only once. It should be acknowledged that at times, one student would mention in the same comment more than one idea and these were coded correspondingly as different tokens.

Table 15. Number of students' positive and negative comments ICT-group ($N=68$), NS-group ($N=58$), total number of students $N=126$

Number of positive and negative comments (Ideal/Ought-to L2 Self)						
	ICT-group		NS-group		Total	
	tokens	average	tokens	average	tokens	average
Positive	139	2.04	117	2.02	256	2.03
Negative	72	1.06	61	1.05	133	1.06

Number of positive and negative comments (Learning Experience)						
	ICT-group		NS-group		Total	
	tokens	average	tokens	average	tokens	average
Positive	155	2.28	116	2.00	271	2.15
Negative	126	1.85	91	1.56	217	1.72

Observing the data presented in Table 15, it seems that the students have generally more positive views and experiences with English than negative ones. The ICT-group appears to have made more both favourable and unfavourable comments than the NS-group, on average, although both groups reported more positive insights than negative ones, as each student, on average, made two positive comments, while mentioning only one negative aspect (with the exception of learning experience, where the average of unfavourable comments increases to 1.56-1.85). The analysis of the focus groups seems to corroborate the non-significance of the differences between ICT and NS groups presented in the previous section. It should be underscored that the number of either negative or positive comments made by both groups, as well as the issues they mentioned were similar.

The further classification of students' favourable and unfavourable ideas mentioned during the focus group interviews led to the positing of 17 categories within the topic of Ideal L2 Self/Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation (11 positive and 6 negative). Tables 16 and 17 summarise the list of categories, the number of the students' ideas that are included in each category or tokens, and the corresponding percentage of the students whose ideas belonged in each category (see Appendix 8 for an explanation of the categories). In total, 68 students from the ICT-group took part in the focus group interviews, while the number of interviewed students from the NS-

group was 58, thus the percentages presented in the tables refer to the total number of students who participated in the focus-groups.

Table 16. Categorisation of the students' positive comments Ideal L2 Self/ Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation

Categories	ICT-group N=68	%	NS-group N=58	%
Motivated to continue studying ENG	20	29.4	12	20.7
Motivated to study ENG to be able to communicate	16	23.5	15	25.9
Motivated to study English to travel abroad	15	22.1	12	20.7
Internal motivation to study ENG, likes ENG	12	17.6	7	12.1
Motivated to continue studying to obtain a language certificate	8	11.8	5	8.6
Motivated to study additionally with movies/series/music in English	6	8.8	8	13.8
Imagine themselves speaking ENG at work	6	8.8	4	6.9
Motivated to learn ENG because of internationalisation at work	6	8.8	2	3.4
ENG important, a global language	5	7.4	4	6.9
Imagine themselves working abroad	3	4.4	3	5.2
Importance of multilingualism (“the more languages, the better”)	2	2.9	4	6.9
Total	99		76	

As far as the positive comments are concerned, both groups mentioned ideas which could be grouped within the same categories. It seems that they are generally motivated to continue studying English once it is no longer obligatory (top category for the ICT-group, and second for the NS-group, mentioned by 29.4% and 20.7% of the students, respectively) and their motives concern being able to communicate (top category for the NS-group and the second for the ICT-group, mentioned by 25.9% and 23.5% of the students, respectively). A strong motivation to learn English for travelling abroad was found among the two groups (third category, mentioned by roughly 20% of the students in both groups). The students also mentioned the internal motives they have to study it,

as well as their objective to obtain a language proficiency certificate. The data reveal that the top three categories for both groups are as follows: *Motivated to continue studying English*, *Motivated to study English to be able to communicate*, *Motivated to study English to travel abroad*. The following quotes illustrate these categories in turn:

I will continue [to study English] and next year at the university I will take one subject in English. (ICT group, student D1)

[I am motivated to keep learning English] to communicate with people from other places. (NS group, student C6)

I am motivated to learn English, because I want to travel and it's often necessary. (ICT group, student E7)

They seem motivated to study using English-mediated entertainment and multimedia tools, although the percentages in both groups are not too high, which may have to do with the aforementioned little contact students have with English outside the formal context. *Internal motivation to study English* was the fourth most frequently mentioned by ICT group (17.6%, while it was referred to by 12.1% of NS group), whereas *Motivated to study additionally with movies, series or music* was the fourth top category for NS group (13.8%). Some examples of students' comments in these two categories can be as follows:

I think you cannot learn a language with the external factors only, you can have motivation, I want the best grade, OK, you can have this motivation and learn grammar, vocabulary, the things that appear in the book, but this is not all...it needs to be a motivation, you say I want to learn English because I want to go to England or because I want to know another language, but I think that if it is because my parents want me to learn it, or to get a good grade, that's not a real motivation, and it is not going to be, when you learn you won't feel good, because you don't really want to learn, it's only an external influence. (ICT group, student F4)

[I am motivated to learn English] and in addition I try to watch movies and so in English. (NS group, student C2)

The other positive comments, with the exception of *Motivated to continue studying to obtain a language proficiency certification* (mentioned by 11.8% of the ICT group), were reported by less than 10% of the students.

Some of the students reported that they are able to imagine themselves using English at work in the future, or even working abroad (although the percentages are rather low), and the internationalisation of job market was mentioned as one of the sources of motivation to learn English. The status of English as a global *lingua franca* was considered motivating to reach sufficient proficiency in this language, and overall, the importance of knowing many languages was highlighted by some students. Nevertheless, there appeared also negative comments, categorised in Table 17.

Table 17. Categorisation of the students' negative comments Ideal L2 Self/ Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation

Categories	ICT-group N=68	%	NS-group N=58	%
Do not imagine themselves speaking ENG at work	7	10.3	8	13.8
General lack of motivation to learn ENG	5	7.4	10	17.2
Dislikes ENG, lack of joy, lack of passion	5	7.4	1	1.7
Lack of motivation, you learn better abroad, not at school	4	5.9	4	6.9
Lack of motivation due to real language difficulties experienced	3	4.4		0.0
Motivated to learn but does not know how to learn effectively	2	2.9		0.0
Total	26		23	

On the whole, there were very few negative comments regarding the Ideal L2 Self and the Instrumentality-promotion domain. One of the most recurrent themes in both groups was the students' inability to imagine themselves using English at work, either because adulthood and its responsibilities are still unimaginable for adolescents, or they simply consider their language skills not enough developed to feel at ease with English in the professional domain. Some of the students from both groups (top category in the NS-

group) reported general lack of motivation to study English, which may be accounted for the tendency of this age group not to feel motivated to learn in general (they also confessed lack of joy and passion (sic)). The following are examples for the two categories which more than 10% of the students *Do not imagine themselves speaking English at work* (10.3% of the ICT-group and 13.8% of the NS-group) and *General lack of motivation to learn English* (7.4% and 17.2%, respectively):

[I don't imagine myself speaking in English at work] I think I don't have a very good level to do it now (...) I don't have the level to be able to get by much in English. (ICT group, student D10)

I am not motivated, because I don't like English and I have never liked it, so... (ICT group, student F1)

School was considered by some students an inadequate setting to learn English, as compared to natural acquisition in foreign environment. Some students were disenchanted with learning English due to some difficulties experienced in real situations or because they do not know how to learn it effectively, although the percentages were very low.

Within the topic of the Ideal L2 Self, students responded directly to the enquiry whether ICT-based intervention or classes with the NEST could help them develop their Ideal L2 Self. Table 18 below summarise the 4 positive and 5 negative categories identified in the data.

Table 18. Categorisation of students' comments on ICT/NS potential to improve students' Ideal L2 Self: positive and negative comments

Positive categories	ICT-group		NS-group	
	N=68	%	N=58	%
ICT/NS may help to improve Ideal L2 Self	14	20.6	8	13.8
NNS teacher as a model of FL achievement	1	1.5		0.0
NS teacher as model of native speech		0.0	2	3.4
NS is like going abroad		0.0	1	1.7
Total	15		11	

Table18. (continued) Categorisation of students' comments on ICT/NS potential to improve students' Ideal L2 Self: positive and negative comments

Negative categories	ICT-group		NS-group	
	N=68	%	N=58	%
ICT/NS do not help to improve Ideal L2 Self	6	8.8	2	3.4
Not enough time with ICT/NS to evaluate the effect	2	2.9	5	8.6
ICT do not help when you are not motivated, real life practice better	2	2.9		0.0
More variety of accents, more practice to improve Ideal L2 Self		0.0	4	6.9
Not very real language to improve Ideal L2 Self		0.0	1	1.7
Total	10		12	

Both groups made similar amount of comments, both positive and negative. It seems that the ICT-group saw more potential of technology to improve one's Ideal L2 Self, mostly because of the broad opportunities it offers to access materials, and authentic, real language input. This, however, has not been always stated as the direct effect of the ICT-intervention, but rather in terms of possibility provided by the use of technology as such. The general low number of comments with the direct relation to the students' Ideal L2 Self in both groups may be accounted for by still rather under-developed self-concept as ideal FL speakers among this age group. The non-NEST teacher was seen as a model of FL achievement to follow by only a single ICT-group student, while the NEST was considered a model for native speech and pronunciation to imitate by just two NS-group students, as it was like "going abroad" without moving from the classroom. The following quotes illustrate the most relevant categories:

ICT may help to improve Ideal L2 Self

I think they help, for example, I sometimes listen to songs or read their lyrics and in this way yes (...) and the pronunciation improves.

(ICT group, student A9)

NS may help to improve Ideal L2 Self

I think so. Because sometimes you talked to her and then thought, oh, I can do it better than I thought. Maybe you stumble and you say things in a simpler manner, but at least you know you are able to speak (English).

(NS group, student C4)

NNS teacher as a model of FL achievement

When I hear X (the NNS) speaking English I think she speaks well (...) I envy her, she speaks so well, I want to speak like this too, so it's kind of motivating.

(ICT group, student E4)

NS teacher as model of native speech

It is not the same to [listen to] this kind of academic (school) language, as the one most of the teachers here speak, or hearing a natural English, because you think that, in the end, English is not just a [school] subject.

(NS group, student E5)

Nevertheless, it seems that some students do not believe either ICT or NS-intervention can help to improve their Ideal L2 Self, as the time they spent interacting with both was not enough to evaluate their effect. Two students from the ICT-group mentioned that real life practice, not mediated by technology is better and that no technology can help when somebody is demotivated. Four NS-group students stated that much more speaking practice is needed or a wider variety of native accents is necessary so that their Ideal L2 Self could be strengthened, while one participant criticised the adapted speech and vocabulary used by the NEST as being unrealistic. Some of the examples below depict students' beliefs:

ICT do not help to improve Ideal L2 Self

I think it is the same, because to be an ideal speaker it doesn't matter if you have technologies or not.

(ICT group, student C4)

No, it is the same (the ideal image of myself as an L2 speaker), I think we haven't improved much because of using the technology or the Internet.

(ICT group, student E7)

NS do not help to improve Ideal L2 Self

I don't know, maybe you see you understand more than you thought, but when you have to speak it doesn't happen. (NS group, student C9)

Not enough time with ICT/NS to evaluate the effect

ICT: In class we didn't use technologies much, so I don't know to what extent it is helpful. (ICT group, student D14)

NS: It helps a little, but we have been with her maybe forty-five minutes per week... (NS group, student E2)

With regard to the topic of Ought-to L2 Self/Instrumentality-prevention, 10 categories were proposed, five of which were rather positive (when students referred to feelings of *avoidance/advantage* in relation with learning English) and five rather negative (a sense of *obligation*). They are summarised in Table 19 (see Appendix 8 for the explanation of the categories and examples of students' voices).

Table 19. Categorisation of the students' comments on Ought-to L2 Self/Instrumentality-prevention

Categories referring to <i>avoidance/advantage</i>	ICT-group N=68	%	NS-group N=58	%
Parental support and encouragement	13	19.1	8	13.8
Advantage, helpful not obligatory	7	10.3	13	22.4
Future usefulness of ENG	3	4.4	9	15.5
Avoid communication problems	2	2.9		0.0
Apply for scholarships		0.0	1	1.7
Total	25		30	
Obligatory for work	14	20.6	14	24.1
Obligated by parents, sense of obligation	10	14.7	2	3.4
Societal pressure	6	8.8	3	5.2
Crisis/unemployment	4	5.9	2	3.4
Global language, other languages' importance	2	2.9	4	6.9
Total	36		25	

Regarding the *avoidance/advantage* categories, a similar amount of comments was made by both groups, although more negative ideas appeared among the ICT-group. This group appears also to feel more parental encouragement than the NS-group (top category), whereas more students from the NS-group regard learning English in terms of an advantage but not an obligation, admitting that “you can live without it” (top category in this group). The NS-group acknowledges more often the usefulness of English for their future, while ICT-group mentions avoiding communication problems as the reason to learn this language (2 comments). The following extracts from students’ comments illustrate the three top *avoidance/advantage* categories:

Parental support and encouragement

Yes, I mean, they (the parents) advise us [to learn English], it isn’t to oblige us.

(ICT group, student D9)

They (the parents) always say that it will be very important for the future, that we have to learn English, and that they didn’t learn it at school and they regret it.

(NS group, student E2)

They (the parents) say learning English is important and all parents say this, but then, I don’t like English much and they don’t oblige me to learn if I don’t want to.

(NS group, student C5)

Advantage, helpful not obligatory

I think it (English) is useful, but not obligatory. I have a friend who doesn’t know English and when he/she meets foreigners, he/she speaks, he/she is able to communicate.

(NS group, student A5)

Maybe it (English) is not obligatory, but it helps a lot.

(NS group, student D3)

Future usefulness of ENG

Knowing English opens many doors to you. It is not the same a person who has studied here and he/she doesn’t know English at all, or if he/she knows English.

(NS group, student C6)

Looking to your future, it will be better, it will be easier for you to do other things if you know English. (ICT group, student B4)

With regard to the categories classified as referring to *obligation*, the same amount of ideas regarding English as obligatory for future work appeared among the students from both groups (top category for both groups, mentioned by 20.6% of the students from the ICT-group and 24.1% from the NS-group). Such comments as the ones below appeared in the interviews:

If you find a job and there comes somebody who knows English, they will take the one who knows English. (NS group, student E5)

But now in the majority of the positions speaking little bit of English is required. (NS group, student A5)

In a basic education, for our preparation to the professional life [English] language is important (...) but I think we don't achieve it, or we haven't achieved it. I think that, in the end, that's it, I mean, to be able to work in the future. (ICT group, student E12)

The ICT-group seems to feel more parental pressure or general sense of obligation regarding learning English and mention it far more frequently than the NS-group (10 times vs. 2, respectively). The former group also seems more concerned about the urge or pressure exerted by society on the youth to become proficient in English (6 comments vs. 3), as well as the current economic crisis and subsequent unemployment rates (4 vs. 2 comments). Last but not least, some students from both groups mentioned the negative aspect of English as a global language and the need to learn it, as it causes other languages to lack such importance (2 and 4 comments). When students referred to being *obliged by parents, sense of obligation*, they mentioned such issues as the following:

In one way or another they (the parents) always oblige you to learn English. (ICT group, student B3)

Yes, but it's a need, this is a need. An obligation to learn, obligation to learn English (...). (ICT group, student E11)

For almost all things they require you [to know English].

