

Transforming Motivation Into Motivated Behavior: The Role of a Standardized Speaking Assessment as a Strategy for Understanding the Current L2 Self

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The aim of the current study is to explore the use of a standardized speaking assessment as a motivational strategy for EFL learners within the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) framework. The study integrates an ecological classroom practice, assessment, with motivation research based on the L2MSS and focuses on how learners perceive their current L2 self, which has been pointed out to be an under-researched aspect of designing motivation interventions. The assessment was included in a pedagogical intervention cycle and was intended to provide learners with an understanding of their current L2 self and the discrepancy between their current and future-self, thus enabling learners to map a realistic path to their goals. Trajectories of learners' motivation suggest that the pedagogical intervention did impact learners' self-perceptions of their speaking ability as well as the nature of their actual motivated behavior. Therefore, classroom assessment may be an effective motivational strategy, especially when implemented in conjunction with opportunities for feedback and reflection.

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本研究の目的は、L2動機づけ自己システム(L2MSS)の理論的枠組みに基づき、EFL学習者の動機づけを高めるストラテジーとして、スピーキング評価の活用を検討することである。本研究は、生態学的教育実践の一つである「評価」をL2MSSに基づく動機づけ研究に統合し、学習者がL2使用者としての現在の自己像をどう認識しているかに焦点を当てるものであり、学習者の動機づけへの介入に関するこれまでの研究において十分に取り上げられてこなかった点に注目するものである。本研究において、スピーキング評価は一連の教育的介入サイクルに組み入れられ、学習者にL2使用者としての現在の自己像を、そしてまたその自己像と自分が目指す自己像との差を認識させることで、学習者に目標達成までの現実的な道筋を描けるようにすることを狙うものであった。学習者の動機づけに見られた変化は、この教育的介入が学習者のスピーキング能力に関する自己認識だけでなく、実際の学習行動のあり方にも影響したことを示唆している。このことから、教室内における評価は、特にフィードバックと振り返りの機会を伴った場合、効果的な動機づけストラテジーとして機能する可能性があるといえる。

Keywords: current L2 self; L2 motivational self-system; motivation; speaking assessment

In a foreign language context, where learners often do not have sufficient opportunities for practical use of the target language, motivation may be one of the most fundamental factors that determines progress in second language learning. Yet, even when learners are motivated in the sense that they feel a strong desire to improve their second or foreign language (L2) skills, they may still fail to engage in the instructional learning activities or make the necessary efforts to improve their skills. Instructors need to understand not only how to raise learners' motivational levels, but also how to motivate learners to actually engage in effective learning behaviors. This point has been emphasized in studies that have focused on motivational teaching practices and their outcomes in the form of actual motivated learning behavior (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Sato, 2021). Specifically, an increasing number of studies have applied Dörnyei and Kubanyiova's (2014) vision-centered teaching practices to explore the power of future visions in enhancing learners' motivation and motivated learning behavior (Le-Thi et al., 2022; Magid & Chan, 2012; Safdari, 2021; Sato, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019). However, there is still much that remains unknown about the mechanism of future visions. For example, it has been argued that there is still insufficient understanding of one of the crucial dynamics within the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) model (Henry & Cliffordson, 2017; Thorsen et al., 2020)—the discrepancy between current and future self-guides. The current paper addresses this under-researched dimension by exploring the role of assessment practices as a strategy to bridge this gap between current and future self-guides. It is proposed that assessments in the classroom can help to develop learners' awareness of their current L2 self, which in turn can then provide learners with a concrete base for mapping out a realistic plan to achieve their future vision.

Literature Review

Motivational Strategies in the L2 Classroom

Motivation has been defined as “a general way of referring to the antecedents (i.e., the cause and origins) of action” (Dörnyei, 2001, p.6), including both the reason why an action is taken, as well as the effort and persistence, or intensity associated with the action. Dörnyei (2001) also introduced the concept of “motivational strategies” to refer to “techniques that promote the individual’s goal-related behavior” (p. 29) and outlined a framework for understanding motivational teaching practices in the L2 classroom.

In the past two decades, a large number of studies have been conducted to investigate motivational teaching practices in the L2 classroom (see Boo et al., 2015, and Lamb, 2019 for reviews). Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) asked Hungarian teachers of English to rank motivational strategies in the order of their perceived importance and identified a list of 10 macrostrategies, otherwise known as the “Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners.” They also found that “increasing learners’ goal-setting” was one of the most underused strategies by teachers. Since then, a number of other studies such as Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) have also identified potentially effective motivational techniques. Notably, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) addressed the need for concrete evidence of the effects of motivational practices on motivated behavior by basing their findings on actual observable behavior. Quite a number of further studies were conducted to investigate the relationship between motivational strategies and learners’ motivation (e.g., Le-Thi et al., 2022; Moskovsky et al., 2013; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). However, one limitation of previous research is the tendency to focus generally on the effect of teacher’s instructional practices rather than on specific motivational strategies and specific cognitive processes (Lamb, 2017; Le-Thi et al., 2022; Ushioda, 2016). Therefore, the current study responds to the need to investigate particular motivational strategies in more detail, including their classroom implementation and outcomes, by focusing on one specific motivational strategy, assessment.

Assessment as a Motivational Strategy

Few studies within the field of L2 motivation make explicit reference to assessment as a motivational strategy (Gan et al., 2019). Yet, current formative approaches to assessment highlight the crucial role of testing

as a learning tool (e.g., Chong & Reinders, 2023; Fox, 2014; Gebril, 2023). For instance, learning-oriented assessment (Carless, 2015) focuses on “the potential to develop productive student learning processes” (p.964), and emphasizes the fundamental role of self-evaluation and engagement with feedback. Similarly, descriptions of diagnostic uses of language testing (Jang & Wanger, 2014; Kissling & O'Donnell, 2015) also emphasize the role of feedback on assessments, which can benefit learning by helping learners to recognize “the gap between the learners’ current level of performance and a desired level of performance or goal” (Jang & Wanger, 2014, p. 698). For example, it was found that the use of self-assessment of oral performance following the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Guidelines led to greater language awareness and self-efficacy (Kissling & O'Donnell, 2015). The potential role of assessment in helping learners to visualize concrete learning goals is consistent with current trends in pedagogical interventions based on the L2 Motivational Self-System.

