L2 Demotivation among Saudi Learners of English: The Role of the Language Learning Mindsets

Fatemah Hammad Eid Albalawi

Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

January 2017

Abstract

The major focus of the thesis is to investigate the complex dynamism of L2 demotivation. It is an attempt to reform previous thinking of demotivation and move the L2 demotivation mainstream research into a new phase that focuses on the complexity of its process and its development. The demotivational, motivational, and remotivational trajectories of language learners were examined through the lens of various key psychological and theoretical constructs including mindset, personality hardiness, learnerd helplessness, and the L2 Motivational Self System. The thesis consists of two studies that investigated the demotivation of female Saudi university students by using a variety of research methodologies, including qualitative in-depth interviews, quantitative surveys, and structural equation modelling.

A primary explorative qualitative study was conducted aiming at examining the Saudi learners' different explanations of their language learning experiences and their various perceptions of different demotivating factors. Semi-structured interviewes were conducted with 13 female learners of English in King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, SAUDI ARABIA . Analysis of the qualitative data showed that the language learning mindset played an important role in the language learner's motivation, demotivation, remotivation, and resilience/vulnerability. However, the relationship between the variables that emerged in the qualitative data needed further investigation in order to be confirmed and generalised to larger populations.

A secondary confirmatory quantitative study was carried out aiming at investigating the impact of having a particular language learning mindset on L2 demotivation. Using the key variables that emerged in the qualitative data, a questionnaire was desgined and administered to 2044 foundation-year university students. A number of tests were conducted to investigate (a) the relationships between the variables; (b) the differences between the growth mindset language learners and the fixed mindset language learners; and (c) the differences between the resilient and vulnerable language learners. The quantitative results confirmed all the hypothesised relationships assumed and established an empirical link between the language learning mindset and both L2 demotivation and L2 resilience.

Finally, a model that assumed that L2 demotivation can be predicted by the fixed language learning mindset was hypothesised. A structural equation modelling (SEM) to empirically test and examine the hypothesised model was conducted. A set of causal relationships were examined simultaneously. The SEM analysis confirmed all the

hypothesised causal relationships and showed that L2 demotivation can be predicted positively and directly by the fixed language learning mindset. It also showed that the fixed language learning mindset can lead to L2 demotivation indirectly via decreasing the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self and increasing L2 disappointment.

Although all the studies were conducted in the Saudi context and with female learners, it is hoped that the wealth of data can serve as an empirical point of departure in the realm of investigation of L2 demotivation. Conceptualising L2 demotivation by focusing on the role of the language learning mindset and its contribution to the learners' perceptions and responses to demotivating factors, seems to provide language educators with a new tool to minimise language learners' demotivation and help them to rebuild their motivation. It also seems to provide future researchers with a new theoritcal model to investigate when researching L2 demotivation in different contexts.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude to my God (Allah), the almighty, for providing me with the required patience and strength to complete this research project, and for blessing me with many great people who guided, supported and assisted me in both the emotional and academic level. I also would like to ask him that this thesis would be a useful source of knowledge that helps other researchers in the field.

Then, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. Zoltan Dornyei, for his continuous inspirational guidance, invaluable support, motivational comments, and fruitful discussions. He has always been available in all stages of research design and writing, to generate my passion, and motivate me to think critically. I will always remember and believe that his guidance and supervision had the greatest positive impact on my journey.

Moreover, I am deeply indebted to my wonderful parents who have taught me so much, and motivated me to achieve all my dreams since I was a little school girl. I thank them for their endless amounts of love, for their emotional support, for listening to me patiently, for making me laugh when I'm sad, and for their precious advice during difficult times. I thank both of them for always being there for me. Without both of them, I don't know where I would be. If I have learned anything while being away from them, it is that they are the most important people in my life.

Furthermore, I am extremely grateful to my husband Salim who assisted me emotionally and financially through this long journey. I deeply thank him for his continuous support, ultimate trust, limitless love, caring words, and for standing besides me in the moments of weakness. It will always be impossible to calculate the sum total of what I owe to him and all the sacrifices that he made and was willing to make. I will never forget that he sacrificed the joy of being with me and our children so I can achieve my dreams. His motivational comments have always fuelled my soul with optimisim and enormously increased my self-confidence through hard times.

My deepest gratitude goes to my beloved sons, Zeyad and Raid. Without them and their trust, I would not be able to overcome the challenges and difficulties that I faced over the years we spent in Nottingham. I thank them for being wonderful and understanding children, and for never giving up on me. They have been my strength when I was weak and I have been their strength when they were weak. Living our lives interdependently abroad was a great

Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

INTRODUCTION

Research on motivation is an independent research field that intrigued researchers in various research domains. Language learning motivation researchers has been extensively interested in the positive factors that affect language learners and generate their interest, and thereby facilitate successful language learning. On the other hand, there is another side of motivation that has been possibly experienced at some point by any language learner. This side involves several negative factors that are called 'demotivating factors'. Contrary to the positive factors that increase the language learner's motivation, demotivating factors can gradullay reduce the motivation and obstruct successful language learning.

Since demotivation is a problem that affect language learners in different contexts worldwide, it seems that this area of research needs to receive separate consideration and attention of research. In other words, besides researching positive factors that motivate language learners, identifying the demotivating factors that obstruct successful language learning and understand the mechanism of L2 demotivation are essential both for L2 teachers and L2 learners.

In Saudi Arabia, English learning is compulsory for the foundation-year students in the universities. However, it is not unusual to observe students who either emotionally withdraw the English course or pursue several strategies to pass the required exams and pass the course with the minimum effort. Several researchers have offered deep insights into the fact that English language teaching in the Arab world has produced unsatisfactory results (Javid & Al-Khairi, 2011; Rababah, 2003; Sahu, 1999). In addition, Al-Seghayer (2014) stated that although tremendous efforts have been exerted to improve the teaching-learning process of English in Saudi Arabia, English programs still fail to deliver as expected, and the learners' proficiency in English remains inadequate and below expectation. He attributed this performance to four major constraints including: beliefs, components of curriculum, and pedagogical and administrative constraints. Language learners' demotivation is among the major factors that could be responsible for ineffective English language teaching-learning in Saudi universities.

Although teaching English as a second language in Saudi Arabia for three years has been a pleasant experience that taught me invaluable lessons as an ESL teacher, observing students who gradually lose interest in learning English or develop learned helplessness was the most challenging and unpleasant part of that experience. Encountering learners who

recognise the importance of learning English but dislike English classroom has intrigued me to start the current research project. I have always been aware of the fact that these learners were not born with this negative attitude toward learning English and that there are, normally, several internal or external factors that increased their dislike toward English learning.

Another behaviour that intrigued me as an English teacher was that some learners were affected by the negative factors for long or short periods but could successfully bounce back and start again, while others remained in the hold of the negative experience for longer periods and were unable to bounce back. Thus, I have been always intrigued by the question of whether there were any internal forces that can decrease the motivational level of these learners after experiencing failures or help other learners to overcome the negative impact on demotivation.

The focus of this thesis will be to investigate L2 demotivation among Saudi Arabian learners of English as a second language. When researching L2 demotivation, it is not merely the identification of demotivating factors that matters but also the varied perceptions of these factors, the various learner's responses to these factors and the variation in the L2 demotivation experiences among the students who are studying in seemingly identical situations. Understanding L2 demotivation will help in suggesting effective strategies to prevent it and ensure sustained motivation and positive behaviour towards English learning. Therefore, the present research project aims at exploring L2 demotivation among Saudi learners of English as a foreign language. It also aims at examining the students' diverse responses in the face of failures, setbacks and difficulties they inevitably encounter in their language learning journey.

The first and second chapter of the thesis will review the literature of L2 motivation and L2 demotivation research respectively. Then, chapter three will briefly review four key concepts from Psychology research that will be adopted in the current thesis, discussing the possibility of its application and relevance in the L2 demotivation research. Chapter four gives an overview of the context where this study is conducted, discussing various aspects that negatively affect or hinders successful learning of English in Saudi Arabia. Chapter five will discuss the methodologies employed in the present study to collect and analyse data. Chapter six presents the results of the first primary exploratory qualitative study in this thesis, which investigates connections among psychological variables that create different language learning worlds or experiences in identical situations. It is also an attempt to explore why some Saudi Arabian learners of English can recover from or adapt to the negative impact of L2 demotivation easier than others. Chapter seven presents the results of the secondary

quantitative study that aimed at generalising the findings of the qualitative study. Finally, chapter eight will highlight the investigation's theoretical and pedagogical implications, discuss its limitations, and conclude by suggesting some directions for future research.

CHAPTER ONE: L2 MOTIVATION RESEARCH

1.1 Researching L2 motivation

The study of L2 motivation has grown as an independent research field that investigates several, psychological, social, cultural, environmental and contextual variables that affect second language learning positively. Over five decades ago, motivation research in the field of second language acquisition began with Gardner pioneering work on language learning attitudes and motivation in the bilingual context of Canada (1959, as cited in Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). Gardner and his associates focused mainly on the integrative motive and to a lesser degree on the instrumental one. Although Gardner's model generated criticism by other researchers over the years, the integrative motive notion has subsequently been investigated in a number of research studies (see Dornyei, 2010). It undoubtedly has constructed a foundation to almost all the ensuing research on L2 motivation and has remained acknowledged for decades (e.g. Dornyei & Clement, 2001; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). In the subsequent decades, there has been a significant variability and development of theories and approaches in the study of L2 motivation.

There has been a remarkable diversity and development of theories and approaches in the study of motivational aspects of L2 learning. Dornyei (2005) have described L2 motivation research as moving through three phases with each phase showing more integration with mainstream theoretical perspectives: the social-psychological period (1959-1990); the cognitive situated period (during the 1990s); the process-oriented period (turn of the century). Six years later, Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) added a fourth phase that was characterised by moving from the process-oriented percpectives to the socio-dynamic perspectives.

1.2 phases of L2 motivation research

1.2.1 The socio-psychological period

In the socio-psychological period (1959-1990), second languages were perceived as mediators between different communities. Therefore, L2 Motivation research, in this period, focused mainly on the effect of the attitudes towards the second language community on the motivational level of the learner. Integrative motive was defined by Gardner (1985) as the desire to learn a second language that results from positive attitude towards the target language community regardless of the nature of the learning context. The three key

components of L2 motivation according to Gardner involve: motivational intensity or effort, desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning the language.

Gardner's framework was the dominant model in the social-psychological period and the majority of studies conducted in that period seemed to be creating their observations based on Gardner's agenda (Skehan, 1989). However, Gardner's model was criticised from other perspectives. For instance, Dornyei (2005) argues conceptual ambiguity can be caused by mixing motivational intensity (effort) with the abstract cognitive concept of motivation. Moreover, World English has been spreading as a decentralised global language, making the argument of integrating with native speakers from Anglophone countries less and less meaningful (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006). Moreover, lamb (2004) found that an integrative and instrumental orientation are difficult to distinguish as separate concepts. (Lamb, 2004).

The socio-psychological period of L2 motivation research witnessed the development of other concepts based on various threads of socio-psychological investigations such as concept of linguistic self-confidence (Clement, 1980), intergroup model (Giles & Byrne ,1982), and acculturation theory (Schumann, 1986). In the 1990s, Clement, Noels and their associates developed the investigation of acculturation theory. According to Dornyei and Ryan (2015), all these approaches focus on the macro-level analysis of the interrelationship between social groups and contextual variables. The development of the new concepts and frameworks has shifted the focus to the situational factors that play a key role in language learning motivation, moving the L2 motivation research to the second phase of cognitive-situated period. Thus, this period witnessed a transition to the alternative more situated perspectives on L2 motivation. For a comprehensive review of the concepts (see Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011).

1.2.2 The cognitive-situated period

In the 1990s, language motivation research has shifted into a second phase, which was described as the cognitive–situated period (Dornyei & Ryan, 2015; Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). In the cognitive-situated period, perspectives on L2 motivation research was notably expanded and new theoretical frameworks integrated new cognitive motivation notions, bringing L2 motivation research in line with mainstream motivational psychology and its cognitive revolution. Although there was a transition from the focusing on attitudes and communities to the more situated analysis of extended motivation constructs in a particular learning context, such as classroom settings, this transition reflects an educational shift in L2 motivation research rather than a rejection of the social-psychological perspectives.

Various models of L2 motivation were developed in that period incorporating new variables adopted from cognitive theories of motivation (e.g. Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; William & Burden, 1997). For a detailed overview of these models (see Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011).

1.2.3 The process-oriented period

The third process-oriented period followed the analysis of L2 motivation from a temporal perspective by William and Burden (1997) who answered the call for a more introspective type of research approach to explore qualitative changes in motivational experience over time by Ushioda (1996). This period witnessed the development of more process-oriented theoretical approaches which means a transition of focus on the changes of language learner's motivational level over time rather than researching motivation as a measurable cause of learning outcomes.

Various theoretical frameworks and models of L2 motivation were developed from a temporal perspective (e.g. Dornyei & Otto, 1998; Ushioda, 1998). Also, many studies were conducted to investigate the temporal aspect of L2 motivation (e.g. Dornyei & Shoaib, 2005; Dornyei, Csizer, & Nemeth, 2006; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004; Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002) and provided similar findings that confirmed a decline in students' motivational level over time.

L2 motivational self system

Dornyei (2010) attempts to reinterpret Gardner's concept of integrativeness in cognitive light through introducing the concept of the ideal L2 self and developing the L2 Motivational Self System (Dornyei, 2005, 2009). Using data from previous large-scale national motivation survey research conducted with Csizer in Hungary on the motivation of over 13,000 students to study five different second languages between 1993 and 2004, Csizer and Dornyei (2005) asserted that L2 motivation can be approached, from a 'self' perspective, as the need to lessen the perceived discrepancies between the actual self and the ideal and ought-to L2 selves. The model was proposed as a theoretical framework by Dornyei opening new research agenda in the field of L2 motivation. Dornyei has charted the existing theories by linking the concept of integrativeness with the ideal self; a link which was empirically tested and confirmed that the Ideal L2 Self significantly correlated with integrativeness (Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009).

The L2 Motivational Self System framework is inspired by Markus and Nurius's (1986) theory of possible selves, Higgins' Self discrepancy theory (1987, 1989, 1996) and other self-theorists who focused on the dynamic nature of the self-system and located the self

at the heart of motivation and action (Cantor 1990). According to self-discrepancy theory, learners compare themselves to the self they aspire to achieve or to the self they think they are expected to be. The learners are expected to experience discomfort and feel vulnerable if they feel discreoancies between themselves and the selves that they are aiming to achive. This gap and the vulnerability or discomfort that they feel can serve as a motivator that help them in reducing the gap between the selves. According to possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986), holding an elaborate vision of a desired possible self may increase and guide the learner's motivation because the imaginary self that was imagined in the past becomes a practical reality that the individual can see, hear, and believe he or she can become in the present and the near future. Each individual has both a desired positive images of the selves he or she expects to become and negative images of the selves he or she wishes to avoid becoming. Therefore, language learners can envision for themselves a desired future that would have a motivational effect in the present.

L2 Motivational Self System consists of three key components: The Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self, and the L2 Learning Experience. Ideal L2 self, refers to the L2-related facet of one's ideal self, such as if the individual would like to become a proficient speaker of an L2 (promotion focus), while ought-to L2 self refers to the features that the individual believes ought to hold in order to avoid negative consequences of not being able to learn or speak a second language (prevention focus). The third component, L2 learning Experience, concerns environment and experience-related motives (Dornyei, 2009). This means that the learners' internal visualisation of their own selves as actual speakers of L2, the external social force and the positive learning experiences are key sources of L2 motivation.

Ample research including many quantitative studies have been conducted in various contexts to empirically test and validate the construct of L2 motivational self system and found that the ideal L2 self is a stronger predictor of language learners' motivation in comparison with integrative motivation (e.g. Al-Shehri, 2009; Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Islam, Lamb, Chambers, 2013; Kim, 2012; MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clement, 2009; Magid, 2013; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009; Yashima, 2009). In addition, there is also a strong explanatory power of L2 learning experience, which exerts important influences on learners' intended effort, and in some cases, the effects of language learning experiences were found to be stronger than the Ideal L2 Self (Csizer & Kormos, 2009). On the other hand, the motivational power of the Ought-to L2 Self was found to be cultural-specific, exerting its influence in the Chinese and Iranian contexts (Taguchi et al., 2009), but found to be non-

significant in the Hungarian (Csizer & Kormos, 2009), and Japanese (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013; Taguchi et al., 2009).

Although Ryan (2009) found that not all positive attitudes have behavioral consequences and argued for the need for a greater role for observation of actual behavior rather than a reliance on reported intentions, most of the studies in the field used learners' intended learning efforts as the relevant criterion measure, assuming that L2 achievement is related to intended learning efforts. Therefore, limited evidence has been provided to establish a link between the self guides and learners' actual L2 achievement. Indeed, most of the studies cited here (e.g. Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009) have used learners' intended learning efforts as the criterion measure, while only a small number of previous L2 motivational self system studies have included participants' actual course grades or proficiency test as measures of actual achievement (e.g., Dornyei & Chan, 2013; Kim & Kim, 2011; Lamb, 2012). By deploying a language proficiency test as a measure of achievement, Lamb (2012) found that regional differences are the strongest predictor of L2 proficiency, followed by participants' parents' level of English proficiency and level of education, while the ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience only marginally influenced L2 achievement among 527 Indonesian school students in three different socioeconomic contexts: a metropolitan city, a provincial town, and a rural area.

Moreover, although the L2 Motivational Self System seems to be currently the dominant framework in the field (Boo et al., 2015), a small number of qualitative studies have been carried out to investigate the underlying processes of the target construct (e.g. Campbell & Storch, 2011; Irie & Brewster, 2013 ; Lamb, 2011; Taguchi, 2013). For example, to investigate why students chose to learn and to continue to learn Mandarin as a foreign language, Campbell and Storch (2011) interviewed seven university students in a longitudinal and cross-sectional study. The results demonstrated that students' choice to learn the language was based on positive learning experiences, the belief that learning Chinese will enhance their potential job opportunities, and their personal goals including both mastery and performance goals. Campbell and Storch also associate the finding that demotivating experiences stemming from the learning environment did not necessarily lead to decisions to discontinue language study to the learners' identity factors. Thus for some learners, their possible self images remained unchanged and steady even if their experience in the L2 learning-context demotivated them.

While L2 motivation research has paid attention to the dynamic nature of motivation and to the process of motivational changes in L2 learning by drawing on the notions of ideal

L2 self and ought-to L2 self, there is a lack of research that adopts the L2 motivational self system to investigate the role of the ideal L2 self within L2 demotivation. Recently, Kim (2012) compared Dornyei's (2009) motivational self system with Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model by investigating 2,783 Korean students' English learning motivation from Grades 3 through 12 in 14 different schools. The results indicated that Korean EFL learners' motivational trend consistently decreased until Grade 9 but increased from Grades 10 to 12. It was evident that Dornyei's L2 motivational self system was a better predictor than Gardner's socio-educational model in terms of the explanatory power for students' English proficiency. The study also provided empirical evidence that the students with a strong ideal L2 self were more successful in setting personalised goals and participating in personally meaningful activities when demotivating factors were present, while demotivation had positive correlations with the ought-to L2 self and two types of instrumentality: promotion and prevention-based. The ought-to L2 self, compared with the ideal L2 self, is not fully internalised. The findings suggest that learners` ability to visualise their ideal L2 self could help them in overcoming demotivation and remotivating themselves. Although Kim's research aimed to measure students' differing level of motivation in various motivational subcomponents, the research design was not longitudinal. By investigating data obtained from from students in Grades 3 to 12, the participants' motivational changes were inferred. Another limitation was Kim's reliance on quantitative surveys, without paying attention to learners' voices and perceptions of their own motivational changes.

1.2.4 The current period

Consistent with wider current lines within the field of applied linguistics that reflected a focus on dynamic systems approaches in language learning research and as a result of the emergence of some critical voices in the process-oriented period of L2 motivation research, the current socio dynamic period has evolved (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). Shifting to sociodynamic perspectives and emphasising the dynamic nature of motivation and its temporal variation during this period, the focus of L2 motivation research moved from the linear cause-effect approaches and the process-oriented paradigm into adopting a complex dynamic systems perspective that focuses on the dynamic system of complex non-linear relations among relevant features, phenomena and processes. Since then, L2 motivation research witnessed an increasing interest in investigating the complex interaction between the concepts of self and context in a dynamic way.

In this period, attention in the field of applied linguistics has been shifted to view language learning as complex and dynamic processes. Investigations in SLA which was

adopting a traditional research frame, using the more static or linear approaches (Jessner, 2008) started adopting the anti-reductionistic Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) (van Geert, 2000). The CDST paradigm was proposed in the research community by the introduction of nonlinear system dynamics into the field: chaos theory (Larsen-Freeman, 1997); emergentism (Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006), dynamic systems theory (de Bot et al, 2007), complexity theory (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) prepared a book-length overview of L2 motivation research and presented an extensive argument supporting the theoretical validity of Dynamic approaches.

Therefore, CDST approach was seen as the dynamic turn in the field of second language acquisition. It has sprung a new type of conceptual and methodological language on the field. Accordingly, L2 motivation major scholars starting to challenge the traditional linear cause-and-effect research paradigm and adopted a dynamic mindset. They started to conceptualised motivation by adopting CDST as a theoretical framework to explain the interactions between different agents and elements of the system. CDST fundamentally focuses on developmental paths of individuals (i.e. what is going on in the individual/ changes and variations within and across individuals over time) rather than group data (Schumann, 2015). According to Dornyei (2014), a complex or dynamic system should have at least two or more elements that are interlinked with each other but also change independently over time. Given the interdependence of the various components of the system, changes in one part of the system lead to changes in other parts of the system in ways that are not entirely predictable. There is never an end state for a system but rather it is constantly dynamic and in a continually emergent state.

A key focus of CDST is to explore how different parts of a complex system interact and give rise to the system's collective behaviour and how the same system interacts with its environment or other systems simultaneously (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). All systems are dynamic and are typically described as being in a state of flux as the system constantly adjusts and changes through its ongoing development. The change, sometime, can be dramatic and sudden, while it can be gradual and subtle other times. By fluctuating but retaining its overall state in a process known as dynamic stability, the system may also maintain its equilibrium (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) have developed a 16-step procedure known as complexity thought modeling as a way to research complexity. They argue that the main focus should be on creating qualitative models of human behaviour. The steps of the procedure included: identifying the different components of the system, including agents,

processes, and subsystems; identifying the timescales for each component and the levels of social and human organisation on which it operates; describing the relations between and among components; describing how the system and context adapt to each other; describing the dynamics of the system, describing the dynamic processes and the kinds of change that can be observed in the system over time (i.e steady change or discontinuous leaps from one state to another in phase shifts or bifurcations); identifying the contextual factors that are working as part of the system; identifying processes of co-adaptation with other systems; identifying the motors of change that seem to lead to phase shifts; identifying candidate collective variables that can be used to describe the system, before and after phase shifts; describing the state space landscape of the system; finding where the attractor states in the state space and the degree of their stability; describing the common patterns and the trajectory of the system in its state space; identifying regions of the state space that are most used by the system or seldom visited; describing variability happens around stability (attractors); and finally identifying possible emergence and self-organisation across timescales. These steps allow researchers to envision the system when particular limits are changed (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Larsen-Freeman (2015) and Dornyei, Henry, and MacIntyre (2015) have drawn up a set of powerful maxims and certain dynamic principles that are required to be internalised in our worldviews when conceptulising motivation from a CDST perspective. The key priciples they discussed are summarised as follows:

- Open system: motivation can be seen as an open system that fluctuates from one state to another repeatedly with continuous interference from additional environmental and contextual factors and other processes. It remains open an continue to evolve by interacting with its environment;

- Complexity, self-organisation and non-linearity: self organisation is the driver of the change, so a set of processes happen when the elements in the system develop and interact spontaneously and patterns emerge from the complexity of the system spontaneously, without any centralised control. Nonlinearity means that variables do not always have linear relations to one another. The system has its own self-organising features where internal and external contexts are continuously integrated by feedback loops, creating nonlinear changes in motivated behaviour;

- Attractor state/ attractor basin: as the system develops over time, it will settle into states known as attractor states. It is a critical value, pattern, outcome or solution towars which the system settles down or approaches over time. Attactor basin is the

set of all initial conditions that allow a dynamic system to eveolve to a certain attractor state;

- Phase transition/ phase shift/ emergence: phase shift represents a discontinuity in a developmental change. Emergence, In some cases, occurs when a phase shift lead to something different from before.

- Interconnectedness: all the components of the system overlap and interact interdependently. There is complete interconnectedness among all elements of the system, so change in one component will impact all other parts of the system. This also means that every system is always a part of another system (de Bot et al., 2007);

- Change, variability and stability: motivation must be conceived more as processes than states. While periods of stability might be reached, nothing in the system is fixed. Motivation is dynamic and undeniably changes over time. Variability of motivation can be obsereved from a short-term or longer-term timescale. Intra-individual variability is particularly important especially prior to a state of change in a system.

- Space: system change is seen as movement in a trajectory across state space, it is attracted to certain regions of state space, while repelled by others;

- Timesclaes: the conclusions about motivation are tied to the timescale on which they occur. So the change and the repeating patterns can be observed over various timescales;

- Multicausality and soft assembly: the change in motivation is not caused or controlled a single cause or factor and elements of the system are not hardwired. Rather, elements of the system interact in different ways according to the task or context;

- Levels of abstraction of the system: the patterns can be obsereved and the interrelationships among processes can be focused on at different levels of abstraction (e.g. at an abstract sense, within an individual, or at a group level);

- Sensitive dependence on the initial conditions: at any point in the evolving trajectory of the system, even a small change in a component or a minor influence can change the direction of the whole system;

- Adaptation: a complex dynamic motivation system does not remain passive in light of changing events. Rather, it is feedback sensitive in that it learns to adapt by changing in response to positive or negative feedback from its changing environment;

- Co-adaptation: a complex system changes as a result of interaction with other related systems through processes of negotiation between these systems.

Zoltan Dornyei, Peter MacIntyre and Alastair Henry have edited an anthology titled "Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning". The anthology presented a journey of great deal of dedication and hard work on a robust research project that was devoted to the most recent research in dynamic systems theory in L2 motivation. The initiation of the project resulted from a growing interest in CDST research that takes well-recognised motivation constructs and applies dynamic principles to their investigation, and thus produces convincing empirical evidence for the sustanibility of the approach. After invitations to join the project were sent to recognised L2 motivation researchers, interested scholars met at a colloquium on Motivation Dynamics in Second Language Acquisition orginised by Dornyei and MacIntyre in the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) annual conference in 2013. The colloquium presented the goals of the project.

During the eight subsequent months, initial manuscripts were submitted, edited and revised. Following strict selection criteria, only twenty one papers were finally accepted because they yielded a unique or unfamiliar way of approaching research questions and were instantiating complex dynamic systems research. As a result, the first ever international conference on Motivational Dynamics and Second Language Acquisition in August 2014 (Nottingham, UK) attracted 170 attendants from over 30 countries, indicating the increasing interest in CDST. This growing interest in the subject also created further publication and research opportunities, initiating the interest of publishers who ignored any commercial apprehension about anthologies dedicated to L2 motivation. The anthology was divided into two parts: The first part included 9 chapters that present conceptual summaries that clarified some of the key issues in CDST while the second part presented 12 empirical studies that were conducted adopting CDST and using a variety of new or novel methods.

Challenges of applying CDST

Although CDST promises to offer new and different ways of understanding processes of SLA (de Bot et al., 2013), it became elusive when it came to operationalising the approach (Dornyei, 2014) and most attempts to get beyond a linear modelling by using a nonlinear framework have mostly been unsuccessful (Byrne & Callaghan, 2014). One of the challenges in researching developmental processes is that it is difficult to explain the actual processes of learning that take place on a smaller time scales (van Geert, 2000).The novelty of the dynamic perspective and the absence of established research tools presented a challenge to the researchers in the field, especially new researchers such as Masters and PhD students who found conducting CDST research too difficult and too risky (Dornyei et al., 2015).

Many researchers admittedly acknowledged the difficulties within this framework and described applying dynamic systems theory as a overoptimistic way of begging for trouble (Van Geert & Steenbeek, 2005). In addition, de Bot et al. (2007) believes that there are still some unresolved issues in CDST. Three aspects of the paradigm have certainly pushed the researchers into unfamiliar region (see Verspoor et al., 2011): (a) difficulty of modelling nonlinear change (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011) ; (b) observing the operation of the whole system and the interaction of the parts rather than focusing on variables (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011); (c) finding alternatives to traditional quantitative research methodologies, which used statistical instruments to examine linear rather than dynamic relationships. According to Dornyei et al. (2015), the challenge that applied linguists and language psychologists have been facing is not only having to master new research skills to adopt a novel paradigm, but is related also to the difficulty of transferring the nonlinear system approach from natural sciences to the social sciences. They note that while the current situation show that DST research was hailed in the field of SLA as having a promising potential, scholars interested in the approach find themselves lost without any templates or principles they could rely on in producing productive research designs, and even without a clear set of new research metaphors to use.