(NS group, student E3)

[The parents] then they want to travel and me (...), and since they don't know English, they want me to use English to communicate.

(ICT group, student B6)

A careful look at the extracts from students' comments obtained via focus groups seems to corroborate the non-significance of the differences between ICT and NS groups found in the quantitative data. Students from both ICT and NS groups alike refer to similar issues concerning more external motives to learn English. The means of the Ought-to L2 Self domain on the questionnaire revealed a significant trend shown by male students to display a higher sense of duty in relation to English than females, regardless of which group they belonged to. This may be accounted for by the fact that the majority of the comments referring to the feeling of obligation mentioned in both groups was made by male students, as they seem to be more concerned about their future job opportunities and the requirements to fulfil (such as being in possession of language certificates) than their female counterparts.

As far as the Learning Experience and Attitudes towards (learning) English as a foreign language after both the ICT-intervention and the NS-intervention are concerned, 32 categories were posited (22 positive and 10 negative). They are represented in Tables 20 and 21 with the number of tokens from each group and the corresponding percentages regarding the total number of students interviewed.

The ICT-group produced far more positive comments than the NS-group (140 vs. 99), however, the categories are parallel and seem to confirm once again the similar trend of both interventions. The students reported they felt more comfortable and less anxious in both intervention sessions, while they considered both as different, entertaining, interesting, motivating, dynamic, and more "bearable".

Table 20. Categorisation of the students' positive comments on learning experience offered by the ICT-intervention or NS-intervention

Categories		ICT-group N=68	%	NS-group N=58	%
Project classes	Comfortable	15	22.1	10	17.2
	Different	13	19.1	6	10.3
	Entertaining	12	17.6	11	19.0
	Interesting	11	16.2	5	8.6
	Motivating	10	14.7	2	3.4
	Speaking practice	9	13.2	11	19.0
	Useful English	8	11.8	8	13.8
	Participative		0.0	8	13.8
	Dynamic	7	10.3	9	15.5
	Real language	5	7.4	5	8.6
	“Bearable”	4	5.9	6	10.3
	Listening practice and vocab.	2	2.9	2	3.4
	ICT better than papers	3	4.4		0.0
	Modern/use of ICT fashionable	2	2.9		0.0
	The most liked	Videos	13	19.1	
Topics		6	8.8		0.0
Games and collaborative work			0.0	8	13.8
ICT/NS helpful to	Improve speaking	9	13.2	6	10.3
	Improve listening skills	1	1.5	2	3.4
	Improve language competence	5	7.4		0.0
	Internet helps to learn more ENG	4	5.9		0.0
	Worked on all 4 skills	1	1.5		0.0
TOTAL tokens		140		99	

The category of the project classes regarded as *Comfortable* (top category in ICT-group, mentioned by 22.1% of the students from that group and 17.2% from the NS-group) included also students' comments on the project teacher's positive attitude (NNS or NS):

She (NNS) doesn't pressure us, I mean, we have to do what we have to do, but she is not all the time saying do this, this and do that.

(ICT group, student E4)

With X (the NS) in classes like these at least you speak with more tranquillity and even if you say something wrong, you feel more calm (...) she (the NS) makes you more confident when you speak in English.

(NS group, student E3)

Following extracts from the students' comments illustrate the other top categories:

Different (mentioned by 19.1% of students from ICT and 10.3% from NS-group)

We do different things in the activities. (ICT group, student F2)

You learn English but not like every day, in a different manner (...) And it's different, I mean, you don't do the same things. You are not the whole time with a book. (NS group, student A3)

Entertaining (top category in the NS-group, mentioned by 19% of the students and second in ICT-group, mentioned by 17.6% of participants in this group)

[The classes (with NS) are] very entertaining. (NS group, student B4)

It's not like a normal class, you sit down, look and copy or so, grammar, it isn't the same way as always, it's different, you take part more, do more entertaining things and it also helps. (NS group, student C5)

In the categories referring to the classes as *Interesting* and *Motivating*, the proportion of the comments made by students from ICT-group and NS-group changes slightly (11 vs. 5 and 10 vs. 2, respectively). The following are examples of the students' voices:

Interesting

It is much more interesting, these things, than having a book where all the exercises are the same (...). (ICT group, student E4)

On the Internet, you have more opportunities than in a book.

(ICT group, student D8)

With the other (usual) teacher the classes are boring, but with her (the NS), as we play games, the classes are more attractive (...) And we are not bored, so we pay attention. (NS group, student F3)

Motivating

I remember X (NNS) once showed us a video about feminism, well, Emma Watson (...), she showed us a video on feminism she (Emma Watson) gave [a speech] and it was in English, and when I went home I thought, oh I will search for more information about this, and this information was in English, so whether you like it or not, you learn English. (ICT group, student E4)

I think if these things are done, they motivate the students to get interested in English. (ICT group, student D10)

The way our English is, it was more motivating to us, the classes we had with X (the NNS), more than what we do in our usual classes.

(ICT group, student E4)

Whereas the participants from both groups alike considered their classes as *Dynamic* and more “*Bearable*” (there was a similar amount of comments among both groups: 7 vs. 9 and 5 vs. 5, respectively), as the students mentioned, for example:

Dynamic

It's better with computers, because the class is more dynamic.

(ICT group, student C1)

What's more, to learn a language it's better to do more dynamic classes.

(ICT group, student D10)

It is not the same being with X (the NS) or similar teacher or with Y (the usual teacher), [the classes] are more dynamic. (NS group, student B5)

“Bearable”

She (the NS) makes the classes lighter. (NS group, student C8)

Much better than in [usual] class (...) it was, I don't know, the classes weren't classes, more like group work. (NS group, student D4)

[The class] it is like more bearable. (ICT group, student F5)

They underscored the importance of the opportunity to practice speaking skills offered by both types of class, the chance to know “useful” English, and “real” language, and to practice listening and vocabulary. Here again, the participants from both groups made a similar number of comments, for instance:

Speaking practice (equally placed with *Comfortable* as the top category in NS-group, mentioned by 19% of the participants and 13.2% of the ICT-group)

At least we spoke in English with her (the NNS).

(ICT group, student B2)

It was often to give our opinion and not knowing more English, so [she (the NS)] always made us speak, it was more oral than writing (...) It's true we all had the opportunity to speak.

(NS group, student B5)

Useful English (mentioned 8 times by both groups)

I think it is good to see English is not only something you must learn, speak in English, you can watch/see things and you can learn anything in English and it is not only to get a good grade, it is to use it for real.

(ICT group, student F4)

They (the NS classes) are more practical (...) and you get some experience talking to a person who is a foreigner and a person who speaks English well.

(NS group, student B1)

Real language (mentioned on five occasions by both groups)

If you watch videos or people talking, as, in the end, in a book...I don't know (...) and what's more, see people talking, gesticulating, it's very good to help [to learn].

(ICT group, student D8)

When we watched that video in class I learned a lot of vocabulary about it that we don't use in [usual] class, and then if I speak to my [foreign] friends, I will talk about this and not about Y's [usual teacher's] readings.

(ICT group, student E7)

The NS-group (13.8%) highlighted that their sessions were “participative”, they were encouraged to take part in class, while the ICT-group mentioned that using technology was better than the “papers” and that technology integration in the classroom is a “fashionable” and “modern” issue. They also stated that what they liked the most was using videos and the opportunity provided to choose the topic, whereas the NS-group enjoyed using games and collaborative work on activities proposed by the teacher.

Both groups considered their respective interventions as helpful to improve speaking skills (9 vs. 6 comments), and some of the students mentioned listening skills as well, and only one mentions writing. It seems that there was no impact of either of the interventions on their written communication skills acknowledged by the students. As a matter of fact, the groups did not differ statistically when their English production –both written and oral– was tested, however, a greater effect of the ICT intervention could be expected, as the students practiced writing in English on blogs and during webquest final tasks, so more comments about it may have been anticipated, but this was not the case. The reason for that may be that both groups viewed their interventions as an opportunity to practice English speaking, as it is often overlooked during their usual classes and they believe this is what we should turn our attention to, as oral skills are regarded “helpful”, something they will really need to use. Apart from that, the ICT-group mentioned that technology helps them to learn more English and to improve their foreign language competence in general (curiously enough only one student mentioned possible improvement in writing skills). It seems that the students do not feel ICT as the best way to improve their writing despite the fact that the NNS worked on that particular skill. Neither is the NS class mentioned as regards writing, even though this group performed written tasks as well. The final five categories are related to the potential of the learning experience (ICT or NS) to improve students’ language skills, which are illustrated by the following extracts from the focus groups, in turn:

ICT/NS helpful to improve speaking

[The NS classes helped to improve] in speaking, in the oral [skills], above all.

(NS group, student E2)

The majority of the activities we do (with the NS) are to work on oral skills, and, what's more, as it is like a game, you dare to speak.

(NS group, student E3)

When you watch a film in English, which is originally in English, you hear how they say the words or how they pronounce or so, so then you can use them later like this.

(ICT group, student D6)

Listening to English also has an effect, I mean, when you speak you listen to how some other English speak, and you improve your English.

(ICT group, student D10)

ICT/NS helpful to improve listening skills

In the listening dimension and speaking dimension I think they (the NS classes) helped a little bit, because having a native [teacher] helps.

(NS group, student C9)

They show us videos and maybe you get used to listening, or I don't know, maybe you improve in writing, or so. I think they (the technologies) help.

(ICT group, student E1)

ICT helpful to improve the language

Watching [videos] in English is more interesting and if you don't understand, you try to search more [about it] and it helps you to improve your English.

(ICT group, student D8)

Internet helps to learn more ENG

When you have the Internet, you are often connected to the Web and (...) when you are there you [may] have an idea and you start searching for something on the Internet and, in the end, following this search you learn something.

(ICT group, student D9)

On the Internet, you can find things which are not in books, or you have a bigger and wider source of information.

(ICT group, student D14)

We worked on all skills:

We did all, write, read, speak, watch videos, we have worked on everything.

(ICT group, student E7)

Turning to these final 5 categories in Table 20, the ICT-intervention seems to be more comprehensive and affects, in the students' view, all language skills, apart from writing, since, as mentioned previously, there was one sole comment on the link between written communication skills and technologies, but not very informative. Students seem to perceive the NEST intervention as more limited and, strangely enough, make no direct reference to pronunciation. However, students did perceive the NS as a model of pronunciation and native language, as it was mentioned by the NS-group twice when they referred to their Ideal L2 Self. Likewise, two comments from ICT-group regarded pronunciation improvement enabled by technology (yet not necessarily experienced during the ICT-intervention) and one was related to NNS teacher as model of achievement in speaking a foreign language, when they pondered the possibility of the interventions' effect on their Ideal L2 Selves.

Nevertheless, generally, the students did not seem to deem either the NS classes or the classes with ICT as a means to improve their own pronunciation, at least explicitly, apart from these few remarks. What is more, the lack of mentioning skills other than speaking, and to a lesser extent, listening, may point to the lack of coordination between NEST and EFL teachers, also reported by Dafouz and Hibler (2013) in Madrid's context, which needs to be rectified. On the other hand, as noted by Árvá and Medgyes (2000), the assistant native teachers are often allocated exclusively conversational classes, which is why students would identify the NS-intervention with speaking practice only.

Nevertheless, the occasion to practice speaking skills was acknowledged by the students from both intervention groups (ICT and NS), since it made available "useful" and "practical" English to them, as well as "real" language with comparison to what a grammar-centred and textbook-centred EFL course usually offers. It thus seems that the students viewed the project classes as an opportunity to speak in English more than to write, as an opportunity to improve speaking, as it is not given enough attention and necessary time during normal classes.

Table 21. Categorisation of the students' negative comments on learning experience offered by the ICT-intervention or NS-intervention

Categories		ICT-group N=68	%	NS-group N=58	%
	Too little time with ICT/NS to improve ENG	7	10.3	5	8.6
	ICT/NS not useful to improve ENG	6	8.8	5	8.6
	Not motivating or helpful	4	5.9	2	3.4
	Not serious attitude of some students	2	2.9	3	5.2
	Not entertaining, not very interesting or different	4	5.9		0.0
The least liked	Boring topics	8	11.8		0.0
	Writings and answering questions	7	10.3		0.0
	Speaking (presentations)	4	5.9		0.0
	Feel the same with or without ICT use	2	2.9		0.0
	Too few speaking and too much use of computers	2	2.9		0.0
Total		46		15	

Among the negative comments on the project's learning experience mentioned by the students, it should be acknowledged that the ICT-group expressed far more ideas concerning unfavourable issues than the NS-group (46 vs. 15). This was due to the fact that the NS-group did not mention any specific aspect they disliked of their sessions (in comparison to 23 comments from ICT-group), nor did they mention anything about the topics proposed by the NEST (8 ICT-group students said they were boring). However, both groups stated they spent too little time with either ICT or the NS to improve their English skills, or, directly, that neither intervention was useful to make them better, as it was not motivating or helpful. The following extracts from students' negative comments illustrate the three top categories displayed in Table 21:

Too little time with ICT/NS to improve English

But the problem is that sometimes, well, always we have one class per week and sometimes this class is only half an hour, so if we start with computers and these things, we don't have much time to do things.

(ICT group, student E1)

We were with her (the NS) very little time. (NS group, student B2)

ICT/NS not useful to improve English

I mean, they (the ICT classes) were good for me, because I prefer being in X's (the NNS) classes to being in normal classes, but then to really learn and to have a better level (of English) I don't think it was useful.

(ICT group, student A5)

I think we haven't improved much, I don't know. I mean, we keep on the same level, but it (the classes with the NS) was good for us.

(NS group, student D6)

Not motivating or helpful

Doing exercises does not motivate, I don't know, getting in front of a computer doing exercises does not motivate to learn English.

(ICT group, student C7)

If I weren't motivated, she (the NS) would not motivate me.

(NS group, student C8)

Furthermore, the lack of a serious attitude of some classmates was mentioned by both groups. The ICT-intervention was considered by some students as not really interesting, entertaining or different from their normal class and two of them stated they felt the same with or without using computers. However, it should be highlighted that the percentage of the comments was rather low (2.9%).

With regard to the Learning Experience/Attitudes towards (learning) English as a foreign language related to students' habitual EFL classes, 12 categories were posited (all of them rather negative). There was only one positive idea expressed by a student from the ICT-group regarding the EFL teacher's attitude in class.