The L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS) and Motivated Learning Behavior

One of the main frameworks employed by recent studies on L2 motivation is Dörnyei’s L2MSS (Csizér, 2019; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009), which consists of three components: (1) the ideal L2 self, which is related to the desire to reduce the discrepancy between the actual self and ideal self, (2) the ought-to L2 self, which is related to learners’ views of what they fear or want to avoid becoming, and (3) the L2 learning experience, which relates to the effect of the learners’ immediate learning environment such as the teacher, curriculum, and experience of success. The ideal L2 self and ought-to self, also referred to as future self-guides, can serve as motivating forces, especially when the self-guide is accompanied by an elaborate and vivid self-image. A growing number of studies have been conducted to explore the practical implications of the L2MSS framework for the classroom (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2020; Lamb, 2012; Yashima et al., 2017; You et al., 2016), including the use of the L2MSS framework to investigate the motivational effects of teaching practices. In an Iranian EFL context, Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012) found a strong correlation between teachers’ motivational practices and students’ motivated behavior. However, in investigating the relationship between students’ ideal L2 selves and motivated behavior, they found no difference between the high motivation and low motivation groups with regard to learner’s ideal L2 selves, concluding that “only having an imaginary picture of one’s desired L2 self cannot result in actual

motivated behavior unless conditions are met and decisive steps are taken to facilitate realizing the ideal L2 selves” (p.590).

In fact, this is a point that was addressed by Dörnyei (2009) from the start, and further articulated in Dörnyei and Kubanyiova’s (2014) framework of vision-centered teaching practices. The framework outlined six conditions that increase the impact that the ideal and ought-to self may have on learners’ motivated behavior: (1) learners possess a future self-image, (2) the vision is elaborate and vivid, (3) the future self-image is perceived as realistic or “plausible,” (4) learners have some concrete action plan which specifies the steps needed to achieve their goal, (5) the vision is regularly activated, and (6) the learner has an image of undesirable negative consequences for not attaining the ideal self.

Particularly relevant to the current study are the growing number of studies that have applied the framework to pedagogical interventions designed to enhance the connection between the ideal L2 self and motivated behavior by expanding, for example, the vividness of learners’ ideal self and thus increasing learners’ motivational capacity (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Magid & Chan, 2012; Safdari, 2021; Sato, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019). A pioneering study by Magid and Chan (2012) reported on two different intervention programs in England and Hong Kong. Learners participated in activities such as drawing a timeline, developing an action plan with specific steps, and clarifying their vision of feared selves. These interventions led to stronger visions of learners’ ideal L2 selves and increased confidence and effort towards learning English. Magid and Chan’s program in Hong Kong was based on the *Possible Selves Program*, originally developed in the field of education (Hock et al., 2006). In Hock et al.’s (2006) original study, it was found that students who participated in the program identified a larger number of goals, and that their goals were articulated with more specificity than their peers. Especially relevant to the current study is the emphasis within the interventions on articulating action plans and goals.

More recently, studies such as Safdari (2021), Sato (2021), and Sato and Lara (2019) have also implemented vision enhancement studies in EFL contexts, applying the six major steps proposed by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014). They provide support for the positive effects of vision-centered pedagogical interventions on aspects of motivation such as learners’ visions of their ideal L2 self (Sato, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019), intended effort, and learners’ actual target language use (Sato, 2021). Although these studies support the effectiveness of vision enhancement, some questions still remain. In particular, Thorsen et al. (2020) argue for

the need to focus on one of the key driving forces of the L2MSS model, the discrepancy between the current and L2 self. They propose that change in motivation is a function of changes in learners' understanding of their current L2 self as well as their future guides. This point may be especially relevant for helping learners to actually engage in motivated behavior by "transforming the vision into action," and corresponds to the step "providing students with self-relevant roadmaps" (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p.101). Although measures of the current L2 self for research purposes have been included in some previous studies (Henry & Cliffordson, 2017; MacIntyre et al., 2009), the current study proposes that, for pedagogical contexts, standardized assessment may serve as a useful guide to "the currently missing current L2 self" (Thorsen et al., 2020, p. 597).

The Current Study

The pedagogical intervention for the current study is an assessment cycle, consisting of self-assessment, standardized assessment, assessment feedback, and goal setting. It was designed to harness the widely applicable and easily implemented classroom practice of assessment as a motivational strategy, which, according to the L2MSS framework could help learners to understand the distance between their current state and their ideal state, and thus help learners to plan and put into action the steps they would need to take to reach their ideal state. The current study focuses on motivation for developing one specific L2 skill, speaking, and takes a longitudinal approach to investigating the impact of the pedagogical intervention by tracking motivational dynamics over the course of seven months (Campbell & Storch, 2011; Waninge et al., 2014). The following research questions are addressed:

- RQ 1. Are there any changes in quantitative measures of motivation and motivated learning behavior of EFL learners who participate in a pedagogical intervention?
- RQ 2. Are there any qualitative changes in motivated learning behavior of EFL learners who participate in a pedagogical intervention?

Method

Participants

A total of 78 university students participated in the current study. They consisted of 50 first year, 17 second year, and 19 third year students, majoring in English at two women's universities in Tokyo, Japan. The universi-

ties were comparable in size, range of English proficiency, and curriculum for English majors. The learners, all women, had received six years of formal English education at junior and senior high school, and their English proficiency level was considered to range from low-intermediate to high-intermediate levels based on placement tests at their universities. They were recruited in their English courses. Intervention was conducted with a sub-group of the learners who belonged to two intact classes ($n=21$), each taught by one of the researchers, referred to in the study as Group 1. Learners who did not belong to these two classes did not participate in the intervention ($n=57$) and are referred to in the study as Group 2.

Because the data was collected in a natural context, it was not possible to control for content of learners' English classes and variation in learners' selection of elective English classes. All learners were taking one or more English classes typical of English majors in their universities.