CHAPTER TWO: L2 DEMOTIVATION RESEARCH

2.1 What is L2 demotivation: defining the terms

In the previous section, I introduced L2 motivation and gave a brief review of the development of L2 motivation research over the last six decades. While the motivation is one of the most powerful component of successful language learning, Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) point out that there is a "dark side" of motivation and identified various factors that may negatively affect the language learner motivation. Looking back in the long history of research into motivation, it can be concluded that motivation has been increasingly perceived and studied as a complex and multi-layered construct consisting of various influences with a positive effect. However, demotivation is another aspect of motivation that has been introduced in the literature as new area of research but has received inadequate attention in the field of second language research. It is recognised that, in addition to the positive influences that can promote or affect learner's motivation, there are many other factors that have a significant major negative impact on students' motivation during the learning process. Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) refer to these factors as demotivating factors.

The definition of demotivation has been introduced and expanded over the years. Dornyei (2001) defined demotivation as "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or ongoing action". Another definition was given in the area of instructional communication by Zhang (2007) to demotivation as "the force that decreases students' energy to learn and/or the absence of the force that stimulates students to learn".

Although demotivation was a relatively new issue in the field of L2 motivation, research findings were able to shift the previous scope of research on external demotivating factors like teacher immediacy to internal elements such as psychological reasons. Several research studies conducted after 2001 and found that demotivating factors can be external or internal (e.g Arai, 2004; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Ikeno, 2002; Kojima, 2004; Tsuchiya, 2006). Therefore, Kikuchi (2011) expanded Dornyei's definition of demotivation as "specific external forces" and redefined it by adding the internal factors: "the specific internal and external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or ongoing action".

Recently, Kikuchi (2015) distinguished between different terms that are related to demotivation: demotivators, demotivating, demotivated. He argued that the previous definition, that was introduced in 2011 by Dornyei, describes demotivators rather than demotivation. In his book, he states that the demotivating internal and external forces are the demotivators which pull the learners down and make them demotivated. He also analysed the term and split the word de-motivation and redefined demotivation based on the meaning of the prefix de- and the term motivation in the American Dictionary of the English Language. Therefore, he concluded that if L2 motivation concerns the process that includes goals and activities which stimulate and sustain motivation, demotivation can be seen as the negative process that pulls leaners down.

2.1.1 Definition of L2 demotivation in the current thesis

Based on different definitions of demotivation provided in the literature, I will define L2 demotivation in the current thesis as "the language learner's gradual loss or reduction of the initial interest and energy that is caused by specific external or internal forces". It should be noted here that student's L2 motivation is dynamic and the trends of previous research indicated its fluctuation (Miura, 2010). Also, Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) confirm that demotivation does not mean a complete loss of motivation or the annulment of all the positive forces that created that motivational basis and that other positive forces may still be operating when demotivation occurs. Thus, if the demotives cease to exist for any reason, the level of motivation can return to normal and recovery from demotivation may occur. However, Nakata (2006) confirms that demotivation is only a first stage that may develop and move to the second stage of amotivation, and then a third stage, learned helplessness when students shape dense negative beliefs.

2.1.2 Demotivation vs. amotivation

Dornyei (2001) has distinguished between "demotivation" and "amotivation". He explains that amotivation is an absence of motivation caused by the belief that there is no point in learning a second language and that an amotivated learner is someone who thinks that there is no point in pursuing learning. Thus, amotivated learners were not motivated at any stage of the learning process. In their self-determination theory, Deci and Ryan (1985) introduced the term "amotivation" when referring to the relative lack of motivation that is not caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by a feeling of incompetence helplessness when facing a new activity.

Based on the self-determination theory, Vallerand (1997) identified four beliefs that can be key sources of amotivation: (1) capacity-ability beliefs (e.g the learner think that he/she lacks the ability); (2) strategy beliefs (e.g. the learner thinks that strategies used are not effective); (3) capacity-effort beliefs (e.g. the learner thinks that too much effort required to achieve the goal); or (4) helplessness beliefs (e.g. the learner think that the efforts made are irrelevant with regard to the difficulty of the task to be accomplished). Although it may seem difficult to differentiate between the symptoms of amotivation and demotivation, a major difference between the two phenomena is the existence of the initial interest to learn something new which means that motivation must exist before a subsequent decrease can happen. Thus, demotivation can only occur if this initial interest exists and if specific internal or external forces reduce it. Nevertheless, it should be noted that in some cases, demotivation may have extreme negative influences that lead to amotivation (Yan, 2009).

2.1.3 Defining and researching L2 remotivation

The last term that is related to demotivation and will be used in my thesis is "remotivation". Several studies have been conducted in different contexts such as Saudi Arabia, Korea and Japan to suggest effective coping strategies that help teachers to prevent L2 demotivation or rebuild their students' motivation; i.e. remotivate them (e.g. Carpenter, Falout, Fukuda, Trovela, & Murphey, 2009; Daif-Allah & Alsamani, 2013; Falout, 2012; Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Falout; Murphey, Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Murphey, Fukuda & Trovela, 2013; Hamada, 2011). In my thesis, I will refer to L2 remotivation when discussing "the process of conscious or unconscious retrieval of the lost energy to learn a second language or the recovery from L2 demotivation caused by any positive internal or external forces".

Falout and Maruyama (2004) compared 86 lower and 78 higher proficiency learners and found a probability dependence between past demotivation and present negative affect toward EFL learning only in the lower proficiency group, while the higher proficiency group had fewer individuals with present negative affect. They found that low proficiency learners reported experiencing demotivation earlier in their formal schooling than did higher proficiency learners, thus holding negative affect toward EFL learning longer. After consistently having low test scores, they could not see progress, and started believing they had no aptitude for EFL learning and tended to solidify their entity mindsets. Consequently, they fell into learned helplessness (Seligman & Maier, 1967) and disengaged from studying believing they cannot change the outcomes. Another distinction between the groups was that

the higher proficiency learners were more likely to attribute demotivation to external factors, especially teachers, while lower proficiency learners were more likely to attribute their demotivation to internal factors, particularly disappointment in performance. In Addition, Arai (2004) compared the self-regulatory strategies used by more and less successful learners. The results showd that the less successful learners reported maladaptive self-regulatory strategies, such as sleeping in class, dropping out of class, ignoring the teacher, and discontinuing study.

To confirm that affective regulation positively influences learning outcomes, Falout et al. (2009) conducted a follow up study and surveyed 900 university EFL learners to investigate the demotivating factors in learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in Japan, and the relationship between past demotivating experiences and present proficiencies. Demotivating factors were grouped into three categories: external conditions of the learning environment, internal conditions of the learner, and reactive behaviors to demotivating experiences. Affective states and capacity to self-regulate learning were compared among learners with varying academic interests, experiences, and proficiencies. The results showed that affective states and self-regulatory capacities correlated with English proficiency outcomes more than did the frequency of demotivational experiences. They found that learners who could control their affect by displaying more frequent use of self-regulating behaviors about learning English ultimately achieved higher proficiency no matter how many times they had negative experiences. On the other hand, learners with lower self-confidence who were less able to control their affective states, correspondingly showed less capacity to self-regulate when facing difficulties in L2 learning. Thus, they displayed more maladaptive coping behaviors, such as disengaging from studying or telling themselves that they are not good at foreign languages and tended to blame themselves more for their learning setbacks and achieved lower proficiency. Therefore, Falout et al. (2009) suggested that learning outcomes could be improved by considering the affect of the learner and the development of adaptive self-regulatory skills. They argue that the teachers have the greatest potential, for better or worse, to influence the external contexts in the classroom and the internal conditions of the learner, by promoting socially motivating and humane environment rich in meaningful interaction, with a variety of learning methods and courses at appropriate levels.

Antecedent conditions of the learner (ACL) is a collection of psychological variables, including goal orientation, expectations of success, attitude and value toward the subject, and self-concept, that are carried from the students' past into their present forming their present attitudes, beliefs, self-regulation and their future selves (Gorham & Millete, 1997). ACL can

obstruct or facilitate EFL learning, particularly in the area of motivational and learning strategy use (Carpenter et al., 2009). In Japan, Carpenter et al. (2009) investigated how 285 university learners' processes of recovery from demotivation to remotivation in English language learning as well as the maintenance of motivation. The learners reflected back to their past English classroom experiences by charting the ups and downs of their past motivation, writing their English learning histories and then completed a questionnaire about the causes of their demotivation and their remotivational pathways (unintentional or intentional).

The participants were devided into three groups for comparison based on antecedent conditions of the learner (ACL): high positive ACLs, low positive ACLs, negative ACLs. All three groups showed similar level of motivation in junior high school, but their motivation changed differently later on. Motivation of high positive ACLs rose upward all the way into university. On the other hand, both the negative and low positive ACL groups began losing motivation in their second or third year of junior high school and experienced their lowest motivational points in the middle period of high school. Negative ACLs' experienced a brief run of remotivation in their first year of college, but often experienced demotivation again by their second year, while motivation of low positive ACLs rose during high school, resulting in higher motivation by university. The dynamic nature of the timelines showed average from each group, so the upward trand of motivation of high poisitive ACLs does not mean they never experienced demotivation. Individually, most students have both negative and positive experiences, but positive ACLs had dealt with them more adaptively than negative ACLs. The findings showed that demotivation and remotivation were experienced differently by the three groups. While negative ACLs were demotivated by the difficulty of their courses and loss of self-confidence, positive ACLs were demotivated by overuse of the grammar–translation method and poor teaching. With regard to remotivation, the three ACL groups demonstrated sharp contrasts in the amount and distribution of strategies reported. Using motivational and meta-cognitive learning strategies in greater types and frequencies and influenced positively by significant others in their social environment (i.e. teachers, peers, and family members) for becoming remotivated to learn English, high positive ACLs reported experiencing shorter periods of demotivation.

The remotivators they applied also included the use of English music and movies (as mood-boosters) and their imagined social capital. In contrast, negative ACLs reported that what they lacked most was support from their social environment. After setbacks in their English studies, they used fewer types of learning strategies, and using them less often, to

regain control and self-confidence. They also displayed a tendency towards isolated, helpless states. In addition, the salient difference among these learners was their self-appraisals in relation to academic experiences. It is not what these learners experience that matters. Rather, it is the way these learners perceive and react to their experiences, how their positive and negative experiences interact with their academic self-concept, and how they use self-regulatory capacities to cope and engage in learning (Carpenter et al., 2009). The analysis of the students' responses uncovered 24 different strategies which we grouped into five basic categories: (1) out-of-class self-regulated action (e.g. seeking out authentic contexts of practice); (2) cognitive/affective modification (e.g. imagining a future-self); (3) in-class self-regulated action (e.g. competing with classmates for fun); (4) goal focus (e.g focusing on long- or short term goals like quizzes or entrance exams); (5) demotivator avoidance (e.g taking a break from study).

Learners avoid or survive difficulties through a process of coping or "regulation under stress" (Skinner & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007). To cope with L2 demotivation or demotivating factors, language learners develop a number of coping strategies to achieve their learning goals. These strategies may be adaptive or maladaptive coping processes and are influenced by the learners' beliefs about themselves and their experiences (Falout, 2012). Adopting a framework of higher-order families of coping and adaptive processes (the framework covers a wide range of coping processes) from Skinner and Zimmer-Gembeck (2007), Falout (2012) investigated the developmental stages of coping to regain and maintain motivation along the long path toward language acquisition and how they can lead to building various adaptive processes, or to self-defeating helplessness, in the face of learning obstacles. In order to compare the short and long term coping processes of learners with positive and negative self-concepts regarding EFL, he administered an open-ended questionnaire to 157 university learners in Japan, asking them about the ways they lost, regained, and maintained motivation when learning English as a foreign language. Overall, positive ACLs were more than half as likely to use adaptive processes flexibly and simultaneously to maintain motivation to learn. In contrast, negative ACLs' responses indicated a slower development of using adaptive processes. They were more than three times as likely to report maladaptive processes, and some may never recover from learned helplessness. Consistent with the study from Carpenter et al. (2009), it was also found that positive ACLs more often reported using their social networks for motivational support than negative ACLs, who believed such support would have helped them to remotivate. Therefore, Falout (2012) suggested that, in order to remotivate language learners, teachers can model adaptive processes in a variety of ways by:

(1) verbalising the strategies while performing the task; (2) attributional retraing ;(3) promoting repeat use of practices effective for learning; (4) promoting positive self-concepts and incremental mindsets through praising effort rather than personality; and (5) creating socially supportive learning environments that are rich in social interaction for modeling adaptive processes. Additionally, Falout suggests that the learners can remotivate themselves by using critical participatory looping (which will be discussed below) to talk about their motivational problems and share their motivation strategies to encourage each other.

Imagined social capital is defined as the benefit that is created by participating in imagined or symbolic networks that stimulate a desire to belong to a network of professionals or peers to which one does not yet belong (Quinn, 2010). In an attempt to impart remotivational suggestions for teachers and policymakers, Falout et al. (2013) buildt upon the study conducted by Carpenter et al. (2009) and investigated the ability of Japanese learners to reverse their demotivation by analysing their remotivational strategies within the context of their learning and by looking at how these learners use their social capital and imagined social capital within EFL contexts to remotivate themselves. Contrary to previous research findings, their study indicated that positive ACLs appear to be spending less effort at remotivation. This was attributed to their existing high motivation levels or to their effective application of motivational strategies that suit their situations. In sum, the results of this study showed that (a) the level of demotivation and the attribution varied among the the three groups of learners; (b) the selection of remotivational strategies and the frequency of using them varied among the three groups; and (c) a salient factor for remotivation was unintentional help received from those in the social environment, particularly during the early stages following demotivation. Positive ACLs were twice as likely to report becoming remotivated unintentionally through the care of teachers, friends, and families. It is not clear whether positive ACLs had been more motivationally receptive to it or had been more circumstantially lucky. In both cases, the received help seems to have made the biggest difference for their remotivation.

To remotivate language learners, they suggested the following: (1) having smaller class sizes to allow more interaction and communication; (2) developing decentralised educational policies; (3) allowing teachers to be more flexible in their approaches to teaching and learning; (4) establishing better relationships between students and teachers ; (5) creating environments that are more conducive to interaction in and out of the classroom; (6) employing materials that are at the students' level; (7) allowing teachers to apply fresh methodologies and adapt to their students rather than being tied to strict guidelines and

materials; (8) attending more to the good group dynamics of classes and allowing friendly socialisation between learners; (9) promoting more in and out of class cooperation by structuring homework that requires collaboration; and (10) looping the list of student remotivation strategies (made by the learners) back to them to read.

It has been demonstrated that repositioning learners as co-researchers can influence them beyond the classroom. When it is clear to our students that their comments could change the educational system, many feel empowered with a sense of responsibility leading to improved classroom and social engagement (Murphey & Falout, 2010). They argue that by eliciting students' voices into the processes of research and education, students' sense of ownership of their education can be increased and their self-directed development as more proactive, autonomous, interactive, and critically thinking students can be promoted. Based on the participatory and critical concepts of Dewey (1997), and the concern in ethnography for credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), Murphey and Falout (2010) developed critical participatory looping (CPL) that enables large groups of students to participate and make critical inquiries, stimulated by their teacher-researchers and peers to reflect, make meaning, and take intelligent action in their learning communities while potentially transforming larger learning environments. CPL seeks understandings from participants through an iterative feedback loop to provide enriched data interpretation. It can be understood as a group-style variation of member checking, in which researchers double-check their notes, interpretations and conclusions with participants.

Two studies were conducted to invetigate how CPL increased learner engagement and motivation, and remotivation. In both studies, it was evident it can be used as a tool to raise awareness of the possibilities for change. In addition, the act of reflecting allowed students the agency to repack their baggage by discarding useless beliefs and strategies, and packing more useful ones for the future. In the first study which was conducted by Carpenter et al. (2009), after investigating the university students' attributions of L2 demotivation and remotivation in the first layer of the study. Within the second layer, the participants examined the top-20 most frequently noted strategies to maintain motivation to learn EFL that were identified in the first layer. They were given a scrambled list of strategies to maintain motivation and were asked to guess the most frequent items, to mark which ones they prefer, and finally to guess how the strategies were ranked. Then, they were given the actual ranking of the strategies and were asked again about their opinion about the research. The participants' responses indicated CPL increased their motivation and validation in three areas: (a) competence and relatedness (i.e. students confirmed confidently that their own study

methods were valid like others); (b) hope and personal agency (i.e. students valued the introduction of different pathways of remotivation and requested more information); and (c) voice and social agency (i.e students appreciated listening, sharing, and respecting their views and experiences, and that their contributions to the research might influence education now and in the future). Carpenter et al. (2009) concluded that teachers can facilitate the emergence of agentive thinking by providing environments rich in meaningful interaction and by guiding the students' interaction through unpacking their collective baggage, and noticing their classmates' motivation/remotivation pathways.

In the second study, Murphey, Falout, Elwood, and Hood (2009) argued that listening to student voice is an increasingly imperative issue and suggested ways for teachers to do action research on their teaching and bring student voice more authenticity. Therefore, teachers need to listen and reflect upon their own practices in the classroom and then take intelligent action by making changes as needed. According to Murphey et al., when teachers become co-learners with their students, the classroom becomes a supportive community where teachers and students continually collaborate to learn from each other. In their study, they asked 440 university students to comment on their junior high school and high school EFL classes in an open-ended survey to find how they viewed their experiences. This first layer of data was grouped into three categories: positive experiences, negative experiences, and suggestions for change in secondary EFL education. These categories and top-10 descriptive subcategories were listed in tables. The tables of findings were then returned to the same students to be discussed in small groups. Within this second layer, the students' comments raised concerns that we would have missed if using only first-layer data. For instance, an inconsist finding that intrigued the researchers was that grammar-related comments ranked into the top three categories in both positive and negative sections. The findings about grammar were further analysed to clarify the inconsistency. It was found that students valued the grammar instruction because they believed it was helpful only for performing well in the entrance exams of high school and college, but were not intrinsically interested in grammar. Emphasising the importance of listening to the students' voice (i.e experiences, interpretation of their experiences, and how the social context shapes these interpretation), they suggested four practical ways for teachers to do action research on their teaching and bring student voice more authenticity: (1) language learning histories (LLH) (i.e. teachers ask students to write their LLHs in order to become informed about what students have done, liked, learned, and believe); (2) action logs and newletters (i.e. students regularly list and evaluate activities done in the class in terms of their usefulness for their learning); (3)

surveys (i.e. schools use surveys to invite student voice to inform their educational practices and to attract prospective students from Japan and overseas); and (4) student petitions (i.e. inviting students to express their views publicly and to ask for changes in the present).

From the vision perspectives (Dornyei & Kubanyiova, 2014), one of the key remotivational strategies when language learners have negative self-beliefs and become demotivated or helpless would be to help them to look beyond their negative experiences of learning by enabling them to form realistic expectations about their future L2 visions. Recently, to begin integrating an interdisciplinary understanding of past selves for teachers and researchers working in the area of applied linguistics, Falout (2016) explored the relationship between the learners' pasts and their present motivated learning behaviours and discussed how learners' notions of their past selves might be utilised in the classroom for increasing their motivations. The results showed that learner's self is shaped by past learning experiences and that past selves can shape the nature of learners' approaches to learning, their social interactions, and their language learning trajectories. Thus, in order to prepare students for their future, teachers should pay attention to the retrospective processes that constantly reconstruct learner's past selves (Falout, 2016), They should create the conditions that allow students to reflect back on their personal pasts. This may provide learners with positive mindsets and thereby notably contribute to their L2 development. It appears that, when manipulated properly by the teacher, past selves may have the power to act as motivational self guides. Teachers should help students resolve troubling past events and try to stimulate the positive perspectives of one's past self. Falout suggested the following strategies to improve the valence of past selves when negative and fortify it when positive: (1) cherishing the good moments in private journal or sharing them publicly; (2) reframing the bad moments through writing the negative past experiences and sharing them; and (3) creating temporal self-continuity (helping learners to visualise, script, and plan toward positive future scenarios).

In Saudi Arabia, Daif-Allah and Alsamani (2013) investigated the factors that demotivated 102 Preparatory Year Program (PYP) students from learning the English language taking an EFL summer course in Qassim University. They collected data using a questionnaire, analysis of test scores, classroom observation, teachers' feedback and informal interviews with students. After detecting nine extrinsic demotivators that are related to (examination process, class environment: and teachers' competence and teaching styles), a set of relevant practical remotivational strategies were used to remotivate students. These strategies included: giving corrective feedback, reduction of class size, weekly quizzes and

extracurricular activities, and eliminating cheating. The findings indicated that the proposed strategies contributed successfully in improving the students' test scores, remotivating the students, increasing the amount of their learning, developing teachers' punctuality and establishing good rapport between students and teachers. However, the improvement cannot be fully attributed to the proposed motivational strategies alone since the subjects of the study were repeat students and had studied the courses before (in the spring).

The following section will review the previous studies conducted on demotivation. A comprehensive review of the previous findings of L2 demotivation research will be discussed. This review is an attempt to characterise the studies conducted in this field and to find a knowledge gap in the literature.

2.2 Researching demotivation

2.2.1 Researching demotivation in instructional communication

Research on demotivation has been initiated in the area of instructional communication in the United States using both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Research studies in this area investigated demotivating factors in lectures on communication at North American universities (e.g. Christophel & Gorham, 1995; Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Gorham & Millette, 1997) and later in university lectures in four different countries, China, Germany, Japan, and the USA by Zhang (2007) who utilised the framework of the instructional communication studies.

Gorham and Christophel (1992) identified various demotivators and revealed that the most frequent five categories: disappointment with grading and assignments; the teacher being boring, bored, unorganized and unprepared; the dislike of the subject area; the inferior organisation of the teaching material; and the teacher being unapproachable, self-centred, biased, condescending and humiliating. These findings offered an initiative insight into the true nature of the teacher's role in students' motivation. Teacher-related demotivating behaviours and personalities were the most significant predictors of demotivation found in the ensuing studies (Christophel & Gorham, 1995; Gorham & Millette, 1997). Three key types of demotivators were revealed in this area of research: context demotivators (factors likely to be regarded as antecedent to the teacher's influence), structure/format demotivators (factors over which the teacher is likely to have some degree of influence, if not complete control), and teacher behaviours (factors likely to be perceived as under the teacher's direct control). In

short, in terms of the data as a whole, the teacher behaviour contributed equally to both motivation and demotivation.

2.2.2 Research on L2 demotivation

As I mentioned earlier, the process-oriented period was characterised by studies focusing on the changes of language learner's motivational level over time rather than researching motivation as a measurable cause of learning outcomes. After Dornyei (2001) introduced the notion of demotivation in SLA research, L2 demotivation has been increasingly investigated over the last two decades and several studies have been conducted adopting quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research in different contexts where L2 demotivation is regarded as an educational concern (e.g. Keblawi, 2005; Kikuchi, 2009, 2011, 2013; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Kim. KJ., 2009, Kim. TY., 2011, 2012; Kim & Kim, 2013; Kim & Seo, 2012; Li & Zhou, 2013; Meshkat & Hassani, 2012; Trang & Baldauf, 2007; Warrington & Jeffrey, 2005; Yan, 2009; Yi Tsang, 2012).

Kim and Kim (2013) reviewed the studies conducted on L2 demotivation in various English language learning contexts and looked in how the issue of demotivation has been addressed in the literature. They classified the previous studies into two categories based on their research methods and perspectives on the definition of demotivation: some studies were conducted adopting cross-sectional research design considering demotivation to be a novel and distinctive construct, while other studies focused on decrease in motivational constructs as the process of demotivation, which took a form of quasi-longitudinal analysis. Acknowledging the value of conducting longitudinal research to better trace the learners' demotivation changes, Kim and Kim (2013) suggest an alternative approach to demotivation that investigates the process of how learners' individual experiences relates to English learning motivation and how their demotivation changes and interacts with their environments. Two years later, Kikuchi (2015) added a third category of demotivation studies which concern the investigation of the remotivational strategies or the strategies that prevent demotivation (e.g. Carpenter et al., 2009; Daif-Allah & Alsamani, 2013; Falout et al., 2009; Falout, 2012; Falout et al., 2013; Hamada, 2011).

2.3 L2 demotivating factors in the previous research

2.3.1 Teacher-related demotivating factors

"Ultimately, teachers have the greatest potential to influence the external contexts in the classroom and the internal conditions of the learner, for better or worse" (Falout et al., 2009, p. 412).

Examples of teachers' demotivating practices mentioned in both instructional communication and language learning research include: insufficient instructions, using poor teaching tools and old fashioned teaching style, criticising students, shouting at students when they do not understand, negative attitude, incompetence, and personality. As I mentioned previously, in the field of instructional communication studies, teacher-related demotivating behaviours and personalities were found to be the most significant predictors of demotivation.

Gorham and Millette's instructional communication study of student motivation (1997), has examined the degree to which teacher perceptions of variables that influence student motivation and demotivation are congruent with student reports of those variables. Faculty at a comprehensive eastern university were asked to reference a specific class (the first undergraduate class they taught during the week) and to respond to two open-ended questions which parallel those asked of students in previous research (Christophel & Gorham, 1995; Gorham & Christophel, 1992). Participants were 224 faculty members including lecturers, instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors. Approximately half of the classes referenced were in the College of Arts and Sciences with the other half divided among other academic units across the university including: architecture, business, communication, education, engineering, music , and nursing. Data collected from these teachers were compared to responses of 308 undergraduate students at a comprehensive southwestern university who were asked in a previous study (Gorham & Christophel, 1992) to reference the class they had attended most recently before the one in which data were collected. Student and teacher data sets largely referenced Arts and Sciences classes, although business, education, and engineering classes were referenced somewhat more frequently in the teacher data. Their findings showed that teacher-related demotivating behaviours and personalities were the most significant predictors of demotivation found in the ensuing studies. Their findings also indicated substantial agreement on the range of overall factors affecting motivation. In contrast to the the findings of instructional communication studies, Chambers (1993) investigated both student and teacher perspectives of L2 demotivation in the UK and a strong contradiction between teachers and students on the attribution of demotivation was found. Demotivating factors were perceived quite differently by the teachers and their students. Explicitly excluding themselves, teachers attributed demotivation to psychological, attitudinal, social, historical and geographical factors. On the other hand, the students' perceptions of factors of demotivation also varied. They attributed their demotivation to teachers' behaviours, class size, past language learning experience, home, learning materials and environment and other factors. The findings of Chamber's study

clearly demonstrated that teachers' perception of demotivation is very different from students' perceptions. Therefore, Chambers emphasised the importance of cooperation between teachers and students in the field of language learning/teaching.

In language learning research studies, the teacher has been found to be a major source of demotivation (e.g. Arai, 2004; Dornyei, 1998; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Song, 2005; Trang and Baldauf, 2007; Ushioda, 1998; Yan, 2009; Zhang, 2007). For instance, 40% of the total frequency of demotivating factors directly related to the teacher was reported in Dornyei' study (1998). Ensuing demotivation research has grown remarkably by Japanese researchers' investigations and the findings were consistent with Dornyei's findings in that they found that teachers' behaviour often discourages students from learning English. For example, Arai (2004) categorised the findings into the following four areas: (1) behaviour, personality or proficiency of teachers (46.7%), (2) boring, inappropriate or repetitive classes (36.2%), (3) learning environment and classmates (13.3%), and (d) others (3.8%). Moreover, Zhang's (2007) findings revealed that two thirds of learners' demotivational factors correlated with teacher's incompetence within and across four different countries.

Kim and Seo's (2012) study explored Korean elementary school students' demotivation in learning English and investigated the phenomenon from both students' and teachers' perspectives. The findings strongly demonstrated that students' motivation declined as they progress through schooling years. The students attributed their demotivation to teachers' behaviours, while the teachers, on the other hand, believe that demotivation associates with the huge number of their students.

Another study was conducted by Bahramy and Araghi (2013) to investigate L2 demotivation among Payam NourUniversity students. They explored the major causes of demotivation by asking 60 female English student to write a short essay on their experiences of demotivation throughout their English studies in their own native language, i.e. Persian. they found that teacher-related factors ranked as the highest among the other demotivating factors. The results show that the teacher-related factors accounted for (54.7%) of the total number of demotives expressed by the students. Examples of teacher-related demotivating factors found in the L2 demotivation studies included:

1- teacher's personal relationship with the student, the teacher's attitude towards the

course or the material, style conflicts between teachers and students, and the nature of

the classroom activities (Oxford, 1998);

2- particular teaching methods and learning tasks rather than personal factors such as falling grades or negative self-perceptions of ability (Ushioda, 1998);

3- competence and teaching styles (Zhang, 2007);

4- teachers' old style, teacher-fronted approach, insufficient class preparation, and inappropriate feedback (Kikuchi, 2009);

5- teaching methods, teacher behaviour, teacher competence, grading, and assessment (Trang & Baldauf, 2007);

6- lack of confidence, unobservable and ignored progress, irrelevant and repetitive content, mismatch between instructional style and learning expectations, and negative perceptions of instructor's commitment and competence (Vasilopoulos, 2011).

However, more recent studies found that teacher's direct behaviours were the least influential of all the demotivators studied or found them to be not strong demotivators (e.g. Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Kikuchi, 2011; Kim, 2009; Li & Zhou, 2013). Li and Zhou has found that teachers' detrimental influence on learners in their study has decreased substantially in comparison with that of former studies. They attributed the diminishment of teachers' role in demotivating EFL Korean and Chinese learners to the strong influence of traditional Confucian pedagogy salient in the two countries, which emphasizes teachers' unchallengeable authority in classroom. Imbued with Confucianism, students are less likely to blame the cause of demotivation on respected teachers. Their findings also showed differences between the Chinese and Korean learners, with lower attribution of teachers' role in Chinese subjects' demotivation (16. 79%) than that of Koreans' (22.89"/o). They attributed this difference to the educational reform carried out in the past decade throughout Chinese colleges, which have gradually overthrown the traditional teacher-centered pedagogy and introduced learner-centered module into EFL classrooms. As a result, Chinese EFL learners concern more on teachers' supportive role in classroom while Korean counterparts still depend significantly on teachers' centeredness.