Table 22. Categorisation of the students' comments on learning experience: usual EFL classes

	Categories	ICT- group N=68	%	NS- group N=58	%
Negative	No speaking practice	16	23.5	17	29.3
	Repeating the same thing	16	23.5	8	13.8
	Boring	12	17.6	5	8.6
	The system/methodology should change	11	16.2	9	15.5
	Usual teacher's negative attitude	5	7.4	5	8.6
	School's language vs. real language	5	7.4	4	6.9
	More ICT needed, but used by students	4	5.9	3	5.2
	Grammar-centred and book-centred	3	4.4	4	6.9
	Too big groups	3	4.4		0.0
	More NS experience needed	1	1.5	4	6.9
	Usual teacher not good at pronunciation	1	1.5	2	3.4
	More interesting homework needed	1	1.5		0.0
	Positive	Usual teacher's positive attitude	1	1.5	
Total number of tokens		79		61	

As can be observed in Table 22, both the ICT-group and the NS-group made a similar amount of negative comments regarding their experience as learners of English in the EFL traditional school setting (79 vs. 61). The most recurrent theme was the lack of speaking practice offered by school and the little importance given to speaking at school, as compared to other skills (*No speaking practice*), repetitive tasks and topics each year, and even each class (*Repeating the same thing*), and the boredom resulting from it (*Boring*). The following examples illustrate these categories:

No speaking practice

Nobody speaks in class, it's tough...(…) If we are learning English, well you should speak in English, and Y(the usual teacher) doesn't let us speak (...).

(ICT group, student D11)

And since it's all theoretical, you don't learn, maybe if it were more practical...

(ICT group, student D13)

You don't learn to speak (...) we don't speak [in usual class].

(ICT group, student E4)

You spend all time doing grammar and these things, you don't work on vocabulary to speak and then, out of the blue, they make you an oral exam, and sure, if you have never spoken and the exam is oral...

(NS group, student E3)

Speaking should be given more importance, because grammar is important to speak well, but you have to get used to speaking, and, in the end, if you don't speak, you won't get used to it. And this is, in my view, instead of working on grammar this much, well, working on grammar is good, but speaking is important too.

(ICT group, student E4)

I think the teachers don't give importance to speaking as much as they should.

(ICT group, student E4)

Repeating the same thing

In class, we do always the same thing, it's very monotonous, always grammar, exercise, grammar, exercise...

(ICT group, student A8)

I can remember in the first year of secondary we worked on colours again, you work again on clothes, colours, whatever, it's always the same.

(ICT group, student E7)

That's what we do since the fourth grade (of secondary), but everything is the same, that's it, since primary education.

(ICT group, student D8)

The topics and contents we work on, we have been many years working on the same thing and we don't see any new things. (NS group, student C9)

Boring

I would change everything (...) I don't like anything. It's boring, you have to do the exercises in one minute, and they (the teachers) write down whether you have it done correctly, in this way you don't learn, you will just be copying from the other one to see if what she/he has is correct, to have yours correct somehow, so you don't learn anything. What's more, the readings are boring, the topics, why don't we work on topics which are now on TV or so, which are interesting for people our age? (ICT group, student D1)

Usual classes are very boring. (NS group, student C5)

The classes are only doing an exercise, correcting it, doing an exercise, correcting it...

(NS group, student E2)

It is not at all dynamic, and in the end, you are bored and you say, well, I switch off and that's it. (NS group, student E3)

Ineffective methods of teaching English at school were criticised by both groups, as grammar- and book-centred, and they reported usual teacher's negative attitude in class, calling for the change of the system/methodology. As a matter of fact, an opinion that *the system/methodology should change* was the fourth most recurrent comment among the students from the ICT-group and second among those from the NS-group. This seems to be the key issue, since the students acknowledge that despite having studied English for many years, they do not master it and they are not fluent enough in the actual use of the language. The extracts from students' comments serve as an example to these issues mentioned in the focus groups:

The system/methodology should change

I don't like the way in which grammar is worked on, instead of focusing on how the things should be used, loose phrases and the like, you don't, in this way you don't learn how to do it, maybe you know how to do it, but when you use it, you won't come up with the third conditional or I don't know (...) they are very strange examples, it isn't productive. (ICT group, student F4)

It's been sixteen years learning English, but I haven't learned much.

(ICT group, student D12)

They should change the methodology to work on these things, because we have been studying the same since we were kids, why don't they change the tenses, because there are seven verb tenses in English, we haven't work on more things (...) I mean working on it in a different way, because we have been studying this all our lives and we still don't know how to do it well.

(NS group, student E5)

That's it, how can it be that I have been studying English at school since I was little and don't have any idea about how to have a conversation.

(NS group, student E4)

I think the system should change.

(ICT group, student E5)

I think that to get skilled in English and to really learn it is not obligatory to do that many [grammar] exercises. There are other ways too.

(ICT group, student C7)

We are all [now] sitting around a table, we are together, and here in class we are separated, like this, like some sergeants, so, no. (ICT group, student D1)

For example, we never do exercises altogether, (...) I don't know, more dynamic activities or so, it's always in your place, separated from each other, and individually. (ICT group, student D14)

I think the system is the problem (...) in the end there is the A-level exam and they (the teachers) have to deliver a subject to pass the A-level exam and what they seek is to [make us] pass the A-level exam. (ICT group, student E5)

They (the teachers) are not aware, but maybe we learn more playing games and having fun than in the habitual way. They think reading, reading, and so we learn and maybe we get bored and we don't pay attention.

(NS group, student F3)

Grammar-centred and book-centred

And grammar. We always focus on grammar. (ICT group, student E5)

The exercises we do in class are only from the book.

(ICT group, student E4)

At school, we always work on grammar and this doesn't motivate to continue learning English. Because, I think English has more faces (sides), not only the grammar and at school we only focus on this area and it gets sometimes too boring.

(NS group, student D6)

It should also be highlighted that, curiously enough, although they find the EFL classes rather boring, a high percentage of students wishes to go on studying English. This is remarkable and may be attributed to the external pressure to learn English, represented by the parents, social pressure and future job perspectives, which resulted in the necessity of knowing English being perceived by students as undeniable. This in turn has seemingly become gradually assumed as part of their own internal motivation and vision of their future selves. Nevertheless, the students find their classes repetitive, too based on the textbook and focused on grammar, as could be observed during the first year at the high school, while the researcher observed their classes, an observation process that helped to triangulate and confirm the results obtained by means of the groups discussions. Therefore, there seems to be a dire need to change and update EFL teachers' methodology and teaching practices, which appears to be essential in students' opinion.

The participants were also unfavourable as far as the type of language taught or used in the school setting, dubbing it "school language" as opposed to "real" language. Some students from the ICT-group mentioned the big size of the groups as a stumbling block to the possibility of making any change to the teaching system. Some examples of the *Real language vs. "school language"* category mentioned by the students were the following:

Sometimes we learn English which is not heard on the streets.

(ICT group, student D10)

It is important, in life it's not about doing (...) activities, but knowing a little how to cope in a real situation. (ICT group, student C1)

We often have classes with the book and, well it's good to know grammar, but then when you (...) speak to somebody, the thing from the book is nothing, in the end what you need is to understand what you hear and to speak well.

(NS group, student B4)

Various students from both groups called for more ICT use, but manipulated by students and not by the teacher, as otherwise it becomes boring (4 and 3 comments, in the ICT and NS group, respectively), and not used as a mere substitution for traditional tools, with no functional change (Puentedura, 2010), as some of the participants complained: “[In normal class] we use the computer as if it were a book” (ICT group, student B1). On the other hand, they also emphasised the need for more opportunities of a NS's presence at school, as the usual teachers are not good models for pronunciation. The following quotes illustrate these concerns:

More NS experience/ICT use needed

[We need more time] (with ICT) If they (the teachers) want to work on grammar, there are exercises on the Internet too (...) since we use computers, we should use them for everything, to do “speaking” and written compositions, and also to practise grammar, above all to practise and not to deliver the theory, well the theory in normal class and practise on computers.

(ICT group, student C5)

[It would be better to] have [classes with NS] during the whole year, whole hour, in more levels, all weeks...

(NS group, student C4)

Usual teacher not good at pronunciation

I don't understand how a person with this kind of pronunciation is teaching [English] classes. (ICT group, student F5)

To learn well to speak and the pronunciation, they should give us a teacher who pronounces [well], you know, so that it can be noticed that he/she pronounces English well, not a Spanish-like English, which is what we speak and the one that Y (the usual teacher) speaks, but the one X (the NS) speaks, and so, for

example, you get used to Y, you understand her/him from the first moment, but then there comes an Englishman and starts talking to you and he tells you the same that Y told you, but you don't understand him, because you are used to being talked to as in Spanish. (NS group, student E5)

Even though issues related to pronunciation do not seem recurrent, there is certain concern about correct pronunciation among the students. However, although they did recognise the NS as a model of native pronunciation and “natural” English, they do not seem to believe they were positively affected as far as their own pronunciation is concerned. However, they do not always refer directly to pronunciation, but to fluency and “speaking” in general, which is why this question was mentioned among the advantages of having a NEST only a few times (in just 2 comments to be precise).

On the other hand, there were three categories, summarised in Table 23 below, which were proposed to be set apart, as they consisted of tokens referring to the use of ICT, but mentioned by the students from the NS-group. ICT was thus mentioned as a source of good English pronunciation models, yet this may not be necessarily attributable to the ICT intervention itself (even if some students refer to watching videos), since they mention music and movies as means of obtaining examples of a “native” pronunciation, but also short videos, which they did make use of in ICT-sessions (in ICT-group). Nevertheless, and surprisingly enough, it was the NS-group who made many comments on the necessity of increasing the educational use of ICT and their integration in the classrooms (14 tokens from NS-group in total, such as, “ICT serve for the methodology change”, “ICT are the source for varied authentic input”, or “ICT improves language skills”), as, for instance:

When you watch a BBC video you work on your listening skills, on pronunciation of some native English and this makes you improve and get used [to it]. (NS group, student B4)

I think if technology is to be used, it should be used to listen to real English accents which are so distant to us up to now. (NS group, student C3)

Table 23. NS-group's comments on possible advantages of the use of ICT

Categories	ICT-group N=68	%	NS-group N=58	%
ICT use for methodology change		0.0	7	12.1
ICT improves language skills		0.0	5	8.6
ICT source of varied authentic input		0.0	2	3.4
Total number of tokens				14

Even if they did not make use of ICT-mediated activities during their EFL classes, the NS-group students did admit the advantages of using technology in the FL learning process. It seems thus quite interesting, since it is the NS-group who also demands the presence of more ICT in their classes, which is quite telling *per se*.

All in all, the students were not very willing to give their opinion during the focus groups. However, although the overall number of qualitative comments is limited, it was deemed interesting to present a snapshot of what they mentioned when they did venture to talk about the topics elicited in the interviews.

Students' comments obtained in the qualitative part of the study underpin and flesh out the purely quantitative results with qualitative insights. In order to further understand why the differences between the groups were not significant, qualitative abstracts from both groups gain importance, as they show groups' similar dispositions, emotions and motivation towards both educational interventions. The qualitative data serve then as evidence for the fact that the two groups by and large went through parallel motivational processes.

6.3. Third research question

In order to assess the potential impact of the use of technologies in the EFL classroom on learners' attitudes towards ICT (RQ3), the latter were measured at different time points only in the ICT-group in order to longitudinally measure the impact of the technology-led intervention. It was hypothesised that the actual experience with classroom "hands-on" use of ICT would positively influence students' attitudes towards

the educational employment of technology, by showing its potential and usefulness for EFL activities.

As can be observed in Table 24 below, which summarises the means and standard deviations for the six ICT-related variables under scrutiny, overall, all the ICT-related means resulted favourable (averages above 3.4), apart from the factor ICT school access, which referred to the quality and the quantity of the school's ICT equipment, and which was the only one with rather neutral to rather negative answers (means between 2.9 and 2.5 on a five-point scale).

Table 24. Attitudes towards ICT. ICT-group's means of the six factors in the two time points (pre- and post-test)

Variables	Pre-test (N=77)		Post-test (N=62)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
ICT as a support for learning	3.62	.61	3.64	.61
ICT as means to improve English	3.44	.69	3.52	.84
ICT use in the classroom	3.61	.55	3.62	.60
ICT as means to improve skills and career	3.77	.67	3.60	.86
ICT school access	2.85	.82	2.53	.93
ICT use difficulties	3.62	.57	3.52	.62

No differences between the means in the pre-test and the post-test were found in the paired-samples *t*-tests for all six ICT-related attitudinal variables but one, *ICT school access*, which experimented a statistically significant decrease in the means from the pre-test ($M=2.85$, $SD=.82$) to the post-test [$M=2.53$, $SD=.93$, $t(61)=2.840$, $p=.006$]. The calculation of eta squared value (.12) indicated quite large effect size (Cohen, 1988). This may be due to the fact that the students were not very enthusiastic about the school's digital equipment (its quality and quantity) before the ICT-intervention, and resulted disenchanted with it after experiencing an actual use of it in their EFL classes.

Figure 24 below illustrates the means of the ICT-group for the six ICT-related attitudinal scales: *ICT as a support for learning*, *ICT as means to improve English*, *ICT use in the classroom*, *ICT as means to improve skills and career*, *ICT school access*, and *ICT use difficulties* at the two time points, pre-test and post-test, respectively. The only significant decrease observed is marked on the figure with a red arrow.

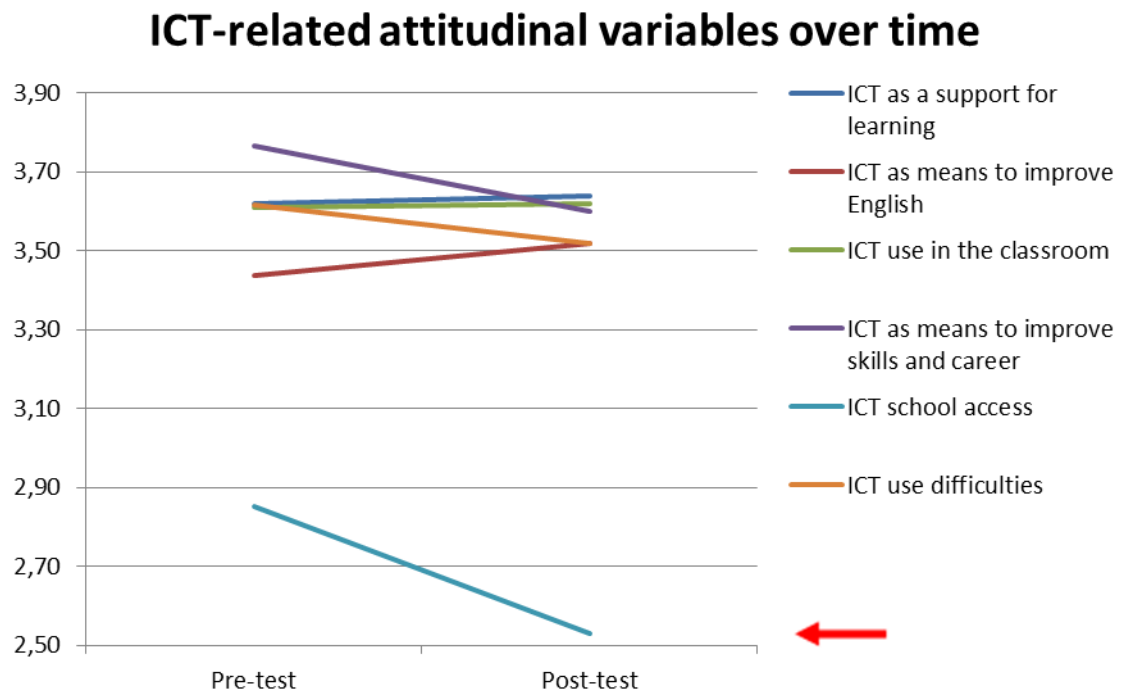


Figure 24. Attitudes towards ICT. ICT-group's means of the six factors in the pre-test and the post-test

Further analyses (*t*-tests) were conducted to determine possible differences between males and females in the ICT-group in these variables in both time points, although they did not reach any statistical significance, as displayed in Table 25 below.