Figure 1
Overview of Research Design

	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Group 1 (n=21)							
	Intervention 1			Intervention 2			
	Motivation Measure (7 times)						
	Self-Assessment (7 times)						
Group 2 (n=57)	Motivated Learning Behavior Measure (7 times)						
	No Intervention						
	Motivation Measure (3 times)						
	Self-Assessment (3 times)						
	Motivated Learning Behavior Measure (4 times)						

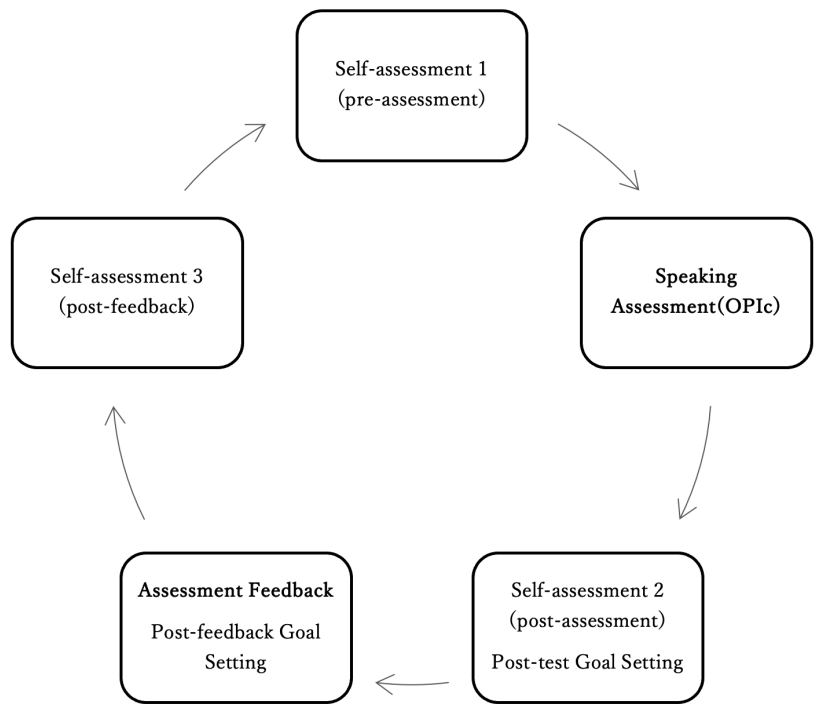
Design

The study is a descriptive and longitudinal study that investigates the trajectories of motivational variables of two groups of learners over a period of seven months. As shown in Figure 1, learners in Group 1 participated in a pedagogical intervention and learners in Group 2 did not. Group 1 experienced two cycles of the same assessment and feedback intervention. Both groups completed measures of motivation, self-assessment, and motivated learning behavior.

Pedagogical Intervention: Speaking Assessment and Feedback Cycle

The pedagogical intervention, which aimed to provide learners with the tools to put their visions into action, consisted of four components: (a) a standardized speaking assessment, (b) a self-assessment, (c) feedback on the standardized speaking assessment, and (d) goal setting, which were arranged in a cycle as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2
Intervention Cycle



- a. Standardized speaking assessment: The ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview-computer (OPIc) was used as a speaking assessment. The

rating scale for the OPIc assigns eight proficiency levels: low novice, mid novice, high novice, low intermediate, mid intermediate (1, 2), high intermediate, and low advanced.

- b. Self-assessment: The self-assessment tool, which learners completed three times during one intervention cycle, asked learners to assess their own speaking ability and consisted of 30 can-do statements taken from the Swiss version of the European Language Portfolio (Little & Perclova, 2001). Learners evaluated their ability to do what was described in each statement using a 4-point Likert scale. Items included statements such as “I can introduce myself,” and “I can buy tickets and ride public transportation.”
- c. Feedback on the standardized speaking assessment: Learners received official reports of their rating approximately two weeks after administration of the oral proficiency test. The official report included a description of the relevant proficiency level, which was supplemented by explanation of the relevant proficiency levels in the learners’ native language, Japanese, prepared for the purpose of the study. The performance-level descriptors for the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview specify in detail learners’ language skills and knowledge at each level.
- d. Goal-setting worksheets: Learners completed a post-test goal-setting worksheet and post-feedback goal-setting worksheet after each administration of the oral proficiency test in their native language, Japanese. The post-test goal-setting worksheet asked learners to record their reactions to the oral proficiency test immediately after taking the test. Learners were asked to describe (a) concrete goals for improving their performance on the next test, and (b) how they should study in order to improve their performance on the next test. The post-feedback goal-setting worksheet asked learners to record their reactions after receiving feedback on the test. Learners were asked to describe (a) what they needed to improve, (b) what they needed to do to achieve their goal, and (c) how they should prepare for the next test.

Materials

The three following measures were used to chart the motivational trajectories of learners in both Group 1 and Group 2.

Motivation

Learners filled out a motivation questionnaire multiple times throughout the course of the study: seven times for learners in Group 1 and three

times for learners in Group 2. The questionnaire contained 10 question items adapted from questionnaires used in studies by Yashima (2002) and Gardner (2010). The items focused on learners’ desire to improve their motivation, such as “I want to improve my speaking,” as well as learners’ motivational effort, such as “I make an effort to improve my speaking,” and “I think I spend fairly long hours studying English.” Learners responded on a 7-point Likert scale. See Appendix A for the complete questionnaire.

Self-Assessment of Speaking Ability

The self-assessment measure, described above as part of the intervention cycle also served as a measure of learners’ perceptions of their own speaking ability. The self-assessment measure was completed at seven different time points by Group 1 as part of the pedagogical intervention and at three time points by Group 2.

Table 1
Data Collection Procedure

Time points	Group 1	Group 2 (no intervention)
	Measures	Measures
1. Pre-test 1 Before 1st intervention (June)	Motivation 1 Self-assessment 1 Learning behavior 1	Motivation 1 Self-assessment 1 Learning behavior 1
2. Post-test 1 After 1st standardized speaking assessment (June)	Motivation 2 Self-assessment 2	
3. Post-feedback 1 After feedback from standardized speaking assessment (July)	Motivation 3 Self-assessment 3 Learning behavior 2	Learning behavior 2
4. After summer Between interventions (September)	Motivation 4 Self-assessment 4 Learning behavior 3	Motivation 2 Self-assessment 2 Learning behavior 3

5. Pre-test 2	Motivation 5	Motivation 3
Before 2nd intervention (December)	Self-assessment 5	Self-assessment 3
	Learning behavior 4	Learning behavior 4
6. Post-Test 2	Motivation 6	
After 2nd standardized speaking assessment (December)	Self-assessment 6	
7. Post-Feedback 2	Motivation 7	
After feedback from standardized speaking assessment (January)	Self-assessment 7	
	Learning behavior 5	

Motivated Learning Behavior

Learners also filled out a second questionnaire which asked them to report on their motivated learning behavior during the previous month at multiple time points: five different time points for learners in Group 1 and four time points for learners in Group 2. Learners were asked (a) how much time (in hours and minutes) they had spent to improve their speaking skills outside the classroom per day, and (b) what they had actually done during class time.