Kim (2009) has examined demotivating factors among Korean juniorhigh school students and showed that teachers' competence and teaching styles were not found to be a cause of demotivation with the lowest mean score among other demotivating factors. Their

findings were similar to Sakai and Kikuchi's (2009) findings with Japanese senior high school students. Kim explained these findings by cultural beliefs held by Korean learners about the teacher. According to Kim, Korean learners believes that the teacher has the authority to make all the decisions with regard to their learning. moreover, cultural heritage of Korean society encourages young students to respect their teachers and thus to avoid blaming teachers for their demotivation.

2.3.2 Learner-related factors: characteristics and attitudes towards learning English

Following Ushioda's call (2009) for more emphasis on the importance of studying motivation from "a person-in-context relational view", Kikuchi (2015) expanded the focus of the current L2 demotivation research and concluded that demotivating factors vary among language learners and change as the learner progress in the learning process. Differences of motivation between the learners of different ages and different education levels were also revealed by Hamada (2011). Moreover, in a longitudinal study that investigated English learning motivation of Indonesian junior high school students, Lamb (2007) reports that the students' instrumental and extrinsic motivation related to parental expectations and academic success slightly increased, while their integrative and intrinsic motivations in EFL decreased over 20 months.

Several learner-related demotivating factors were addressed in the literature including experiences of failure, reduced self-confidence, disappointment due to poor performance or low scores, low regard for L2 speakers, lack of acceptance by teachers and others, inability to memorise vocabulary and idioms, lack of interest, and low proficiency level (e.g. Ikeno, 2002; Kikuchi, 2009; Kojima, 2004; Tsuchiya, 2006). For example, by testing a model of demotivation that included five main components: the language level, the learner level, the learning situation level, the students' listening, and the amount of homework, Kojima (2004) found that the learner level influenced demotivation the most, followed by the language level, and finally the learning situation level. Moreover, learning strategies deficiency was found to be the primary demotivator in a study conducted by Li (2011). The findings of this study indicate significant pedagogical implications for English teaching practitioners to shift from teacher-centeredness to leaner-centeredness inside classrooms. However, the role of the teachers cannot be ignored as teachers were found to be able to offer learning strategies training to learners in order to reduce their demotivation.

Recently, Aliakbari & Hemmatizad (2015) investigated demotivation among Iranian secondary high school and university students with respect to gender, major, and level of education and explored students' experiences in overcoming demotivation. After identifying five demotivating factors: learning contents and materials, teachers' competence and teaching styles, inadequate school facilities, lack of intrinsic motivation, and test scores, further investigation indicated that students' gender and major were influential elements for their motivation, but not their educational level.

The language learners' proficiency level was found to be a significant factor in the L2 demotivation research. By dividing the participants into two groups: higher proficiency learners and lower proficiency learners, differences between the demotivation of the two groups were reported. For example, inconsistent with former studies that highlighted the teachers' role in demotivation, Falout and Maruyama (2004) found that self-confidence accounted for the highest proportion among all demotivators in higher proficiency group. Moreover, they found that demotivating factors for the lower proficiency learners included attitudes toward the L2 itself, courses, teachers, and attitudes of group members. Furthermore, they reported differences between the two groups with regard to the length of demotivation period, the rank order of demotivating factors, the locus of demotivators (external for higher proficiency group and internal for lower proficiency group). Similarly, Tsuchiya (2006) distinguished between demotivating factors of low-proficiency learners and highly proficient learners. The findings showed statistically significant differences for all nine factors of demotivation between these two groups.

Findings of a study conducted by of Falout et al. (2009) indicated that beginning, less-proficient learners in non-English majors were least likely to control their affective states to cope with demotivating experiences. They classified demotivating factors in learning a foreign language into three categories: (1) external factors (teacher immediacy, grammar-translation and course level), (2) internal factors (self-denigration, value, self-confidence) and (3) reactive factors (help-seeking and enjoyment-seeking). Internal and reactive factors were shown to correlate with long-term language learning outcomes.

Lack of self-confidence derived from failure and lack of success was found to be one of the most influential demotivating factors that cause the L2 demotivation (e.g. Keblawi, 2005; Tabatabaei, 2012). This factor also showed that lack of self-confidence was a demotivating factor for many students showing the largest statistically significant difference in means (e.g. Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Tsuchiya, 2006; Mayahipour, Behjat & Kargar, 2014).

Statistically significant differences were also identified by Ghadirzadeh, Hashtroudi and Shokri (2012) between motivated and demotivated learners for two internal factors (lack of perceived individual competence and lack of intrinsic motivation). However, there were no statistically significant differences for the other external three demotivating factors (inappropriate characteristics of teachers' teaching methods and course contents, inadequate university facilities and focus on difficult grammar).

2.3.3 Learning context-related demotivating factors

Learning context-related demotivating factors are the factors that are associated with the class environment, poor learning facilities, or learning group, attitude of classmates, compulsory nature of English study, inactive classes, inadequate use of learning materials (see Sakai & Kikutchi, 2009). Research on L2 motivation (Gardner, 1985; Skehan, 1989; Julkunen, 2001) have emphasised in different ways the effects of the learning context on the learners' motivation. For example, Sivan (1986) argue that motivation cannot be separated from the classroom environment or the instructional practice. In addition, empirical research on language learning motivation has always shown that the immediate learning context has a direct impact on the learners' attitudes and motivation (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011)

Learning context-related factors were reported as the most important motivating factors for all the age groups in a longitudinal study on Hungarian learners of English (Nikolov, 1999). These factors had more influence on learners than the integrative or instrumental motivations. In addition, Ikeno (2002) found that the lack of a sense of control over what one is learning, a sense of classes being exam-oriented, and peers' negative attitude toward English learning were significant demotivating factors experienced by the participants.

Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) found that non-communicative teaching methods that focus on grammar learning or university entrance examination preparation without a communicative use of English, was perceived to be demotivating by many participants. They concluded that such emphasis on grammar and examinations has caused demotivation for Japanese learners of English. However, inadequate school facilities were also found to be less frequently demotivating than the others for the participants.

Moreover, an experiment-based study was conducted by Hamada (2011) to investigate what demotivates and what prevents learners from becoming demotivated in the English classroom. In this study, an instructor organised lessons to two groups for a certain period of time and asked the participants about what demotivated them and what prevented them from becoming demotivated in the lessons. Fluctuation of the motivation of those learners was also

examined. The findings suggest an increase in the learners' motivation in the third year of junior high school and high school, and a decrease after entering high school or university.

The context-specific dynamics of demotivators were investigated by Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2015). Language learners' levels of demotivation across two different milieus of English learning, namely, language institutes, and universities were investigated. Institute students were found to experience higher levels of demotivation than university learners. Moreover, the results demonstrated that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of six demotivation constructs: lack of interest, classroom materials, classroom environment, teachers, characteristics of classes, and experiences of failure.

2.3.4 Subject-related factors: curriculum or course material

Subject-related demotivating factors include class materials (e.g. too many reference books and/or hand-outs) or an inappropriate or irrelevant class activities and courses. For example, class contents were reported by Arai (2004) as major demotivating factors among high proficiency university English majors (e.g. boring and repetitive lessons, no feedback, inappropriate content levels, and uninteresting materials).

The results of Hamada's (2008) study suggest that "course books" was the most influential demotivator, while teacher's personality and style was a weaker demotivator for the high school learners. On the other hand, for the junior high school learners, teachers are considered an influential demotivating factor, while reduced-confidence, tests, teachers, and grammar are the primary demotivating factors. In addition, Hamada and Kito (2008) investigated demotivation and found that more than half of the participants started to dislike English when grammar classes began but could not indicate the exact year when demotivation began.

Learning materials and test scores were found to be key significant demotivating factors among other demotivating factors that were extracted in Sakai and kikuchi's (2009), while teacher variables (teacher's competence and teaching styles) did not appear as the strongest demotivating factor. In addition, Busse and Walter (2013) found that the main source for the decline in the students' level of intrinsic motivation, appears to be the lack of opportunities to engage actively with the language. The findings of their study revealed that the decline in the students' motivation was attributed to the perceived lack of progress, and the perceived lack of progress was attributed to the scarcity of language input provided by the university materials.

2.4 Characterisation of the L2 demotivation literature

Although analysis of demotivation as a dynamic process should consider dynamic interactions with the immediate social context of L2 learning, use and experience (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011), the majority of the studies conducted to investigate L2 demotivation focused on the identification, mapping, and clustering of the causes of demotivation; i.e. demotivating factors. Since Dornyei's (2001) first summary, the underlying theoretical basis of the issue has hardly changed, as most of the ensuing discussion has been descriptive in nature (Dornyei & Ryan, 2015). Dornyei and Ryan suggested revitalising the field by a new emphasis on the dynamics of L2 demotivation and exploring how demotvational factors interact with personal and situational characteristics, leading to the decline in motivation in some learners but not in others. Following Dornyei and Ushioda, Kikuchi (2015) also state that demotivation studies should look at demotivating factors as dynamic and socially constructed factors in broader contexts of L2 learning rather than looking at them as static factors that influence the learner cognition.

There is also a lack of research that focuses on the mechanism of demotivation among individual learners (Kikuchi, 2015). Kikuchi calls for further research that investigates how the individual learners process the demotivating factors and react differently to them because individuals vary in how they perceive demotivators and when they sense which demotivators are truly demotivating. He also argues that even after reviewing several studies that investigated changes in L2 motivation and examined drops in motivation over a course of study (e.g. Kim, 2011; Kim & Seo, 2012; Williams et al., 2002), it is still challenging to explore what is happening with learners' state of demotivation. According to Kikuchi, understanding the complexity of demotivation requires conducting longitudinal studies that involve interviews, observation and various questionnaires.

The overriding focus on L2 motivation research over the past decade raises the question of how far current theoretical perspectives are adequate to account for L2 demotivation. Trying to investigate and approach L2 demotivation in the mainstream theoretical perspectives in L2 motivation research raise many challenges and difficulties. Although CDST approach would seem an appropriate approach to investigate the complexity of L2 demotivation, this paradigm was not adopted in the current study for various reasons:

First, in terms of different underlying assumptions on what L2 demotvation refers to, Kim and Kim (2013) devided the previous L2 demotivation research based on the methods they used and the perspectives on the definition of demotivation: (a) as a novel distinctive

construct or (b) as a decrease in the motivational constructs. I looked at L2 demotivation and L2 motivation as being two distinctive constructs and avoided assuming that L2 motivation theories are relevant to L2 demotivation research. Kim (2012) has found that the ought-to L2 self had positive correlations with demotivation, indicating that demotivation is not a mirror image of motivation, and that demotivation cannot be understood as a mere lack of motivation. In his study, Korean EFL students' L2 learning motivation steadily decreased until they graduated from junior high school, then spurred once they started to attend high school due to the college entrance exam. In contrast, the students' demotivation shows a steadily increasing pattern, which strongly indicates that demotivation involves a different psychological mechanism from that of motivation. Thus, L2 demotivation was seen in the current study as a distinct construct that should be studied and examined independently. For instance, findings which show that the ideal L2 self has a stronger predicting power of learners' motivated behaviour (Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009; Ryan, 2009) do not necessarily mean that the construct correlates negatively with L2 demotivation. Therefore, when I was reviewing the literature in the first year of the project, I was mainly reading the papers that reported studies conducted to purely examine L2 demotviation. Although I reviewed and was inspired L2 motivation research, I was not reviewing L2 motivation research looking for a theoretical basis for my study. Rather, I was establishing good knowledge of a construct that is closely related to L2 demotivation.

Second, reviwing the L2 demotivation research showed that none of the studies developed a theoretical model that explains or conceptualises why L2 demotivation level varies significantly among different language learners. Therefore, the first decision I made was that the first exploratory study will not adopt any theories to investigate L2 demotivation. In addition, the study will not focus on any constructs or predict any variables to play a significant role in L2 demotivation. The absence of theoretical frameworks in the previous research inspired me to open the doors for all the possibilities and wait for salient constructs to emerge from the qualitative data. In order to move the mainstream L2 demotivation research to a new phase, I addressed novel research questions that are different from the descriptive questions that were repeatedly addressed by L2 demotivation researchers in the past two decades. However, starting the project without identifying certain components or variables that might lead to the variation in L2 demotivation was the main factor that obstructed the adoption of CDST as the primary research paradigm.

Third, I started my PhD in 2012, then collected and analysed the qualitative data in 2013. At that stage, the initial plan was to conduct a purely qualitative study. I encountered

CDST as a new approach to conceptualise motivation for the first time in 2014 (after I finished the first qualitative phase of my study). Dornyei et al. (2015) note that even when Dornyei and Ushioda prepared a book-length overview of L2 motivation research, they could only identify a single paper in the literature that explicitly embodied dynamic principles: MacIntyre and Legatto's (2011) study. Around that time, while CDST attract the researchers' attention, most of the actual empirical research followed traditional, non-dynamic research approaches. I was also an active member in organising the first ever international conference on Motivational Dynamics and Second Language Acquisition in August 2014 (Nottingham, UK) by presenting a poster, chairing sessions in the conference, and having fruitful discussions about CDST though personal communication with major scholars in the field. I recognised that if a study was initiated originally in a non-CDS framework, it could not be reanalysed to yield valuable CDS insights (Dornyei et al. 2015) because a non-CDS study would not be designed to produce the density of data required to study the iterative process of change. According to Dornyei et al., adopting a CDS approach should begin right at the design stage by considering the dynamics of well-defined system. They also note that adopting CDS involves developing research questions about "process" rather than product, then identifying the components of system and examining the interaction among these components and the iterative process involved. However, they argue that identifying the focal system under study, identifying different systems that might interact with it, considering the ways in which it might adapt and respond to the interaction, and considering the level at which the system operates (i.e casing the system and putting specific limits arount what we study) are important aspects of CDS study design but can be a challenging task. Therefore, they recommend processes of mapping at the design stage of any CDS study. Again, the absence of theoretical frameworks in the previous research made me start the project without identifying certain components or variables that might lead to the variation in L2 demotivation and obstructed the adoption of CDST as the primary research paradigm. Although I started my PhD journey with a dynamic mindset and a dynamic way of thinking (that explains the use of CDS terminilogy through the qualitative study), I did not encounter the approach at that stage and did not have the toolkit to design a CDS study.

Finally, identifying the timescales, where the processes being studied can take place, is one of the fundamental prinsiples of CDST. Waninge et al. (2015) demonstrate that motivation at different timescales interacts with other processes and may change in strength over time and that studying motivation in a particular setting requires collecting and combining data from different timescales. Also, de Bot (2015) distinguished between time

window (i.e. the period of time studied) and timescale (i.e. the granularity of the developmental process, giving an example of studying the the learners' phonological development over a period of two years (time window), while measuring their performance every week (timescale). In my study, L2 demotivation among Saudi Language learners will be investigated over the 8 years of English learning the preceded their enrolling at the university (time window). Although the data will be examined adopting a dynamic mindset, by looking at the variation in the learners's perception of L2 demotivation and demotivators, the processes underlying L2 demotivation will not be examined over a certain timescale or over different timescales.

2.4.1 The knowledge gap

Although previous L2 demotivation studies reveal a large number of demotivating factors that varied among different contexts, there is a lack of research that focuses on the way these factors are perceived by different language learners and the diverse responses made by language learners in the face of these factors. It seems that the majority of L2 demotivation researchers assume that demotivating factors affect language learners similarly. Even when they assume variation in the learners' demotivation, they assume that proficiency level, gender, major, learning contexts, or age are the factors that contribute to this variation. None of these studies investigated L2 demotivation as a complex psychological process that needs to be examined through the lens of various psychological concepts. As a result, none of these studies developed a theoretical model that explains or conceptualises why L2 demotivation level varies significantly among different language learners.

Reviewing the literature and looking back at the inconsistent findings of previous L2 demotivation research seems to address more questions than answers. Further in-depth investigation of the mechanism of L2 demotivation is required in order to understand why the previous studies reported inconsistent results about demotivating factors. Therefore, language learners in the current research project are asked to share what they think and feel about their English learning experience as a journey or a long trip that has a combination of stops, obstacles, enjoyment, boredom and discovery. Analysis of these thoughts and feelings are relevant and important to: (1) understanding how various factors can demotivate L2 learners differently and (2) understanding diverse learners' responses to L2 demotivating factors. The present research project investigates L2 demotivation among Female Saudi Arabian learners of English as a second language and analyses their thoughts, feelings, explanations, dreams, and attributions of their past language learning experience. It explores the factors and conditions that explain the variation in Saudi learners' L2 demotivation and remotivation by

using a variety of research methodologies, including qualitative in-depth interviews, quantitative surveys, and structural equation modelling.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: KEY RELEVANT PSYCHOLOGICAL CONCEPTS

3.1 Introduction

It is of vital importance to connect L2 demotivation with theoretical model of motivation in psychology and to identify psychological constructs that might explain the language learners' demotivation, behaviours, achievement goals, and remotivation. Various factors are identified in the literature of educational psychology and language learning as motivators for students to learn a second language and to continue to engage in learning the language. However, when language learners experience failures or face setbacks or difficulties, they are likely to give up, lose interest and become demotivated. Thus, this section will review some psychological constructs that seem to be relevant to understanding the mechanism of demotivation.

As I mentioned previously, reviewing the literature of L2 demotivation has shown that the language learners revealed inconsistent results. Some researchers dug deeper and investigated how the impact of certain demotivators varied among language learners. For example, Jahedizadeh, Allahdadi and Ghanizadeh (2016) investigated the role of English learner's demotivation's in students' avoidance goal orientation. The findings of their study revealed that six demotivators positively and significantly predicted students' avoidance goal orientation. However, only two demotivators had the highest impact on the students' goal orientation. It was also found that demotivators accounted for about 14% of variability in students' avoidance goal-orientation. Although their findings demonstrated that demotivation did not affect language learners similarly and have lead to various goal orientations, it seemed that they assumed that demotivating factor did demotivate language learner similarly. In other words, they did not consider if demotivators might be perceived differently by the participants.

The present research project originally aimed at exploring L2 demotivation among Saudi Arabian learners of English as a second language. Due to the lack of the theoretical frameworks of L2 demotivation that can be applied in L2 demotivation studies, I did not have

any framework to draw on or to guide me when I started my research. Indeed, there was no one theory that could adequately direct me to sufficiently answer the research questions I had in mind or even a theoretical model that could offer an explanation of the complexity of L2 demotivation. I began my research planning to focus on specific observations and detect patterns that would foster developing a general conclusion or a theory that explains how L2 demotivation differs among individual learners. For this purpose, I looked at the primary qualitative data, with an open mind, using inductive reasoning where I tried to move from identifying a set of specific observations and connecting them to relevant psychological concepts to the discovery of a pattern that best represents the mechanism of L2 demotivation.

Using particular instances or occurrences in the qualitative data to draw conclusions about language learner's demotivation in general. I tried to bring together and join a number of related concepts that explain or predict dynamics of L2 demotivation, or give a better and broader understanding of the phenomenon in order to provide a bigger map of possible relationships. Accordingly, my approach to the literature review involved the reading of many theoretical perspectives, relevant concepts and articles in educational psychology that might be relevant to L2 demotivation. As a result, I identified a number of salient concepts and principles which I could utilise to analyse the qualitative data. In sum, in order to conceptualise how L2 demotivation interacts with other variables, I had to combine a number of concepts and research findings in educational psychology research field and L2 motivation research field.

It was suggested by Falout (2012) that language learners develop a number of coping strategies to achieve their learning goals and to cope with demotivation or demotivating factors. These strategies may be adaptive or maladaptive coping processes and are influenced by the learners' beliefs about themselves and their experiences. A number of theories were addressed in the literature of research in different fields concerned the different responses made by learners when they experience failures or face learning difficulties.

In the present thesis, after transcribing the two waves of interviews in the qualitative phase of the study, then coding the raw data by following the principles of thematic applied analysis (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). To explore how L2 demotivation interacted with various psychological factors, an inductive thematic analysis was conducted. Coding, revisiting definitions of coding, recoding of quotes and tabulation of newly emergent themes have been processed iteratively in order to visualise the relationship between themes. Following this, I read more articles in educational psychology trying to find relevant concepts in educational psychology domain that could explain the participants' responses or the

subthemes that emerged from coding these responses. As a result, a number of salient concepts were identified and utilised in order to analyse the qualitative data. Four concepts are salient and seem to be particularly relevant to how learners explain and respond to the negative impact of potential demotivators: implicit theories or mindset (Dweck, 1999), learned helplessness (Seligman & Maier, 1967), attribution theory (Weiner, 1976) and hardiness (Kobasa, 1979). I will briefly overview these four concepts and show some links they might have with how students respond to L2 demotivation in different ways.

First, there is evidence that the language learner's beliefs are significant and can guide the students' interpretation of their experiences and can even guide their behaviour (Wenden, 1998). Several studies have been conducted to examine learners' beliefs (e.g. Horwitz,1999; Kalaja & Barcelos, 2003; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Loewen, et al., 2009). In addition, learners might implicitly develop beliefs about basic human qualities that affect the way they view their world; i.e. implicit self-theories. These beliefs lead the learners to create their own psychological worlds and shape their various thoughts, feelings, and behaviours (Dweck, 1999). There has been recently an interest among the researchers in the field of language learning to explore the relationship between implicit self-theories or mindsets and students' language learning motivation in more depth. These researchers drew on Carol Dweck's model theory and her concept of mindset and investigated the effect of the language learning mindsets held by the students on their L2 motivation, their reactions to failure, and their goals (e.g. Lou, 2014; Lou & Noels, 2016; Mercer & Ryan, 2010; Noels & Lou, 2015; Ryan & Mercer, 2011, 2012). For instance, language learners' reactions in failure situations and their intention to continue learning the language were found to be influenced by priming a particular language learning mindset (Lou & Noels, 2016).

Closely related to the concept of mindset is the attribution theory (Weiner, 1976). Dweck (1999) states that helpless and mastery-oriented attributions and their consequences form the foundation of her model and are essential part of it. Researchers highlight various different factors that form the individual's cognitive processes such as developing expectancy for success. According to Dornyei and Ushioda (2011), from an educational point of view, attributional processes (processing past experiences) are one of the most important factors that affect the formation the individual's cognitive processes such as students' expectancies. The guiding principle in attribution theory is the assumption that individuals' diverse explanations of their own past failures and success, affect and shape their future achievement behaviour and motivation differently (Weiner, 1979). However, Dweck's model attempts to go beyond the attributional approach in several ways. This point will be discussed in section 3.3.3.

Another concept that forms the basis of Dweck's model, particularly her work on learned helplessness, is Seligman and his colleagues' work on learned helplessness in humans (Abramson, Garber & Seligman, 1980; Abramson, Seligman & Teasdale, 1978). After Seligman and Maier (1967) identified helpless responses in animals who failed to escape a painful situation as a result of believing mistakenly that the conditions were beyond their control, they found similar reactions among humans when they face difficult situations, as a result of erroneous beliefs such as perceived lack of control.

Although it seems inevitable for second language learners to face difficulties and setbacks and exhibit helpless reactions, there are some learners who seem to be resilient individuals possessing personal resources and effective coping strategies which can contribute to positive adaptation to potentially stressful demotivators or successful recovery from demotivation. These learners' success in such challenging and stressful situations may be related to their level of resilience which is closely related to the psychological construct: hardiness (Kobasa, 1979). Kobasa points out that hardiness, and its three components: commitment, control, challenge, replicates the individuals' responses to life events both personally and professionally. Recently, Maddi (2013) argues that the three hardiness elements need to be strong, in order to provide the required motivation to achieve the task of converting failures to advantages. Thus, the personality construct of hardiness is the last concept that will be applied from psychology research in the present thesis, in order to explore the relationship between learners' diverse resilient and vulnerable responses to L2 demotivation and their personality hardiness. In the following sections, I will introduce these concepts and discuss their application and relevance to L2 demotivation research.

3.2 Carol Dweck's Implicit self-theories: growth vs. fixed mindsets

Different individulas develop theories about basic human qualities such as intelligence, personality, and ability. These lay theories are not explicitly articulated in the mind, so they are called implicit. According to Ross (1989), laypersons possess implicit theories about the natural stability of their attributes and the conditions that are likely to stimulate personal change. Ross investigated the nature of these theories in the context of a study of beliefs about life-span development, suggesting that people use their implicit theories of self to construct their personal histories. The findings indicated that biases in recall can occur as a result of the implicit theories of stability and change.

It has been recognised that people's beliefs or theories are critical for understanding human behaviour and form a meaning system affecting individuals' perceptions of the self and the others. This notion has been dominant in psychology for many decades (e.g. Kelly, 1955; Langer, 1967; as cited in Dweck, 1999). Therefore, the famous American Psychologist Carol Dweck and numerous associates have investigated the role of these implicit theories and found that they can be classified into two main categories: incremental theory and entity theory. In her inspiring book, "Self-theories: their role in motivation, personality, and development", Dweck (1999) explores how "people's self-theories can create different psychological worlds, leading them to think, feel, and act differently in identical situations" she presents findings of thirty years of research on this topic in her book. Dweck and her colleagues argued that each implicit theory is associated with different effort beliefs, attributions, goal orientations, and learning strategies. Their work has identified several associations and links that can create what they refer to as distinct "meaning systems" which explain why individuals respond differently in identical situation (Plaks, Levy, & Dweck, 2009).

According to Dweck (1999), incremental theorists believe that human qualities are malleable and that they are changeable through hard work. On the other hand, entity theorists believe that human qualities are fixed and therefore that they cannot be changed. Research on the two implicit theories was not restricted to educational contexts, their role has been explored in other achievement domains, such as athletics (Kasimatis, Miller, & Marcussen, 1996); leadership (Burnette, Pollack, & Hoyt, 2010); weight management (Burnette, 2010); and smoking cessation (Johnson, 2009). It is worth noting that Dweck's work claims that incremental theory does not imply believing that everyone has exactly the same potential in every domain, or will learn everything with equal easiness. Instead, it means believing that there is always room for individual development, growth and change; i.e intellectual ability can always be increased for any given individual (Dweck, 1999).

A long history of research has found that beliefs about the malleable versus fixed nature of various human qualities such as intelligence, social relationships, creativity, and personality traits can influence people's motivation, achievement goals, achievements, effort, self-esteem, judgment, reactions to negative events, social coping, and actual relationships (e.g., Aronson, Fried, & Good, 2002; Dweck, 2009; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck & Molden, 2005; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999; Molden & Dweck, 2006; Nussbaum & Dweck, 2008; Robins & Pals, 2002).

Dweck (2006) introduced more accessible terms to refer to the two implicit theories; i.e. growth mindset and fixed mindset. Consistent with an incremental theorist, someone who holds a growth mindset believes that basic human qualities such as intelligence and ability are malleable and thus can be developed. On the other hand, someone who holds a fixed mindset, equivalent to entity theorist, believes that these qualities are fixed and thus cannot be changed (see Dweck, 2006; Dweck & Molden, 2005). Dweck (1999) measured the students' implicit theories or the mindsets by asking them to agree or disagree on a 6-point scale with statements such as: You have a certain amount of intelligence; and you can't really do much to change it. Although the research into mindsets has increasingly showed that people tend to endorse a particular mindset more than the other, Dweck (2015) points out that people have a mixture of fixed and growth mindsets rather than having one mindset or another and that many people can switch between them. Moreover, it was suggested by Ryan and Mercer (2012, P. 75) that it would be more fruitful to perceive mindsets as "a continuum with most people lying at some point between the two extreme positions".

Recently, the psychological concept of mindset and its role has been widely investigated in different domains including music (O'Neill, 2011), mathematics (Boaler, 2013; Kim & Keller, 2010), medical education (Jegathesan, Vitberg & Pusic, 2016), mental health (Schroder, Dawood, Yalch, Donnellan & Moser, 2015), computer science (Murphy & Thomas, 2008; Scott & Ghinea, 2013) and physics (Aguilar, Walton, & Wieman, 2014). The findings of ample research demonstrated that in a fixed mindset, learners become concerned with being and looking talented or smart, while in a growth mindset, talent is something you start your journey with and develop it through practice, not something you simply demonstrate and display to the world. The findings have also shown that a growth mindset promotes a more positive attitude toward practice, learning, feedback, a greater ability to deal with setbacks, and significantly better performance over time.

3.2.1 Mindsets and achievement goals: performance goals vs. learning goals

Research on motivational goals in an achievement context has identified two different types of achievement goals: learning goals and performance goals (Dweck, 1999). Learning goals are the goals that focus on increasing intelligence, ability or competence, learning new skills or new things, and mastering new tasks (a goal to become smarter through practice). In contrast, performance goals are the goals that focus on demonstrating and documenting ability or intelligence, gaining agreeing judgments of ability and avoiding undesirable ones (a goal to

look smart and to avoid looking dumb). Dweck (1999) argues that both types of goals can fuel achievement and that both are entirely normal, but stresses that focusing on performance goals is a threat signal to the students. This is because if a new task involves a risk of making errors, performance goals (a) can force out learning goals, leading students to skip valuable learning opportunities; and (b) can directly create helpless responses when the learners face setbacks.