Table 25. *T*-test comparisons between males' and females' means for the ICT-related attitudinal variables in the pre-test and the post-test, respectively

Pre-test						
	Gender	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
ICT as a support for learning	Female	48	3.63	0.58	.230	ns
	Male	29	3.60	0.68		
ICT as means to improve English	Female	48	3.47	0.66	.455	ns
	Male	29	3.39	0.76		
ICT use in the classroom	Female	48	3.69	0.49	1.800	ns
	Male	29	3.47	0.62		
ICT as means to improve skills and career	Female	48	3.72	0.65	-.796	ns
	Male	29	3.84	0.71		
ICT school access	Female	48	2.88	0.85	.332	ns
	Male	29	2.81	0.80		
ICT use difficulties	Female	48	3.64	0.61	.467	ns
	Male	29	3.58	0.51		
Post-test						
	Gender	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
ICT as a support for learning	Female	39	3.53	0.63	-1.850	ns
	Male	23	3.83	0.55		
ICT as means to improve English	Female	39	3.41	0.92	-1.364	ns
	Male	23	3.71	0.66		
ICT use in the classroom	Female	39	3.57	0.58	-.828	ns
	Male	23	3.70	0.64		
ICT as means to improve skills and career	Female	39	3.49	0.95	-1.407	ns
	Male	23	3.80	0.67		
ICT school access	Female	39	2.67	0.96	1.502	ns
	Male	23	2.30	0.85		
ICT use difficulties	Female	39	3.49	0.51	-.372	ns
	Male	23	3.55	0.77		

ns – not significant

Akin to between-gender comparisons which revealed no significant difference between male and female students (cf. Table 25), within-gender comparison paired-samples *t*-tests revealed no significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test means for female and male students, respectively, except for the variable *ICT school access* which decreased significantly for male students from the pre-test ($M=2.81$, $SD=.80$) to the post-test [$M=2.30$, $SD=.85$, $t(22)=-4.128$, $p<.001$]. The calculation of eta squared value (.44) indicated large effect size (Cohen, 1988). This result suggests that the disillusion of male students with the school's equipment after the ICT intervention was such, that it was the cause of the significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test means of *ICT school access* variable found for the whole group.

6.4. Qualitative data on the importance of English for ICT use and students' digital experience

Both ICT-group and NS-group's students were asked about their beliefs on the importance and relevance of English for the use of ICT during their focus-groups interviews. Table 26 summarises 6 categories (4 positive and 2 negative) proposed to organise their comments (see Appendix 8 for an explanation of the categories).

Table 26. Categorisation of the students' comments on the Importance of English for ICT use

Positive categories	ICT-group <i>N</i> =68	%	NS-group <i>N</i> =58	%
More info in ENG, better access	7	10.3	13	22.4
More videos, programmes and tools only in ENG	5	7.4	3	5.2
Easier to speak via ICT in writing than face-to-face	2	2.9		0.0
Better communication on Internet forums		0.0	1	1.7
Total	14		17	

Table 26. (continued) Categorisation of the students' comments on the Importance of English for ICT use

Negative categories	ICT-group <i>N</i> =68	%	NS-group <i>N</i> =58	%
ENG not necessary for Internet	1	1.5	1	1.7
Not used to ICT in general	1	1.5		0.0
Total	2		1	

Both groups made a similar amount of comments. However, the percentages of the categories are not too high. This could be explained by the fact that students do not use English much outside the school context and therefore they do not see the need of using it to engage with technology-mediated actions. Above all, the comments considered knowing English as crucial to access to more information on the Internet, as well as to understand videos or use more tools and software, while only one student from each group explicitly stated it is not necessary. Two students from the ICT group mentioned that it is easier to communicate in English via ICT than face-to-face.

Additionally, the ICT-group was asked about their digital experience after the ICT-intervention. The categories (5 positive and 3 negative) posited to summarise their comments are presented in Table 27. However, in general, the percentages are very low.

Table 27. Categorisation of the students' comments on the project classes and digital experience (ICT-group only, *N*=68)

	Categories	N° of tokens	%
Positive	Blog novelty	7	10.3
	Liked information search on the Internet	3	4.4
	Useful websites	1	1.5
	Teacher as guide with Internet	1	1.5
	Different (than usual) use of ICT in the project classes	1	1.5
Total		13	

Table 27. (continued) Categorisation of the students' comments on the project classes and digital experience (ICT-group only, N=68)

	Categories	N° of tokens	%
Negative	Disliked blogs, difficulties	5	7.4
	Very basic ICT, nothing new	3	4.4
	Project not useful to improve digital skills	2	2.9
Total		10	

Among the positive ideas mentioned by the students, we can find the blog being a novelty (7 comments), since it was something they might not have known and now have learned to manage. Nevertheless, it seems at the same time the thing they disliked and had some difficulties with its use, especially as far as writing on the blogs is concerned (5 comments), as indicated by one of the students: “Me, for example, I didn’t see the point, a blog (...) I saw it very difficult to write on the blog” (ICT group, student E5).

It seems that they have enjoyed the Web-based information search, some useful websites visited during the class, and appreciated a different use of ICT during their project sessions, and the guiding role of the teacher with the Internet search, as illustrated by the following quotations from a student’s comment on *Different (than usual) use of ICT in the project classes*: “Not with X [the NNS] but in other classes if we use the computer [the usual teacher] shows how the grammar should be, like in a book, on a screen, so it’s the same” (ICT group, student B1) and *Teacher as guide with the Internet*: “But this is not always correct, because the Internet is not always reliable, but if you have a teacher to tell you: this is not like that, you need to search for it here, it’s helpful” (ICT group, student D8).

On the other hand, some students stated the ICT used were very basic and not new to them, and two said the project was not useful to improve their digital skills. But still, the percentages are very low. It may be the case that they still see the use of ICT as just another tool to work on English and they would be happier only if they could choose what to work on as Henry (2013) found out in Sweden. It seems that a key issue is that they need to be more autonomous and if the use of ICT is guided by the teacher, they do not enjoy it as much as if they could make their own decisions.

These findings are partially in line with Armstrong and Retterer's (2008) who observed in their study on using blogs that students preferred working with ICT to traditional materials. Contrary to the participants of that study, who preferred blogging to traditional writing tasks, the students of the present study did not enjoy it and experienced some difficulties in typing, an issue they found demotivating. This was also reported by Wong and Hew (2010) who found that some of their participants experienced difficulties in using blogs due to their limited typing ability, which, however, did not influence their motivation, unlike the participants of the present study, on whom it does seem to exert a negative effect. This appears to confirm that the mere incorporation of technology is not enough, the lack of success with the use of the blog being a very good case in point.

Teachers should be aware of the existing possibility of the use of technologies in class turning out to be frustrating for students (because of problems with software and/or hardware) and being a distraction from learning task (Golonka *et al.*, 2014) or, in some cases, not at all useful simply because of the lack of students' abilities to make optimal use of online resources for learning (Li *et al.*, 2015).

6.5. Students' written and oral production mean scores' analysis

In this section we will focus on the oral and written productions of the participants, since they were tested on those skills in order to determine whether the educational interventions (ICT and NS) resulted advantageous for their academic performance. It seems that females from both groups were better at writing than males from their respective groups at the post-test, and, conversely, males from both groups performed better than their female counterparts in post-test oral presentations, as it can be seen in their mean scores displayed in Table 28, although these differences were not statistically significant.

Table 28. Written and oral production mean scores of the females and males from both groups in the pre-test and the post-test

Variables	Group	Gender	Pre-test			Post-test		
			<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Written task's mean scores	ICT-group	Female	48	6.24	1.05	36	6.50	0.73
		Male	29	6.56	0.69	21	6.33	0.83
	NS-group	Female	47	6.04	1.35	35	6.66	0.89
		Male	22	5.96	1.10	14	6.36	1.23
Oral presentations' mean scores	ICT-group	Female	47	6.64	1.30	39	7.50	1.23
		Male	29	6.25	1.58	21	7.63	1.08
	NS-group	Female	46	8.83	1.51	36	7.76	1.02
		Male	23	6.91	1.64	18	8.12	1.55

Two-way between-groups analysis of covariance was conducted to assess the effect of the two interventions on written and oral English achievement for male and female participants. The independent variables were the type of group (ICT-group and NS-group) and gender. The dependent variable was average scores on written and oral productions obtained by the students following the completion of the intervention programme (post-test). The participants' mean scores of written and oral productions prior to the commencement of the intervention (pre-test) were used as a covariate to control for individual differences. The ANCOVA was carried out separately for the two types of production tasks described previously.

No differences were found between the two groups. Table 29 below summarises the main findings from the two-way ANCOVA analyses by presenting the non-significant *p*-values and small effect sizes found in the comparisons of the ICT-group with the NS-group.

Table 29. Summary of the two-way ANCOVA analyses of the written and oral production scores (pre-test vs. post-test)

Variables	Main effects	<i>F</i> (1,101)	<i>p</i>	Effect size³
Writings' mean scores	Group	.805	.372	.008
	Gender	1.848	.177	.018
	Group*gender	.013	.909	.000
Variables	Main effects	<i>F</i> (1,109)	<i>p</i>	Effect size³
Oral presentations' mean scores	Group	.332	.566	.003
	Gender	2.435	.122	.022
	Group*gender	.004	.948	.000

³Partial eta squared

After adjusting for pre-test production scores, there was no significant interaction effect of group and gender on post-test written and oral production scores. Likewise, neither of the main effects were found statistically significant (c.f. Table 29). All the effect sizes were small (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, it seems that neither of the two educational interventions resulted more beneficial than the other for students' language achievement, since the results obtained by both groups were comparable.

6.6. Summary of the results

In sum, no significant difference in the motivation of the students who used technologies in their EFL classroom and the ones who had classes with a native English speaker were revealed by the analyses (RQ1) and their motivation was sustained over time. This finding is important because studies show that students' motivation tend to decrease around this age-range (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002 and Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006; Henry, 2009). Likewise, gender was not found to have any influence on students' Motivational L2 Self System in both groups (ICT and NS), except for the Ought-to L2 Self, where males from both groups exhibited significantly higher means than females (RQ2). In general, the participants displayed a relatively high Ideal L2 Self, with means ranging, on a five-point scale, from 3.3 to 3.5 at the pre-test and 3.5-

3.7 in the case of the post-test. The Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation was quite high (means range 3.6-3.7 vs. 3.5-3.7), whereas the Instrumentality-prevention turned out to be rather neutral (2.9-3.1 vs. 2.9-3.3). Students' Ought-to L2 Self was found to be rather low (2.4-2.9 at the pre-test and 2.4-3.1 at the post-test), although male students showed significantly higher Ought-to L2 Self than females in both testing times. Attitudes towards learning English among the participants were rather neutral (2.8-3.1 vs. 2.9-3.2), while attitudes towards English as foreign language can be regarded as quite positive (3.5-3.6 vs. 3.5-3.6). These two variables hardly experienced any variation over time.

With regard to the effect of the use of technologies in the EFL classroom on learners' attitudes towards ICT (RQ3), no difference of students' disposition towards technology after employing it during their English classes was revealed in the analysis, with the exception of *ICT school access* variable, which experienced a significant decrease from rather neutral attitude (2.9) to a negative one (2.5), partly due to male students' means' downturn at the post-test. Overall, apart from the aforementioned variable, the participants' attitudes resulted favourable, with means in all ICT-related scales ranging from 3.4-3.8 in the pre-test and 3.5-3.6 on the post-test.

No differences were found between the two groups (ICT and NS) regarding their written and oral production.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study was intended to shed light on the question of whether there was any significant difference in the motivation of Basque high school students who experienced two different educational interventions. Potential differences between genders were also looked into, as they may have played an influential role on students' motivation in both groups, as previous studies confirm (Henry, 2009; Henry and Cliffordson, 2013; You and Dörnyei, 2016). Last but not least, this study sought to address the issue concerning the possible positive effect of the use of technologies in the EFL classroom on learners' attitudes towards ICT.

The analysis of L2 Self/EFL-related variables revealed no significant difference in the motivation of the students who used technologies in their EFL classroom and were led by a non-NEST, and the ones who had classes with a NEST (RQ1), when the pre-existing differences (i.e. pre-test means) were controlled for. Thus, the initial hypothesis that no difference will be found between the two interventions' influence on learners' self-concepts and other motivational variables was borne out.

There were several salient patterns observed in the data. Students' rather high Ideal L2 Self, found in both the pre-test (means' range 3.3-3.5) and the post-test (3.5-3.7) suggests that they had rather positive self-image as English speakers. Similar results were reported by Brady (2015), whose participants' Ideal L2 Self reached a mean of 3.75. This is very good news and concurs with the qualitative data which revealed that the students would like to go on studying English despite finding the traditional EFL class tedious and too focused on the textbook and revolving around repetitive grammar exercises. The pedagogical implication would be that the combination of ICT and NEST may help to maintain students' motivation, especially at an age when they tend to feel demotivated and start to feel "disenchanted with school" in general and frustrated as to classroom-based foreign language learning in particular, as suggested by Henry (2009). The overall attitudes to English were favourable from the start, which is in line with Henry's (2009) findings; however, contrary to his study's sample, in the present data analysis no differences were found between male and female students, and their attitudes towards the EFL and its learning process were maintained over time. These findings tally with those of the Hungarian context, in which students' favourable

disposition to learning English was sustained as time went by, while attitudes towards other FLs gradually diminished (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006).

On the other hand, the participants' Ought to L2 Self was the scale with the lowest means, similarly to the fact reported in previous studies (Brady, 2015; Lasagabaster, 2016; You and Dörnyei, 2016). This finding is also in line with Brady (2015), who found a rather insignificant role of the Ought-to L2 Self among her participants (a mean of 1.43), which, as she suggested, may be accounted for the process of internalising the external incentives to learn English by students, resulting in a possible alignment of the motives normally related to the Ought-to L2 Self domain with students' own ideal self-concept (see also Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Henry, 2009). In the present research, all the students showed low means for the Ought-to L2 Self dimension, in both the pre-test (averages between 2.4 and 2.9) and the post-test (between 2.4 and 3.1); they were not, however, as low as the ones reported in Brady's (2015) study. Nevertheless, the possible age effect should be taken into account, as in secondary education, the Ought-to self-concept tends to be low, but this is even more so at university level in which Brady (2015) undertook her study (see also Lasagabaster, 2016). Students' low Ought-to L2 Self found in the sample tallies with the phenomenon observed by Lasagabaster (2016), who found the parental support to play a significant role in students' motivation, although a simultaneous low Ought-to L2 Self suggests that even if the students may be encouraged by their parents to study English or through English, they do not regard it as a determinant extrinsic motive influencing their learning behaviour. This seems to be the case also among high school students, and, moreover, it was also confirmed by students' comments in the focus groups, since they referred to the parental encouragement and support more often than they mentioned the sense of parental obligation related to learning English. It can thus be concluded that in the Spanish context the Ideal L2 Self plays a much more remarkable role than the Ought-to Self, especially as students get older (Brady, 2015; Lasagabaster, 2016).