Procedure

The study was conducted over a period of seven months. The study was approved by an institutional research ethics committee. Informed consent was obtained from participants at the beginning of the study. As described above, Group 1 participated in two intervention cycles, once in June/July and once in December/ January. As shown in Table 1, Group 1 completed motivation questionnaires and self-assessments at seven time points, and reported on their motivated learning behavior at five time points. Learners in Group 2 completed motivation questionnaires and self-assessment at three time points, and reported on their learning behavior at three time points.

Data and Analysis

The aim of the current study was to examine the trajectory of learner motivation over time with two groups of learners. Data was collected at multiple time points. Therefore, the independent variables in the current

study were Group and Time Points. Dependent variables were motivation, self-assessments of speaking ability, and motivated learning behavior. All of the statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software SPSS 24.0.

Data on Dependent Variables

Motivation. Data consisted of responses to 10 items on a 7-point Likert scale. Possible total scores ranged from a minimum of 10 to a maximum of 70 points. The result of the factor analysis for motivation (see Appendix B) yielded the anticipated two factors: Desire to Improve Speaking and Motivational Intensity. Each of them obtained appreciable loadings (i.e., loadings of more than .35) from the corresponding items. This factor structure supported the presupposition that these two subscales assessed different components of motivation, namely the elements of desire and effort, both of which should be included in an index of motivation according to Gardner (2010). The Cronbach alpha indices of the subscales were .74 and .78, indicating that the items in each subscale had an adequate level of internal consistency (George & Mallery, 2003). Therefore, the total score of motivation was calculated as the sum of the two subscales on motivation.

Self-Assessment. Data consisted of responses to 30 items on a 4-point Likert scale. The possible total scores ranged from 30 to 120 points. Factor analysis yielded three factors: Level A, Level B, and Level C (see Appendix B), each of which obtained considerable loadings from the items corresponding to one of the three proficiency levels (i.e., A, B, and C) categorized in CEFR, illustrating that these subscales successfully served as a can-do list, tapping skills at different difficulty levels. The Cronbach alpha indices were .82, .90, and .80, demonstrating the internal consistency of these subscales.

Motivated Learning Behavior. The data for motivated learning behavior consisted of learners' reports of the average amount of time per day in hours and minutes they spent on improving their speaking skills in the previous month and learners' reports about the specific content or type of motivated behavior. Using grounded analysis, learners' comments were examined for salient themes, and emergent categories for types of learning behavior were identified. After socialization and agreement on the coding categories by both researchers, learner's comments on the remainder of the dataset were then coded by one of the researchers based on these emergent categories. A total of 20% of the data was also coded independently by the other researcher. Interrater-reliability was very high as indicated by Cohen's Kappa ($\kappa = 0.821$).

Data on Intervention

Standardized Speaking Assessment. Table 2 shows learners’ official ACTFL OPIc ratings for the first administration in June and second administration in December. In the first administration, eight learners were assigned to low intermediate, making it the most commonly assigned level. In the second administration, five learners were assigned to low intermediate and six learners were assigned to mid intermediate 1. In terms of individual improvement between the first and second administration of the OPIc, eight learners improved at least one level, nine learners maintained the same level, and five learners were assigned a lower level than their previous rating.

Table 2
Number of Learners Assigned to Each OPIc Proficiency Level (n = 21)

	Novice High	Low Intermediate	Mid Intermediate 1	Mid Intermediate 2	High Intermediate	Advanced
June	2	8	5	2	3	1
December	3	5	6	2	4	1

Goal-Setting. Learners’ goals elicited on their worksheets during the assessment interventions were reported in a previous study (Fujii, 2018), and reflected four types of goals: (1) opportunities for speaking practice, (2) ability to articulate intended meaning in English, (3) knowledge of vocabulary, and (4) knowledge of content (see Fujii, 2018 for detailed descriptions and examples of each category).

Results

Research Question 1

In order to address the first research question *Are there any changes in quantitative measures of motivation and motivated learning behavior of EFL learners who participate in a pedagogical intervention?* multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was first conducted with Group as the between-subjects factor and Time Point as the within-subjects factor to

examine the change in the trajectories of motivation, self-assessment, and motivated learning behavior across time for both Group 1 and Group 2. In preliminary tests, no significant violation of the univariate normality assumption was identified, with skewness and kurtosis both within 3.29. Furthermore, no multivariate outliers were detected at the significance level of .001, as assessed by Mahalanobis distances (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In addition, the result of the Box's M test confirmed the equality of covariance matrices of dependent variables despite the sample size difference of the two groups ($p = .25$).

The results of the MANOVA, according to Pillai's trace, indicated that while the main effect of Group was not significant, $F(3, 74) = 1.89, p = .14$, partial eta squared = .07, that of Time Point was significant, $F(6, 71) = 4.85, p < .001$, partial eta squared = .29. In addition, a significant interaction between Group and Time Point on dependent variables was observed, $F(6, 71) = 6.51, p < .001$, partial eta squared = .36. Therefore, the simple main effect of each variable was next examined using a univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The results of the univariate ANOVA are reported in Table 3 and show that the interaction effect of Group and Time Point was significant for both motivation ($F(1.79, 136.29) = 4.53, p < .016$, partial eta squared = .056) and self-assessment ($F(1.68, 127.28) = 12.62, p < .001$, partial eta squared = .14). This means that for motivation and self-assessment, there were differences in how Group 1 and 2 changed across time. The trajectories of each variable are presented in more detail below. In running the ANOVA, Greenhouse-Geisser values were used for both motivation and self-assessment, in order to correct for violation of sphericity. Bonferroni adjustment of the p-values was employed ($p < .016$) in order to counteract the problem of multiple comparisons.

Table 3
Results of Univariate ANOVA

Source	DV	SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Between Subjects							
Group	M	139.01	1	139.01	1.56	0.23	0.02
	SA	2317.69	1	2317.69	3.80	0.06	0.05
	LB	1049.46	1	1049.46	0.75	0.39	0.01
Error	M	6794.32	76	89.40	-	-	-
	SA	46351.21	76	609.88	-	-	-
	LB	106845.95	76	1405.87	-	-	-
Within Subjects							
Time Point	M	122.20	1.79	68.14	4.31	0.02	0.05
	SA	413.90	1.68	247.15	4.01	0.03	0.05
	LB	1142.04	2	571.02	3.37	0.04	0.04
Time Point × Group	M	128.49	1.79	71.65	4.53	0.015*	0.06
	SA	1304.32	1.68	778.84	12.62	0.000*	0.14
	LB	221.95	2	110.98	0.65	0.52	0.01
Error (Time Point)	M	2155.56	136.29	15.82	-	-	-
	SA	7854.44	127.28	61.71	-	-	-
	LB	25795.78	152	169.71	-	-	-

Note. M: motivation, LB: learning behavior, SA: self-assessment. * indicates p value < .016.