Achievement goals have been found to have a powerful influence on responses to difficulties and setbacks (e.g. Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Roeser, Midgley & Urdan, 1996); effort and outcome (Hong et al., 1999); and problem solving strategies (Diener & Dweck, 1980). A long history of research on achievement goals suggests that learning goals are associated with long-term use of effective learning strategies, while performance goals are associated with the use of ineffective learning strategies (e.g. Ames & Archer 1988; Dweck & Master, 2008; Elliott & Dweck 1988; Graham & Golan 1991; Liem, Lau, & Nie, 2008; Nolen & Haladyna 1990; Salili & Lai, 2003). For example, to address issues in the achievement motivation literature, focusing on students' achievement goals (performance vs. learning), students' achievement was examined by Grant and Dweck (2003) as they coped with one of the most challenging and important courses in their curriculum. The results showed that a growth orientation toward learning goals, compared to a fixed orientation toward performance goals, predicted higher final grades in the course. This advantage of better performance was a result of using more effective learning strategies by the growth oriented students (i.e growth mindset students) although they were not more skilled than the fixed mindset students.

Moreover, research into mindsets has shown that goal orientations are closely associated with students' mindsets. Students with the growth mindset were found to be more likely to orient toward learning goals, while students with the fixed mindset tended to be fixed oriented toward performance goals (e.g. Blackwell, Trzesniewski & Dweck, 2007; Hong, et al., 1999; Leggett & Dweck, 1988; Leondari & Gialamas, Chen & Wong, 2015). Although several researchers have provided evidence for the links between the mindsets and the achievement goals (e.g., Kray & Haselhuhn, 2007; Nussbaum & Dweck, 2008), others have revealed null effects (e.g., Doron et al., 2009; Dupreyat & Marine, 2005; Ommundsen et al., 2005). For example, Dupeyrat & Marine (2005) found that mindset failed to predict goal setting or goal engagement in a sample of adults returning to school. It is also worth noting that it has been suggested that growth mindset may represent an adaptive blend of mastery and performance goals. For instance, Martin and Liem (2010) found that growth mindset learners may orient toward learning goals because they are self-improvement-based and yet

orient toward element of performance goals because that they are competitive (but with their own previous performance rather than with others' performance).

In sum, Dweck's work has found that growth mindset students, who do not perceive intelligence as being fixed and orient toward learning goals, display strong mastery orientations regardless of their confidence in their ability, and thus failure does not hinder them from searching for knowledge. In contrast, fixed mindset students, who orient toward performance goals, react very differently to failure and can be more vulnerable to develop learned helplessness.

3.2.2 Mindsets and actual achievement

There has been an increasing interest among researchers to assess the consequences of the two different mindsets for students' actual outcomes (e.g., Chen & Wong, 2015; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Hong et al., 1999; Robins & Pals, 2002; Stipek & Gralinski, 1996). It has been evident in the literature that students' mindsets about intelligence or math and science ability play a significant role in their academic achievement (e.g. Aronson et al., 2002). Moreover, researchers have repeatedly shown that mindsets can predict actual achievement over time and that interventions that change mindsets can improve achievement and reduce achievement discrepancies.

The relationship between the mindset and actual achievement has been investigated in an experimental study conducted at Stanford University by Aronson et al. (2002) to test a method of helping African American college students to resist stereotype threat. They taught students in the experimental condition of the experiment a growth mindset by means of a workshop in order help them maintain their psychological engagement with academics and help them boost their college grades. At the end of the semester, the African American students obtained higher grade point averages than their counterparts in two control groups.

The results of the study conducted by Aronson et al. (2002) were further supported by a study conducted by Good, Aronson, and Inzlicht (2003). Their findings indicated that growth mindset learners earned higher grades, than did fixed mindset learners. In addition, the girls showed even greater gains than the boys and thus decreased the achievement gap in the growth mindset intervention group. However, their research has shown that the mindset is related to one-time assessments of grades and standardised tests, but it was not clear whether students' mindsets can have long-term effects or whether changing implicit theories can reverse a downward achievement trajectory.

Four years later, Blackwell et al. (2007) identified the role of the growth mindset on students' academic trajectories through school. They followed 373 students across the challenging transition to 7th grade. After assessing the students' mindset at the beginning of the year, besides other motivation-relevant variables, and then observing their math grades over the next two years, they found that students with fixed and growth mindsets had entered 7th grade with equal prior math achievement before they faced challenges and setbacks. However, after facing challenges in the 7th grade, the impact of mindsets emerged and the math grades of the two groups diverged by the end of the Fall term and continued to diverge over the next two years. The growth mindset predicted an upward trajectory in grades over the two years, while the fixed mindset predicted a flat trajectory.

Recently, Park, Gunderson, Tsukayama, Levine, and Beilock (2016) found that even growth mindset children in their first and second grades outperform the fixed mindset children on a standardised math test during the whole school year. They also found that classroom teachers' instructional practice predicts the development of children's motivational frameworks and that motivational frameworks in turn predict children's academic achievement in the early elementary school years.

In sum, students' mindsets played a key role in their academic achievement, especially when facing challenges and setbacks. Growth mindset students orient toward an emphasis on learning, effort, and persistence in the face of obstacles, and achieve better outcomes as a result. In contrast, fixed mindset students, in particular subjects in school, believe that an innate ability is essential to achieve well. Thus, they measure and document their ability, orienting toward performance goals, rather than perseverance, good strategies, help from others, and learning over time (Hong & Lin-Siegler, 2012).

3.2.3 Mindset and students' different responses to academic challenges: Mastery vs. helpless-oriented responses

Some students flourish in challenging situations easier than others of equal ability. Ample research has been conducted in an attempt to understand the psychological mechanisms that assist these students. There has been a growing body of evidence that even when students show equal intellectual ability, their mindsets can shape their responses to academic challenges (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007). As I mentioned earlier, Dweck's theoretical model suggests that core beliefs can set up different patterns of responses to challenge and setbacks (Dweck, 1999; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Henderson &

Dweck, 1990). Therefore, over the last three decades, educational psychology researchers have been increasingly interested in exploring what makes some students resilient and able to overcome these challenges or even to flourish during difficult situations (Burnette, O'Boyle, VanEpps, Pollack, & Finkel, 2013; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Pintrich & de Groot, 1990; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). For example, in a recent study, Burnette et al. (2013) conceptualised the influence of mindsets from a self-regulation perspective and found that mindsets had a substantial impact on goal setting (learning vs. performance goals), and goal operating (helpless vs mastery responses).

A major and recurring finding in the literature has been that holding a fixed or a growth mindset has several implications for the way that students respond to failures or setbacks. Fixed mindset learners tend to adopt a helpless response when they encounter difficulty, while growth mindset learners strive to master challenges and tend to adopt various mastery-orientated strategies (Diener & Dweck, 1980; Robins & Pals, 2002; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). On the other hand, growth mindset learners set mastery goals and seek academic challenges that they believe will help them to grow intellectually rather than using challenging tasks as an excuse for not being able to master specific content knowledge, which is often the technique that fixed mindset learners use (Dweck, 1999).

In sum, when facing an academically challenging task, growth mindset learners (who interpret failures as a sign that they need to put forth more effort to improve) react in a more mastery-oriented manner, increase their efforts, sustain a positive disposition, remain persistent and motivated, and have better educational outcomes (Hong et al., 1999; Dweck, 1999). On the other hand, fixed mindset students (who perceive intelligence as being a fixed trait and interpret failures as a sign that they lack the ability to learn) avoid academically challenging tasks and put themselves at a greater risk for academic underachievement. Moreover, they are often vulnerable to developing learned helplessness because they view their academic circumstances as being outside of their own control. Indeed, they feel that there is nothing they can do in order to improve their academic circumstances or overall academic achievement. As a result, they give up on tasks more quickly if those tasks prove to be challenging and react in a more helpless-oriented manner, showing greater anxiety and avoidance, higher failure rate, and decline in performance (Robins & Pals, 2002). These students may even take an alternative route in which they intentionally select tasks that are extremely difficult to complete in order to have an excuse to fail (Dweck, 1999).

3.2.4. Important characteristics of mindsets

Sufficient research into mindset has demonstrated that individual might hold different mindsets across different domains and these mindset can interact or operate independently in each domain. People may hold different mindsets about different areas such as, creativity, sports, arts, social relationships, intelligence and personality (Dweck, 1999). For instance, someone might believe that physical stamina can be increased through practice and training (growth mindset in the domain of sports) while artistic ability like musical or drawing abilities are fixed or natural talents that are born with you (fixed mindset in the domain of arts).

Moreover, some people might have different mindset for different areas of a particular domain. For example, in the domain of arts, someone may believe that you can increase your musical ability through practice but cannot increase your drawing ability because it is a natural gift. Another example was given by Mercer and Ryan (2010) who explored the role of the 'mindsets' in the context of foreign language learning and found that language learner might hold a fixed mindset for pronunciation and, in the same time, hold a growth mindset for writing, believing that you can improve your writing skill, but not pronunciation, through hard work and practice.

In a recent study conducted by Scott and Ghinea (2014), the notion of mindset was explored by distributing a survey to undergraduate software engineering students. The findings revealed that beliefs about intelligence and programming aptitude formed two separate mindsets, where the mindset for programming aptitude had greater utility in predicting software development practice. Based on the findings, they suggest that educators can motivate their students by situating growth messages and being sensitive to their students' programming-specific mindset when they design and evaluate introductory courses in software engineering.

Various researchers within the field of psychology also shed light on the need to consider the different mindset across different cultural systems (e.g. Lockhart, Nakashima, Inagaki & Keil, 2008) or within different organisational contexts (Murphy & Dweck, 2010). For example, Lockhart et al. (2008) compared the development of beliefs about the stability and origins of physical and psychological traits in Japan and the United States in three age groups including children and college students. They found differences and similarities in the development of beliefs across the two cultures. For instance, optimism about negative traits to change toward the positive and attributions of differences in trait expression to effort was more likely to exist among Japanese participants than American participants. This cultural

variation was considered to be a result of Japan being an interdependent culture that has a more incremental view of traits.

To explore if mindsets exist and operate at an institutional level, Murphy and Dweck (2010) discuss the consequences of organisation-level mindsets. They examine how an organisation's fixed or growth mindset that is held at a group level influences people's inferences about the characteristics most valued in that organisation, shaping their affect, cognition and behaviour. For example, in a fixed mindset organisation, people may expect genius to be more highly respected, while in a growth mindset organisation that perceives intelligence as malleable, people's motivation and willingness to learn might be more highly valued.

3.2.5 Origins of mindset: Praise and criticism

Research into mindsets has clearly shown that children are naturally protected from the negative impact of failure because they are too young to think of intelligence as being fixed (Dweck, 1998; Dweck & Elliot, 1983). However, there were studies that showed that different kinds of praise or criticism from adults can directly shape, create or change children's' patterns of reaction (e.g. Cain & Dweck, 1995; Dweck & Master, 2008; Kamins & Dweck, 1999; Mueller & Dweck, 1998). Dweck (1999) explains that more importance is gained for intelligence and its nature over the school years, as the children experience successes and failures, observe others' successes and failures, and consider the reactions or feedbacks of adults at home and school.

Dweck (2008) also explains how some parents and educators can be more interested in making students feel good about themselves in math and science than in helping them achieve, so they may praise their intelligence or talent or relieve them of the responsibility of doing well by telling them they are not "a science person" or "a math person" (e.g. Rattan, Good & Dweck, 2012), promoting a fixed mindset unintentionally.

In sum, numerous research in educational psychology has demonstrated that praising students' intelligence, contrary to praising the process (i.e. effort or strategy) can increase the fixedness of the students' mindsets, decrease their motivation, weaken their resilience in the face of obstacles, harm their performance, and can even encourage them to lie about their scores to look smarter and intelligent (see table 1). On the other hand, praising process motivates students to seek challenges and increase their resilience in the face of setbacks and difficulties (e.g. Cimpian, Arce, Markman, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, 2007; Henderlong Corpus & Lepper, 2007; Kamins & Dweck, 1999; Mueller & Dweck, 1998; Pomerantz &

Kempner, 2013). For instance, Pomerantz & Kempner (2013), examined if mothers' everyday praise of children's success in school plays a role in shaping their children mindsets and motivation. They found that the more mothers used "person praise", the more their children held a fixed mindset of intelligence and avoided challenges.

Table 1: Praising vs. criticism as origins of mindset (Dweck & Master, 2008, P.41)

	Entity theory (fixed mindset)	**Incremental theory (growth mindset)**
Praising	For person, talent, intelligence, etc.	For process, effort, strategy, etc.
Portraying genius	As inborn and effortless	As achieved through passion and effort
Portraying challenge	As something poor students encounter	As a value and a way to learn
Portraying effort	As necessary for the less able students	As necessary for everyone
Portraying the brain	As static	As growing with learning

Other studies demonstrate how adults' feedback practices and adults' own mindsets can influence students to think about their math (or science) ability in different ways. For example, Good, Rattan, & Dweck (2007, cited in Dweck, 2008) asked adults to give feedback to 7th grade students who had received a grade of 65% on an exam. They found that teachers who learned about a growth mindset in math gave more support to the student by giving more effective strategies to the student for improvement, while those who were taught that math ability is fixed were more likely to simply comfort the student, for example by explaining that not everyone can be talented and smart in math.

3.2.6 Mindsets are dynamic and can be changed

Although some researchers claim that language beliefs are a fixed system of knowledge that is formed and developed at an early age and thus cannot be easily changed (Wenden, 1998) or that language beliefs do not change significantly over years (Peacock, 2001), other researchers, recently, argue that the language beliefs are dynamic and can change according to interaction with contextual constraints (e.g., Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Kalaja, Barcelos, Aro, & Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2015; Mystkowska, 2014; Paunesku, Walton, Romero,

Smith, Yeager, & Dweck, 2015; Yeager et al., 2016). These studies on mindsets allow many researchers to conclude that it is possible to change someone's mindset.

In addition, mindsets could exhibit some degree of fluctuation (Franiuk, Pomerantz, & Cohen, 2004). Several researchers have primed different mindsets (e.g., Burnette, 2010; Hong et al., 1999), and were able to change them in both short-term laboratory experiments (e.g. Spray, Wang, Biddle, Chatzisarantis, & Warburton, 2006) and longer-term classroom interventions (e.g., Blackwell et al., 2007; Burnette & Finkel, 2012). For example, Blackwell et al. (2007) found that students who participated in workshops to learn about the growth mindset and the malleability of intelligence continued to report strong incremental beliefs of intelligence three weeks later and showed a significant improvement in their motivation and grades.

Reviewing the intervention studies conducted to change the students' mindsets in the literature has shown that changing students' mindsets can have a significant impact on their motivation and achievement test score. Dweck (2008) suggests that it is important to follow students over longer periods of time to see whether the improvements last. She believes that environmental support (e.g. teachers' presenting materials in a growth mindset framework and giving feedback that enhance a growth mindset) is essential for them to do so. Growth mindset interventions mainly aims at conveying two key messages to increase participants' motivation and promote resilience: (a) intelligence and ability can grow through working hard on challenging and difficult tasks; and (b) faliures and mistakes are opportunities for growth, not a sign of lacking ability. Because mindset interventions typically target a single core belief (i.e. malleability of intelligence or ability), they can be brief and flexible (e.g., an hour or less) and can be delivered using standardised materials or ostensible methods that include direct and indirect messages. Therefore, these interventions can use common narratives (stories from older students) and logical information (scientific concepts). According to the educational psychology literature, a typical mindset intervention is expected to encourage students to read an article or watch a film that describes the brain's ability to grow through hard work on challenging tasks. The article or the film focus on the implications of neuroscience findings for students' potential to become smarter through study and practice. They should also stress the fact that failures and setbacks in school provide opportunities to learn and grow rather than indicate lack of ability or talent. The message should be reinforced indirectly through asking the students to participate in writing short essays that summarise the scientific findings in their own words or writing letters to advise another hypothetical demotivated student who is struggling at school, using the information they have just learned.

In the control condition, students read and complete materials that lack the key psychological message that intelligence is malleable.

In their study, Blackwell et al. (2007) developed an eight-session intervention protocol, where students in both the experimental and control groups participated in similarly structured workshops. The workshops included instruction in the physiology of the brain, study skills, and antistereotypic thinking. In addition, students in the experimental group were directly taught that intelligence is malleable and can be developed through science-based readings, activities, and discussions. On the other hand, students in the control group had an alternative memory lesson and engaged in discussions of other academic issues. The intervention was developed building on theory-altering experimental materials that were previously developed in lab studies (e.g. Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, 1997) and in the Aronson et al. (2002) theory-changing intervention (i.e. the representation of growing neural pathways). The main lessons that was taught in the workshop was that learning changes the brain by forming new connections and that students can control this process. The message about the malleability of intelligence was also delivered indirectly through an interesting reading that included clear and powerful analogies and examples (e.g. how muscles become stronger with excerise or how ignorant babies become smarter with continuous learning). They found that promoting an incremental theory generated increased motivation in the classroom, supporting the idea that the student's mindset is a key factor in achievement motivation. Within a single semester, the incremental theory intervention succeeded in raising the math grades of low-achieving seventh-grade students and preventing the decline in mathematics achievement, according to teacher reports. Aronson et al. (2002) addressed the implicit beliefs that students have about intelligence in an effort to improve the academic performance of minority college students. In their intervention study, they encouraged students in three one-hour laboratory sessions to watch an exciting film that portrays the ways the brain changes every time something new is learned. Then, the message was reinforced and internalised using in an indirect method by asking the same students to participate in an ostensible pen pal program in which they wrote a letter to a struggling junior high student. They were asked to emphasise the concept that intelligence is malleable and can increase with mental excerices. The findings showed that students who received growth mindset training reported increased enjoyment of their academic work and valued academics in general more than students in the control group. In line with Blackwell et al. (2007), interventions in malleability training have resulted in the improvement of the students GPA which clearly improved over the other groups.

It is worth noting that although many researchers have suggested that priming mindsets predicts people's behaviours and emotions in difficult situations (i.e., goal operating and goal monitoring (Burnette et al., 2013), other researchers perceive the relationship as being a more complex interconnection among various variables that work collectively as a motivational and self-regulatory system. For example, the relationship between mindsets and goals can be mediated by self efficacy and attributions (Baird, Scott, Dearing & Hamill, 2009), while goal setting meditates the relationship between mindsets and responses to failure (e.g., Dinger, Dickhauser, Spinath, & Steinmayr, 2013; Robins & Pals, 2002; Spray et al., 2006).

In sum, the findings that showed that students' mindsets can be primed, changed and taught is of vital importance for educators in different domains. It has several pedagogical implications because it demonstrated that teaching a growth mindset can enhance the students' motivation and thus improve their school achievement (e.g. Chen & Pajares, 2010; Dupreyat & Marine, 2005).

3.2.7 Mindsets in language learning

Having reviewed the research in mainstream educational psychology regarding the concept of mindsets, I will now turn to the related research in language learning mindsets. Reviewing the research into the psychological concept of mindsets, it can be suggested that language learners may hold different implicit theories of the nature of language learning ability. Despite the fact that a long history of research investigated the existence of a natural aptitude for language learning (see Carroll, 1981; Horwitz, 1999) or the existence of a critical period for second language learning (Abrahamsson & Hyltenstam, 2009; DeKeyser, 2000; Harley & Hart, 1997; Johnson & Newport, 1989, 1992; Munro, Flege, & MacKay, 1996; Sorace, 1993), the implicit theories or mindsets of language learners have not been researched sufficiently in the language learning research field.

Language learners' beliefs about the nature of language learning ability (e.g. its malleability, and controllability) can influence the learners' L2 achievement (Mori, 1999), their behaviour outside the language classroom, particularly studying abroad (Miller & Gensberg, 1995) and their sense of agency (White, 2008). The previous work that examined language learners' beliefs has inspired Ryan and Mercer (2011) to pay attention explicitly to the role of mindsets in the context of foreign language learning, by considering a possible link between learners' beliefs about naturally acquiring a language while abroad and motivation; the role of natural talent and mindsets. They discuss how learners' beliefs regarding the role

of natural talent and how their core beliefs can affect their motivation and ability to develop a positive identity as self-directed language learner within different language learning contexts. They took the discussion further by arguing that strong mindsets that stress the superiority of natural acquisition contexts and natural talent over learners' directed effort, can demotivate them. For example, they assert that people who hold fixed language learning mindset are more likely to avoid challenges, lessen their language learning expectations, and tend to develop a sense of helplessness following their lack of success.

Employing Dweck's (1999) theoretical framework, they also conducted a small exploratory study using in-depth interviews carried out with tertiary-level learners in Austria and Japan (Mercer & Ryan, 2010, 2012) in order to explore the role of the psychological construct of "mindsets" in the context of foreign language learning and to argue for the relevance and importance of the construct for English language teaching. Therefore, they identified two language learning mindset: a fixed language learning mindset (i.e. a belief that a fixed innate ability or natural talent is essential for successful language learning) and a growth language learning mindset (i.e. a belief that language learning ability is malleable and can be increased through practice, hard work and effort).

The findings of their study revealed the complexity and uniqueness of language learning mindsets and the variabilty in the students' beliefs about the malleability of language intelligence that affect their approach to learning languages. This considerable variation was found to be affected by other perceived mediating factors including age, learning context, and the language skill area concerned. In addition, the data revealed the importance of focusing on the language learners' beliefs about the malleability of other factors, not only the beliefs about ability. The final important finding in their data is related to the dynamism of mindsets and its development and changes across time, highlighting the mindsets' potential for change.

Mercer and Ryan (2012) asserts that fixed mindset people tend more than others to avoid challenges, lower their language learning expectations, and develop a sense of helplessness following their lack of success, thereby becoming easily demotivated. This is simply a result of believing that without the prior talent of established language learning abilities, trying hard to learn a language well is worthless as failure is unavoidable.

Combining the findings of the numerous research into mindsets in educational psychology, research studies about language beliefs, and Mercer and Ryan's initial work on language learning mindsets, Lou (2014) submitted a thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts where he developed an instrument to measure language learning mindsets. Building on the results of Ryan and Mercer's studies (2009,

2012), Lou developed an instrument to assess mindsets particularly in a language learning context. The factor analytic results suggested three categories of language intelligence relevant for L2 learning: (a) a mindset about whether language intelligence is fixed or malleable (i.e. general language intelligence beliefs/GLB), (b) a mindset whether second/foreign language ability is a fixed ability or something that can be improved through effort (L2B), and (c) the beliefs related to age sensitivity and language learning (ASB). According to Lou, some people may have a strong belief that an adult cannot learn a L2 as well as a child (Ryan & Mercer, 2012), thus L2 ability may be considered to be malleable up to a particular age, and fixed thereafter, while Others believe that one can successfully learn a new language regardless of their age. Based on these three aspects and the two mindsets (fixed vs. growth), Lou developed and tested the six-factor Mindset of Language Learning Scale (MLLS), which showed sound psychometric properties on internal reliability, test-retest reliability, construct validity, discriminant validity, and criterion validity.

Based on the findings of Burnette et al. (2013) that priming mindsets predicts people's behaviours and emotions in difficult situations and that mindsets had a significant impact on goal setting (learning vs. performance goals), goal operating (helpless vs mastery responses), and school achievement, Lou and Noels (2016) assumed that priming a growth language learning mindset can guide the language learners' orientation toward setting learning goals, and thus positively influence their responses to failures and increase their persistence in language learning, while priming a fixed language learning mindset may lead learners to set performance goals. Therefore, they proposed their "mindsets–goals–responses" model that conceptualised the effect of language learning mindsets on goal orientations and responses to language learning failure.

Lou and Noels's model assumed that growth mindsets learners focus on increasing their knowledge and proficiency level. Thus, in failure situations, they are more likely to orient toward (learning goals), more likely to respond in a more mastery-oriented manner, experience less anxiety, and express higher persistence in learning. On the other hand, fixed language learning mindsets focus on documenting their language ability but their goal orientations divided them into two categories: learners who focus on attracting positive feedback when they feel confident about their L2 proficiency (orientation toward performance-approach goals) and learners who focus on avoiding negative feedback when they do not feel confident about their L2 proficiency (orientation toward performance-avoidance goals). Thus, in failure situations, they are likely to respond in more helpless-oriented manner, experience more anxiety, and express higher level of vulnerability.

The findings of Lou and Noel's study supported their theoretical model. Indeed, they found that a growth language learning mindset significantly predicted learning goals, which predicted adaptive mastery responses to failures and higher level of persistence. In addition, fixed mindset interacted with perceived low L2 competence and became a significant predictor of performance-avoidance goals and maladaptive responses, while perceived high L2 competence interacted with a fixed language learning mindset and became a significant predictor of performance-approach goals and less adaptive responses.

Based on the few number of studies conducted to initiate the research into the concept of mindsets in the field of language learning, it can be clearly seen that research into language learning mindset is still in a very early stage and more questions need to be addressed in order to deeply understand the complex nature of language learning mindsets. However, these few studies shed light on the relevance and the applicability of Dweck's theoretical model of mindset within the field of language learning. The findings of these study appear to pave the way for other researchers to consider the role of language learning mindsets in language learners' motivation, behaviour, resilience, achievement, demotivation and remotivation. They also seem to provide a new motivational model for language educators and practitioners that can help them in increasing their students' motivation and improving their learning outcomes.

3.2.8 Conclusion

I will conclude this section by quoting what kikuchi (2015) calls for in his book that was fully dedicated to discuss demotivation in second language acquisition and to present several L2 demotivation studies conducted using quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method approaches:

Learner demotivation cannot simply be viewed as a cause or a product of learning

experiences. Learners with their unique histories and backgrounds interact with a

variety of motivators and demotivators. They may react in various ways since they feel

and think about them differently. In the contexts that they are a part of, they meet

different agents and are affected through their interactions. In studying demotivators,

researchers may need to expand their research focus and study such complexities that

language learners are dealing with in their everyday lives (Kikuchi, 2015, p. 24)

In response to Kikuchi's call and to expand the focus of L2 demotivation research, this research is an attempt to explore language learning demotivation and the different responses made by demotivated learners by drawing on different notions in Psychology research. As I mentioned previously, when I started this exploratory research to investigate L2 demotivation, there were not any particular theoretical models to adopt or specific concepts to investigate in L2 demotivation research. However, the exploratory nature of the first study and the analysis of its finding opened the doors for integrating new concepts from other disciplines and assisted in developing a more comprehensive conceptualisation of the dynamism of demotivation from different perspectives.

Demotivated language learners in different contexts are anticipated to attribute thie past failure or their demotivation to their lack of ability to learn a second language. The long history of research into the concept of "mindset" suggests that the various students' perceptions of malleability of this ability will have a major direct effect on their L2 motivation. It can be suggested that if learners frame themselves as lacking a fixed natural ability to learn foreign languages, motivation to learn is anticipated to decrease, and thus success would not be often anticipated. However, none of the L2 demotivation researchers has investigated the role of the language learning mindset within L2 demotivation.

Building on the previous research conducted in psychology and language learning fields, this study will be the first study that investigates L2 demotivation and different responses of L2 demotivated students, focusing on the role of the language learning mindset. More specifically, it will investigate whether having a growth or a fixed mindset results in differences in the perceptions of L2 demotivating factors and behavioural and affective responses in the face of these factors.

3.3 Attribution theory

It can be seen after reviewing the literature of mindsets that the diverse meanings and explanations people give to basic human qualities can create different psychological worlds and shape their motivation, goals, behaviour and achievement. This section is a continuation in that the different ways people explain their past failures and success can play a similar role and can be considered a fundamental facet of their mindsets. In this section, I continue to review how people differ in their explanations of their experiences and how these different explanations interact with their L2 motivation. First, I look at the definition of attributions and review its important features, and then I outline the major differences between attribution

theory and Dweck's theoretical model. Finally, I review some of the studies that applied the concept in language learning field.

3.3.1 Attribution theory in social Psychology

Attribution theory was perceived as a dominant concept in motivation, social psychology, and educational psychology research in the 1970s. In order to have a better understanding of the diverse ways that people try to make sense of every single event that occurs in their lives, Weiner (1976) played an important role in constructing the attribution theory; a theory that focuses on the factors people attribute their failures and successes to in education and other domains. In other words, it focuses on the explanations people tend to make to explain their successes and failures (Weiner, 1974). Attribution theory was one perspective that has contributed substantially to an understanding of students' motivation to learn. It hypothesises that attribution affects effort and persistence because we work harder when we believe success comes as a result of effort. From a constructivist perspective on learning, learners try to understand their world by actively attaching meanings to their learning situations (Williams & Burden, 1997). They often form beliefs about their abilities to complete tasks successfully and these perceptions play an important role in their actions, motivation, and achievement (Bandura, 1977; Schunk, 1991; Weiner, 1985). It is worth noting that attributions are governed by one's beliefs and may not represent the real reasons for success or failure (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008).

Building on Heider's (1958) and Rotter's (1966) work which focused on the perceived causes of success and failure and their locus of control, a set of four key perceived causes of achievement outcomes (attributions) have been traditionally suggested in the theory: ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck (see Weiner et al., 1971). However, research has recognised several other possible attributions, such as health, attitude, teachers; mood, materials, resources, interest, strategies used by learners, and significant others (Erten & Burden, 2014; Peacock, 2009; Williams & Burden, 1999; Vispoel & Austin, 1995).

Weiner has classified attributions along three dimensions: locus of causality, stability, and control. The three dimensions of attribution influence a variety of common emotional process, including anger, gratitude, guilt, helplessness, pity, pride, and shame. Expectancy and affect, in turn, are presumed to guide motivated behaviour. The theory therefore connects the structure of thinking to the dynamics of feeling and action.