The second hypothesis, according to which no gender differences on the motivational scales would be revealed, was in part confirmed, which is in line with Lasagabaster (2016) and partially contrary to Henry (2009) and You and Dörnyei (2016). Gender was only found to have a significant influence on the Ought-to L2 Self domain, with male students' means being significantly higher than female students', regardless of which

group they were part of (RQ2). This finding at the same time also partially corresponds to You and Dörnyei's (2016) investigation, in which males showed higher means in this particular dimension concerning societal expectations (Ought-to L2 Self and Parental Expectations), contrary to a robust gender-disparity trend found with females scoring significantly higher than males in all remaining dimensions. This may be explained by a stronger perception among the male students who participated in the present project as something they ought to do or are expected to do, a sense of duty which appears not as evident or salient among female students. What is more, after the learning experience of either having classes with NEST or with a non-NEST and using ICT for English learning, male students seem concerned about the more external motives (parents, social pressure) to a greater extent which leads them to an undeniable must of being proficient in English in today's world.

When the sample was taken as a whole, the results seemed to indicate that the participants did not consider the external factors and society's pressure to learn English determinant. However, once gender was considered, male students' responses were found to differ significantly from those of females. As suggested by You and Dörnyei (2016), such consistent trend of male learners showing higher correlation of the Ought-to L2 Self with the determination to learn English may point to the fact that EFL male learners tend to be more affected by external societal expectations than their female counterparts (see also Dörnyei and Chan, 2013).

A similar effect was reported by Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) who observed that males tend to have a higher Ought-to L2 Self while the Ideal L2 self stood out among females, although the CLIL experience seemed to blur the motivational differences between genders. Thus, the learning environment and experience related to FLL, which is the third component of Dörnyei's framework (2005, 2009) turns out to markedly influence students' motivation. In the present study, the not significant gender difference among ICT and NS groups in students' Ideal L2 Self may suggest that students might feel equally motivated by either ICT use or the presence of a NS. On the other hand, male students' Ought-to L2 Self seem to strengthen in both interventions and such intensifying effect of the learning experience has also been found among CLIL students (Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015). Since the students' ideal self-image as a successful FL user is considered the most powerful predictor of (foreign) language-related motivated behaviour, these results should be taken into account in FL teaching

practices, as male learners, who tend to be less motivated to learn a foreign language (Brady, 2015; Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006; Henry, 2009; Williams, Burden and Lanvers, 2002) seem to be positively affected by such educational interventions as the ones described in this PhD thesis (ICT or NS), or others, such as CLIL (Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015). In the latter study, the subject taught in CLIL was physical education, a subject traditionally enjoyed by males, which may have influenced male learners' motivation, and consequently their achievement levels. However, in the case of the present study, even though the interventions were part of students' regular EFL course, a more female-prone school subject (Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006; Williams, Burden and Lanvers, 2002), they still seem to exert a positive effect on males. It thus appears fundamental to advocate for an inclusion of such learning experiences in FL classes, as the practical use of ICT –when contact with a NS or CLIL sessions are not possible– turns out to be an effective means to improve males' motivation towards FLL. The present study's results seem to suggest that, in regular EFL classes, ICT-intervention may motivate male learners to the same degree as classes with an NS would.

As to the students' digital skills, regardless of the frequency with which the students used technology, the participants seemed quite “digital natives” (Prensky, 2001), since they perceived themselves as being rather digitally skilled. However, there was a mismatch observed between the private and educational technology use as the students reported a gap between the use of ICT for leisure and its application to the benefit of learning (Kennedy *et al.*, 2009).

The experience with classroom use of ICT was expected to exert a positive influence on students' attitudes towards the educational employment of technology, since, as suggested by Warschauer (1996b), there is a potential reciprocal relationship between possessing more knowledge and experience with technology and holding a favourable disposition towards it. However, this initial hypothesis was not confirmed by the results, as the use of technologies in the EFL classroom was not found to have a significant positive effect on learners' attitudes towards ICT (RQ3). In fact, in the case of *ICT school access* variable, male students' means experimented a significant decline from the pre-test to the post-test. This unexpected result may be accounted for by the rather neutral attitude becoming a gradual disillusionment of males from the ICT group with

the school's digital equipment, which is not very cutting-edge, probably in comparison to the quality of technology they may have access to out of school.

The starting point of this study was the widespread belief that the integration of technology in EFL classes (considered crucial in the twenty-first century as being a proficient user of ICT has become one of the elemental skills) may act as a necessary stimulus to boost learners' motivation (Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez, 2014; Cantos, 1994; Martínez-Rico, 2006; Pérez-Torres, 2005) and their Ideal L2 Self. In general, favourable attitudes towards ICT were found in the study, as the students regarded ICT as useful in order to improve their results in English, to understand the subject matters more deeply, and to learn more (*ICT as a support for learning*), as well as to improve their EFL skills (*ICT as means to improve English*). In addition, technologies were considered as a factor making the classes more interesting, improving the learning process, and a valid means and assistance for classroom activities (*ICT use in the classroom*). Moreover, ICT classroom use was considered to give a boost to students' digital skills in general, as well as their future career or employment prospects (*ICT as means to improve skills and career*), however, the latter was not entirely confirmed by the qualitative data, as some detracting comments regarding the use of rather basic technology appeared in the interviews. In any case, even if some critical attitude can be observed as far as the school's ICT equipment's accessibility and quality are concerned (*ICT school access*), the possible difficulties encountered during the use of technologies in the English class, or lack of ICT training (*ICT use difficulties*) did not affect their overall positive mindset.

These results are in line with the research in the field, as students were fond of the use of computers for classroom activities (Doiz *et al.* 2014), and appreciated the experience of interacting with ICT in learning environment (Ipiña 2012; Siragusa and Dixon 2009). It seems that the enjoyment of using technology in EFL learning over more "traditional" methods and materials engages the learners more intensively in the very process of learning, and can improve their attitude towards learning as such, in accordance with what Golonka *et al.* (2014) noted in a recent review study. However, it has to be mentioned that more research is needed to determine the effectiveness of ICT-mediated activities or the motivational potential attributed to them on students' actual FL learning outcomes.

Likewise, since no significant differences were found between students' attitudes at the outset and at the end of the project, it can be affirmed that the generally favourable posture was maintained as time went by, a rather telling result on its own as students' motivation tends to decline once the novelty wears off, that is, once the so-called "novelty effect" (Clark, 1983; Hew and Cheung, 2013; Prince, 2004) vanishes. However, the ICT intervention contributed to keeping students' interest in the use of ICT alive throughout the year-and-a-half-long intervention, despite a few negative comments found in the case of some students in the qualitative part of the study.

The key issue which appeared in the qualitative data is that students' EFL experience so far has been rather discouraging. Above all, the students criticised ineffective methods of teaching English at school and the lack of speaking practice, calling for an urgent need of methodology change. It should also be highlighted that, curiously enough, although they find the EFL classes rather tedious, a high percentage of students wishes to carry on studying English, once it is no longer obligatory for them, which seems reflected in their rather high Ideal L2 Selves and the general favourable frame of mind with regard to learning English. These remarkable findings point to the fact that learning English has become a must in our society and therefore has been assumed by the students as part of their future selves, in accordance with results found in many other diverse contexts (Brady, 2015; Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Henry, 2009). However, even though the extent to which it might be attributed to the two interventions cannot be precisely pinpointed, students' positive disposition to the foreign language was sustained over time, contrary to the trend usually observed in formal FL instructional settings (Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006; Henry, 2009; Williams, Burden and Lanvers, 2002).

What is more, the students deemed their classes repetitive, too based on the textbook and focused on grammar, which is why the need to change and update EFL teachers' methods and teaching practices appears to be fundamental. It seems that in this setting such innovation as ICT-supported learning or the contact with an NS (when possible) may drive this kind of necessary change of "the system" emphasised by students, as it may exert a positive effect on their motivation and maintain their disposition to learn English while fighting back students' feeling of EFL learning being inefficient. Irrespective of the project's experience, the students, including those from the NS-group, advocated for more presence of technology and more "hands-on" ICT use in the

EFL classroom and also more presence of an NS. Even the NS-group students showed awareness of the advantages of technology use in their FL learning process. In addition, both groups acknowledged the necessity of a varied native input, which may be provided by either an NS or through technologies, in order to reach beyond the “school language” used typically in formal instruction. They did seem concerned about pronunciation and the scarcity of good models of “natural” FL speech at school. However, they often broadly referred to it as “speaking”, and both the NS and ICT were considered as means to model their English pronunciation, yet this is not necessarily attributable to the ICT intervention or NS’s presence experience alone. Strikingly, even though the students from both groups made several comments about their respective interventions being helpful to improve their oral skills (a few of them mentioned listening skills too), only one student (from the ICT-group) referred to the writing skills. It seems that the students noticed no impact of either of the interventions on their written communication skills, even if they did practice writing in English during their project sessions. This may be due to the fact that both groups viewed the interaction with ICT and the non-NEST or with the NEST primarily as the longed-for opportunity to practice English orally, so often neglected during their habitual EFL classes.

In the same vein, the technology-mediated classroom may be the way to support the much needed NS-NNS team-teaching approach (Dafouz and Hibler, 2013; Lasagabaster and Sierra 2002, 2005a, 2005b; Medgyes, 2014) in mainstream educational settings such as the Basque one, where contact with English and its speakers (both in and out of school) is restricted. More classroom-integrated use of digital support may be the means to cater for students’ need of good pronunciation and “speaking” models as their EFL proficiency improves, and a way to enable them to get acquainted with and benefit from the exposition to a broader variety of English accents (Moussu and Llurda, 2008). This is especially worth considering when the combination of NS and NNS teachers for all EFL groups is impossible, as is currently the case in the Spanish education system in general and the Basque education system in particular.

Furthermore, Brady (2015) and Mackay (2015) observe that an important source of motivation for adult EFL learners in Spain is their perception of enjoyment in class, the amusement factor. This seems to be relevant in the case of the present study as well, as indicated by the students from both educational interventions in the qualitative data. The “fun-factor”, as Brady (2015: 283) suggests, could in fact be “a by-product” of students’

negative past learning experiences, which may be reflected in the present study's participants' numerous negative comments on their usual EFL classes. Positive learning experience seems crucial, as it may sustain the motivation of learners with not very well-developed or strong L2 self-concept (Brady, 2015; Kormos and Csizér, 2008). Such general "fun factor" usually associated with the use of ICT in classroom setting, and borne out in the qualitative data of the ICT-group in the present study, should not be overlooked in EFL classrooms, as it contributes to pupils' positive learning experience (European Commission, 2013). This may in turn increase (or sustain, as in the case of the present study) their motivation to foreign language learning (Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez, 2014; Cantos, 1994; Martínez-Rico, 2006; Pérez-Torres, 2005), which may influence more those students who are initially less motivated to learn English, as suggested by Cantos (1994).

Nevertheless, the presence of a NS in the EFL classroom may also contribute to students' motivation (Chun, 2014; see also Árva and Medgyes, 2000) and this claim is supported by the qualitative data from the focus groups conducted among the students from the NS-group, since they regarded the experience of having classes with the NS as entertaining and positive. Thus, the enjoyment factor resulting either from the NS-intervention or the ICT-intervention should also be taken into account by educational stakeholders.

In fact, either the presence of a NEST or, in his/her absence, the "fun factor" related to the use of ICT could serve as a spark for a term/course-level individual or group DMC (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2014). As a matter of fact, students' sustained motivation revealed in the results may be a reflection of such directed motivational surge, associated with the project intervention (both the ICT and NS), however, more data would be needed to investigate this kind of phenomena among the sample.

It may be suggested that little time was devoted to both educational interventions, NEST vs. technology-based classes with a non-NEST (1 out of 3 sessions of English weekly classes), and that this possibly limited their effect on students' motivation. Nevertheless, the interventions did not go unnoticed, as a matter of fact, students from both groups mentioned that they would have liked to have more time allocated to their implementation. Furthermore, the analysis of students' comments in the focus groups could lead us to conclude that the impact of the interventions was somehow overridden by the dominant compound of the course, so that the ICT intervention element did not

carry sufficient weight relative to the whole course. Nonetheless, one session per week is a rather fair deal for such interventions; moreover, this argument also applies to the native teacher-led element, since the NS-group's students' contact with the NS was exactly the same. The implementation of the intervention one session per week means that approximately from 17% (during the first year) up to 33% of the class time during the second year of the duration of the project (32 weeks in total over the period of one academic year and a half) was devoted to the experience, far beyond many other interventions reported in the literature (Armstrong and Retterer 2008; Bueno-Alastuey and López-Pérez, 2014; Hsu, 2013; Hsu and Wang, 2011; Ipiña, 2012; Martínez-Rico, 2006; Oberg and Daniels, 2013; Siragusa and Dixon, 2009; Wong and Hew, 2010).

All in all, it seems that there was a parallel effect of both educational interventions. The picture revealed in the data analysis is quite clear and straightforward, as from the students' point of view it did not make any difference whether the additional educational intervention class was computer-based and led by a non-NEST or delivered by a NEST. The contrast between the two interventions did not bring any significant difference to light.

Moreover, the analysis of the qualitative data obtained via focus groups recordings of both groups (ICT-group and NS-group) seems to reject the limited time explanation (few negative comments referred to this issue) and to support the second possibility, namely the parallel effect of both interventions. The students systematically emphasize the positive motivational boost offered by both interventions, since they mentioned they felt more comfortable in these classes, while the sessions were perceived as different from the usual EFL routine, more entertaining, interesting, motivating and dynamic. Both interventions were thus regarded as a positive learning experience. Therefore, it may be concluded that, in those educational contexts where there is limited or even no possibility of falling back on NESTs, technology can help to boost students' motivation and keep them interested in the English as a foreign language class (Hsu, 2013).

In this mixed-methods research, the qualitative data is the decisive factor, as they allow us to shed light on the more complete picture of students' motivation and attitudes, and explain the importance of the non-significant results obtained in the quantitative analysis, including the lack of gender-related differences. These results thus seem to confirm Ushioda's (2009) call for qualitative data that help to avoid the depersonalization of the language learning process, while at the same time defining and

delimiting relevant contextual characteristics in students' surrounding environment (Ushioda, 2015). The recurrent conclusion to be drawn from the qualitative analysis is that this again indicates that the ICT-group data echoes the NS-group data, as they show exactly the same patterns. Thus, both the quantitative and the qualitative results point in the same direction and, we believe, allow us to arrive at robust conclusions.