Motivation

Table 4 and Figure 3 show the means and standard deviations of motivation of Group 1 at seven time points of data collection and Group 2 at three time points. The results of the ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between group and time ($F(1.79, 136.29) = 4.53, p < .016$), partial eta squared = .06. As can be seen in the graph, the motivation of both groups declined

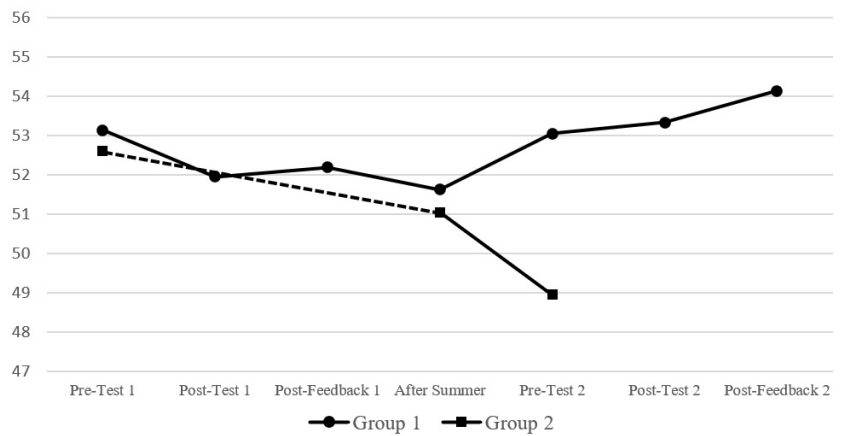
similarly between Pre-Test 1 through After Summer, which includes the period before, during, and after the first intervention.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for Motivation

Time Points	Group 1		Group 2	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Pre-Test 1	53.14	6.48	52.60	6.25
2. Post-Test 1	51.95	6.82	-	-
3. Post-Feedback 1	52.19	7.33	-	-
4. After Summer	51.62	6.41	51.05	6.74
5. Pre-Test 2	53.05	5.63	48.95	5.86
6. Post-Test 2	53.33	6.00	-	-
7. Post-Feedback 2	54.14	5.62	-	-

Note. *n* = 21 (Group 1), 57 (Group 2). Possible score range: 10-70.

Figure 3
Changes in Motivation



Note. A dotted line indicates data points for Group 2 which are further apart than the data points for Group 1.

However, a noticeable difference between the two groups appeared at Pre-Test 2, right before the second pedagogical intervention cycle. At this point, the motivation of Group 2 clearly dropped to a lower level than that at Pre-Test 1, whereas the motivation level of Group 1 was largely maintained during the seven time points. Post-hoc tests confirmed that the gap between the two groups resulted in a statistically significant difference at Pre-Test 2 with a relatively large effect size, $t(76) = 2.77, p < .01$, Cohen's $d = .71$.

Self-Assessment

Table 5 and Figure 4 show means and standard deviations for the self-assessment scores of Group 1 at seven time points of data collection and Group 2 at three time points.

Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations for Self-Assessment

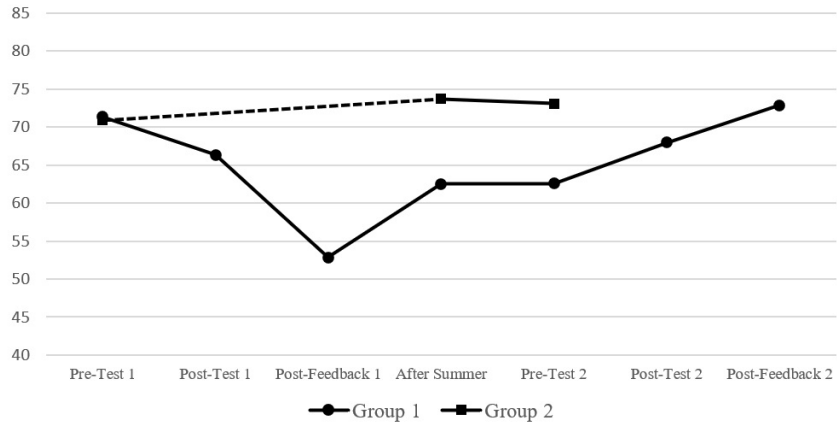
Time points	Group 1		Group 2	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Pre-test 1	71.33	14.14	70.91	15.23
2. Post-test 1	66.33	17.69	-	-
3. Post-feedback 1	52.84	15.22	-	-
4. After summer	62.48	14.39	73.68	15.46
5. Pre-test 2	62.57	15.41	73.07	16.34
6. Post-test 2	67.95	18.66	-	-
7. Post-feedback 2	72.85	16.61	-	-

Note. $n = 21$ (Group 1), 57 (Group 2). Possible score range: 30-120.

With respect to self-assessment, the results of the ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between group and time, $F(1.68, 127.28) = 12.62, p < .001$, partial eta squared = .14. Post-hoc tests confirmed the trends visible in Figure 4. First, they indicated that the self-assessment scores for Group 1 at Post-Feedback 1 were significantly lower than any other time period ($p < .001$), $t(20) = 6.34 \sim 9.79, p < .001$, Cohen's $d = .64 \sim 1.26$, and also that Group 1 scores were noticeably lower than that of Group 2 even at the two subsequent time points where Group 2 completed self-assessment: After

Summer, $t(76) = -2.89, p < .01$, Cohen's $d = .74$, and Pre-Test 2, $t(76) = -2.56, p < .016$, Cohen's $d = .65$.

Figure 4
Changes in Self-Assessment



Note. A dotted line indicates data points for Group 2 which are further apart than the data points for Group 1.

In short, although the self-assessment of Group 2 was relatively stable, that of Group 1 dropped significantly after they received the feedback of their first speaking test. The self-assessment of Group 1 recovered after the summer break, but still stayed significantly lower than that of the control group after summer until gradually rising again after the second standardized speaking assessment.