Locus of control (internal vs. external)

The locus of causality dimension, concerned with whether individuals perceive the cause of their performance to be internal or external to them. For example, students with an internal locus of control may attribute success to ability and failure to lack of ability, while learners with an external locus of control may attribute success and failure to bad or good luck or to task difficulty/easiness giving little basis for control over what future outcomes may be like. It is worth noting that Weiner (2010) revised his theory and argued that locus of control is not systematically related to expectancy and expectancy changes because an internal attribution of failure might lead to large expectancy decreases (e.g., low ability), whereas others do not (e.g., lack of effort), just as some external attributions for failure produce significant expectancy decrements (e.g., a strict teacher), whereas others have little influence on subjective expectancy (e.g., bad luck).

Stability (stable vs. unstable)

The stability dimension refers to whether the cause of an event is stable or unstable across time and events. For instance, effort is labelled as an unstable attribution, so its amount and nature can be changed over time, while ability, on the other hand, is usually regarded as relatively stable because it is believed that it does not change over time. However, Dweck's (1999) has discussed the stability of different factors and criticised this designation of some variables in the attribution theory. This point will be reviewed in more details later.

Controllability (controllable vs. uncontrollable)

The last dimension, controllability, refers to how much control individuals perceive they have over a cause. Effort and strategy use would be classified as controllable because learners can control how much effort to allocate to a task and can decide on the strategy to use, while ability, along with health and luck, on the other hand, are categorised as uncontrollable. According to Weiner, the learner's perception of controllability affects motivation to perform a learning task.

In sum, attribution theory represents an attempt to discover how individuals perceive the causes of their behaviours and to look at the ways in which their explanations of the past may affect their future motivation and achievement.

3.3.2 Important features of attributions

One of the most important features of the attributions is that they are not global but rather situation-specific. People bring their own subjective meaning to the world thus these perceptions of the world and themselves are personal. According to a specific event or

activity, individuals vary in their attributions and dimensions; therefore, it leads to different outcomes (Williams & Burden, 1997).

A second feature of attributions is that they vary across cultures, age groups, and gender. For example, effort, as an attribution, is anticipated to receive more emphasis in Asia but less emphasis in Western countries where ability is more emphasised (Stigler & Stevenson, 1992). Moreover, the impact of culture on attribution appeared in several studies conducted in different non-western cultures such as China (Peacock, 2009) and in Malaysia (Thang, Gobel, Norl, & Suppiah, 2011). These Asian studies were different from studies conducted in western contexts in that they revealed more emphasis on attributing failure to internal factors and success to external factors such as teachers.

Attributions were also found to differ across age groups. For example, Williams, Burden, Poulet, and Maun (2004) found that effort attributions for success decreased between 7th and 11th graders. Differences in attributions were also found between men and women by Riordan, Thomas and James (1985) where men tended to produce more internal attributions than women. However, contrary to these findings, some studies have found that women tend to attribute success to external causes and failure to internal and stable causes more than men (e.g. Nelson & Cooper, 1997). In the field of language learning, Kang (2000) found that Korean girls were more likely to attribute more of their success to internal factors when studying English than boys did.

The third essential characteristic of the attributions is that they can be malleable. Weiner (1977) argued that learners' attributions are not born with them, they arise from situational cues such as their past experiences, teachers' feedback, and peers' performance observation. Williams and Burden (1999) also found that the teacher plays a significant role in the development of students' attributions. Although it appears that the malleability of attributions has not given attention of empirical research. Weiner (2010) claims that changes in causal beliefs modify achievement-related performance. For instance, an attribution modification study was conducted by Perry, Hechter, Menec and Weinberg (1993), where changing the attributions of failing students from low ability to lack of effort has improved college performance. In addition, changing attribution-beliefs so that failure is regarded as unstable rather than stable in school settings, has also lead to improvement in school-related outcomes (Wilson, Damiani, & Shelton, 2002).

Some intervention studies that aim at changing attributions from external, stable, uncontrollable failure attributions into more internal, controllable and unstable attributions have resulted in behavioural change and facilitated motivation, thus improving learners'

approach to learning, performance and outcome. For instance, in an intervention study conducted by Sarkisian, Prohaska, Davis, and Weiner (2007), the elderly was convinced that their failure to exercise is due to lack of effort (unstable and controllable attribution), not to their aging (stable and uncontrollable attribution). This alteration in their attribution has lead them to increase walking behaviour.

3.3.3 Dweck and attributional styles

As I mentioned previously, the major concept in attribution theory is the assumption that individuals' diverse explanations of their own past failures and success can affect and shape their future achievement behaviour and motivation differently (Weiner, 1979). Although Dweck (1999) stated that Weiner's work in attribution theory formed the basis of her work on learned helplessness (Dweck, 1975) and that attributions are fundamental motivational variables and critical motivators of persistence, she explained how her model attempted to go beyond the attributional approach in three ways:

1- In the attribution theory, people are basically the same before an outcome occurs. They simply learned different explanations and called these explanations into the world when an outcome occurs. In Dweck's model, people are not the same beforehand because they have different mindsets and different goals that orient them toward different explanations.

2- In the attribution theory, motivated behaviour is not truly initiated until people face an outcome to explain. In Dweck's model, people have goals that lead them to initiate behaviour and influence its nature, their thoughts, their feelings while they engage in this behaviour. She believes that a complete theory of motivation must deal with what motivates people to initiate behaviour, and what direct their behaviour and its intensity even before explicitly experiencing an outcome.

3- In the attribution theory, some causal variables like ability are designated as stable and others like luck as unstable. In Dweck's model, the key point for an individual's motivation is how these variables are seen by that individual. Thus, people's mindsets influence not only their attributions, but also the meaning of these attributions.

3.3.4 Attributions in language learning

Individuals' personal interpretations and explanations of their past experiences can be closely related to a wide spectrum of motivated or demotivated behaviour such as avoiding some activities or sustaining motivated behaviour (Weiner, 2010). The interaction between outcome, task nature, and attributions can help individuals to generate different possible future solutions regarding what to do next about the learning tasks. Therefore, understanding language learners' attributions and raising awareness of their nature and role among language teachers and learners can thus sustains L2 motivation and leads to greater skill acquisition. According to the the attribution theory, this can be achieved by helping language learners to attribute outcomes of performances to strategy use and other controllable healthy attributions, given the importance of learners' perception of control (Hsieh, 2012).

After achieving a special position among other cognitive theories of motivation in educational psychology in 1980s, attribution theory was applied in L2 motivation research by the 1990s in the cognitive-situated period, bringing L2 motivation research in line with mainstream motivational psychology and its cognitive revolution. It is vital to understand learners' attributions in language learning contexts because these are likely to influence the language learners' decisions to get involved in future activities after experiencing failures (Weiner, 2010). Several researchers have found that, regardless of the precision of these attributions, they can influence learners' effort, resilience in the face of failure, expectancy for success, competence beliefs, and, thus, influence their emotions, motivation, and achievement (Graham, 1994; Gregg & Hall, 2006; Morris, Spittle, & Watt, 2005; Weiner, 2000).

Language learners' attributions have been widely researched as a result of their potential influence on the learners' expectancy for future success and motivation. Thus, research into the motivational role of attributions has grown in the field of language learning over the last two decades (see for example Erler & Macaro, 2011; Gobel & Mori, 2007; Gobel, Mori, Thang, Kan, & Lee, 2011; Hsieh, 2012; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Peacock, 2009; Ushioda, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams, Burden, AlBaharna, 2001; Williams, Burden, Poulet, & Maun, 2004).

Attribution researchers has examined the role of language learners' attributions focusing on all three dimensions of attributions. Studies that were conducted in the language learning domain have generally shown that language learners attributed their successes and failures to a variety of internal and external factors (e.g. Tse, 2000; Williams et al., 2004). With regard to locus of control, for example, Tse (2000) found that language learners mainly

attribute success to external factors, but attribute failure to internal factors displaying a self-critical approach through blaming themselves for not doing well.

In terms of controllability, several studies (Erler & Macaro, 2011; Webb, Worchel, & Brown, 1986; Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams et al., 2001; Yeigh, 2007) have linked controllability in Weiner's attributional model of learning to information processing efficiency, which likely facilitated successful foreign language learning. Uncontrollable factors, regardless of the locus of control, were often reported by language learners. These uncontrollable factors included: ability, teaching methods and language difficulty and other factors. For instance, Williams et al. (2001) found that successful language learning was attributed to family or teachers' support, while failure was attributed to inadequate teaching methods. However, other controllable attributions such as effort were reported in other studies by language learners (Williams & Burden, 1999).

Although numerous earlier research has shown that when failure is attributed to a stable factor such as lack of ability, expectancy of success decreases and future failure is predicted (e.g Andrews & Debus, 1978) and that, in situations of failure, attributing failure to unstable factors such lack of effort, does not lead to a great decrease in expectancies of future success, Dweck's (1999) research has demonstrated that some students perceive ability as an unstable factor that can be increased through effort and practice. This suggests that attributing failure to lack of ability does not necessarily lead to decreases in expectancy of success.

Investigating the role of language learners' attributions has also been expanded to examine their relationship with L2 achievement. Several studies revealed possible causal relationships between attributions and achievement in the field of language learning (e.g. Cochran, McCallum & Bell, 2010; Erler & Macaro, 2011; Erten & Burden, 2014; Hashemi & Zahibi, 2011; Hsieh, 2012; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Pishghadam & Zabihi, 2011). The findings of these studies generally indicated that language learners' achievement was mostly attributed to uncontrollable, stable factors such as ability, teacher, luck, mood, and task difficulty more than internal controllable factors. For example, the relationship between attributions and L2 achievement was recently examined among 267 Turkish students by Erten and Burden (2014). They found that teacher was the most frequent attribution for test scores followed by ability, interest, and long term effort. They also found that the best predictors of test performance were ability attribution, academic self-concept, interest attribution, and teacher attribution. Therefore, they concluded that awareness of student attributions can offer valuable information to language teachers.

3.4 Hardiness

In the following sections, I will introduce the the construct of "personality hardiness" and discuss its significant role in the process of developing psychological resilience. I will also briefly review the previous research into personality hardiness in other domains. Next, I will review research into psychological resilience and discuss its relevance to resilience in the context of L2 demotivation and remotivation.

3.4.1 The construct of personality hardiness

Over three decades ago, the construct of hardiness was introduced by Kobasa (1979) when she initiated the conceptualisation of personality hardiness. Basically, she defined it as a resource for resistance in the face of stressful situations. Hardiness emerged as a collection of personality characteristics and protective factors that help individuals to turn stressful experiences from potential tragedies into growth and learning opportunities through positive attitudes and adaptive strategies. It consists of a combination of three key components that function together as a resistance mechanism to stressful life event: commitment, control, and challenge (Maddi, 1999).

The first C, commitment, refers to the belief that, even in stressful situations, staying involved with genuine interest in the surrounding activities and people is important, thus approaching stressful situations with the belief that they are meaningful and interesting. The second C, control, refers to the belief that life events are controllable and stressors as changeable through effort, thus any stressful event can be influenced and all difficulties can be turned into growth opportunities. Finally, the third C, challenge, refers to viewing life changes as potential growth and learning opportunities and accepting stress as a natural part of life, thus perceive stressful changes as being challenges rather than threats and learn from failures. (Kobasa, 1982; Kobasa, Maddi, & Courington, 1981).

The literature suggests that hardiness functions as a protective factor in stressful situations mainly through cognitive evaluation of the circumstances and coping strategies (Maddi, 1999). Research into hardiness has mainly shown that, despite stressful events, hardiness allows some individual to remain physically and mentally healthy by reducing the devastating impact of stress (Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982).

High hardy individulas try to influence, control, engage in, and learn from various life events. They have better and stronger social networks that provide them with support in stressful situations and protect their mental and physical health by engaging in relaxation, eating well and sleeping well (Maddi, 2013; McCalister, Dolbier, Webster, Mallon, &

Steinhardt, 2006). They are open to life changes and challenges and believe that they are normal part of life and existence, viewing them as meaningful and interesting, which results in less stressful experience. They also view life events as positive and controllable, and perceive changes as challenges rather than threats (Maddi & Hightower, 1999). On the other hand, low hardy people will perceive changes as more threatening than challenging and are more likely to withdraw from stressful situations (Maddi, 1999).

Research into hardiness has also shown that personality hardiness assiociates with adaptive coping strategies (Cash & Gardner, 2011; Maddi, 2013). As a result of their adaptive strategies, high hardy people exhibit increased frustration tolerance in tasks that require concentration and persistence (Vogt, Rizvi, Shipherd, & Resick, 2008; Wiebe, 1991). On the other hand, low personality hardiness associated with applying maladaptive coping strategies such as denial and avoidance, by ignoring stressful situations, and distracting the self with ineffective strategies and useless activities (Maddi, 2013).

3.4.2 Measuring personality hardiness

In order to measure hardiness, Funk (1992) states that various scales have been specifically constructed to measure this construct. PVS, Personal Views Survey (Kobasa, 1985) and DRS, Dispositional Resilience Scale (Bartone, Ursano, Wright, & Ingraham, 1989) are the most commonly used hardiness measures. According to Funk (1992), unlike the previously used measures, these two scales include some positively oriented items that do not measure lack of hardiness which was the case in the majority of previous measures.

3.4.3 Researching personality hardiness in various domains

The early studies that explored the impact of personality hardiness on various outcomes have been conducted mostly in the work context (e.g., Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982). They found that hardiness was a key variable that differentiates managers who proved to be successful at individual and job level when working in the stressful work conditions from those who did not. These studies provoked numerous authors to examine the effects of hardiness on a variety of work-related outcomes in various professional groups, with professional burnout generating most interest. They revealed that hardiness protects against the negative effect of stress on health and performance (e.g., Contrada, 1989; Roth, Wiebe, Fillingim, & Shay, 1989; Wiebe, 1991). Although earlier research regarded hardiness as a personality dimension that develops early in life and could be conceptualised by many of us as stable over time, it was discussed in the literature as changeable, trainable factor that can be learned under certain conditions (Kobasa, 1979). Therefore, the early research had practical

implications of planning stress management programs mainly in the domains of work and organisational psychology (Walton, 1990).

More recent studies, in various work context, have shown that hardiness is associated with decreased professional burnout among mental care and education professionals (Chan, 2003; Simoni & Paterson, 1997); more commitment to work organisations (Sezgin, 2009); higher level of job satisfaction (Cash & Gardner, 2011); less likelihood to fall ill and less work injuries (Greene & Nowack, 1995); less physical symptoms in highly stressed individuals in health care professionals (Ebling & Carlotto, 2012; Henderson, 2015); small business success (Smith, 2015); decreased certified sickness absence at work (Hystad, Eid & Brevik, 2011); and decreased nurse burnout (Henderson, 2015).

Following the introduction of the concept of personality hardiness, growing interest was generated within the fields of psychology and other research fields. Over the last two decades, an extensive body of research expanded the context of inquiry and investigated the impact of personality hardiness on mental and physical health in a wide range of contexts where encountering stressful circumstances is anticipated. For example, the role of hardiness of teachers and students was investigated in academic situations (e.g.Azeem, 2010; Saxena, 2015; Yakunina, Weigold, Weigold, Hercegovac & Elsayed, 2013; Zhang, 2011); among military leaders and soldiers (Bartone, 2006; Bartone, Eid, Hystad, Jocoy, Laberg & Johnsen, 2015; Bartone, Kelly & Matthews, 2013; Britt, Adler, & Bartone, 2001; Erbes, Arbisi, Kehle, Ferrier-Auerbach, Barry & Polusny, 2011 Eid, Helge Johnsen, Bartone & Arne Nissestad, 2008); and among athletes in the sports contexts (Nezhad & Besharat, 2010; Salim, Wadey & Diss, 2015). In addition, the relationship between hardiness and weight management in weight loss programs was investigated (e.g. Mirshekarlou, Rashidkhani, Rezaiian, Vahid & Najafi, 2015). Generally, it has been evident that both total personality hardiness and its three components of commitment, control, and challenge increase people capability of adapting, adjusting or modifying their behaviours once stress is perceived or experienced.

Kobasa (1979) also suggested that hardiness can affect health outcomes. The findings of recent research demonstrated that higher level of hardiness is associated with decreased posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms (Jaksic, Brajkovic, Ivezic, Topic & Jakovljevic, 2012). Moreover, hardiness was found to mediate the relationship between psychopathy and anxiety in prsion (Sandvik, Hansen, Hystad, Johnsen & Bartone, 2015) and between perceived stress and suicidal ideation among undergraduate students (Abdollahi, Talib, Yaacob & Ismail, 2015). In general, the numerous research conducted recently in different contexts have investigated the effects of personality hardiness on various aspects of

peoples' healthoucomes and found that it mediates the effects of stressful situations on mental health, physical health, depression, and PSTD.

3.4.4 Hardiness in language learning: Hardiness as the basis for resilience

Dornyei and Ryan (2015) calls for the revitalisation of demotivation research domain by focusing on the dynamics of demotivation, and to examine how interaction between demotivational factors and personal characteristics can lead to different experiences that are characterised by different levels of resilience and helplessness among language learners. In the context of the present research, one of my main objectives is to understand why some language learners remains motivated, committed and positive in the face of several difficulties and setbacks they might encounter during their learning journey.

Several researchers examined various essential characteristics that enable individuals to be resilient and to better adapt to stresses (e.g. Earvolino-Ramirez, 2007; Windle, 2011).

Following Rutter's (1985) early identification of protective factors and their role as modifiers of peoples' responses to some threats that are potentially stressful, several protective factors have been identified in the resilience research literature, including hardiness (Bonanno, 2004), self-efficacy (Gu & Day, 2007) and self-esteem (Kidd & Shahar, 2008). Personality hardiness was designated as the basis for psychological resilience and was regarded as the facilitator or the pathway to resilience under stress by many researches (e.g. Bartone, 2006; Bonanno 2004; Maddi, 2005; Maddi, 2013; Waysman, Schwarzwald & Solomon, 2001).

After reviewing the results of previous research into the construct of hardiness in various domains. It can be hypothesised that one of the key personality traits that would affect the way individuals respond to demotivating factors and their negative impact differently is personality hardiness. However, the relationsip between personality hardiness and the resilience that some language learners exhibit in the face of demotivating factors has not been investigated by L2 demotivation researchers.

In the current thesis, the factors that facilitates the language learner's resilience in the face of demotivating factors will be examined. The relationship between personality hardiness and other relevant variables such as language learners' resilience/vulnerability and language learning mindsets will be explored. In other words, the role of personality hardiness as a potential facilitating factor in the making of resilient language learners will be examined.

In the qualitative study, I will categorise a language learner as being hardy individuals if she talks about her her personality and discusses her ability (a) to remain committed and engaged in difficult activities even under stress; (b) to apply effective problem-solving strategies; (c) to turn failures into learning and growth opportunities; (d) to make use of social relationships to discuss her negative experiences and feelings; or (e) her perception of difficulties and challenges as interesting and meaningful rather than threatening.

In the following section, I will review the concept of psychological resilience and discuss its relevance to the investigation of various language learners' responses to portential demotivators.

3.5 Resilience

3.5.1. Definition of psychological resilience

Resilience has been defined differently by researcher based on its nature as a trait or a process which made the construct difficult to measure (Davydov, Stewart, Ritchie & Chaudieu, 2010). For example, Rutter (1987) defines it as the influences that modify or change a person's response to some environmental threat that predisposes to a maladaptive outcome. However, the majority of researchers have conceptualised resilience as a process that changes over time. For instance, Luthar et al. (2000, p. 543) defines it as a "dynamic process encompassing positive adaptation within the context of significant adversity". Also, Lee and Cranford (2008, p. 213) define resilience as "the capacity of individuals to cope successfully with significant change, adversity or risk".

Some researchers have associated resilience with recovery when they defined it. For instance, Leipold and Greve (2009, p. 41) define resilience as "an individual's stability or quick recovery (or even growth) under significant adverse conditions". Regardless of the way that researchers conceptualised the construct of resilience, there is an agreement among them that resilience lead to the positive adaptation to adversities and maintaining good performance, health and outcome despite the existence of stressful circumstances that potentially threatens development.

Recently, several researchers have found that individuals' resilience varies across context (Ungar, 2013); age (Palgi, Shrira, & Shmotkin, 2015); gender (Moreno-Walton & Koenig, 2016); cultures (Ungar, 2015); and lifespan (Liu, Fairweather-Schmidt, Burns, & Roberts, 2015), as well as within the same individual encountering various life circumstances (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

After reviewing several definitions of resilience in the psychology research and trying to narrow the broad meaning of them, I will conceptualise L2 resilience in the present thesis as any positive attrbituions, reactions, emotions in response to potential language learning demotivators. I will also examine the relationship between L2 resilience and (a) personality hardiness; and (b) the language learning mindset.

3.5.2 Scales to measure resilience

A number of scales have been developed to measure resilience (e.g. Bartone et al., 1989; Wagnild and Young, 1993) or to measure hardiness as the basis of resilience (e.g. Kobasa, 1979). However, the most frequently used scale in the literature is the ConnorDavidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) (Connor & Davidson, 2003). that was developed as a brief self-rated assessment to help quantify resilience and as a clinical measure to assess treatment response. The scale items was drawn from a number of sources and work of other researchers including Kobasa (1979), Rutter (1985), Lyons (1991). The scale measures a wide range of characteristics reflecting several aspects of resilience such as: the thee Cs of hardiness, coping strategies, confidence, adaptability with changes, patience and tolerance of negative affect, problem solving skills, dealing with stress, emotional security, sense of humour in stressful circumstances, a sense of personal competence, faith, beliefs about good luck, previous successes, and social support.

3.5.3 Researching resilience

Many researchers found that individuals' resilience can be affected by various factors such as personality (Dunn, Iglewicz & Moutier, 2008), and social support (Brennan, 2008; Sippel, Pietrzak, Charney, Mayes & Southwick, 2015; Southwick, Sippel, Krystal, Charney, Mayes & Pietrzak, 2016). In addition, several researchers revealed various positive outcomes of resilience such as optimal coping (Agaibi & Wilson, 2005); promoting students' motivational resilience (Martin & Marsh, 2009; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012); and marital satisfaction (Ganth & Thiyagarajan, 2013).

The origins and consequences of psychological resilience has been researched in a wide range of contexts such as academic and educational context (Ahmed & Julius, 2015); school transition (Hernandez-Martinez & Williams, 2013; Langenkamp, 2010; Bailey & Baines, 2012); nursing and midwifery (McDonald, Jackson, Wilkes & Vickers, 2013); health institutions (Epstein & Krasner, 2013); military (Cox, 2012), and social relationships (Hetherington, 1999; Mancini, Sinan & Bonanno, 2015).

Findings of previous research into psychological resilience has important implications for language learning researchers. First, conceptualisation of resilience as a process considers that the influences of the protective factors such as hardiness vary across contexts, situations and individuals' lifespan. This means that people might be resilient and respond negatively to a particular adversity at particular time or context, but does not respond similarly to the same stressor at other contexts or times (e.g. Ungar, 2008; Ungar & Liebenberg, 2011; Vanderbilt-Adriance & Shaw, 2008; Waller, 2001). Second, Connor & Davidson (2003) found that psychological resilience can be improved and modified. This finding was supported by the findings of other studies that showed that resilience can be increased (e.g. Foureur, Besley, Burton, Yu & Crisp, 2013; Padesky & Mooney, 2012).

In the language learning domain, psychological resilience has not received sufficient researchers' attention. Using ConnorDavidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC), Kamali and Fahim (2011) conducted a study to examine the relationship between resilience and reading comprehension of texts containing unknown vocabulary items among 63 intermediate learners of English as a foreign language. The results revealed that the levels of resilience had significant effect on the subjects' reading ability of texts with unfamiliar vocabulary items.

3.5.4 L2 resilience and L2 remotivation: Resilience and recovery in the current thesis

Before I move to the next concept, I will distuinhuish between certain terms that will be used in the current thesis to describe different processes: L2 resilience and L2 remotivation. As I mentioned previously, Ungar (2013) has found that individuals' resilience varies across context (Ungar, 2013). Therefore, we can assume that resilience in language learning context (L2 resilience) is distinct from general psychological resilience and have different components that operate independently. This means that generally resilient individuals are not necessarily resilient in the face of demotivating factors.

Moreover, reviewing the resilience research literature reveals that resilience helps individuals to perceive and react to these difficulties positively and maintaining good health, performance and outcome even if in the existence of difficulties. In addition, Maddi (2013) emphasised that survival of the negative impact of stress is not the only part of resilient behaviour and that resilience should also involve flourishing and improvement of health and performance through learning from stressful experiences and performing better in the future. While resilience refers to the ability of individuals to survive the negative impact of adversities and proceed with lives with minimal disruptions, recovery is known as the gradual

rebuilding of losses in health or performance over time after exhibiting symptoms of depression and experiencing difficulties (Mancini & Bonnano, 2009). This means that recovery should be conceptualised as distinct from psychological resilience.

Therefore, in the current thesis, L2 resilience is related to language learners who encounter demotivating factors or experience failures and either (a) perceive these failures, difficulties, challenges and demotivators as an opportunity for growth and learning and, apply adaptive strategies, and thus remain motivated to pursue successful language learning; or (b) perceive difficulties and failures as being demotivating but apply some maladaptive strategeies that merely assist them to survive their negative emotional impact but do not positively affect their learning trajectory. On the other hand, L2 remotivation in the current thesis considers the students who do not react as positively; lose interest; give up and suffer from negative feelings toward learning English or towards their language learning ability, but for any reason, rebuild their motivation.

When language learners encounter potentially stressful experiences such as setbacks, demotivators or failures, their responses (vulnerable or resilient) are anticipated to vary.The current study will attepmt to look at various responses to demotivating factors and demotivation through the eyes of language learners in order to capture the underlying processes that cause some students to feel vulnerable or resilient in the face of demotivators and what help previously demotivated students to overcome demotivation and rebuild their motivation.

3.6 Learned helplessness

The last theory I would like to review as being relevant to the different responses made by language learners in the face of demotivation is learned helplessness. Learned helplessness is a psychological state where individuals perceive loss of control over stressful events and stop acting to change their situations. It results from repeated exposure to adversities and the feeling that action is detached from the outcome (Seligman & Maier,1967). When animals or humans perceives absence of control and notices that their actions will not lead to the desired outcome, they become helpless and remain helpless, even if the stress is removed and their control is restored. This behaviour might be later overgeneralised to other situations in which exploration and trying would be beneficial.

Seligman and Maier (1967) found, in their classic experiment on dogs, that exposure to repeated uncontrollable electric shocks weakens future exploration and learning opportunities. They documented that dogs, even after regaining their control, have stopped

exploring their environment and failed to escape the shocks as a result of their perceived uncontrollability. Their results were later replicated in studies of human and revealed similar results where learned helplessness can explain several behavioural and social problems, including health professios' burnout (Jackson & Maslach, 1982), failure in school (Diener & Dweck, 1980), staying with an abusive spouse (Walker, 1977), performance deficits in organisations (Martinko & Gardner, 1982).

Since Seligman theorised learned helplessness in the psychology field, research into the concept has continued to grow in other research fields and it was found that it explains many other human behaviours and problems such as reluctance to leave an abusive relationship (Bargai, Ben-Shakhar & Shalev, 2007; Walker 1996); depression (Clark & Beck, 1999), stress (Maier, Peterson & Schwartz, 2000); poor social skills and poor problem-solving strategies (Steinberg & Gano-Overway, 2003); anxiety (Waschbusch, Sellers, LeBlanc & Kelle, 2003); pain level and depression in chronic disease patients (Samwel, Evers, Crul & Kraaimaat, 2006); future disease outcome including disability, pain and fatigue (Camacho, Verstappen, Chipping & Symmons, 2013); university students' motivational structure and alcohol consumption (Shamloo & Cox, 2010); and weight management problems (Hilbert, Braehler, Haeuser & Zenger, 2014; Roberts, Campbell & Troop, 2014).

It has been suggested that various relationships between stress and resulting mental health may also be mediated by learned helplessness possibly through changes in perceptions and beliefs (Burns & Seligman 1991; Miller & Seligman 1975). In addition, attributional styles were found to explain the variance in the posttraumatic stress symptoms correlations with cognitions related to learned helplessness (Dutton et al. 1994).

3.6.1 Learned helplessness in the the current thesis

The findings of research into learned helplessness reveal the interaction of many psychological variables and their mediating roles in the impact of stressful events. They also take us back to Dweck's model which linked students' attributions and mindsets to learned helplessness. Dweck's model clarifis the role of people's perceptions and beliefs in leading to different interpretations of adversities and different helpless or resilient responses. According to Dweck (1999), when learner encounter setbacks, difficulties and failures, fixed mindset leaners are likely to display a helpless response pattern, while growth mindset lerners are likely to exhibit a resilient and mastery-oriented response pattern.

It is suggested in the literature that perceivably uncontrollable failure leads individuals to behave helplessly (Abramson et al., 1978; Miller & Seligman 1975). The theory of learned helplessness is particularly relevant to language learning demotivation research because L2

demotivation is anticipated to be the result of experiencing repeated perceivably uncontrollable failure experiences. As I mentioned in section 2.1.1, Nakata (2006) confirms that demotivation is only a first stage that may develop and move to the second stage of amotivation, and then a third stage, learned helplessness when students shape dense negative beliefs. One of the main objectives of this study is to investigate why some demotivated language learners can recover from L2 demotivation after a short period while other learners remain in the hold of demotivation for longer period or even develop learned helplessness. therefore, language learners' vulnerability to develop learned helplessness will be examined in the current study by looking at its nature and investigating the reasons behind it.