The results indicate that the effect of both interventions is similar, which suggests a successful creation of a virtual learning environment to compensate for the lack of contact with any native English speaker in the technology group, that is, to counterbalance the motivational drive and positive learning experience that may be boosted by the presence of a NS in class. The presence of a NEST and a non-NEST but supported by ICT did not show any significant difference according to the students under scrutiny in this study. The addition of a NS assistant to an English language course is usually regarded as a “bonus” and a motivating factor, an opinion shared by students (Chun, 2014; see also Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2014) and teachers (Árva and Medgyes, 2000; see also Medgyes, 1994). The NEST is a longed-for option, especially as students get older and more proficient (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2002, 2005a, 2005b; see also Watson Todd and Pojanapunya, 2009), because it is believed that their presence will help to develop students' speaking abilities in general and their basic interpersonal communicative skills in particular. Nevertheless, even if the NSs tend to use English much more frequently than other EFL teachers (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009), the coordination between the main EFL teachers and language assistants in the classroom is rather scarce, the latter acting mainly as foreign language and cultural informants (Dafouz and Hibler, 2013), as was the case of the present study and observed at the school by the researcher at the initial stage of the project. However, in EFL contexts such as Spain, the presence of trained NSs available for schools is not generalised and in many schools this possibility is beyond reach. In such contexts, technology can help to substitute the presence of NSs and provide learners with access to more real language learning environments, which eventually helps to maintain students' motivation (Stockwell, 2013).

We believe that this is one of the main conclusions to be drawn from this study, especially at a time when the economic downturn has forced many education authorities to have to limit their resources, including NESTs to foster foreign language learning. Since studies in many different parts of the world (Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei and

Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006; Henry, 2009; Williams, Burden and Lanvers, 2002) indicate that students tend to show a motivational decline as time goes by, the use of ICT or, even better (if possible), the combination of ICT and NEST interventions may help to overcome this motivational hurdle and even lead to triggering a DMC (Dörnyei, Henry and Muir, 2016; Dörnyei, Ibrahim and Muir, 2015; Dörnyei, Muir and Ibrahim, 2014).

The results of the study do not fully corroborate the impact of the use of ICT on English-related and technology-related motivational and attitudinal variables, contrary to what was initially expected. A possible explanation for these results could be that the students exhibited already favourable attitudes towards ICT and a rather positive self-image as “ideal” speakers of English, as shown by the means on the *Ideal L2 Self* and *Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation* scales. In this case, we could put forward additional ways of implementing the use of ICT to make it more successful, such as more thorough and systematic integration of technology use in the EFL curriculum, with students’ “hands-on” experience with a wider range of devices, specific applications and software. Moreover, we should also underscore that the mere implementation of ICT is not the panacea and does not seem to automatically enhance students’ motivation (Cantos; 1994; Fitzpatrick, 2004; Kern, 2014). In fact, the analysis of the data of the study indicates that despite students’ positive attitudes towards ICT, the results are not as positive as may have been expected. It seems that allowing for a greater learners’ autonomy could be the key to increase their motivation (Ushioda, 2009) via technology-mediated activities. This idea is reflected in the students’ comments of what they liked best in their ICT-intervention. It results that what they enjoyed the most was using videos (self-paced viewing) and the opportunity of choosing the topic for further tasks (written and oral) from a range of possibilities. It appears that ICT may allow them to feel a greater sense of “autonomy” and this motivates them. More autonomy in the EFL classroom may thus enable more person-in-context view of motivation leading to a greater engagement of learners’ identities in the process of language learning (Ushioda, 2009, 2015).

Last but not least, the similarity and outstanding parallelisms between the quantitative and the qualitative results serve as a reassurance about the validity of our interpretation. Similarly, the parallelisms of students’ responses to both the questionnaires and the

issues dealt with in the discussion groups at different points in time serve to underpin the reliability of the instruments used in this study.

CHAPTER 8: PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The setting for this project was a convenience sample of high school students, although all of them participated in the study, and the specific context (Basque EFL learners) may not allow to generalise the findings in relation to other settings. Nevertheless, the results do reveal some considerable points for foreign language teachers hesitating whether or not to integrate ICT in their classrooms.

Our results indicate that ICT use may have a parallel motivational effect on the learners as the presence of a NS, regardless of their gender, and in the case of males it may contribute to strengthening their extrinsic motives to learn English (Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015). The analysis of the data allows us to put forward pedagogical implications in favour of the ICT integration in the classroom to support foreign language learning, which is why ICT inclusion in the school curriculum should be given greater consideration. Moreover, even though students' gains in language achievement cannot be directly ascribed to the use of technology, the ICT-intervention was not found to be any hindrance to students' English language achievement, nor was the experience with the NEST.

Last but not least, we would like to highlight that, although much has been written about the use of ICT at school (Delgado *et al.*, 2015; Golonka *et al.*, 2014), the review of the literature and this study reveal that this is not common practice in high schools (at least when it comes to the EFL class). Since our results seem to indicate that the use of technology and authentic materials can have a positive impact on sustaining students' motivation, which can be, in the light of the present study's results, considered similar to that of classes with a NS, both pre-service and in-service teacher training courses should aim at fostering the use of ICT in the foreign language classroom.

The school's teachers were positive about the ICT-based project. Due to their professional commitments, they do not usually have time to prepare such interventions themselves, which is why it is worth considering that ready-to-use proposals of technology-led activities or units of work should be developed and made available to teachers so that they are more likely to embark on a similar experience. In addition, training courses on digital skills and the practical use of the broad possibilities offered by specific applications or software in ELT should be provided. The administration, as

pointed out in the literature review, usually makes the effort to furnish schools with computers, but teachers usually complain about the lack of training to make use of this powerful tool. The successful implementation of ICT is not a straightforward task and, therefore, teacher training becomes indispensable (Bueno-Alastuey and Kleban, 2016; Cabanillas, 2008, February 13; Gallardo del Puerto and Gamboa, 2009; Kessler, 2013; Yang, 2012; Yunus, 2007). In brief, in contexts where a NEST/non-NEST cooperation or the “team-teaching approach” (Lasagabaster and Sierra 2002, 2005a, 2005b; Medgyes, 2014) to FL teaching is not possible, a meaningful use of technology may instead help boosting our students’ motivation while we are contributing to equipping them with two sets of skills: FL proficiency and ICT abilities, both of which are nowadays considered core competences (EHAA, 15 January 2016; EHAA, 23 September 2016; European Parliament, 2006) for their adult life.

CHAPTER 9: LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH LINES

The present study is not free from limitations which should be acknowledged. The issue of incidental/uncontrollable exposure to English outside school was not controlled for, which is common in non-laboratory studies. But it is particularly this context which was deemed interesting, as it lets us take a closer look at students' motivation in real teaching-learning processes.

Moreover, both ICT and NEST groups suffered from subject attrition and at times unexpected absence of subjects, due to the fact that the study covered a span of one school year and a half.

On the other hand, the initial design of the project was based on the ICT vs. non-ICT group design, with a more intense technology-mediated EFL sessions (one whole hour during the first year as well), but unfortunately the school requested a reschedule. In addition, just before the onset of the project, the non-ICT groups were allocated a NEST, which led to a redesign of the study. This also meant a lack of a non-intervention EFL group available (no ICT and no NEST) to enable further comparison, which prevented us from having a control group.

The findings of the study should be taken with caution, since the size of the sample may be considered small to generalise the results. However, it is not very realistic nor habitual to carry out this kind of intervention based on large numbers of participants. This is an action research context and we should be well aware of both the context and the possibilities of the researcher as a teacher. Nevertheless, it would be interesting to carry out further research into additional types of interventions (e.g. the combination of ICT and NEST) and analyse their influence on students' possible selves.

As for the lines for future research, the link between FLL, ICT, possible selves and vision emerges as a very intriguing area of investigation, which leads us to conclude that testing the influence on ICT use in enhancing learners' vision could possibly be a very fruitful research avenue. In addition, it would be interesting to undertake further research on the interplay between the distinct self-images associated with different target languages (Dörnyei and Chan, 2013; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009b; Henry and Cliffordson, 2013), with a special focus on languages other than English (LOTE) Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (forthcoming). Similarly, in multilingual contexts such as the

Basque educational system, where a minority, a majority and a global language rivalry takes place, multiple Ideal L2 Selves and learners' motivation towards the different languages are well worth delving into. The analysis of students' multilingual self seems crucial for teachers to know what to focus on in order to enhance their students' motivation towards all the languages in contact, a key issue in multilingual school contexts such as the one described in this study.

Last but not least, understanding L2 motivation from the Complex Dynamic Systems perspective (De Bot and Larsen-Freeman, 2011; De Bot, Lowie and Verspoor, 2007; Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry, 2015) could be a way to identify and analyse which ICT-mediated activities in particular are the most frequent sources of “attractor states” which contribute to fostering and maintaining learners' in-class interest and motivation (Waninge, Dörnyei and de Bot, 2014: 718). Such approach may enable us to look at specific classroom events and “evolving situated interaction among teachers and students” and thus examining language learning motivation “through a small lens” (Ushioda, 2016: 564).

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Example of classroom activities performed by students who participated in the project (one hour long webquest-session)

Gender equality

Read the questions in pairs/threes, watch the video and read the text, then discuss the answers together and prepare the final scheme. You may need to look up some new words or expressions at: www.wordreference.com or some other dictionary. Write down your answers and ideas at the back of the sheet.

- **Type-in in Google the key words or copy the link:**

Video: **Emma Watson HeForShe Speech at the United Nations, UN Women 2014** (11:47): <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q0Dg226G2Z8>

- **Watch the video until 5:30. You can replay it as many times as you wish.**

A. What is the purpose of the “HeForShe” campaign? Please, explain.

B. What has happened with the concept of “feminism”? What is the proper definition?

C. When and why did Emma Watson start questioning gender-based assumptions? Explain using your own words.

D. What equal rights of men and women in Britain does she mention? In how many countries in the world all the women receive those rights? In your opinion, why is it so?

- **Type-in in Google the key words or copy the link:**

Text: **Pay Gap Is Because of Gender, Not Jobs (New York Times)**
http://www.nytimes.com/2014/04/24/upshot/the-pay-gap-is-because-of-gender-not-jobs.html?_r=0&abt=0002&abg=1

- **Read only the paragraphs 1-7**

F. According to some politicians, what is the reason of the difference in salaries between men and women? What is the opinion of Dr. Goldin? What do you think about it?

G. Observe the figure on the left: what are the jobs with the biggest and the smallest pay gap? In your opinion, what can be the reason? Do you know any similar cases among your relatives or friends?

- **Final task:**

We live in a world of gender equality. Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Why?/Why not? Give at least three reasons. Discuss your point of view in pairs/threes, and then prepare a scheme for a short text (150-200 words) to post on your blogs.

Appendix 2. Motivational and ICT-related questionnaire scales

Attitudinal and motivational part (scales with number of items)

IDEAL L2 SELF (7)

I can imagine myself living abroad and having a conversation in English.

I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.

Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.

I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.

I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues.

I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.

I can imagine myself writing English e-mails/letters fluently.

INSTRUMENTALITY – PROMOTION (6)

Studying English can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job and/or making money.

Studying English can be important to me because I think I'll need it for further studies.

Studying English is important to me because I am planning to study or work abroad (in the future).

Studying English is important to me in order to achieve a special goal (e.g., to get a scholarship or proficiency certificate).

Studying English is important to me in order to attain a higher social respect.

The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.

TRAVEL ORIENTATION (3)

Learning English is important to me because I would like to travel internationally.

Studying English is important to me because without English I won't be able to travel a lot.

I study English because with English I can enjoy travelling abroad.

COGNITIVE-TO L2 SELF (7)

I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.

Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.

Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family.

I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.

My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.

Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English.

It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.

INSTRUMENTALITY – PREVENTION (7)

I have to learn English because without passing the English course I cannot graduate.

I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it.

Studying English is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score or a fail mark in English proficiency tests (FIRST, TOEFL, CAE, etc.).

I have to study English; otherwise, I think I cannot be successful in my future career.

Studying English is important to me, because I would feel ashamed if I got bad grades in English.

Studying English is important to me because, if I don't have knowledge of English, I'll be considered a weak learner.

Studying English is important to me because I don't like to be considered poorly educated person.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH (5)

I like the atmosphere of my English classes.

I always look forward to English classes.

I find learning English really interesting.

I really enjoy learning English.

I would like to have more English lessons at school.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH (9)

I like hearing English spoken.

English should be taught to all pupils in the Basque Country.

I like speaking English.

English is a difficult language to learn.

There are more useful languages to learn than English.

Learning English enriches my cultural knowledge.

I would not mind going out with or marrying an English speaker.

English is a language worth learning.

If I have children, I would like them to be English speakers regardless of other languages they may know.

ICT part (scales with number of items)

ICT AS A SUPPORT FOR LEARNING (5)

The use of technologies in my studies will help me get better results in my subjects.

The use of technologies in my studies will help me understand the subject material more deeply.

The use of technologies in my studies will help me to complete the work in my subjects.

I am interested in technologies.

Technologies help to learn more.

ICT AS MEANS TO IMPROVE ENGLISH (3)

The use of technologies in my studies will help me to learn more English.

The use of technologies in my studies will help me to improve my level of English.

The use of technologies in English classes helps to improve English.

ICT USE IN THE CLASSROOM (6)

The use of technologies in my studies will help to make the class more interesting.

The use of technologies in English classes is boring.

Technologies improve remarkably learners' learning process.

Technologies do not serve for classroom activities.

I like the use of technologies in English classes.

Technologies are necessary help for learners' activities.

ICT AS MEANS TO IMPROVE SKILLS AND CAREER (2)

The use of technologies in my studies will improve my digital management skills in general.

The use of technologies in my studies will improve my career or employment prospects in the long term.

ICT SCHOOL ACCESS (2)

The quantity of the equipment at my school is scarce.

The quality of the equipment at my school is not very good.

ICT USE DIFFICULTIES (4)

I find it difficult to use technologies.

The theoretical training I received is not enough to use technologies.

It is difficult to have an access to the technological resources.

It is difficult to use technologies in English classes.

Items which were not included in the analysis:

Technologies improve learners' autonomous learning.

Learners do not use technologies in their learning process.

Appendix 3. Motivational and ICT questionnaire

Questionnaire

We are investigating your beliefs and opinion on different languages. This is not an exam, there is no "right" or "wrong" answer, so please be sincere giving your answers. The data you are giving in this questionnaire will be kept anonymous and they will be used only for the purpose of this study. You will need about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Thank you very much for your help!

Father's name:..... Mother's name:..... Date of birth MM/DD/..... Group:

Sex: Female..... Male.....

First language: Basque..... Spanish..... Basque AND Spanish..... Other

What do you think your level is in the following languages?