Motivated Learning Behavior

Table 6
Means and Standard Deviations for Motivated Learning Behavior (Minutes per Day)

Time points	Group 1		Group 2	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Pre-test 1	30.71	25.75	28.77	23.27
2. Post-test 1	-	-	-	-
3. Post-feedback 1	31.90	27.68	28.60	26.67
4. After summer	38.33	25.61	33.25	23.93
5. Pre-test 2	35.71	25.11	28.42	23.63
6. Post-test 2	-	-	-	-
7. Post-feedback 2	35.48	24.59	-	-

Note. *n* = 21 (Group 1), 57 (Group 2).

Figure 5
Changes in Motivated Learning Behavior (Amount of Time Spent)

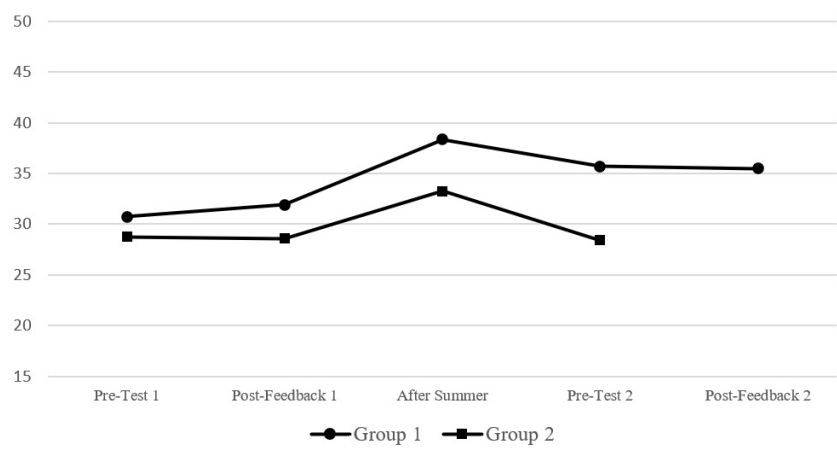


Table 6 and Figure 5 show the means and standard deviations for motivated learning behavior of Group 1 at five time points of data collection and Group 2 at four time points. In comparing the learning behavior (amount of time spent) of the two groups over the course of seven months, Figure 5 shows that Group 1 generally spent more time in speaking practice than Group 2. Nevertheless, as reported above and shown in Table 3, the result of the univariate ANOVA revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in motivated learning behavior between the two groups or between the different time points.

Research Question 2

This section addresses the second research question, *Are there any qualitative changes in motivated learning behavior of EFL learners who participate in a pedagogical intervention?*

Table 7
Number of Reports on Types of Motivated Learning Behavior

	Total reports				Reports per learner			
	Pre-test 1	Post-feedback 1	After summer	Pre-test 2	Pre-test 1	Post-feedback 1	After summer	Pre-test 2
Group 1	31	25	20	21	1.48	1.19	0.95	1
Group 2	34	44	29	29	0.6	0.77	0.51	0.51

Note. *n* = 21 (Group 1), 57 (Group 2).

Table 7 shows the number of learners’ reports about the specific content of their motivated learning behavior at four points in time. These descriptions of motivated learning behavior were categorized into six categories that emerged through qualitative analysis: general output, specific output, general input, specific input, pronunciation, and vocabulary, as shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Coding Categories and Examples for Learners' Motivated Learning Behavior

Category and description	Examples
General output: General reference to quantity of output.	<i>I tried to participate in class; I spoke to my classmate in English.</i>
Specific output: Specific references to nature of output.	<i>I tried to use simple sentences to express my opinions; I tried using many different grammar forms.</i>
General input: General reference to value placed on input.	<i>I listened carefully to my classmates' English.</i>
Specific input: Specific reference to ability to comprehend input or how input was used.	<i>I clarified the meaning when I couldn't understand; I input the phrases my teacher used.</i>
Pronunciation: Reference to pronunciation.	<i>I listened to the native speaker teacher's pronunciation; I was careful of pronunciation when I read aloud.</i>
Vocabulary: Reference to vocabulary which is unrelated to input or output	<i>I wrote down unfamiliar words.</i>

Tables 9 and 10 show the number of learners' reports in each of the six categories for both Groups 1 and 2 as a percentage of the total number of reports. For Group 1, there was a decline in general comments about output from 48% of all reports in June (before the speaking assessment) to 36% of all reports in July (before summer vacation) and an increase in specific comments about output during this same period from 6% to 20% of all reports as shown in Figure 6. In July, one month after the intervention, learners reported engaging in behavior that was described in more specific terms such as "I spoke without looking at my notes," "I tried to paraphrase so that my English is easier to understand," or "I tried to incorporate more filler expressions."

Table 9
Types of Learning Behavior Reported by Group 1 (Percentage)

	June	July	Oct	Dec
General reference to quantity of output	48%(15)	36% (9)	30% (6)	33% (7)
Specific reference to quality of output	6% (2)	20% (5)	20% (4)	24% (5)
General reference to quantity of input	13% (4)	4% (1)	5% (1)	14% (3)
Specific reference to quality of input comprehension	16% (5)	24% (6)	15% (3)	5% (1)
Pronunciation	13% (4)	12% (3)	15% (3)	14% (3)
Reference to vocabulary unrelated to input or output	3% (1)	4% (1)	15% (3)	10% (2)

Note. Raw numbers are shown in (). Percentage points have been rounded.

Similarly, general reports about input declined 9% between June and July, while specific comments about input increased 8% during this time as shown in Table 9 and Figure 7. In July, learners reported more focused behavior such as “asked questions to clarify what my classmates meant,” “when listening to classmates’ presentations, compared the language to what I had prepared.” The increase in specific comments was not maintained between October and December.

Table 10
Types of Learning Behavior Reported by Group 2 (Percentage)

	June	July	Oct	Dec
General reference to quantity of output	53% (18)	50% (22)	59% (17)	28% (8)
Specific reference to quality of output	12% (4)	5% (2)	7% (2)	17% (5)
General reference to quantity of input	0% (0)	2% (1)	7% (2)	7% (2)
Specific reference to quality of input comprehension	15% (5)	9% (4)	3% (1)	14% (4)
Pronunciation	18% (6)	30% (13)	14% (4)	31% (9)
Reference to vocabulary unrelated to input or output	3% (1)	5% (2)	10% (3)	3% (1)

Note. Raw numbers are shown in (). Percentage points have been rounded.