In my research context, language learners put forth the effort to achieve their language learning goals expecting particular levels of achievement. When they fail to achieve it for several reasons (e.g. setbacks, difficult tasks, low test scores, lack of oral proficiency) and if this failure experience is repeated, the learners might feel that they lost control over their language learning experience, achievement and outcome. Also, they might notice a gap between their action (effort) and the outcome (test scores, proficiency or fluency). In some cases, the result would be the occurrence of learned helplessness and generalising this feeling of helplessness in future tasks, thus losing interest in future learning opportunities even if difficulties are removed and success can be easily achieved.

In sum, I will classify a language learner as being vulnerable to develop leaned helplessness if she explicitly discusses or exhibits (a) a sense of perceived uncontrollability that resulted from repeated past failures; (b) a complete loss of interest that resulted from noticing a gap between their effort and the outcome; (c) belief in general lack of association between effort and successful language learning; or (d) complete end of putting effort even if the task is easy and success is anticipated to happen.

3.7 Aims of the current study

As language learners are likely to experience L2 demotivation at different points of their learning journey at any context, the way L2 demotivation affects them and hinders successful language learning both in and beyond the classroom and the way they respond to demotivating factors is of vital importance. It is worth noting that that the major focus of the thesis is the dynamism of L2 demotivation and reforming previous thinking of demotivation. Trying to move the L2 demotivation mainstream research into a new phase that focuses on the complexity of its process and its development, this thesis is applying theoretical concepts in psychology in an attempt to explain the complex dynamism of L2 demotivation, L2

resilience/vulnerability and L2 remotivation, focusing on four key psychological concepts, including mindset, learned helplessness, hardiness and attribution theory.

Using a mixed method research methodology, the processes involved in L2 demotivation will be investigated through examining demotivated learners' different explanations of their language learning experiences. The focus of the analysis is understanding the conditions that make them learn, react, interact and feel differently while they are learning in identical learning situations, with a particular emphasis on exploring the role of various psychological variables in shaping the learners' responses to L2 demotivating factors.

CHAPTER FOUR: AN OVERIEW OF THE SAUDI EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The current study will be conducted with foundation-year student in King Abdulaziz university, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. In the qualitative phase of the study, the participants will be asked about their whole language learning journey starting from the first day they started to learn English until the time of the interview. Thus, the data will cover a combination of stories about learning English in the university and learning English in the school before being a university student. In the quantitative phase, the questionnaire will be conducted during the first academic year in the university. This means that the quantitative data reflect the participants' language learning experiences in both school and university enviroments.

In Saudi Arabia, learning English in the school as subject is different from learning English in the university. In this chapter, I will briefly describe teaching/learning English in Saudi Arabia, based on my personal knowledge as a former student in Saudi schools for 12 years, an English major in king Abdulaziz university, and as an ESL teacher in English Language Institution in King Abdulaziz University. I will also review different aspects that previous research revealed as being potential reasons that hinder the development and the success of English learning-teaching in Saudi Arabia.

4.1 Learning English at school in Saudi Arabia

The medium of instructional teaching and communication in Saudi Arabian public schools (state schools) is Arabic up to the university level. In the Saudi state schools, English is only taught as a foreign language for 45 minutes four times a week. It starts as a main subject in year 4 (at the age of 9). The Ministry of Education has states several general aims and objectives of teaching English in Saudi Arabia. Also, various committees and bodies were also setup by the government to develop appropriate curriculums for the different levels of education (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013). However, Al-Seghayer (2014) stated that despite the efforts exerted to improve the teaching-learning process of English in Saudi Arabia, the outcome is still lower than expected and the learners' proficiency remains inadequate. Accorign to Al-Seghayer, Saudi students start learning English with anxiety, fear and reluctance, and carry these negative feelings into intermediate and secondary schools, believing that English is very difficult to learn. For instance, a considerable number of secondary Saudi students reported that if it was optional to study English as a subject at

school, they would not select it (Al-Zahrani, 2008). Also, Alshumaimeri (2003) confirms that students leave the secondary school lacking the ability to make a short conversation.

All the English teachers in the state schools are Saudi citizens. The English teacher's role in the classroom is perceived narrowly as the provider of knowledge. Saudi English teachers consume much of their time and effort by extensively focusing on grammatical rules and the tedious repetition of words and phrases (Al-Mohanna, 2010; Al-Seghayer, 2011). Exploiting only the course textbook and the blackboard, most Saudi English teachers do not use teaching aids and authentic supplementary materials in the English classroom (Alseghayer, 2014). In this learning situation, Saudi English learners fail to take part or engage in a basic conversation or comprehend a simple oral or written message. They have little exposure to communicative situations or communication functions in lifelike situations (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013). Consequently, according to Khan (2011), these students feel incapable of reaching the desired outcome, which is learning English as a foreign language. Moreover, Al-Jarf (2008a) found that despite the fact that the lowest GPA for high school graduates admitted to the College of Languages & Translation in 2007 was 98.3%, results of the same year final exams showed that only 21.8% of the students passed the reading course.

With regard to the qualifications of the Saudi teachers, teaching certificate is not required to be hired as an English teacher. The only qualification that is required for being hired as an English teacher is holding a bachelor's degree in English which can be classified into the following groups: BA degree in English Language and Literature; BA degree in translation; or BA in Linguistics. Alseghayer (2014) stated that from the early 1980s, English teachers in Saudi Arabia graduated form university or colleges that award them the degree after studying a four-year programme in the English department. The offered English teaching-methods courses represent no more than 10% of the total courses offered in these four-year programs (Al-Seghayer, 2011). As aresult, these programs produce a considerable number of Saudi EFL teachers who are professionally and linguistically incompetent (Javid, Farooq, & Gulzar, 2012; Khan, 2011). Moreover, most students who graduate from English departments in Saudi Arabia are not well-qualified for the job of teaching English due to their inadequate pedagogical preparation (Khan, 2011; Shehdeh, 2010). It also provides English teachers who has insufficient knowledge of the four skills teaching strategies, different testing techniques, and various assessment methods. With regard to teachers' training in Saudi Arabia, most Saudi teachers are hired to teach English without having neither in-service nor pre-service training for teaching. This situation, according to Al-Seghayer (2014), is

exacerbated by the fact that there is no incentive for English teachers who are willing to engage in professional self-development.

In terms of Saudi learners of English at public school, a considerable number of these students believe that learning English is beyond their ability. Maherzi (2011) noted that they often ask themselves why they are studying English, as they realise a gap between their efforts and the desired outcome of achieving competency in the English language outside the classroom. Therefore, English is largely perceived as an academic exercise or a boring subject learned for instrumental purposes, primarily to pass exams with the minimum effort needed (Alseghayer, 2014). Leaning English in a large class with 40 to 50 students, Saudi learners are not given equal opportunity to practice what they learned in the classroom (Shah, Hussain, & Nassef, 2013). Thus, their motivation is limited to learn only what is required in order to pass a test and very little interaction takes place in the classroom except for answering the teachers' questions or completing a grammar task.

In terms of official assessment method and policies adopted by ministry of education in Saudi Arabia. It is well-known in Saudi Arabia that English final exams have a fixed format or template on which students can be trained within a short period of time and pass the test easily with minimum effort. Speaking and listening skills are not tested and the reading skills are usually neglected in teaching as well as in testing. For example, even when reading skill is tested, emphasis is on testing explicitly stated information, or predicting the meaning of certain words form the context. Also, writing skill is tested using a few number of written passages that are given to the students to memorise before the exam. These assessment methods exacerbate the situation and increase the students' feeling of carelessness toward learning English as a foreign language.

Family background play a vital role in the Saudi student's English learning journey. Lack of support received from their parents, especially those whom are uneducated, affects the students' desire to learn English negatively (Khan, 2012; Shah, Hussain, & Nassef, 2013). These uneducated families do not see the point of learning a second language. Therefore, they do not motivate their children or make them aware of the significance of learning a foreign language or prepare them for the next challenging experience that they will have when learning English. Also, some families have a negative cultural and religious attitude towards learning English or any other language rather than Arabic "language of the Muslim's holy book Quran". They encourage their children to be proud of Arabic and do not motivate them to learn other languages. Due to their unawareness of the significance of learning English in

the higher education stage, they give more attention to academic achievement in other subjects.

Although there are a number of voices that promoted teaching English and believe that it served as a tool for modernisation that provide a brighter new future of saudi arabia., there are also a considerable number of voices that argue against English and believe that it poses a danger to eroding the identity of its locals. These voices sees English as a colonising language and worry that the use of English in Saudi Arabia may undermine local values and beliefs. Reviewing the literature shows that there has been a considerable discussions in Saudi Arabia about the relationship between teaching/learning of English and a perceived threat to local cultures, values, national identity, and heritage. Not only Saudi people might concern that teaching/ learning English has an underlying missionary that may be contrary to Islamic values and fear the loss of cultural and linguistic heritage. For instance, Ahmed (2010) notes, the language issue in the UAE has caused heated debates and controversies in the academic and political arenas who believe that English can be a threat, dominating all aspects of life and that the Arabic language and national identities are being "sidelined". Moreover, the debate about cultural and religious concerns about the role that education can play in maintaining cultural and linguistic heritage are not unique to Saudi Arabia and not only among Arab and Muslim linguists. Indeed, there has been an increasing global concern about the dominance of English as an 'imperialistic tool' (Phillipson 1992), and a 'missionary language' (Wong & Canagarajah 2009).

Phillipson (1992) has demonstrated how English Language Teaching has been implicated in neocolonialist reconstruction and imperialist aims. According to Phillipson (1992), imperialism can take numerous forms, such as cultural and linguistic. Phillipson argues that it is the economic and political interest of the United States to ensure that the world is moving toward making English a common language, and toward developing values with which the Americans are comfortable.

Glasser (2003) notes that after the 9/11 attacks, western countries and Gulf educators or reformers began to inspect Arabic-language textbooks and teaching methods, particularly in Saudi Arabia. As a result, according to Glasser, students in the conservative Qatar are now learning less Islam and more English and that the country is making way for more hours of English classes and less Islamic studies and Arabic. Also, Elyas (2008) reports that, in response to the post 9/11 political and social pressures in 2003, Western media has called for an educational reform of curriculum in the Muslim world. Therefore, there has been internal and external pressure for change in the Saudi Arabia curriculum in general, and in the English

curriculum in particular. This pressure resulted in the inspection of the allocation of time to English instruction and the way in which English is taught. As a result, the Saudi government decided to introduce English into all primary schools (Elyas 2008).

Azuri (2006) discusses the same pressure that the US government put on Saudi government to introduce English language studies at primary schools in order to expose its young generation to the idea of acceptance and tolerance of others (USA and theWest) and introducing the concept of living in harmony with the 'others' or the 'West'. As a result, there has been a shift in the English language curriculum in Saudi Arabia. English curriculum in Saudi Arabia that focused on local cultures and deleted references to Western cultures, habits, or customs such as dating, drinking alcohol, were replaced with the curriculum that carefully introduced Western culture and different paradigms of thinking and behaving, showing differences between sociocultural practices, but not as a clash of civilisations (Elyas 2008). However, the nations themselves suspect these reform suggestions and view them as intrusions into their culture.The trend towards 'more English and less Islam' (i.e. calls to promote 'more English and less Islam', in the belief that this position will serve in eliminating the seeds of terrorim activities by Muslim extremists) has provoked an anger among many Arabic and Muslim scholars (Karmani, 2005).

On one hand, there are many scholars in the Muslim World who believe that, as it has been practised in British Empire, the teaching of English in this modern age, serves as a tool for linguistic imperialism, cultural alienation, and in the case of Muslim countries a de-Islamization of a targeted nation‖ since it acts as a conveyor of knowledge and culture (Argungu, 1996; Karmani, 2005). Karmani, for instance, conceptualised English as a container, ideas as objects and communication as sending these objects. Hence, English is served in the Middle East, and especially in the Gulf States, as a container of ideologies which may result in reshaping the ideas and sending the wrong messages to the society in general. These scholars believe that a curriculum should present our own identity, our own history, our own religion and that it is not for others to come and try to change it. They worry about the effects that learning English may have on young Muslims and see the EFL classroom as a means for spreading Western non-spiritual values that may undermine Islamic values and thus damage Islamic youth.

In light of the current debate on the issue of more English less Islam. There have been other scholars who questioned or refuted the argument that teaching English would serve as an imperialistic tool and argued that the idea of embracing other's values and ideologies can be very positive. Although the fact that Saudi learners are exposed to the English language's

western values and ideologies that might contradict their own, it can be seen as a positive opportunity for Saudi learners to look outside the box and accept differences between the two cultures. A strong evidence that refutes the linguistic imperialism view is the findings of Youssef and Simpkins' study (1985) that showed that Arabs, who lived in a U.S.dominated culture for a long time and were under daily exposure of the Western ideology, did not suffer from de-Islamization of their values. Rather, they held a positive view of their ethnicity and remained proud of their own identity. In addition, Elyas (2008) argues that the demand for English is always prevalent with increasing globalization. He even asserts that, after 9/11, the need to learn English is present, more than ever, for the purpose of understanding what is being said and written about Arabs, interacting with the West, and understanding the west. According to Elyas, English as a language will stay, while people are reshaping, remoulding, and adjusting it to suit their cultural and social norms.

Elyas (2008) investigated the impact of 9/11 on the educational system in Saudi Arabia and examined how the youth feel towards Western ideology, learning English and Western culture. Elyas conducted a case study on a group of Saudi freshmen students studying English at King Abdul Aziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia . A 12-item questionnaire, was distributed to 65 Saudi students studying English in their second semester of the New English Curricula. The results showed that although about half of the Saudi students surveyed do not agree with the Western ideology which might contradict their Islamic and Arabic identity, they feel that learning English and the Western culture is needed to an extent that their Saudi cultural and Islamic identity is intact. The participants agree that studying both English language and its culture are necessary in order to develop their English comprehension. Therefore, the study concluded that studying another language does not necessarily diminish one's heritage and that, for these students, teaching/learning English does not serve as a tool with an imperialistic purpose of Westernisation of their Arabic identity.

Moreover, in the same line of thought, Kabel (2007) argues that a language is a fluid concept that can be shaped, reshaped, and reproduced according to its carrier. Although English learners tend to carry the cultural influence of the English culture when speaking or writing, this can be easily manipulated accordingly and language can be at the service of its users. According to Kabel, language learners have a mind of their own and can carry their own hidden plan in learning a language. Thus, Kabel believes that the calim that learning English deliveres ideologies that contradict with the views of Muslim learners cannot be accepted as it is without further investigation.

A number of muslim scholars have argued that some elements of English culture need to be taught as a component of any EFL curriculum. For instance, Hare (1996), argues that tolerating and accepting different cultures does not necessarily mean practising them or agreeing with them. Hare suggests that EFL teaching should involve teaching students to untie the various threads of context and meaning that exist in any given text.

Due to the strong arguments in favour of and against the teaching of English in Arabic or muslim countries, there were a number of recommendations that were provided by scholars in order to reduce the negative cultural or religious impact of learning English on the learners' identities. For example, Mahboob (2009) provides considerable evidence of cultural and religious localisation in the use of the English language in Pakistan, including evidence from textbooks. The references to local Islamic traditions, practices and personalities in the Pakistani English textbooks reflects how English was adapted to reflect local identities. Also, the teachers are given a key role to unpack Western discourses in texts and to compare them with local discourses. Hadley (2004) confirms that teachers should teach locally but think globally. Some scholars have even suggested that an Islamic approach to English teaching should be followed (Argungu, 1996). This debate goes on to call for syllabus designers in the Arab world to be inspired by the wealthy and glorious Islamic Heritage of the nation. According to Zughoul (2003), this approach could focus on facilitating the learning English, the language of knowledge, science and technology for Muslim learners, while censoring content that could be percieved as anti-Islamic.

Mahboob and Elyas (2014) examined the nature and use of English as it is used in secondary school textbooks and looked at whether and how English has been localised to suit the local needs and practices. Based on an analysis of English language textbooks used in Saudi Arabia, their study identified a number of discursive features of English that are much more locally oriented and reflect local cultural norms and practices. Their findings suggest that English textbooks in Saudi Arabia reflects recognisably local cultural, religious and social values and beliefs.This localisation of the English language teaching material suggests that the English language taught in the classrooms carries a local flavour and does not push Western cultural practices, but rather invites students to consider diverse practices and believes in relation to local practices.

4.2 Learning English in Saudi universities

In the university level, the situation is different, English is taught as an intensive course for 20 hours a week. The number of the students in classes do not exceed 30 students. Moreover, being the language of science, technology, business and commerce, the importance of English language grew rapidly and it became the medium of instruction in technical education, medicine and some other colleges. In the Saudi public and private universities, unlike schools, English teachers hold different nationalities and can be native or non-native speakers of English. However, only Saudi teachers are employed as full-time teachers and occupy certain positions (i.e. teaching assistants, assistant professors, associate professors, or professors) based on the degree that they hold. Non-Saudi teachers occupy contracted positions such as language instructors. Although foreign teachers bring diversity into the classroom, there are wide gaps in their knowledge of local sociocultural communities and languages. This Linguistic and cultural distance between learners and teachers is regarded as a serious factor in the Gulf EFL classroom (Norton & Syed, 2003). Moreover, foreign teachers were found to be less motivated to initiate change, critique the existing systems or to innovate (Al-Banna, 1997; Shaw, 1997).

The nature of the English classes in Saudi universities is very similar to the nature of the English courses being taught in all other English institutions worldwide. All four language skills are taught and tested and the students are required to pass four levels successfully in order to finish their science or arts foundation year. Passing this intensive English course is compulsory for all the students regardless of the subject they would like to major in. However, students who are planning to major in economics, Islamic studies or Arabic literature, might see that English is not needed to study in these departments during the following academic years. These learners might believe that they can successfully achieve their goals and attain their bachelor degree with distinction without learning English. This belief might negatively affect their motivation to learn and their goals might be restricted to passing the course rather than learning the language.

However, in the university level, most Saudi students realise that English is no longer a language to pass in the examination, but an important subject for higher education, getting a better job, and for international communication. Thus, they recognise the value of learning English as highly practical and prestigious. For instance, Faruk (2013) found that Saudis' attitudes toward English were highly positive because most of them believed that it is significantly necessary in different domains and vital to the country's future success. In

addition, Al-Jarf (2008b) conducted an interview-questionnaire with open-ended questions with 470 female students majoring in medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, computer science, English, education, arts at King Saud University. The findings showed that 96% of the participants consider English a superior language to Arabic. The participants gave many reasons for preferring the English language including Scientific, technological, educational, professional, and societal reasons. Perceiving the world as being a small village and English as being the dominant language of communication in this global village, 82% of the participants believe that Arabic is more appropriate for teaching Islamic studies, history, Arabic literature and education, whereas English is more appropriate for teaching medicine, pharmacy, engineering, science, nursing, and computer science.

A factor that increased the Saudi students' interest in learning English might be the introduction of Saudisation policies which refers to the process of affirmative action as a solution to reduce the high rate of unemployment in Saudi Arabia and create more job opportunities for Saudi nationals. Under Saudisation programme, 30% of the jobs must be reserved for Saudi Nationals and the Ministry of Labour have been making great efforts to increase the contribution of Saudi nationals in the sectors where foreign workers are concentrated. Suadisation policies increased the necessity for Saudi people to achieve communicative competency in English in order to occupy positions within various sectors of the core industries (Looney, 2004).

Another crucial factor that might have a role to play in changing Saudi students negative attitudes toward learning English is the increasing number of students sponsored to study abroad. Since 2005, there has been a remarkable increase in the number of male and female scholars who are sponsored to study abroad by Saudi Arabian government. The government has provided these scholarships equally to males and females exposing learners to a totally new learning atmosphere that is different from the learning environment they used to deal with in Saudi Arabia. Although these scholarships are anticipated to increase Saudi students' motivation and awareness of the significance of learning English as a second language, they can affect Saudi students' motivation differently. For example, although being in a new learning atmosphere (where male and female learners are mixed) can be demotivating to some conservative female students, the desire to study abroad in the best universities in the world can positively affect those learners and have a major motivational power.

CHAPTER FIVE: METHODOLOGY

5.1 Research design

Several methodological approaches are being used to investigate processes and conceptualise the dynamics of language learning motivation, including neuroscience methods, longitudinal methods, case studies and interviews, ethnographies and other types of observational studies, textual approaches, diary studies, collective stories, and so on. Language learning motivation is multifaceted, dynamic, non-linear and complex phenomenon that can be investigated from various perspectives (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011). This is also likely to be true when researching a similar concept such as L2 demotivation.

After I reviewed the literature of L2 demotivation research and found that the majority of the studies were conducted to identify causes of demotivation and thus largely relied on quantitative methods, I attempted to find the optimal research design that fit the aim of the current study. I found that the best research approach to investigate L2 demotivation in the context of Saudi Arabia would be mixed methods research approach. According to Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007, pp. 129), "mixed methods research is an intellectual and practical synthesis based on qualitative and quantitative research". They point out that it offers a powerful paradigm that can provide the most informative, complete, balanced, and useful research results. They also argue that it has a greater potential for explaining reality more fully than is possible when only one research paradigm is used.

My mixed methods research design consisted of two phases; an initial primary exploratory phase of qualitative data collection and analysis followed by another secondary confirmatory phase of quantitative data collection and analysis. The exploratory nature of the initial research questions can be best answered using qualitative methods for several reasons (for research questions, see section 6.1). First, there is a lack of research that investigates L2 demotivation mechanism or L2 demotivators among Saudi Arabian learners of English. Second, my research is concerned with the underlying cognitive and psychological processes involved in diverse individual language learners' explanations, responses and perceptions of L2 demotivators and L2 demotivation; such dynamic processes can be best explored using qualitative approach. Finally, my research aims at conceptualising the role of various psychological construct within L2 demotivation and developing a theoretical model that captures a general picture of relationships between psychological concepts and L2 demotivation. Therefore, the purpose of conducting the qualitative study is to explore the

various concepts and assume the relationships between these concepts in the raw qualitative data. However, in order to confirm the qualitative results and generalised to larger populations, a follow-up confirmatory quantitative study was conducted.

After I inductively approached the qualitative data and hypothesised a number of relationships, I designed a follow up quantitative study and relied on deductive reasoning to test if the general pattern that I conceptualised actually occurs among larger populations. The main purpose of the quantitative study was to develop a theoritical framework that could be tested in future research. Following a deductive approach, I used the relationships that were established in the first qualitative study to guide all aspects of my quantitative study. It guided me in developing hypotheses, designing a survey, and developing a theoretical framework. Next, I will provide more details about both phases of the current study with regard to sampling, instruments, procedures, and data collection and analysis.

5.2 The qualitative phase of the study: method

5.2.1 Sampling and participants

Sampling can follow a number of different strategies according to the research topic and setting (Dornyei, 2007). Dornyei (2007) suggested taking into account viability issues (in terms of time, money, respondent availability) when designing the sampling plan. My goal was to find participants who can provide varied insights into demotivation in order to understand the conditions that make language learners think and act differently in the face of L2 demotivation. I was not mainly concerned with the representativeness of the respondent sample, the distribution of demotivating factors, or in the factors that demotivated the Saudi language learners. Instead, I was interested in how it affected them differently and why they responded to the demotivators in a particular way. Therefore, qualitative criterion sampling was employed as the primary sampling strategy in order to achieve this goal. Using this strategy, I selected participants who met predetermined criteria (e.g. who experienced L2 demotivation at least at one point of their language learning experience and were able to recover successfully or who was still demotivated when I interviewed them).

Thirteen female foundation-year university students (6 science foundation and 7 arts foundations students) who are studying a compulsory English course for 20 hours a week in King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia were selected and interviewed. Their age range was between 18 and 20 and they started their university foundation year in 2013. Prior to their foundation year in the university, all the participants have studied English in the Saudi state

schools for 8 years since they were in year 4. Their English classes took place 4 times a week for 45 minutes a day.

In the pilot study, I visited the campus in the middle of the term (January, 2013) and visited 10 English classroom of different levels on the first day. I asked teachers to allow me to speak about my research to their students for 10 to 15 minutes. In each class, I briefly introduced myself and gave a short introduction about my research topic. Then, I told the students that I need a number of participants who are willing to volunteer and share their language learning stories with me and answer some questions that are related to their feelings toward learning English. I also gave details of how the participants' information would be held under ethical obligations of confidentiality.The students were also told that if they met the predetermined criteria, they should expect to have more interviews with me in the future. Finally, I wrote all my contact information on the board and asked them to contact me if they were interested.

Interestingly, more than 5 learners of each class offered to participate in the study and gave me their contact information before I left the classroom. By the end of the day, I had over 50 volunteers and interviewed every one for 10 minutes during the two-week trip in order to have a general idea about their background and their current attitude towards learning English. These short interviews were not recorded or transcribed since the purpose of these interviews was mainly to select the best participants who would inform the study. I only made short notes that would describe the participant and saved her contact information. Finally, I expressed my appreciation for their offer and thanked them for their time in case if we did not meet again. After conducting the short interviews with the 50 participants, I selected 13 participants who had interesting, impressing and unique experiences. I made my selection based on other various factors such as the participants' openness, family background, talkativeness or ability to express feelings clearly and honestly. I contacted these learners and told them that I would like to meet them again in February, 2013 in order to conduct a longer interview.

For me, the participants were the experiential experts on the phenomenon being studied. Thus, I carefully selected participants who closely matched the predetermined criteria and who were able to provide rich data. Although I attempted to systematically choose every name on the list, I attempted to stay maximally flexible and open to discovery. One limitation of the sampling is that I only gained access to female learners. This means that findings of this study will not be generalised and some of the implications might not be applicable for male learners.

Although the qualitative data could not offer generalised findings because we cannot claim that everybody had the same experience, it helped me in detecting patterns among these language learners with regard to their demotivation experiences, the diverse ways they perceived, explained, and responded to demotivating factors, and the varied coping strategies they used to deal with demotivation.According to Cohen et al (2007), interviews are considered an intrusion participants' private lives in terms of the selection of time and the level of sensitivity of questions asked. Therefore, a high standard of ethical considerations should be maintained and ethical issues should be considered at all stages of the interview process. Before the first interview, in order to protect the rights of the participants, the Arabic version of the informed consent forms were signed by the participants (see appendix B). In addition, the participants were provided with an extensive description of how the data would be used and were informed of the potential benefits of participating in the study and of being able to obtain the results of the study at a later stage; and finally the assurance of confidentiality was given to the participants in the form of anonymity.

Lessons learned after conducting the first interview (piloting)

After the first interview was conducted with the 13 learners, I discussed that part of my data collection with my supervisor and explained some of the difficulties that I faced collecting qualitative data. Since this was my first qualitative study, I felt that I did not have the required skills to be a qualitative researcher and asked him to recommend some methodological references that would improve my qualitative research skills. My supervisor recommended some books to read and I consulted other books. After reading these books, I could identify many problems that affected my interviewing skills and thus affected the quality of the data collected. These problems included completing statement for the participants, flaiure to probe, pushing for a response rather than listening and thoughtfully probing. With very little freedom, my interviews were similar to the quantitative questionnaire in both its form and underlying assumptions.

Dectecting the mistakes that I made in the first interview and thus avoiding them in the following interviews have improved the quality of my data. Consulting the books that my supervisor recommended has taught me that a well-planned interview approach can provide a rich set of data. The data collection journey has taught me that conducting semi-structured interviews requires not only the use of various skills, such as intensive listening and note taking, but also careful planning and sufficient preparation. It requires a great deal of care and planning before, during and after the interviews with regard to the ways questions are asked and interpreted. I also learned that, to collect interview data useful for research purposes, it is

necessary for me to develop as much expertise in relevant topic areas as possible so I can ask informed questions. The books were: (a) The research interview by Bill Gillham; (b) Handling qualitative data : a practical guide by Lyn Richards; (c) Qualitative inquiry in TESOL by Keith Richards; (d) Case study research in applied linguistics by Patricia A. Duff; and (e) Interviewing : a practical guide for students and professionals by Daphne M. Keats.

5.2.2 Instrument-interviewes

Interviews have been used widely as a method of data collection in recent linguistic research studies (e.g. Dornyei & Skehan, 2003; Nazari, 2007) showed that interviews are the primary method of investigating linguistic phenomena. They are more powerful than questionnares in producing narrative data that allows researchers to investigate people's views in greater depth (Kvale, 1996). Cohen et al (2007) asserts that interviewing is a valuable method for exploring the construction and negotiation of meanings in a natural setting. Interviewing requires a respect for and curiosity about what people say, and a systematic effort to really hear and understand what people tell you, seeking to explore and describe the quality and nature of how people behave, experience and understand (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). In addition, Brown (2005) notes that the qualitative research's potential for forming hypotheses is one of its great strengths. Kvale also explains the qualitative research interview as a construction site of knowledge. It should be noted that the shorter the interviewer's questions and the longer the subject's answers, the better an interview is (Barbour & Schostak, 2005). Although interviewing is a powerful tool for getting insights into interviewee's perceptions, it can go hand in hand with other methods, providing in-depth information about participants' values and beliefs (Ho, 2006). Using more than one data collection instrument would help obtaining richer data and validating the research findings.