	Very bad 1-2	Bad 3-4	So-so 5-6	Good 7-8	Very good 9-10
	Writing	Speaking	Understanding	Reading	IN GENERAL
Basque					
Spanish					
English					

Which language you speak usually with the following people? Choose only one option

	Always in Basque	More in Basque than in Spanish	The same amount in Basque as in Spanish	More in Spanish than in Basque	Always in Spanish	In another language:
Your mother						
Your father						
Your siblings						
Your classmates						
Your friends from outside school						
Your teachers						
Your friends from social networks						

Which language do you use for the following activities? Choose only one option

	Basque always	More Basque than Spanish	The same amount of Basque and Spanish	More Spanish than Basque	Spanish always	Other language:
Watching TV						
Reading press and books						
Listening to music						
Surfing on the Internet						

How important you think Basque, Spanish and English are for the following activities?

		Very important	Important	Quite important	Not very important	Not important at all
Surfing on the Internet	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Writing e-mails and posting on social networks/blogs	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Reading friends' messages	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Watching videos	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Looking for information on the Internet	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					

		Very important	Important	Quite important	Not very important	Not important at all
Writing messages to friends	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Making friends on social networks	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Recording and uploading videos	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Playing videogames on-line	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Being accepted by friends on social networks	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					
Using chats with friends	Basque					
	Spanish					
	English					

Please, indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
1	2	3	4	5

Example: If you totally agree with this statement, indicate it in the following manner:

I like skiing.	1 2 3 4 5
1. I like hearing English spoken.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I can imagine myself living abroad and having a conversation in English.	1 2 3 4 5
3. Studying English can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job and/or making money.	1 2 3 4 5
4. Learning English is important to me because I would like to travel internationally.	1 2 3 4 5
5. English should be taught to all pupils in the Basque Country.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.	1 2 3 4 5
7. I have to study English; otherwise, I think I cannot be successful in my future career.	1 2 3 4 5
8. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.	1 2 3 4 5
9. I would not mind going out with or marrying an English speaker.	1 2 3 4 5
10. Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family.	1 2 3 4 5
11. The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.	1 2 3 4 5
12. Studying English is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score or a fail mark in English proficiency tests (FIRST, TOEFL, CAE).	1 2 3 4 5
13. Studying English can be important to me because I think I'll need it for further studies.	1 2 3 4 5
14. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.	1 2 3 4 5
15. English is a difficult language to learn.	1 2 3 4 5
16. I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it.	1 2 3 4 5
17. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.	1 2 3 4 5
18. Studying English is important to me in order to attain a higher social respect.	1 2 3 4 5

Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
1	2	3	4	5
19. I have to learn English because without passing the English course I cannot graduate.				1 2 3 4 5
20. I like speaking English.				1 2 3 4 5
21. Studying English is important to me because I don't like to be considered poorly educated person.				1 2 3 4 5
22. I always look forward to English classes.				1 2 3 4 5
23. I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.				1 2 3 4 5
24. Learning English enriches my cultural knowledge.				1 2 3 4 5
25. I study English because with English I can enjoy travelling abroad.				1 2 3 4 5
26. I would like to have more English lessons at school.				1 2 3 4 5
27. If I have children, I would like them to be English speakers regardless of other languages they may know.				1 2 3 4 5
28. I like the atmosphere of my English classes.				1 2 3 4 5
29. Studying English is important to me, because I would feel ashamed if I got bad grades in English.				1 2 3 4 5
30. I can imagine myself writing English e-mails/letters fluently.				1 2 3 4 5
31. I find learning English really interesting.				1 2 3 4 5
32. I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.				1 2 3 4 5
33. Studying English is important to me because, if I don't have knowledge of English, I'll be considered a weak learner.				1 2 3 4 5
34. There are more useful languages to learn than English.				1 2 3 4 5
35. I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues.				1 2 3 4 5
36. Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.				1 2 3 4 5
37. My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.				1 2 3 4 5
38. Studying English is important to me because I am planning to study or work abroad in the future.				1 2 3 4 5
39. English is a language worth learning.				1 2 3 4 5
40. Studying English is important to me because without English I won't be able to travel a lot.				1 2 3 4 5
41. I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.				1 2 3 4 5
42. Studying English is important to me in order to achieve a special goal (e.g., to get a scholarship or a language proficiency certificate).				1 2 3 4 5
43. I really enjoy learning English.				1 2 3 4 5
44. I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.				1 2 3 4 5

Feel free to add any comment on this issue:

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Second part

Technologies can be used for various activities. Below, you will see some of them listed in a table. Please, indicate: **how often you have been engaged with the following activities during the last year (Frequency)** and **how skilled you think you are doing them (Ability)**. If there is something you have never done before, please put an X in "I have never done it" (ND) box.

Technology-related activity	FREQUENCY							ABILITY					
	Various times a day	Once a day	Various times a week	Once a week	Once or twice a month	Once/twice every three months	Once or twice a year	Very skilled	Quite skilled	So-so	Not very skilled	Not at all skilled	I have never done it (ND)
1. Using the Internet/Web to search for general information (news, schedules of various activities, etc.)								1	2	3	4	5	
2. Using the Web to play on-line video games								1	2	3	4	5	
3. Using the Web to learn more English or to practice it (reading the news in English on-line, watching videos in English, etc.)								1	2	3	4	5	
4. Using the Web to download or to share MP3 files (music or videos)								1	2	3	4	5	
5. Using the Web to receive and send e-mails (Hotmail, Yahoo, Gmail, etc.)								1	2	3	4	5	
6. Using the Web to read others' blogs/vlogs and to leave comments								1	2	3	4	5	
7. Using the Web to access social networks (MySpace, Facebook, etc.)								1	2	3	4	5	
8. Using the Web to share photos or other digital content (Flickr, Picasa)								1	2	3	4	5	
9. Using the Web to get the information with an educational aim (on-line dictionaries)								1	2	3	4	5	
10. Using the Web for English classroom activities								1	2	3	4	5	
11. Using a computer to create presentations (PowerPoint, etc.)								1	2	3	4	5	
12. Using the Web to get the information for completing your homework								1	2	3	4	5	
13. Using a computer to play games								1	2	3	4	5	
14. Using the Web for instantaneous messages/conversations								1	2	3	4	5	
15. Using a console to play games								1	2	3	4	5	
16. Using the Web to learn languages								1	2	3	4	5	
17. Using a computer to create and edit videos/audio files (iTunes)								1	2	3	4	5	
18. Using the Web to create your own blog or vlog								1	2	3	4	5	
19. Using the Web for other pastimes (entertainment activities)								1	2	3	4	5	
20. Using the Web to prepare English class units/tasks or homework								1	2	3	4	5	

Please, indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
1	2	3	4	5

Example: If you **totally agree** with this statement, indicate it in the following manner:

I like skiing.	1	2	3	4	5
1. The use of technologies in my classes will help me get better results in my subjects.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The use of technologies in my classes will help me understand the subject material more deeply.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The use of technologies in my classes will help me to complete the work in my subjects	1	2	3	4	5
4. The use of technologies in my classes will improve my digital management skills in general.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The use of technologies in my classes will help me to learn more English.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The use of technologies in my classes will improve my career or employment prospects in the long term.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The use of technologies in my classes will help me to improve my level of English.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The use of technologies in my classes will help to make them more interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I find it difficult to use technologies.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The use of technologies in English classes is boring.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am interested in technologies.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The theoretical training I received is not enough to use technologies.	1	2	3	4	5
13. It is difficult to have an access to the technological resources.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The quantity of the equipment at my school is scarce.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The quality of the equipment at my school is not very good.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Technologies improve remarkably learners' learning process.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Technologies do not serve for classroom activities.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I like the use of technologies in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Technologies improve learners' autonomous learning.	1	2	3	4	5
20. The use of technologies in English classes helps to improve English.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Technologies are necessary help for learners' activities.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Learners do not use technologies in their learning process.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Technologies help to learn more.	1	2	3	4	5
24. It is difficult to use technologies in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 4. Focus groups interview guide

(ICT-intervention groups)

First of all, thank you very much for your collaboration. Now we will discuss a few issues concerning your English classes, the use of computers, the Internet and blogs this school year and I will record your comments for the researcher. I will record only your voice, so you will remain anonymous.

Ideal L2 self and Instrumentality-promotion and travel orientation

1. Do you feel motivated to keep improving your English?
2. Do you do something to improve it out of school?
3. Do you see yourselves receiving English classes in the future, once it is no longer obligatory?
4. Do you see yourselves in the future developing your professional career in a company where you will have to speak English (working for a multinational enterprise, for example)?
5. Do you imagine yourselves speaking English with international friends?
6. Do you think being able to surf the Internet in English in an easy and skilled manner will be useful for you in the future?
7. Do you feel more comfortable with English after developing activities with computers in your classes?
8. Think for a while about the image you have of yourselves as speakers of English. Now think of yourselves as ideal speakers of English. Do you think this image of yourselves has changed thanks to using the technologies to practice English? Has it improved? Do you think you can connect these two things? Can the integration of computers and the Internet in your English classes have an effect on the image of yourselves as ideal English speakers? In what way?

Ought-to L2 self and Instrumentality-prevention

9. Do you feel encouraged by your parents to improve your English? Do they consider it (improving English) important?
10. What may be the external factors which affect your wish to learn English well? Your parents, classmates, teachers, the society? Why?
11. Do you think learning English is necessary/compulsory nowadays?

12. Do you think your classmates who do not reach a good English level may be thought of as less qualified/prepared?

13. Do you think not knowing English may have a negative effect in your future?

L2 learning experience/Attitudes towards learning English and EFL in general

14. How do you find working with computers in English classes?

Was it interesting? (entertaining/motivating?) What did you like most and what least? How did using the Internet and blogs go? Were the activities difficult? Did using technologies help to make the class more interesting? Why? In what way? Was it more interesting or more boring than your usual classes?

15. According to you, would such classes serve to change the methodology of English teaching, not to keep doing the same things in class? Or to learn different things by using the Internet?

16. Do you think that by using the Internet/blogs in classes you can learn more practical English, more useful for everyday life?

17. Did the teacher who was taking you to work with computers motivated you to improve your English? Why? In what way? Did being with her (the project teacher) in class motivated you to practice/use more English? Why? In what way?

18. Did you feel comfortable carrying out English class activities with the project teacher? Why? In what way?

Comparing to your usual teacher, was the experience of having classes with the Project teacher different? Why?

19. According to you, were the project classes useful to improve your English? Why? In which aspects?

Were these classes useful to improve your speaking skills? Writing skills?

In general, do you think using the Internet and computer may contribute to improve English? Why? In what way?

20. According to you, were the project classes useful to improve your skills with computers/the Internet/blogs?

21. Would you like to integrate such classes/activities in your English lessons more often? Why? Would you change anything in the English lessons you carried out with computers?

22. Would you like to make any comment on your usual English class? How are your usual (normal) English classes? Do you think you learn English well/a lot? Why?

Appendix 5. Written compositions' evaluation tool, ESL composition PROFILE
 Jacobs *et al.*, (1981)

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE			
STUDENT	DATE	TOPIC	
	SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA
CONTENT	30-27		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic
	26-22		GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail
	21-17		FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic
	16-13		VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate
ORGANIZATION	20-18		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/ supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive
	17-14		GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing
	13-10		FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development
	9-7		VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate
VOCABULARY	20-18		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register
	17-14		GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage <i>but meaning not obscured</i>
	13-10		FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>
	9-7		VERY POOR: essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate
LANGUAGE USE	25-22		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions
	21-18		GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions <i>but meaning seldom obscured</i>
	17-11		FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>
	10-5		VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate
MECHANICS	5		EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
	4		GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing <i>but meaning not obscured</i>
	3		FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • <i>meaning confused or obscured</i>
	2		VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate
TOTAL SCORE	READER	COMMENTS	

Appendix 6. Oral presentations' evaluation tool

Adapted from (Lim, 2007)

Assessment form oral presentations Class: _____ Date: _____

Poor	Unsatisfactory	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent
1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10

A. Introduction

1. Title/topic of the presentation – included and appropriate?
2. Introduction – interesting?
3. Opinion on the issue – clearly stated?

B. Body and Conclusion

4. Details supporting the main points – sufficient?
5. Details supporting the main points – relevant?
6. The main points – summarised?

D. Language use

7. Grammar – accurate?
8. Fluency of speech
9. Pronunciation – words clearly pronounced?
10. Vocabulary – appropriate?

E. Manner and Interaction

11. Confidence (not nervous, depended very little on notes)
12. Eye contact
13. Non-verbal interaction with the audience (facial expressions, gestures)

14. Verbal interaction (involving the audience during the talk by asking questions and encouraging them to respond)

F. Communicativeness

15. Speech: clear and audible

16. Clear explanation, ability to transmit information


G. Balanced participation

17. Adequate time distribution between all members of the group during the presentation

Appendix 7. T2 results

RQ1 and RQ2

Summary of the two-way ANCOVA analyses of L2 Self/EFL-related variables
(Pre-test vs. T2)

Variables	Main effects	F value (1,131)	p-value	Effect size³
Ideal L2 Self	Group	.184	.669	.001
	Gender	.052	.821	.000
	Group*gender	.072	.788	.001
Instrumentality- promotion and travel orientation	Group	.038	.845	.000
	Gender	.093	.761	.001
	Group*gender	.078	.781	.001
Ought-to L2 Self	Group	.023	.879	.000
	 Gender	8.395	.004*	.060
	Group*gender	1.375	.243	.010
Instrumentality- prevention	Group	.439	.509	.003
	Gender	3.789	.054	.028
	Group*gender	.459	.499	.003
Attitudes towards learning English	Group	1.587	.210	.012
	Gender	.305	.582	.002
	Group*gender	3.505	.063	.026
Attitudes towards English	Group	.388	.534	.003
	Gender	1.311	.254	.010
	Group*gender	.022	.882	.000

³Partial eta squared

RQ3

Attitudes towards ICT. ICT-group's means for the six factors in the **pre-test vs. T2**

Variables	Pre-test (N=77)		T2 (N=73)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
ICT as a support for learning	3.62	.61	3.71	.66
ICT as means to improve English	3.44	.69	3.47	.79
ICT use in the classroom	3.61	.55	3.54	.58
ICT as means to improve skills and career	3.77	.67	3.82	.71
ICT school access	2.85	.82	2.79	.80
ICT use difficulties	3.62	.57	3.64	.65

No differences between the means in the pre-test and T2 were found in the paired-samples *t*-tests for all six ICT-related attitudinal variables.

Independent samples *t*-test comparisons between males' and females' means for the ICT-related attitudinal variables in T2, no significant differences were found.