Figure 6
Changes in Learning Behavior of Group 1 (Types of Behavior): Output

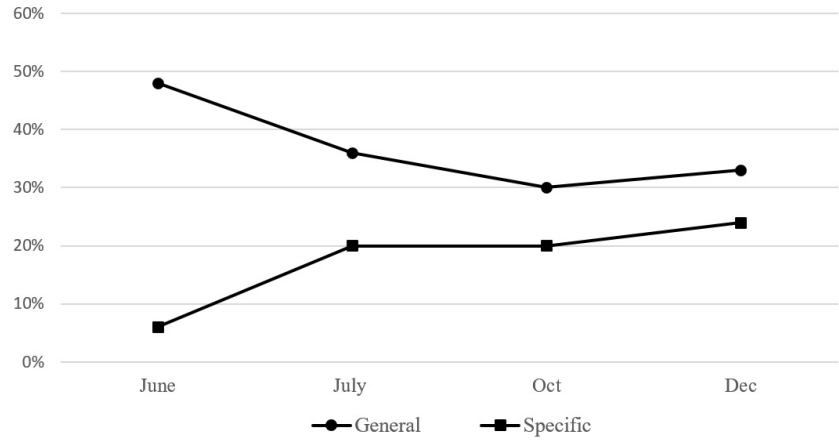
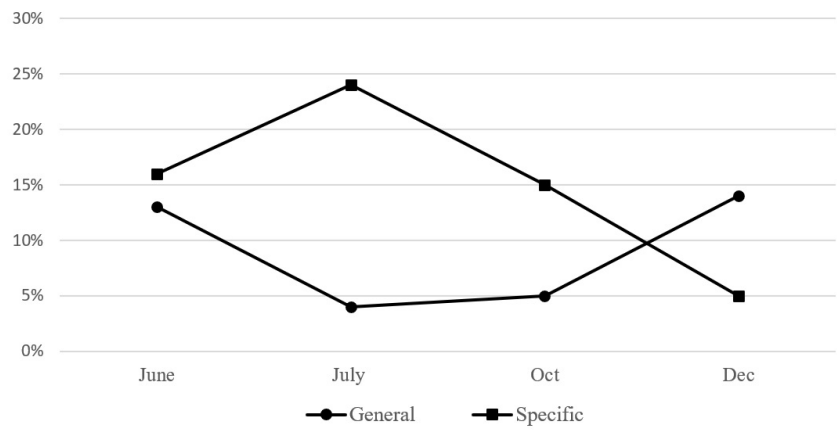


Figure 7
Changes in Learning Behavior of Group 1 (Types of Behavior): Input



In contrast, for Group 2, general reports about output remain high from June through to October, and there was no increase in specific comments about output or input in July or October, although there was an increase in specific comments about both output and input between October and December as shown in Table 10. Thus, while the data indicated no effect of the pedagogical intervention on learning behavior in terms of amount of effort, learners’ reports of their learning behavior showed an increase in focused behavior related to both input and output particularly for Group 1.

Discussion and Conclusions

The goal of the current study was to explore the effectiveness of a pedagogical intervention that included speaking assessment, assessment feedback, and goal setting on learners’ motivation and motivated learning behavior for improving their speaking skills. The findings of the study highlight interesting trends in the quantitative and qualitative trajectories of learners’ motivation in the group that participated in the speaking assessments, especially in comparison to the group which did not participate in the intervention.

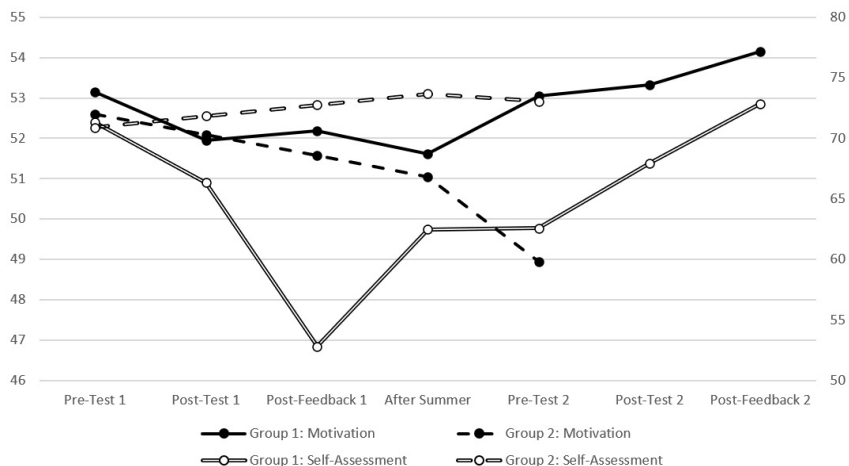
First, as displayed in Figure 8, the learners in the intervention group (Group 1) maintained their motivation over the course of time whereas the

non-intervention group (Group 2) dropped in motivation. Given that previous studies have indicated that motivation generally tends to decline over time (Thorson et al., 2020), the trends for Group 2, align with the default trajectory, while Group 1 displayed a marked path, possibly attributable to having experienced the assessment cycle.

Second, one of the most interesting findings was the significant drop in learners' self-assessment scores after the pedagogical intervention, specifically after the feedback session. This change in self-perception suggests that pedagogical intervention was effective in impacting learners' understanding and evaluation of their current state. Also noteworthy is the timing in the drop of the self-assessment scores after receiving the test feedback rather than immediately after taking the speaking test, suggesting that their perceptions of their own speaking ability were not necessarily modified by the actual test experience, but through the feedback session which also included a goal-setting component. Because the speaking assessment assigned learners to bands with clear descriptors of their performance characteristics, it is likely that learners were able to understand their current speaking ability in objective and comprehensible terms as well as the gap between their current level and the next level, which mostly likely led to the clarification of their immediate learning goals. In other words, learners' increased awareness of their current state most likely provided them with a reliable picture of the discrepancy between their current and future self, a tension which is key in driving motivated behavior (Henry & Cliffordson, 2017; Macintyre et al., 2009; Thorson et al., 2020) and may have led to a clearer view of the procedures for reaching their goal (or ideal L2 self). Conversely, the non-intervention group maintained a higher evaluation on their self-assessment, most likely because they did not have such experiences.