Aiming to investigate participants' identities, experiences, beliefs, and orientations toward a range of phenomena, interviews have been used for decades in empirical inquiry across the social sciences as one or the primary means of generating data (Talmy, 2010). They were used in the first study to generate discussion surrounding the major research questions. Semi-structured interview, which is a more flexible version of the structured interview, allows depth to be achieved by providing the interviewer with the opportunity to probe and expand the interviewee's responses (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). This type of interewing is popular because it is flexible, accessible and capable of revealing important and often hidden facets of human behaviour. It is seen as the most effective and convenient tool for gathering information (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

As I needed diverse but clear explanations of different experiences, feelings, behaviours and emotions, I decided to conduct the interviews in Arabic as the proficiency level of English among the selected students is anticipated to be low in the research context. When writing the interview questions, I decided to carefully select words that would not offend the participant as I wanted to encourage them to speak openly about unpleasant experiences that they have had in the past. I also avoided starting the interviews with negative wording related to sensitive topics such as: failure, weakness, humiliation, or uneducated parents because I needed to establish a good conversation and to gradually build trust and good relationships where the students would voluntarily give more details without worrying about me judging them. Three interviews were conducted with the participants within 8 months.

The predetermined questions were very general asking the participants to talk about their long language learning experiences; opening the doors for all interesting experiences and unique demotivation and remotivation stories. The general predetermined questions were divided into two categories: demotivation and remotivation questions. Indeed, the questions that I used in the interviews were not looking for particular concepts or particular answers. As I mentioned earlier, I was not interested in the factors that demotivated the learner. Instead, I was interested in how these factors affected them differently and why they responded to the demotivators in a particular way. Thus, I had to listen carefully and wait for interesting or unusual responses and then asked for more details about it. The participants were asked about their learning English journey, preconception and vision before they started it, their feelings and thoughts about a particular bad experience, the impact of different demotivating factors, the way they responded to these factors, the reasons for a particular response or feeling, their coping strategies, and their remotivation stories. For example, I asked the following questions in the first interview to find about demotivation and failure experiences:

1- What is your current situation with regard to learning English?

2- How do you feel towards learning English language?

3- Tell me everything about your learning English journey since you started until today.

4- Tell me everything that you hated and liked. Talk about your preconception and imagination before you started your language learning journey and about your actual experience.

In order to explore the diverse ways in which the participants responded to demotivators and demotivation, I asked the following questions:

1- How did you respond to that event?

2- How could you manage overcoming such a difficult situation and rebuild your energy to pursue your learning journey successfully?

3- What did feel after experiencing that failure?

4- Describe your feelings when you remember that experience?

These are all the predetermined questions that I asked during the first interview. However, each learner had a different and unique story that could tell me something different about the phenomenon. I thought of the questions I have listed as a tool that encouraged the participants to reflect on their experiences openly without placing any boundaries on my vision. I asked them to describe their experience, how they felt, how they thought, how they acted, what they said, and how they reacted. The participants' answers to the above questions generated new questions that served as probes to encourage the interviewee to dig deeper and reflect on the meaning of particular experiences (e.g. How has this experience exactly affected you?, or What exact changes have you made in your life since you had that experience?).

In order to invite the participants to give me lengthy stories, I carefully framed my opening questions for the second interview and then listened patiently and sensitively to the participants. Examples of the questions I asked in the second interviews were:

1- When you had that X bad experience, how did you feel about it, why did you respond that way, why did not you respond that way, or why didn't it affect you?

2- Why do you think it was (difficult or easy) to overcome that experience?

3- What do you think have facilitated/obstructed your recovery?

4- Who or what do you mainly thank or blame for your (bad or good) experience?

5- You told me last time that you easily overcome bad experiences and that you surround yourself with a strong wall that protects you from negative messages that people give you about your ability, can you tell me how you learned to do this and what makes you that positive about negative events?

6- You told me last time that when you fail to achieve something. you feel excited and challenge yourself by trying harder. You know that other people would easily give up after experiencing failures. Why did you decide to be positive and try harder?

The purpose of the third interview was to spend sufficient time with participants to check for distortions, and to clarify some tentative responses with the participants. They were given the summary of the interpretations and findings of the two previous interviews to review and disuss. This interview mainly aimed at improving the credibility and the validity of my results. According to Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012), suggested "member-checking" or "respondent validation" as a method for increasing the validity of data collected and analysed. This method requires eliciting feedback from the participants after asking them to review the summarised interviews, findings, and interpretations to review and verify if they accurately reflect their intents and meanings (Byrne, 2001; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). It can be used immediately after data collection is suumarised and is not only postanalysis review (Patton, 2002). Although an individual's responses might not be visible in the data summary, the participants will surely recognise some of the themes that his voice helped to create. In addition, participant's explicit feedback should be viewed as a method to stimulate critical thinking in the author of the research and help in clarifying anything that was unclear or ambiguous (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). Credibility refers to the confidence in the truth of the findings, including an accurate understanding of the context. The term was made popular through Lincoln and Guba's book, Naturalistic Inquiry (1985), and is commonly used in qualitative inquiry in place of the term validity.

5.2.3 Procedures and data collection

I completed the Faculty of Arts Ethics Approval Form given to me by The university of Nottingham before starting to collect Data for both phases of the study. (see Appendix D). Also, Being a teaching assistant in the university and a PhD scholar sponsored by (King Abdulaziz University) for the purpose of improving the level of English teaching in the university, I had complete access to interview, teach, test, and survey the students. However, I had a formal written authorisation from the English Language Institution's head before I started field data collection (see Appendix C for data collection permission form).

Two colleagues in both science and arts campuses helped me to gain access to the classrooms for the first time and introduced me to 10 teachers whom I asked to allow me to speak to their students at the end of the English class for 10 minutes to 15 minutes. After the

participants have been selected as I explained previously, I contacted them individually and gave them different appointments to choose from. We met in a quiet seminar room that was booked for two weeks. The interviews were conducted in Arabic. Mackay and Gass (2005) state that in order to reduce the concerns about the proficiency of the interviewer or the interviwee impacting quality and quantity of the qualitative data, interviews can be conducted in the interviewee's L1 (i.e. Arabic).I audio-recorded the Arabic interviews and saved them in my computer under a protected file in order to avoid losing the recorder or the data. I used a manual journal to record impressions, reactions, and other significant events that may occur during the qualitative data collection phase, in order to keep it as a useful source of supplementary information.

After each data collection trip, I repeatedly listened and re-listened to the recordings then wrote down some observations and small notes without transcribing the data. I made notes of interesting quotes. The use of written field notes taken either during an interview or immediately afterward has been reported as being superior to the exclusive use of audiorecordings that are subsequently verbatim transcribed (Fasick, 2001; Wengraf, 2004). Also, after the first interview, I created a file and wrote a report about each participant that included unique events that happened to her. I also had a memo for each participant including demographic information, short summary about their experiences and interesting quotes that need more elaboration. Memoing is the process of attaching short narratives to raw data throughout all stages of analysis process in order to document the researcher's thoughts about certain sections of the data and generate a rich understanding of the data set (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). This step facilitated designing the second interview that was individually designed to each participant based on the memos that I had written about them.

The second interviews were conducted one month later. Before the second interview, I checked multiple sources of data such as other written records, field notes, and any available sources. The memos that I created after the first interview also worked as partial analysis for me that helped me to identify new concepts and generate more questions for the second interview.The second interview helped me to dig deeper and lead to the following: (1) revisiting previous interesting quotes; (2) emergence of new interesting quotes; and (3) elaboration of ambiguous quotes. I asked more questions about remotivation and coping strategies and asked the participants to explain why they responded in a particular way in some of their past experiences. By the end of the second data collection wave, I had from 60 to 90-minutes recordings for each participant.

Three months later, after I anlayesed the qualitative data and detected some patterns, I presented the major findings and my interpretation of the participants' experiences to them. Their comments and feedbacks served as an effective tool to improve the validity and credibility of my results.

5.2.4 Data analysis

Preparing data for analysis

Creswell (2009) notes that the interview analysis process should be reflexive and should include the researcher's interactional experience with interviews. Researchers should carefully deal with the data as it affects not only the quality of an interview, but the validity, reliability of the whole research. However, there is no fixed method of analysing interview data in the literature. After, I systematically recorded, saved, protected data of the two interviews, I transcribed it in English and asked a friend, a native speaker of Arabic and a fluent speaker of English, to listen to the audio clips and revise the translation. This colleague revised accuracy of translation and checked for mistakes and ambiguity. Her role was limited to reading the transcripts while listening to the audioclip in the sametime and confirm if the written transcript is readable and if the sentences used are simple and can be easily understood by native English speakers. In the following sub-sections, I will discuss the decisions I made while prepring the data for analysis with regard to the transcription convention adopted, the level of detail when transcribing, and translating the interviews.

Transcribing the interviews

While some scholars seek to standardise transcribing formats, other scholars within education and social sciences argue that the process of transcribing is shaped by the researchers' theories or assumptions, relationships with participants, ideological and ethical stances and the research questions (Baker, 1998; Bucholtz, 2007; Edwards & Lampert, 1993; Green et al. 1997; Hammersley, 2010; Lapadat & Lindsay, 1999; Roberts, 1997; Ross, 2010; Tilley, 2003). Transcribing, according to these researchers, should not be seen as merely a standardised task in the research process because it is directly related to what can be known in a particular study. Therefore, they call for shifting the focus from form to the interpretive process of transcribing. According to Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012), the best way to mitigate transcription issues is to develop a transcription protocol for a given study by selecting method anstyle appropriate for the analysis planned. The first decision was to transcribe the interviews partially (approximately more than 80%). it is widely accepted that the process of verbatim transcription is not only time consuming but also complex and fraught with technical dilemmas (Fasick, 2001; Wellard & McKenna, 2001).

Considering that the process of transcription should be more about interpretation and generation of meanings from the data rather than being a strictly-standarised task, I questioned the need for verbatim transcription for generating valuable data in my study. Based on estimates of how long it takes to transcribe an hour of recorded talk, Taylor (2001) argues that transcribing is an extremely time-consuming process and notes that working from recordings can be a practical alternative. She also notes that some researchers analyse from the recordings and transcribe only short segments for the presentation of their argument. Finally, she concludes that it is not practical to create extremely detailed transcripts instead of recognising and thinking of the focus of the study. Therefore, a good transcript is the one that creates a particular version of data that selects the features that the researcher decides are relevant data to be analysed. In my study, interviewes were partially transcribed and prepared for data analysis. Irrelevant information were ignored during the transcription process and only the segments that were related to the research questions were extracted, and transcribed. For instance, if the participant is distracted by old memories when talking about the first time she recognised her brother's attitude toward learning English while he was celebrating his birthday, then she starts giving irrelevant information and unnecessary details about the party and the guests.

Transcription coventions

With regard to transption convention and level of detail when transcribing the interviews. Taylor (2001) emphasises that there is no one way to transcribe recorded talk and no one traditional set of transcription convention. Moreover, according to Hammersley (2010), transcribing should focus on producing relevant material with which to try to answer the research questions. Thus, what should be included in a transcript, and how this should be represented, will vary according to the nature of the investigation and different sorts of transcripts may be required depending upon the research objectives. For instance, transcripts needed to analyse turn-taking in conversations are different from transcripts needed for the purposes of understanding social strategies employed by parents to control their children. Therefore, the researcher should focus on what would and would not be relevant to include in transcripts for the purpose of facilitating the analysis, and not to allow some single transcription scheme to determine this. Hammersley argues that even strict transcription does not guarantee to tell us what is exactly meant to be said or told, so the researcher has to interpret the words, drawing on experience of observing the events concerned, fieldnote descriptions of them, general background knowledge, and so on. Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012) confirm that it is acceptable to add (but not change) words in the transcripts as

long as the location of removed text is clear, the removed sentence is replaced with "...". Moreover, it is acceptable to add an explanatory word/phrase between square brackets to help the reader better understand a quote.

Translating the data

According to Guest, MacQueen and Namey (2012), establishing translation approach up fron increases the likelihood that data will be useful for the analysis planned. In terms of translating the interviews, the language used by the people being studied (Arabic) is different from the language in which the analysis is to be carried out (English). The original Arabic language in which the interview was conducted was not used for transcribing. Rather, transcribing process involved listening to the audio record in Arabic and writing out what was said directly in English. The method of listening to the data in the source language and transcribing what is being said directly in English sentence by sentence was used by other researchers (e.g. Li, 2011; Skukauskaite, 2012). Literature on translation relating to research data is extremely sparse. For example, no entries on translation can be found in the index list of the Handbook of Qualitative Research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The issues involved in translating for equivalence of quantitative measuring tools have been discussed (e.g. McDermott & Palchanes,1994), but there is no similar discussion about the translation of interview data.

The decision of not transcribing the interviews in the source language (Arabic) then translating them into the target language (English) was made for various reasons. First, Evers (2011) argues that the choice in transcript format depends on the research question, theories guiding the study, as well as on time and budget for the project. Birbili (2000) suggests that free translation method can produce readable quotations that are more easily understood by those who are not familiar with the context. According to Birbili, although the literal translation could be seen as doing more justice to what participants have said and make one's readers understand better, such practice can reduce the readability of the text, thus reduce the reader's ability to understand the quote.

Second, according to Filep (2009), translation does not only require language competence, but also historical, cultural and societal knowledge about the context. Knowledge that can prevent the loss of information when translating specific terms and phrases. Lopez, et al. (2008) found that it was difficult and at times impossible to literally translate from the source language to the target language. Often, an equivalent meaning of a word or phrase from the source language to the target language might not exist. Therefore, contextual translations are necessary. My own knowledge of Arabic and English was

sufficient to obtain acceptable simultaneous translation of the interviews, I grew up in Saudi Arabia and lived in Jeddah for 25 years of my life. I also did my bachelor degree in the same University where I am collecting data from. In addition to the native Arabic language, I am a proficient speaker of English. My undergraduate education in Saudi Arabia and my graduate master's degree were in English. As a result of my educational opportunities and the social context in which I grew up, I was fully bilingual and was often asked to help English and Arabic speakers with Arabic-English translation in different contexts. My cross-language work included simultaneous interpreting from Arabic to English or vice versa in formal and informal conversations. Oral simultaneous translation constituted the majority of my translation experience (e.g. worked as a certified linguist for clinical research organisation in the Uk, an official interpreter for NHS patients, and a volunteering interpreter for Syrian refugees in Nottingham). However, I also had worked on translating a variety of written texts for Nottingham city council. These experiences were influential in my work with the interview records, uncovering my assumptions and personal theories and shaping my transcription practices. These experiences made me confident of my capacity to translate the interviews directly into English and to convert and transform spoken data into text by switching from one language to another simultaneously.

Third, the task of translating interview data represent complex situations and working with bilingual data created research and methodological challenges. For instance, transcribing process and conversion of text was a very time consuming process. Rossman and Rallis (1998) are sympathetic towards the researcher, noting that the workload of the researcher doubles if the full interviews are translated. Some authors (e.g. Broadfoot & Osborn, 1993) have warned that translation is a daunting process that is time consuming and expensive, and this might be beyond the capabilities of many novices and student researchers. Strauss and Corbin (1998), therefore, suggested that a minimal transcript should ideally be retranslated into the original language unless a problem has emerged in the process of translating with the sample transcripts.While Britten (1995) notes that 6–7 hours of transcription is required for every hour of taped interview, the process of translation can become very time consuming and resource intensive, especially if a large quantity of data are collected and analysed (Halai, 2007). On average, it took me approximately 10 hours to translate a 45-minute interview from the source language to the target language. By translating interviews directly into the target language, the process was accelerated and overall costs of conducting the research were reduced.

Fourth, Filep (2009) notes that researcher should be well aware of how to use and translate a word or phrase to ensure that the meaning does not get "lost by translation". Not all words in other languages have a direct equivalent in the language to which they are being translate. The more complex and abstract the concept, the smaller the chance to have word-to-word equivalents in various languages (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). The source language that was used to interview the participants was not the Standard Arabic. Rather, it was the Saudi version of Arabic which includes various dialects. Arabic language has different subordinate spoken versions (e.g. Egyptian, Moroccan, Kuwaiti, Omani, Algerian…etc). Of course, not all languages or dialects have a written form. Also, some words in these spoken versions are difficult to spell in Arabic and if they are spelt in a written form, not all speakers of Arabic will understand them. The written form of the Saudi version of Arabic language will not be capable of reproducing the spoken data accurately and will be incomprehensible because exposure to all regional variations by one Arabic reader is nearly impossible.

The final reason was that I was preparing the transcripts to be imported into QSR NVivo and to be analysed following the principles of thematic applied analysis. If a participant's interview is not translated correctly, the final results of the study can be greatly impacted (Twinn, 1997). Therefore, I was aware of the type of data I needed and the required knowledge of subject-specific terminology. I considered applying different translation methods but I questioned these methods' impact on the quality and validity of my research data. According to Brislin (1980), a good practice for translation is to employ at least two competent bilingual translators who might be familiar with the research, one to translate forward and another to translate back to the original language without having seen the original text. Therefore, back translation involves looking for equivalents through a) the translation of items from the source language to the target language, b) independent translation of these back into the source language, and c) the comparison of the two versions of items in the source language to remove or clarify ambiguities in meaning (Birbili, 2000). However, Temple (2002) asserts that relying on interpreters holds the risk of an interpreter version, because translators can bring their own assumptions and concerns to the interview and the research process. Moreover, Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012) state that different translators may use different translated words for the same referent word, therby affecting any comparative analysis based on words negatively.

In my study, I was planning to import the data into the software QSR NVivo where I will I use the "word searching" approach to allow different words to emerge from the

transcripts, and thereby create a list of codes based on specific words (e.g. demotivated, remotivated, helpless, resilient, hardy, or anxious). Asking different translators who have their own styles to do independent translation would open the door for different terms that might convey similar meanings but are not useful for my planned analysis. For example, if the participant says the word demotivated or a phrase that represent demotivation in the interview, an independent translator might use different terms in English to translate this Arabic word (e.g. dissatisfied, disappointed, unmotivated, uninterested, unexcited, or lazy). Although the translator gives a similar meaning to what the participant said, this inaccuracy in translation will negatively affect the quality of my data when the "word searching" approach is used. Being the primary researcher, the transcriber, and the translator of my data, helped me to use my research knowledge in producing accurate terminology that are likely to reflect the meaning intended by the participant. Indeed, relying on my knowledge of the research subject, the contextual factors, and the whole experience of the participant, I could detect if the learner is demotivated, amotivated, or helpless when she says a phrase like "I became uninterested" and thus translated it accurately.

Employing applied thematic analysis principles

After translating and transcribing the two waves of interviews, I imported the transcripts into QSR NVivo Version 9 in order to organise my data and linked the participant's transcripts to their memos. Then, I started coding the raw data. The coding scheme followed the principles of thematic applied analysis (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). According to Guest, MacQuessn and Namey (2012, p.15), "applied thematic analysis approach is a rigorous, yet inductive, set of procedures designed to identify and examine themes from textual data in a way that is transparent and credible". The approch , according to them, draws from a broad range of several theoretical and methodological percepectives and borrows the more useful techniques and adapts them to an applied research context, but in the end, its primary concern is with presenting the stories and experiences voiced by study participants as accurately and comprehensively as possible.

Although Guest, MacQueen and Namey have written the first text book about thematic applied analysis in the field that was lacking a practical and simple step-by-step guide on how to do an inductive thematic analysis, they made it clear that the method is not a novel approach to qualitative data analysis. Rather, it is based on commonly employed inductive thematic analyses and shares several features with grounded theory and phenomenology. It is a method that is similar to other types of analyses that researchers have been doing for decades. However, while grounded theory is aimed at building theory from the

existing data, this method can be used to build a theory or find solutions to real-word problems. It also uses tichniques (e.g. quantification, word searches, data reduction) in addition to them identification.

Word searches technique, which involves searching for or counting specific words in the data, is an effective analytic method that is seen as the beginning of a more comprehensive analytic process. As supplemental technique in a thematic analysis, word searches report is employed differently than in classic content analysis (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). In classic content analysis, the primary unit of measurement is an individual word or phrase, while the primary unit of of observation in thematic analysis is a text segment the exemplifiesan instance of a concept or theme.

To explore how L2 demotivation interacted with various psychological factors, an inductive thematic analysis was conducted. In line with the principles of applied thematic analysis, initial emphasis was placed on reading and re-reading transcripts, segmenting the text, highlighting relevant material, and making notes.My research and analytic objectives has framed the way I viewed the transcripts and determined which themes are worth the effort of defining and coding.

Initial codes (i.e. any unique segments of the text, words, or phrases used by participants relating to the research objectives and questions, for research questions, see section 6.1) were then inductively identified. These data-driven codes were then grouped into lower-level sub-themes before categorising them into higher-level themes. For example, to understand why some students were more vulnerable or resilient in the face of failures, responses related to resilience or vulnerability were grouped into subthemes. The higher-level themes emerged by grouping these subthemes together and presented a more meaningful and coherent picture of the patterns existed in the context. Themes, according to Ryan and Bernard (2003, p.87), is " abstract (and often fuzzy) constructs that link not only expressions found in texts but also expressions found in images, sounds, and objects". The bigger picture presented fostered developing a general conclusion and a bigger map of interconnecting variables.In sum, coding, revisiting definitions of coding, recoding of quotes and tabulation of newly emergent themes have been processed iteratively in order to visualise the relationship between themes. Following this, I read more articles in educational psychology trying to find relevant concepts in educational psychology domain that could explain the participants' responses or the subthemes that emerged from coding these responses. As a result, a number of salient concepts were identified and utilised in order to analyse the qualitative data.

In the third interview, I returned to the participants and presented the entire written transcripts, as well as the interpretations derived from their responses with the intention of confirming the accuracy and credibility of the major findings. All the participants approved the meanings and relevant concepts I attached to their responses and confirmed that my interpretation is closely related to what they experienced and the way they responded to it. The qualitative results will be presented and discussed in chapter six.

5.3 The quantitative phase of the study: Method

As I mentioned earlier, the qualitative results informed and facilitated designing the quantitative phase of the present research. In this section, I will discuss how the qualitative results guided me in developing hypotheses and designing a survey to test the relationships between the themes. Proponents of qualitative research contend that the emphasis of quantitative research on objectivity is both naïve and unwarranted, in that quantitative research cannot hope to describe the complexity of reality and the full nature of the social phenomena under study, not least because such research ignores the possibility of understanding agents' motives and efforts to create meaning (Danermark, Ekstrom, & Jakobsen, 2005). Similarily, Fishman's view (2010) is that the significant findings from quantitative approaches do not convince ethnographers that these "other" methodologies have studied "the real thing" to any degree similar to that attained by their own studies. I adopt a less argumentative position. I believe that any research, whether purely quantitative, purely qualitative or involving a mixture of approaches and methods, seeks to contribute to our overall knowledge of the field.

5.3.1 Participants

Dornyei and Csizer (2012) state that there are no hard-and-fast rules in setting the optimal sample size. According to them, the final sample size can be decided by the researcher by considering various guidelines: (a) to leave a decent margin to provide for unforeseen or unplanned circumstances; (b) to consider any distinct subgroups within the sample which may be expected to behave differently from the others; (c) to sample enough learners for the expected results to be able to reach significance; (d) to aim at achieving the requirement that the results obtained from the sample should have a normal distribution; and (e) to apply careful scientific sampling procedures to reach a range of between 1% and 10% of the population. A total of 2044 female foundation-year students participated in the quantitative phase of the current study in 2015. In terms of the foundation path, 950 students were doing the arts foundation year, while 1086 students were doing the science foundation

year, while information about 8 students was missing. Reasons for selecting this group were threefold. First, these participants were sufficiently exposed to English (between 6 and 8 years) prior to the current study and are more likely to have developed certain beliefs about English learning and can thereby can understand the items. Second, they have just started the foundation year which means that they are not yet under pressure of examinations and were relatively more available and relaxed to participate in the study.

The participants had various backgrounds coming from rural and urban areas and graduating from different types of schools (i.e. state, private or international). Half of the participants were between the age of 16 and 18 (n= 1033), while 768 students were between the age of 19 and 21 and only 243 were over 21 years old. The participants started learning English at different points of their schooling years. Only 12.5% of them started early at year 1 or before (n=256), while 35.8% of the them started in the intermediate school (n=732) and 51.7% started learning English at year 4 (n= 1056). They self-reported five proficiency levels: upper intermediate (n=216), intermediate (n= 565), lower intermediate (n=453), post-beginner (n= 435), and beginner (n= 368). The last item of the questionnaire asked the participants to locate themselves in one of two groups based on being excited and happy or being bored and unhappy during the English classroom: 1205 students located themselves in the bored group, while 839 located themselves in the happy group.

5.3.2 Instrument-survey

Survey research is a quantitative research method that aims at collecting self-report data from individuals, and the typical instrument used for this purpose is the written questionnaire. The researcher needs to acknowledge precisely how the items of the questionnaire were designed and can draw on two sources in addition to their own verbal creativity: (a) qualitative, exploratory data gathered from respondents, such as recorded unstructured/semi-structured interviews; and (b) borrowed questions from established questionnaires. Questions that have been used in previous research and have been through extensive piloting (Dornyei & Csizer, 2012). A self-report questionnaire survey that was designed and administered to the participants. Harkness (2008) asserts that the quality of the obtained data improves if the questionnaire is presented in the respondents' own mother tongue. To ensure the participants' comprehension of the items, the English version of the questionnaire was fully translated into Arabic by the researcher, and was then revised by a professional English-Arabic translator. Survey Gizmo, an online survey software, was used to electronically administer the questionnaire through an online link.

Dornyei (2007) notes that piloting the questionnaire involves administering the instrument to a sample of participants who are similar to the target group of people for whom it has been designed. Piloting helps the researchers in fine-tuning the final version of the questionnaire by finalising the layout; eliminating ambiguous or irrelevant items; improving the clarity of the item wordings and the instructions; running initial analysis to see whether the expected findings will potentially emerge from the data; (f) estimating the time needed to complete the questionnaire; and double-check that there are no mistakes in the instrument. First, the questionnaire was piloted in two classes (n=90) to explore whether there were any difficulties for the students to comprehend the items and to check the reliability of the designed scales. The administrator, a colleague in the university, was asked to take note of any problems encountered by the students but no comprehension issues were recorded in the two classes.

Designing the survey

The questionnaire consisted of eight multi-item scales based on the main higher-level themes that emerged in the qualitative phase of the study: the language learning mindset scale and the oral proficiency mindset were developed adopting Carol Dweck's framework and the qualitative results; the ideal L2 self multi-item scale was derived from Dornyei's (2010) Questionnaires in Second Language Research. The other scales including the perception of the teacher's role; L2 demotivation; L2 disappointment; and L2 vulnerability sclaes were all designed building on the qualitative results. Finally, the personality hardiness multi-item scale was developed building on combining the qualitative results and previous research into hardiness (e.g. Maddi, 2005; Maddi, 2013; Waysman, Schwarzwald & Solomon, 2001; Funk, 1992) various scales in the literature were also consulted (e.g. PVS, Personal Views Survey by Kobasa, 1985 and DRS, Dispositional Resilience Scale by Bartone, Ursano, Wright, & Ingraham, 1989).

The typical questionnaire is a highly structured data collection instrument made up of "closed-ended" items, with most items asking the respondent to choose from various answers by ticking a box or circling the most appropriate option. The most famous type of closed-ended item is the Likert scale, which consists of a characteristic statement accompanied by five or six response options for respondents to indicate the extent to which they "agree" or "disagree" with it by marking one of the responses ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree (Dornyei, 2007). The self-report items were measured using a six-point Likert-scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). Additional questions were also incorporated to elicit relevant personal and background information of the participants. The

final version of the questionnaire consisted of a total of 59 items (see Appendix) for the questionnaire in English. Moreover, personal and background information were included such as students' age, proficiency level, English learning start year, foundation path and attitude toward English class. Finally, One question was added at the end of the questionnaire by describing two groups of language learners who have (positive and negative attitudes). Then, the participants were asked to choose which group they belong to. Description of the main multi-item scales in the questionnaire are presented in table 2.

Table 2: Description of multi-item scales and other questions in the survey

Multi-item scale	Description	Items
Language learning mindset	The belief about the malleability of language learning ability and if a talent or a fixed natural ability is essential to learn a second language. A growth mindset learner believes that ability is malleable while a fixed mindset learner believes it is fixed and essential to learn a second language. A high score indicates having a fixed mindset. while a low score indicates having a growth mindset	**7**
Oral proficiency mindset	The belief about a need for a talent or a natural ability to achieve fluency. A high score indicates having a fixed oral proficiency mindset while a low score indicates having a growth oral proficiency mindset (three items).	**3**
Personality hardiness	The personality characteristics that facilitate resilience and allow the individual to defend against the difficult conditions and survive the negative impact of adversities. A high score indicates a high hardy personality while a low score indicates a low hardy personality.	**6**
Ideal L2 self	The L2-specific facet of one's ideal self. A high score indicates the ability to develop positive future ideal L2 self while low scores indicates lower ability to develop a positive ideal L2 self.	**7**
L2 demotivation	Gradual loss of interst in learning English. A high score indicates higher level of L2 demotivation.	**7**
L2 vulnerability	Vulnerability to completely lose motivation and develop a sense of helplessness. A high score indicates higher level of vulnerability to learned helplessness while low scores indicate resilience.	**7**
L2 disappointment	A high score indicates higher level of disappointment with the level of oral proficiency achieved as a result of attending instructional English classes at school while low scores indicate satisfaction with oral proficiency level and the gradual and slow progress made by attending these classes.	**7**
Teacher's role perception	The belief about the teacher's role in facilitating or obstructing successful language learning. A high score indicates overemphasising the teacher's role as a primary factor while a low score indicates perceiving it as a secondary factor that facilitates successful language learning but does not obstruct it.	**7**

5.3.3 Procedures and data collection

All surveys were conducted by the researcher in person. Prior to the survey, a proposal outlining the purpose and details, together with the actual questionnaire, was sent to English

Language Institution's administrators. The permission was obtained from the Head of Postgraduate Studies and Scholarships, Head of Educational Affairs and the Vice Dean and the relevant forms to conduct the research in the institution were completed.