T2						
Variables	Gender	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
ICT as a support for learning	Female	46	3.67	0.57	-.627	ns
	Male	27	3.77	0.81		
ICT as means to improve English	Female	46	3.39	0.82	-1.190	ns
	Male	27	3.62	0.72		
ICT use in the classroom	Female	46	3.57	0.51	.527	ns
	Male	27	3.49	0.70		
ICT as means to improve skills and career	Female	46	3.75	0.63	-1.134	ns
	Male	27	3.94	0.82		
ICT school access	Female	46	2.84	0.83	.590	ns
	Male	27	2.72	0.75		
ICT use difficulties	Female	46	3.63	0.69	-.261	ns

Male 27 3.67 0.60

ns – not significant

Akin to between-gender comparisons which revealed no significant difference between male and female students (see the above table), within-gender comparison paired-samples *t*-tests revealed no significant difference between the pre-test and T2 means for female and male students, respectively, except for the variable *ICT as means to improve English* which decreased significantly for male students from the pre-test ($M=3.62$, $SD=.72$) to T2 [$M=3.38$, $SD=.77$, $t(26)=2.301$ $p=.03$]. The calculation of eta squared value (.17) indicated large effect size (Cohen, 1988). This result suggests that the disillusion of male students with the perceived benefits of ICT to improve their English after the ICT intervention was such, that it was a cause of the significant difference between the pre-test and the T2 means for *ICT as means to improve English* variable. This effect, however, disappeared in the pre-test vs. post-test comparison.

Students' written and oral production mean scores

Written and oral production mean scores of the females and males from both groups in the pre-test and T2

Variables	Group	Gender	Pre-test			T2		
			N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Written task's mean scores	ICT-group	Female	48	6.24	1.05	46	6.57	1.05
		Male	29	6.56	0.69	29	6.43	0.94
	NS-group	Female	47	6.04	1.35	45	6.58	1.07
		Male	22	5.96	1.10	20	6.83	1.02
Oral presentations' mean scores	ICT-group	Female	47	6.64	1.30	46	7.16	1.42
		Male	29	6.25	1.58	29	6.96	1.69
	NS-group	Female	46	8.83	1.51	45	7.69	1.62
		Male	23	6.91	1.64	22	7.73	1.70

Summary of the two-way ANCOVA analyses of the written and oral production scores (Pre-test vs. T2)

Variables	Main effects	<i>F</i> (1,135)	<i>p</i>	Effect size³
Writings' mean scores	Group	4.430	.037*	.032
	Gender	.066	.797	.000
	Group*gender	1.998	.160	.015
Variables	Main effects	<i>F</i> (1,137)	<i>p</i>	Effect size³
Oral presentations' mean scores	Group	2.096	.150	.015
	Gender	.001	.975	.000
	Group*gender	.185	.667	.001

³Partial eta squared

*significant at $p < .05$ level

Two-way between-groups analysis of covariance was conducted to assess the effect of two interventions (i.e. technology-based classes led by a non-NEST vs. classes with a NEST) on written and oral English achievement for male and female participants. The independent variables were the type of group (ICT-group and NS-group) and gender. The dependent variable was average scores on written and oral productions performed by students after the intervention was completed (post-test). Participants' mean scores of written and oral productions performed prior to the commencement of the intervention (pre-test) were used as a covariate to control for individual differences. The ANCOVA was carried out separately for the two types of tasks described previously.

After adjusting for students' scores at Time 1 (pre-test), in T2 a significant main effect of group was found [$F(1,135)=4.430, p=.037$]. These results suggest that the NS-group's written compositions' scores for both males and females increased significantly at T2 once the pre-existing differences (i.e. pre-test scores) were controlled for. However, the effect size was small (eta partial squared=.03) and this result was not found significant in the comparison of the pre-test with the post-test scores.

Appendix 8. Qualitative data: explanation of the categories

The categories and students' quote next to each category by way of an illustration of the category

Motivation to learn English/Ideal L2 Self: positive comments

1. Motivated to continue studying English: I feel motivated to continue learning English and, well, I study it out of school.
2. Motivated to study English to be able to communicate: [I am motivated to keep learning English] to communicate with people from other places.
3. Motivated to study English to travel abroad: Me too [I am motivated to learn English], then when you travel, it's easier if you know English.
4. Internal motivation to study English, likes English: I like English and I am doing things in English.
5. Motivated to continue studying to obtain a language certificate: Yes, [I will keep learning English] I think I will have the time to go to 'academies' (private language schools) or so, and I will have the time to get language certificates.
6. Motivated to study additionally with movies/series/music in English: Yes, I am motivated [to keep learning English], and what is more, at home I watch videos and movies [in English].
7. Imagine themselves speaking English at work: Yes, I don't know, I do have ability, that's why (...) I can see myself working in English.
8. Motivated to learn English because of internationalisation at work: Yes, because nowadays the majority of big companies are international and they use English to communicate between them, so, in the end, if you are at a quite high position or so, and if you need to communicate with some others, you will do it in English.
9. English important, a global language: Well, English is the most standard language, or the one used the most in the world, or so.

10. Imagine themselves working abroad: I am sure I will use it (English), because I want to be a dancer and, here, I need to be out of Spain.

11. Importance of multilingualism (“the more languages, the better”): [I learn English] to know more languages in the future. It is better to know, for example, four languages than two.

Motivation to learn English/Ideal L2 Self: negative comments

1. Do not imagine themselves speaking English at work: I don’t know, I don’t see myself at work speaking English, at least not this.

2. General lack of motivation to learn English: I don’t feel like [learning English]. I think English class will never be very interesting.

3. Dislikes English, lack of joy, lack of passion: I am not motivated [to learn English], because I don’t like English, and I have never liked it.

4. Lack of motivation, you learn better abroad, not at school: I think that to learn English it is better to go to a place and learn there.

5. Lack of motivation due to real language difficulties experienced: When I was speaking, I don’t know why, people from London did not understand almost anything and I didn’t understand them either.

6. Motivated to learn but does not know how to learn effectively: Learning, well we want to learn, but we don’t know how, well, at least I want to learn [English], but I don’t know how.

ICT/NS’ potential to improve Ideal L2 Self: positive comments

1. ICT/NS may help to improve Ideal L2 Self: Yes, I think technologies help, for example I sometimes listen to songs and read their lyrics and in this manner, and your pronunciation improves.

2. NNS teacher as a model of FL achievement: When I hear X (the NNS) speaking English I think she speaks well (...) I envy her, she speaks so well, I want to speak like this too, so it’s kind of motivating.

3. NS teacher as model of native speech: It is not the same to [listen to] this kind of academic (school) language, as the one most of the teachers from here speak, or hearing a natural English, because you think that, in the end, English is not just a [school] subject.

4. NS is like going abroad: With NS in the end you get closer to being abroad.

ICT/NS' potential to improve Ideal L2 Self: negative comments

1. ICT/NS do not help to improve Ideal L2 Self: I think my image stayed the same, I think we haven't improved much because of the use of technologies or the Internet.

2. Not enough time with ICT/NS to evaluate the effect: I think [my image] can change (...) but we have been very little time with her (the NS) (...) much more work is needed to achieve it.

3. ICT do not help when you are not motivated, real life practice better: Using technologies, if you don't want to learn English, you can use any technology you want and you will not [learn].

4. More variety of accents, more practice to improve Ideal L2 Self: Being with one (NS) maybe it doesn't [help], but with various language assistants and listening to their different pronunciations so one can learn more, I think so.

5. Not very real language to improve Ideal L2 Self: NS explains things to us slowly and in an easy way, but when you are abroad you will not understand.

Ought-to L2 Self: avoidance/advantage

1. Parental support and encouragement: They (my parents) advise me [to learn English], but it isn't to oblige me. They make me see it is important.

2. Advantage, helpful not obligatory: I think it is useful, but not obligatory.

3. Future usefulness of English: It's good for the future. If you learn [English] you will use it in the future, it will be useful in the future.

4. Avoid communication problems: If you go to another country to work you will not be able to communicate, well you will communicate in the end, but I don't know in what manner.
5. Apply for scholarships: [English is necessary] to apply for some scholarships.

Ought-to L2 Self: obligation

1. Obligatory for work: To have a job they require English. To look for a job it is important to have good studies and [language] titles (certificates).
2. Obligated by parents, sense of obligation: Yes, but in one way or another they (the parents) oblige you to learn English.
3. Societal pressure: I think society instilled this in us this idea of having to know English, [that] it is very important for everything, for abroad, I don't know, for everything (...).
4. Crisis/unemployment: For example, with nowadays' crisis we will have to look for a job abroad.
5. Global language, other languages' importance: They say it (English) is important, in the end it is a global language, so they pressure you to continue learning.

Learning experience: positive comments on ICT/NS intervention

1. Comfortable: If you don't know something, if you don't know a word, you ask without fear. It's like less pressure.
2. Different: It is different, I mean, you don't do the same things [as in usual class].
3. Entertaining: You do more entertaining things.
4. Interesting: These things are more interesting than having a book where all the exercises are the same.
5. Motivating: I think if these things are done, they motivate students to get more interested in English.

6. Speaking practice: All of us had the opportunity to speak.
7. Useful English: I think it is good to see English is not only something you have to learn, you can speak English, see things and learn anything in English and it isn't for a grade, it is to really use it.
8. Participative: When we have class with X (NS) it's like you have to be taking part.
9. Dynamic: We made things in a more dynamic way, not sitting at the tables doing exercises, like with Y (usual teacher).
10. Real language: When we watched that video in class I learned a lot of vocabulary about it that we don't use in [usual] class, and then if I speak to my [foreign] friends, I will talk about this and not about Y's [usual teacher's] readings.
11. "Bearable": [The class] it is like more bearable.
12. Listening practice and vocabulary: The blogs we do with X (the NNS), that is, the news, blogs or so you read are about current information, so if you want to speak in English with somebody, the vocabulary you learn there is not the same as you learn in Y's (usual teacher) classes, they are not the same.
13. ICT better than papers: It will always be more interesting to work with a computer than with papers.
14. Modern/use of ICT fashionable: In the end they are fashionable.
15. Videos: Some videos we watched were quite good.
16. Topics: What I liked the most were some topics she (the NNS) gave us to prepare oral presentations.
17. Games and collaborative work: We all took part together doing the activities
18. Improve speaking: [I feel] a little bit more free when I speak, more fluid (fluent).
19. Improve listening skills: In the listening and speaking areas I think it helped a little, it helps to have a native speaker.
20. Improve the language: Watching [videos] in English is more interesting and if you don't understand, you try to search more [about it] and it helps you to improve your English.

21. Internet helps to learn more English: On the Internet, you can find things which are not in books, or you have a bigger and wider source of information.

22. Worked on all 4 skills: We did all, write, read, speak, watch videos, that is, we worked on everything.

Learning experience: negative comments on ICT/NS intervention

1. Too little time with ICT/NS to improve English: Well, once a week, only half an hour, one hour, it is not much.

2. ICT/NS not useful to improve English: The classes were good for me, but I didn't, they weren't useful for me to improve anything.

3. Not serious attitude of some students: Yes, we learned something, but we didn't take these activities too seriously. So then we don't learn.

4. Not motivating or helpful: Doing activities doesn't motivate, I don't know, getting in front of the computer doing exercises doesn't motivate to learn English.

5. Not entertaining, not very interesting or different: A change is welcome, but with the things we have done it was not very entertaining.

6. Boring topics: What I liked the least was sometimes the topics of the articles, because they were not very interesting.

7. Writings and answering questions: [I didn't like] the questions we had to answer after reading the articles.

8. Speaking (presentations): I didn't like presentations, because we couldn't choose the topics.

9. Feel the same with or without ICT use: I feel the same without computers or with them.

10. Too few speaking and too much computers: I would prefer to speak more with X (the NNS), not so much working with computers, because, in the end, you can do it at home.

Learning experience: students' comments on their usual EFL classes (negative)

1. No speaking practice: [In usual classes there is] a lot of theory and very little practice.
2. Repeating the same thing: The topics and content we work on, many years we have been working on the same things and we don't see anything new.
3. Boring: You learn less because you are bored.
4. The system/methodology should change: I mean giving it (working on it) in a different manner, because we are learning the same thing the whole life and we still don't know how to do it well.
5. Usual teacher's negative attitude: Taking part in [the usual teacher's] class scares me.
6. School's language vs. real language: It changes a lot, as here, we have to be very good at grammar, they say, and then when you speak with a native speaker, they don't put (say) this...as they told us [at school].
7. More ICT needed, but used by students: If we use computers, we should use it for everything, to make "speaking" (presentations) and writings, but also to practice grammar.
8. Grammar-cantered and book-centred: Some other years, last year, we did too many exercises.
9. Too big groups: You cannot learn much with thirty students and one teacher.
10. More NS experience needed: [It would be better to] have [classes with NS] during the whole year, whole hour, in more levels, all weeks...
11. Usual teacher not good at pronunciation: I don't understand how a person with this kind of pronunciation is teaching [English] classes.
12. More interesting homework needed: They could also send us more entertaining tasks to do at home.
13. Usual teacher's positive attitude (the only positive comment): I think [the usual teacher] motivates us, compared to other teachers. Because, for example, when I got almost a pass on an exam, [the teacher] told me very well, I am improving.

Possible advantages of the use of ICT: positive comments (NS-group only)

1. ICT use for methodology change: In class we do all the same, it's very monotonous, always grammar, exercise, grammar, exercise...and with X (NNS) we did different things.
2. ICT improves language skills: [watching videos] I think you learn a lot and the classes are more dynamic, and the things you learn as theory you put them in practice, and in this way you work on listening and understanding.
3. ICT source of varied authentic input: When you watch a BBC video you work on your listening skills a pronunciation of some native English and this makes you improve and get used [to it].

Importance of English for ICT use: positive comments

1. More information available in English, better access: The majority of information on the Internet is in English, and to search for something I think English is the best language.
2. More videos, programmes and tools only in English: And there is a lot of videos in English and in social networks, so if you want to understand...
3. Easier to speak via ICT in writing than face-to-face: It is much easier to speak from a computer than speaking with a person. I think in the computer you think more what you write.
4. Better communication on Internet forums: I think it is useful, not only to search for information, but also to ask for it, when you write on a forum, it's better if you write in English because it reach more people.

Importance of English for ICT use: negative comments

1. English not necessary for Internet: On the Internet, there are many technical things, (...) but for the basic things, I don't see the problem [if you don't know English].
2. Not used to ICT in general: I usually don't use technologies, so I can't say anything.

Project classes and digital skills: positive comments (ICT-group only)

1. Blog novelty: I didn't know how to make a blog and I learned it.
2. Liked information search on the Internet: [I liked] searching for information on something, this is more entertaining than being in [usual] class.
3. Useful websites: She (the NNS) gave us sometimes interesting websites with articles.
4. Teacher as guide with Internet: But this is not always correct, because the Internet is not always reliable, but if you have a teacher to tell you: this is not like that, you need to search for it here, it's helpful.
5. Different (than usual) use of ICT in the project classes: Not with X [NNS] but in other classes if we use the computer [the usual teacher] puts how the grammar should be, like in a book, on a screen, so it's the same.

Project classes and digital skills: negative comments (ICT-group only)

1. Disliked blogs, difficulties: Me, for example, I didn't see the point, a blog (...) I saw it very difficult to write on the blog.
2. Very basic ICT, nothing new: What we saw was very basic.
3. Project not useful to improve digital skills: I mean, it doesn't help with technology.