Finally, the findings of the study indicated that the assessment intervention did not impact the quantity of learners' motivated learning behavior (how much they studied), but did impact the quality of their motivated learning behavior (how they studied), which became more focused after the assessment. This serves as some evidence that the assessment made an impact on the learners' roadmaps to their goal.

Thus, taken together, these findings align with the proposed role of the assessment intervention in helping learners to understand their current L2 self, which in turn helped learners to revise their action plans for achieving their goals.

Figure 8*Visual Summary of Learners' Motivation and Self-Assessment Over Time*

Note. The x-axis shows the timing of tests and interventions over the 7-month span. The y-axis on the left shows the level of learners' motivation. The y-axis on the right represents the level of learners' self-assessment. The lines on the graph represent the motivation and self-assessment for Groups 1 and 2 over time.

It should be noted, however, that over the long term, the interplay in dynamics may be more complex. As illustrated in Figure 8, the motivation and self-assessment of Group 1, the intervention group, showed different moves after the first and second tests. Their motivation went down after the first test but marginally increased after the second test. Similarly, whereas their self-assessment fell dramatically after the first test, it slightly improved after the second one. An assessment intervention may have a different impact on motivation and self-assessment depending on the timing or frequency of administration. More longitudinal research is needed to further understand the complexity of the motivational system, and educators should keep this in mind when they incorporate assessment practices in their L2 teaching.

In sum, the findings support a view of motivation which connects an assessment intervention, motivation, and motivated learning behavior, and where assessment as a motivational strategy worked to enhance motiva-

tion and transform motivation to motivated learning behavior. The results of the study suggest that learners may benefit from pedagogical practices that help learners to comprehend their current L2 self and develop concrete and realistic steps that are necessary for realizing their goals. Assessment can be one useful motivational strategy when accompanied by feedback and opportunities for reflection.

Limitations of the study must be recognized. First, because of the ecological context of the study, the two groups were not matched. Some of the differences that were observed over the course of the study may be attributable to factors other than the pedagogical intervention. Thus, there may have been additional factors that contributed to the downward trend in motivation of Group 2. Also, because the learners represent learners and learning in a specific context, the findings of the study may not be applicable to other learners in other contexts. There may have been external factors specific to these groups of learners such as extra-curricular priorities and career goals, for example, that restricted the quantity of time learners directed towards speaking practice outside of the classroom. Finally, whether the benefits of the pedagogical intervention impact learning achievement remains an important question for future study. Although the results of the proficiency tests did not show overall improvement during the period of the current study, it could be that more fine-grained measures of proficiency and a more extended period of study may be necessary to track meaningful change. Further investigation into refining the measures of motivated learning behavior and feedback and goal setting stages of the intervention may also shed more light on the relationship between assessment and improvements in quantity and quality of motivated behavior, and ultimately gains in speaking proficiency.

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Appendices

All appendices are available from the online version of this article at <https://jalt.org/main/jj>.

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Appendix A

Motivation Questionnaire

1. I want to improve my speaking ability.
2. Compared to my classmates, I think I study English relatively hard.
3. I often think about the words and ideas which I learn about in my English classes.
4. I think I spend fairly long hours studying English.
5. I honestly don't care about my speaking ability.
6. When I have the opportunity to speak English in class, I make an effort to participate.
7. I want to make an effort to further improve my speaking ability.
8. I have concrete goals about situations where I want to be able to speak in English.
9. I think my current speaking ability is unsatisfactory.
10. I think about how I can improve my English speaking ability.

Appendix B

Results of Factor Analyses

Results of the Factor Analysis for the Data on Motivation

Items	Factors			
	1	2	Communality	Cronbach α
Desire to Improve Speaking 1	.95	.02	.90	.74
Desire to Improve Speaking 2	.69	.05	.48	
Desire to Improve Speaking 3	.72	.11	.53	
Desire to Improve Speaking 4	.53	.07	.29	
Desire to Improve Speaking 5	.48	-.32	.33	
Motivational Intensity 1	.02	.78	.61	.78
Motivational Intensity 2	.04	.63	.40	
Motivational Intensity 3	-.16	.85	.75	
Motivational Intensity 4	.07	.54	.30	
Motivational Intensity 5	.24	.38	.20	

Items	Factors			
	1	2	Communality	Cronbach α
Intercorrelations				
Factor 1	1.00			
Factor 2	.48	1.00		

Note. Suggested factor names: 1–Desire to Improve Speaking, 2–Motivational Intensity.

Results of the Factor Analysis for the Data on Self-Assessment

Can-Do Items	Factors				Cronbach α
	1	2	3	Communality	
A1 Level 1	.79	–.20	–.05	.67	.82
A1 Level 2	.93	–.03	–.03	.87	
A1 Level 3	.91	–.23	.05	.88	
A1 Level 4	.94	–.16	.07	.91	
A1 Level 5	.90	–.08	.07	.82	
A1 Level 6	.83	–.10	.07	.70	
A2 Level 1	.60	.19	–.05	.40	
A2 Level 2	.48	.23	–.00	.28	
A2 Level 3	.54	.05	.02	.29	
A2 Level 4	.53	.40	–.13	.46	
A2 Level 5	.44	.59	–.10	.55	
A2 Level 6	.45	.51	–.10	.47	

Can-Do Items	Factors				Cronbach α
	1	2	3	Communality	
B1 Level 1	.42	.49	−.02	.42	.90
B1 Level 2	.30	.57	−.03	.42	
B1 Level 3	.25	.67	−.02	.51	
B1 Level 4	−.10	.71	.06	.52	
B1 Level 5	.31	.61	.01	.47	
B1 Level 6	−.06	.59	.14	.37	
B2 Level 1	.32	.35	.17	.25	
B2 Level 2	.26	.50	.10	.33	
B2 Level 3	−.12	.92	−.02	.86	
B2 Level 4	.30	.67	−.02	.54	
B2 Level 5	−.20	.91	.00	.87	
B2 Level 6	−.22	.95	.05	.95	
C1 Level 1	−.08	.70	.16	.52	.80
C1 Level 2	.14	.07	.65	.45	
C1 Level 3	−.27	.40	.44	.43	
C1 Level 4	.02	.03	.78	.61	
C1 Level 5	.10	.07	.70	.50	
C1 Level 6	.01	.02	.93	.87	
Intercorrelations					
Factor 1	1.00				
Factor 2	.63	1.00			
Factor 3	.43	.60	1.00		

Note. Suggested factor names: 1–Level A, 2–Level B, 3–Level C.