When I visited the institution for the actual administration of the survey, a computer lab equipped with 30 computers and internet connection was assigned for 3 weeks from 8 am until 4 pm. English teachers were sending their students at the end of their English class to the lab to complete the survey that took about 7 to 10 minutes. The rationale of the questionnaire was explained to each group of students. The informed consent form was built into the actual instrument (the Arabic survey). They have to sign this form before starting to complete the questionnaire and take part in the study, so they were given a choice of filling in the questionnaire or leaving the lab. While filling in the questionnaire, I was available for the students to provide any clarification that was required.

The goals of the study were also explained to each group. No student refused to participate. The following precautions were employed to protect the rights of the participants: (a) informed consent forms were signed by the participants at the first page of the questionnaire ; (b) the participants were provided with an extensive description of how the data would be used and were informed of the potential benefits of participating in the study and of being able to obtain the results of the study at a later stage; (c) the research objectives were articulated verbally to the students so that they would be able to understand them fully; and (d) assurance of confidentiality was given to the participants in the form of anonymity.

5.3.4 Data analysis

The main objectives of the quantitative phase of this research was to test and confirm if the findings of the qualitative study were generalisable to a larger population and to investigate the links between the themes that emerged in the qualitative pahase of the study. A total of 600 questionnaires were completely discarded due to software errors occurred as a result of excessive number of submissions in short time. Later, 200 questionnaires were discarded because of missing data. After discarding 800 questionnaires, data of only 2044 were available for analysis. The data was coded in SPSS version 22.0. First, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was processed to establish the internal consistency of the scales. Second, Pearson product-moment correlations were used to explore the hypothesised relationship between the eight composite variables. Also, comparisons were made across different groups using independent samples t-tests. Finally, A theoretical model was hypothesised and structural equation modelling (SEM) to empirically test and examine the hypothesised model was

conducted using Amos 22 (Arbuckle, 2013). The results will be presented and discussed in chapter seven.

CHAPTER SIX: The qualitative study

6.1 Aims of the qualitative study

The first exploratory qualitative phase of the study explored how language learners' individual explanations of their own language learning experiences can help us to understand the diverse conditions that make them learn, react, interact and feel differently while they are studying in a seemingly similar learning contexts. These learners shared what they thought and felt about their English learning experience as a long journey involving a combination of stops, obstacles, challenges, rewards, enjoyment, boredom and discovery. Analysis of their perceptions are relevant and important to understanding L2 demotivation, particularly to explain how different factors demotivate second language learners differently and how different second language learners produce diverse individual responses to demotivation in identical situations.

The study is conducted in a complex context: Saudi Arabia. The selection of the research context is inspired by the lack of research on language learning demotivation in the middle-eastern context. I have been teaching English as a second language in this country for only two years before I started this research project. Although it was not long enough for me to point out the most critical issues in English language education, I had many questions about what makes the majority of Saudi learners of English noticeably demotivated and why some students remotivate easier than others or what exactly facilitated their remotivation. Being an English learner in Saudi schools for 6 years; and an undergraduate student in the English department of a public university for 4 years in Saudi Arabia; and then being an English teacher for two years in the same university made me very close to a variety of experiences that I could not simply understand or explain.

It is not unusual in Saudi Arabia to encounter a student who excels in all subjects from the very early childhood until graduation, but fails to excel in learning English. It is also common to meet a PhD graduate or a professor who perceives learning English as being difficult or unpleasant experience. Although the situation is changing and the awareness of the importance of learning English is being raised, the outcome is still below expectation and many Saudi learners still express their dislike toward learning English.

To the best of my knowledge, there have not been any studies conducted to explore how Saudi learners of English interact with demotivation and demotivators differently or how they respond to them differently. Therefore, the main purpose of the current study is to

explore the various psychological factors that make different internal and external demotivating factors affect the same learners in the same learning environment differently and to by examining the reasons that make these learners explain, react, feel, perceive and overcome L2 demotivation differently. This aim can be fulfilled through the investigation and analysis of the underlying processes involved in the diverse experiences and responses to L2 demotivation among Saudi learners of English. The results can hopefully help policymakers, administrators, and teachers toward cooperation for preventing or minimising its destructive effects on the students.

Research questions

The study addresses the following three questions:

(1) How do Saudi English learners explain their English learning demotivation and why they perceive demotivating factors differently?

(2) What makes some language learners more resilient in the face of demotivating factors while other learners are influenced by these factors and remain in the hold of demotivation for extended periods?

(3) Why do some demotivated English learners recover from L2 demotivation and rebuild their L2 motivation or cope with it easier than other learners?

Finding answers to these questions might help in suggesting practical steps and strategies that might prevent or at least minimise the negative impact of demotivation and facilitate remotivation. The conceptual themes that will emerge in the qualitative data are also hoped to assist me in developing hypotheses and designing a questionnaire that can be used to test them.

6.2 Results

As I mentioned earlier, analysis of the qualitative data followed the general principles of applied thematic analysis. First, I assigned codes to the interview transcripts and from these codes, several subthemes were developed. Conceptual broader themes were developed and consisted of the developed subthemes as a result of an iterative process of revisiting the data and the emergent findings. I used the software Nvivo 9 in order to organise the transcripts and to use the "word frequency" approach which initially allowed different words to emerge from the transcripts. This helped me to create a large number of codes based on words such as teachers, ability, effort, helpless, disappointed, interest, dislike, enjoy, blame, imagine, expectation, flexible, hardy, sensitive, successful, failure or improve. After systematically going back and forth among the transcripts, using word frequencies, a growing list of codes

and subthemes emerged. I eventually identified six recurring broader conceptual themes that are related to L2 demotivation, L2 remotivation or coping with L2 demotivation: language learning mindset, learners' attributional styles, vision, coping mechanisms, attitudinal dispositions, and emotions. Table 3 provides an overview of the subthemes that comprised each of the six conceptual broad themes. It also provides one quote as an example of the quotes that were grouped together to develop a lower-level content-driven subthemes. According to Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012), after finding your anchor and the finding that you want spotlight in your results section, there are three ways to structure the section that present the thematic results: (1) by high-level themes (i.e conceptual high-level themes constitute subheaders); (2) by research questions (i.e. each subheader is a specific question that is followed by reviewing all the themes associated with that question); or (3) by population or subgroup (i.e. groups are subheaders followed by data summary for each group). I will present my results using the first strategy, high-level themes.

Table 3: The conceptual themes in the qualitative data

Conceptual themes	Content-driven subthemes	Examples
Language learning mindset	Growth mindset	*Everyone can learn a second language. it just needs time, patience, and effort. I mainly blame myself for being careless and not trying harder using different strategies to improve my ability. learning English is like learning how to drive and cook. You start weak but the more you practice, the stronger you become.*
	Fixed mindset	*Not everyone can learn a second language. Some people are talented, they have something special that helps them to learn languages fast, they are naturally gifted. They pass the languages courses easily without studying hard. I wish I was one of them.*
	Oral proficiency mindset	*Everyone can learn a second language but speaking that language fluently is something different. You need a natural ability to achieve fluency.*
	Mindset changes	*I was really demotivated but admired successful language learners and believed that they were smart, talented and had a natural ability while I did not. ………I was wrong. Ability to learn English is not a talent. If you have low ability you can improve it through practice and effort. Now, I believe that dedicating more time and effort will make me a stronger English learner.*
Attributional styles	Effort attributions	*I mainly blame myself for being careless and not working hard. I should have spent more time and put forth more effort studying English.*
	Attribution to teacher	*When I had that English teacher in year 8, I felt bored during the English class, I hated that feeling, my marks went lower than usual, I lost interest and just wanted to pass. In year 9, I had an excellent teacher who remotivated me and made me love English again.*
	Ability attribution	*I always believed that I lacked the ability to learn English and that all the people who failed learning English lacked this ability. I think about it like this… if English was difficult, everyone would have failed in the English test.*
Vision	L2 Disappointment	*I always imagined that learning English at school would help me to speak the language and use it in the real world. However, I felt disappointed and shocked every time I watched a movie or tried to make a short conversation in English that I could not speak or understand.*
	Ideal L2 self	*I always have an image in my mind of myself speaking English fluently. using it, being able to communicate with it, and translating to people who cannot speak it. This image helps me to remain strong after I experience failure.*

	Ought-to L2 self	*Majoring in English is not common. you feel unique and different when you succeed in English … you know that not everyone one can do it… I thought people will admire me. they will realise that I am a special girl when I major in English.*
Emotions	Jealousy	*I felt jealous when my brother spoke English fluently and my father praised him all the time. I wanted to be like my brother or even better than him.*
	FLA Anxiety	*I feel shy only when I speak English, but not in general or in everyday life. That is why I do not like English class.*
Attitudinal dispositions	Cultural attitude	*I do not like the western cultures, their values, or their lifestyle. However, I Know that learning English is very important for my personal and academic promotion.*
	Religious attitude	*English has been always a non-Muslim language for me…. I believe that we should be proud of our language. it is a part of our identity.*
	Family background	*My parents never asked me about my grades in English exams. They both did not speak English and could not see the point of learning English. They cared more about other exams such as science and maths and religious education.*
Coping mechanisms	Personality hardiness	*I have a hardy personality that helped me overcoming difficulties. I always manage making my own experience a good one even if it seemed a bad one for every one. I keep working hard and no one can stop me from achieving my goals and dreams. I feel happier when things get more challenging. I look at mistakes and failure as a natural part of any learning process.*
	L2 Resilience	*There ARE language learning obstacles and setbacks of course, but I do not worry about them. In order to protect myself from the negative influences of failure experiences, I use different strategies to improve the situation, reduce the stress, and remain positive. I learn from my mistakes and look at my bad experience from the positive angel.*
	Learned helplessness	*English class was like a 45-minute break where I eat and drink and secretly chat with my friends. I escaped the English class whenever I could, because I felt helpless and knew that there was nothing I can do to change my situation. I even stopped studying or preparing before the English test, hoping to be lucky and pass without studying.*

As I mentioned earlier, the first question that was put to the participants concerned their current situation and attitude towards learning English. I asked them to give me a brief short statement of one or two sentences that best describe their current situation and attitude toward English at this stage of their learning journey. Then, I asked them to honestly answer the second question which encouraged them to give a long story and describe their English learning journey starting from childhood, trying to bring back their old memories and give more details about them. I asked them to share their true feelings and all positive and negative events that they could remember. This question encouraged the learners to be talkative, expressive and descriptive and this is what I needed. They talked about their experiences for about 15 minutes without any interruption. However, whenever a bad or interesting experience is addressed, I made a note of it in a small paper in order to ask about it later and asked them to give more details about it.

Although Ryan and Mercer suggest (2012, P. 75) that it would be more fruitful to perceive mindsets as "a continuum with most people lying at some point between the two extreme positions", the data showed that the participants can be easily divided into two groups by looking at the statements that reflect their belief about the ability to learn a second language. A simple task of extracting all the statements that include the word "ability" of each learner has given me an immediate picture of the participant's language learning mindset. Detecting the participants' diverse perceptions of the ability to learn a second language was the first step that directed me toward further investigation into the construct of language learning mindset and its role in shaping language learners' behaviour, motivation, attribution, attitude, and responses to demotivating factors.

After identifying the main conceptual themes in the data (i.e. the independent variables), I dug deeper and revised the interviews in order to find what distinguished the learners who disliked learning English from the learners who enjoyed it, by identifying the characteristics that shared by the memebers of each group. Interestingly, the theme that appeared only in the data of the learners who disliked learning English was (the fixed language learning mindset). Generally, the data showed that seven participants held a growth language learning mindset and enjoyed the experience of studying English, while six participants held fixed language learning mindsets and disliked the experience of English learning. It also showed that two of the growth

112

mindset language learners have previously held fixed language learning mindsets. Table 4 below presents general information about the 13 participants and divides them according to their attitude toward learning English and their language learning mindset. The following sections will explain the emergence of each conceptual themes and give details of the subthemes that composed it by giving examples to support it.

Table 4: General information about the interviewees

Participant	Foundation path	Age	Start age	School	Attitude toward learning English	Language mindset
ID100	Science	18	10	state	Enjoy	Growth
ID101	Science	18	10	state	Dislike	Fixed
ID102	Science	19	10	state	Enjoy	Growth**
ID103	Science	18	10	state	Enjoy	Growth
ID104	Science	19	10	state	Dislike	Fixed
ID105	Science	18	10	state	Enjoy	Growth*
ID106	Arts	19	10	state	Dislike	Fixed
ID107	Arts	19	10	state	Dislike	Fixed
ID108	Arts	18	10	state	Enjoy	Growth
ID109	Arts	19	10	state	Dislike	Fixed
ID110	Arts	18	10	state	Enjoy	Growth**
ID111	Arts	18	10	state	Dislike	Fixed
ID112	Arts	19	10	state	Enjoy	Growth*

*the learner endorsed a growth language learning mindset but had different mindsets across various aspects of language

**the learner previously held a fixed language learning mindset

6.2.1 Language learning mindsets

In line with the few studies conducted to investigate the role of mindset in language learning (Lou and Noels, 2016; Mercer & Ryan, 2010, 2012; Noels & Lou, 2015), the data demonstrated that the language learning mindset played a key role in L2 demotivation and influenced the way by which each English learner responded to the potential demotivators – the fixed language learning mindset associated with L2 demotivation. The learners explained their language learning experiences differently

and attributed their past failures to different factors including ability, effort, disappointment and English teachers. However, the different attributions did not influence their L2 motivation similarly. It was evident that it is not the attributional styles that affected the language learners' motivation, it was the way they perceived these factors (i.e. their mindset).

The major finding of this investigation was that when discussing demotivation, it is not merely the identification of the demotivating factors that matters but also the way these factors are perceived by individual language learners. The participants in the data made different attributions and explanations of their own and other's failures and successes. They also perceived the teacher's role, effort, and their ability to learn a second language diversely. Their diverse explanations and attributions were to a large extent the function of the language learning mindset the particular learner held (i.e. how they perceived the ability to learn a second language).

In line with the few studies conducted to investigate the role of mindset in language learning (Lou and Noels, 2016; Mercer & Ryan, 2010, 2012; Noels & Lou, 2015), the data demonstrated that the language learning mindset played a key role in L2 demotivation and influenced the way by which each English learner responded to the potential demotivators – the fixed language learning mindset associated with L2 demotivation. The learners explained their language learning experiences differently and attributed their past failures to different factors including ability, effort, disappointment and English teachers. However, the different attributions did not influence their L2 motivation similarly. It was evident that it is not the attributional styles that affected the language learners' motivation, it was the way they perceived these factors (i.e. their mindset).

The qualitative data demonstrated that L2 demotivation happened when internal or external factors broke some of the constituents of a learner's vision, but the data also revealed that the detrimental influences did not demotivate language learners similarly even in seemingly identical situations. Even the similar cultural, religious, and family background affected the language learners' attitudes toward learning English differently. Therefore, the findings revealed the complexity of L2 demotivation. It was evident that L2 demotivation experiences, perceptions, and explanations are highly individual, personalised and unique.

The first conceptual theme that emerged from the participants' responses was the language learning mindset. The data showed that the impact of all internal and external factors on the participants' language learning experiences and the way they respond to L2 demotivation is significantly related to their language learning mindsets. After revising the codes and the individual experience of each learner, it was found that their attributional styles, future vision, and attitudinal dispositions did not affect their motivation similarly although they were studying in a seemingly identical situation and receiving the same knowledge from the same teacher. For example, if the learners share the same vision or the same attributional style, their motivation was not influenced similarly. Moreover, even when those factors affected them and thus demotivated them, they responded differently using different strategies that might be constructive or maladaptive. Their different responses to the same demotivating factors were found to be affected more by the way they explain and perceive these factors and the way they perceived the ability to learn a foreign language. For example, if two students attribute their past failure to ability, each student would respond to that setback differently according to her perception of language learning ability (fixed or malleable). If the learner perceives that ability as a malleable factor (hold a growth mindset), she remains motivated and increase her effort in order to increase her ability. In contrast, if the learner perceives that ability as a fixed natural gift or a talent, she devalues effort and does not use effective strategies to increase her ability and thereby becomes demotivated and even cannot overcome the negative impact of demotivation and bad experiences for extended periods.

In short, the learners' mindsets (growth or fixed) played an important role in the L2 demotivation process. It was not the demotivating factors or the attributional styles that demotivated the language learners or affected how they responded to L2 demotivation. Rather, it was the way they perceived these factors and causes of failure and successes. The way they perceived the teacher role, ability, effort and other factors affected the learners' motivation, demotivation and remotivation process. Four subthemes emerged in the data representing four mindset-related factors: growth language learning mindset, fixed language learning mindset, oral proficiency mindset, and mindset shift. Each subtheme will be discussed based on the participants' stories.

115

Fixed language learning mindset

Language learners who made statements that indicated that they tend to endorse a fixed language learning mindset believed that a natural ability is essential to learn a second language. These learners typically talked about demotivation in terms of a gradual loss of interest in learning English, feeling disappointed about the outcome of studying hard, or feeling helpless after repeated failures or in the face of setbacks. Confirmining Ryan and Mercer's (2011) assertion that fixed mindset language learners are more likely to avoid challenges and lessen their language learning expectations, these learners avoided challenges and embarrassment in the classroom in order to look confident and protect their face if the task was difficult. This is consistent with the long history of research that showed how fixed mindset learners (who perceive intelligence as being a fixed trait and interpret failures as a sign that they lack the ability to learn) avoid academically challenging tasks and tend to adopt a helpless response when they encounter difficulty (Blackwell et al.,2007; Diener & Dweck, 1980; Dweck, 1999; Hong et al., 1999; Robins & Pals, 2002; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). It is also consistent with the finding of Robins & Pals's (2002) study that showed how fixed language learners give up on challenging tasks more quickly, showing greater anxiety and avoidance because they see achievement situations as hurdles that will determine their self-worth or a risky place in which their fate and intillegence are determined by relatively uncontrollable forces.

They also felt threatened by others' successful experiences and questioned their own ability when encountering high achievers. Within their fixed mindset, they devalued effort and hard work, and perceived them as fruitless. Consequently, they were more sensitive to demotivating factors and remained in the hold of demotivation for extended periods and could not overcome obstacles and failures easily. Consider the following two participants who demonstrate having fixed language learning mindsets:

> *Not everyone can learn a second language. Some people are talented, they have something special that helps them to learn languages fast, they are naturally gifted. They pass the languages courses easily without studying hard. I wish I was one of them. Unfortunately, I feel that without having that natural ability, studying English is like wasting my time. I would rather spend my time studying something I am good at (ID101).*

> *I used to believe that not everyone in the world can learn a second language, that people have different abilities and intelligence levels ... that it is impossible to learn a*

second or a third language for some people... I even believed that you cannot learn a second language if you are not smart enough (ID110).

The first learner explicitly attributed other classmates' positive experiences and good performance to "something special" and described them as "talented" or "naturally gifted". She believed that these learners pass the exams with no effort. This belief was the main reason she lost interest and stopped putting forth effort to change the negative trajectory of her learning. Her devaluation of effort was clearly expressed when she described studying English as a "waste of time" that would not lead to a positive outcome.

In the second example, another learner emphasised the power of a natural language learning ability, and then divided language learners into low and high ability groups. She attributed successful language learning to being intelligent and smart. She held an entity theory of language learning ability believing that successful language learning is "impossible" without having a natural ability and intelligence.

Growth language learning mindset

Consistent with the results of the studies conducted by psychology researchers to explore what makes some students resilient and able to overcome challenges or even to flourish during difficult situations (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007; Diener & Dweck , 1980; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Robins & Pals, 2002; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). Some interviewees in the study made statements that indicated their tendency to endorse a growth language learning mindset. Contrary to fixed mindset language learners, these students believed that the ability to learn a second language can be increased through effort and hard work. These learners blamed their carelessness when they experienced failures. Indeed, all the learners who reported having a successful language learning experience believed in the malleability of ability and valued hard work and effort. They were more resilient, autonomous, determined, and more committed to overcoming learning challenges. They embraced challenges and felt inspired by others' successful experiences. Consider the following example of a learner who demonstrated a growth mindset about the ability to learn a second language:

Everyone can learn a second language. it just needs time, patience, and effort. If I fail, I mainly blame myself for being careless and not trying harder using different strategies to increase my language ability. Learning English is like learning how to drive and cook. You start weak but the more you practice, the stronger you become (ID102).

This learner believed in the malleability of language learning ability and believed that everyone can learn a second language. She attributed her past failure to her "carelessness" and to applying ineffective strategies in order to increase her language learning ability. She even discussed the similarities between the language learning skills and other skills that can be imorved through practice such as cooking and driving. Her attribution of successful mastery of these three skills to practice indicates her realisation of the value of hard work and effort.

Many other examples showed how growth language learning mindset can influence the learners' explaination of others' successful language learning experiences, and thereby affect their motivation and their willingness to embrace challenges positively. For example:

> Whenever I encounter a successful language learner, I feel excited and ask lots of questions. I believe that these learners applied very effective strategies and studied very hard in order to achieve their goals. They would not succeed if they did not work hard to improve their skills. I usually try to sit next to these students in class in order to increase my ability and learn from them (ID108).

This growth mindset language learner attributed others' successful language learning experiences to the effort that they put forth and the time they spend studying hard. She believed that she could increase her ability by learning about effective strategies that these successful learners applied. She did not feel threatened or embarrassed about being around them. Rather, she believed that her ability can be increased and that her learning strategies can be improved.

Oral proficiency mindset

Another factor that was demotivating for some learners but did not affect other learners is the way they perceived their oral proficiency level, which was also the function of the language learning mindset. Fixed mindset language learners were disappointed about the oral proficiency level they achieved as a result of attending instructional English classes, and thus became easily demotivated and lost interest in these classes. On the other hand, growth mindset language learners were satisfied with the slow progress they made in the classroom and perceived it as a natural part of the learning process, and thereby remained motivated and believed that being a beginner is the first step in the long successful language learning journey and the only path that can lead to fluency.

All the interviewees talked about their failure to increase their oral proficiency level through learning English at school. However, the participants explained this failure diversely according to the particular language learning mindset about achieving fluency (oral proficiency mindset). Although each interviewee tended to endorse a particular language learning mindset that is related to language learning ability in general, some learners held a fixed mindset only about oral proficiency. These learners believed that they could learn and pass the English exams through improving different language skills successfully. However, they believed that a natural ability is essential in order to achieve fluency and become a proficient speaker of English. These learners shared avoidance of practicing or participating in speaking activities in the English classroom. They felt threatened by fluent speakers of English and avoided speaking English in the existence of these learners. Within their fixed oral proficiency mindset, they suspected their ability to improve their oral proficiency and could not see the role of practicing English if the natural speaking ability did not exist. For example:

> *I am a very good learner and my grades are always excellent in the English exams. I believe that everyone can study hard and learn a second language but speaking that language fluently is something different. You need a natural ability to achieve fluency. I noticed that some of my classmates can speak English and participate in the class. They can ask and answer questions. When I asked them, I found that they have never lived abroad or had any family member who could practice English with them at home. These are the gifted learners I am talking about. I am a good language learner but I do not think that I am a talented English speaker like them (ID112).*

The above student distinguished between her belief about the ability to learn a second language in general and her belief about achieving fluency. She held a growth language learning mindset and expressed her confidence in her ability to carry on successful language learning journey, but held a fixed oral proficiency mindset and suspected her ability to achieve fluency. Observing other classmates who were fluent speakers of English only influenced her perception of the ability to achieve fluency, thereby she did not lose her broad motivation to learn English. She remained motivated and studied English hard but devalued hard work and practice when she discussed oral proficiency saying that "you need a natural ability to achieve fluency".

The following example also shows a learner who held a fixed mindset only about achieving fluency:

> *During my first years of English learning, I knew that I will learn the alphabet, vocabulary, grammar and the basic expressions in English … however, when it comes to*

speaking and pronunciation, peoples' abilities vary. I always knew that there was nothing I could do to improve it… I could only imagine passing the course but never imagined myself being a fluent speaker of English (ID105).

The example above shows how some learners held a growth mindset about different skills of language learning but excluded the speaking skill and held a fixed mindset about it. Although this learner was confident about her ability to learn and improve other language skills, she believed that people's abilities to achieve fluency "vary". Thus, she could not create a vision of her self speaking English fluently in the future. That means that her motivation to improve her speaking skill decreased and she might not put effort into that area of language learning. This finding confirms Ryan and Mercer's assertion (2011) that learners' beliefs regarding the role of natural talent can affect their motivation and ability to develop a positive identity as self-directed language learner within different language learning contexts. If this learner is taught about growth mindset and how to apply her incremental theories of the other skills into speaking skill, her confidence can be rebuilt and her future L2 self could be reenvisaged. That means that she can bounce back and recover from the speaking-related demotivation and try harder to achieve fluency.Interestingly, even within one skill such as grammar, learners were found to hold different mindsets about different aspects of grammar, confirming Dweck's (2015) argument that people have a mixture of fixed and growth mindsets rather than having one mindset or another and that many people can switch between them.. One example to represent this distinction is what the same participant said about learning prepositions:

There are grammar and rules that can be learned through studying hard revising and analysing… however, I believe that things such as prepositions and irregular verbs could not be learned through working hard… these things can be learned after communicating with native speakers or by having a special memorisation talent (ID105)

The example above shows how a learner may hold differing mindsets across different skill domains or aspects of the language. This learner also devalued the role of practice and effort in specific aspects of language learning. She held a growth mindset about learning English grammar in general but held a fixed mindset about learning prepositions and irregular verbs. Therefore, she stressed the superiority of natural acquisition contexts or natural memorisation talent over directed effort in facilitating successful mastery of these particular aspects of language.

Analysing the interviews of the two participants above (ID105 & ID112) revealed that they both remained motivated to learn English and put the required effort to pursue successful language learning. It suggested that although having a fixed mindset about various aspects of language learning might affect their intended effort to practice and improve a particular skill or influence one aspect of their ideal L2 self, it neither influenced the language learner's broad motivation to learn a second language nor generated any negative feelings toward learning English or toward the English class. Rather, the data showed that having a broad growth language learning mindset had a greater positive influence and helped these learners to remain motivated. The motivational power of their growth language learning mindsets was not obstructed by the demotivational power of the skill- related mindset that they held. In order to help these learners to rebuild their ideal L2 self or increase their skill-related motivation, it would be beneficial to teach them how to apply their broad incremental theories of the other skills into the skill that they hold a fixed mindset about.

Mindset changes

Mercer and Ryan (2010, 2012) discussed the dynamism of mindsets and its development and changes across time, highlighting the mindsets' potential for change. Indeed, one of the most important findings that the data revealed that even a fixed language learning mindset could change over time in the right circumstances, and thus facilitating L2 remotivation. Indeed, the growth language learning mindset was a key to success in recovery from demotivation in every case in the data. All the demotivated learners who successfully bounced back and rebuilt their L2 motivation after experiencing demotivation have associated recovery from demotivation with changing their maladaptive beliefs about the malleability of their ability into more adaptive beliefs.

In line with the previous research which demonstrated that priming a growth language learning mindset can guide the language learners' orientation toward setting learning goals, and thus positively influence their responses to failures and increase their persistence in language learning (Burnette et al., 2013; Lou & Noels, 2016), the data also demonstrated that gradual adoption of a growth language learning mindset contributed to the language learners' resilience, autonomy, determination and could influence their motivational level. In recovery cases, the fixed-mindset learners gradually adopted a growth mindset for a number of factors including: (a) encountering

high achievers or hard working learners; (b) observing their own growth and progress after using different strategies; or (c) experiencing the positive outcome of hard work. As illustrated by the following extract, they explained how these adaptive beliefs had a powerful influence on their motivation and helped them to bounce back, embrace challenges and achieve their goals:

> *I have always thought of majoring in English but thought that I lacked the ability. I even believed that you cannot learn a second language if you are not smart enough. However, I met a friend in high school who spoke English better than me. She told me that she never travelled abroad and that she attended state schools. She also told me that she usually studies English hard….I decided to buy a book to learn English in one week. I admired her and had a strong desire to be like her but it was too hard I needed too much time and effort. Now, I believe that the harder I work and the longer hours I spend the stronger English learner I will be (ID110).*

This participant was mentioned earlier as being a fixed mindset learner who disliked English classes. However, she encountered a proficient learner who spoke English fluently. Contrary to some others who questioned their own ability when encountering high achievers, this learner discussed how her discussion with a successful language learner gradually changed her perception of her ability, and thereby remotivated her. She even took a proactive step forward to improve her English (i.e. buying a book to learn English in one week). That is, encountering a proficient learner in the same learning setting inspired her and changed her fixed mindset from "I lacked the ability" into a growth mindset characterised by the statement "It was too hard I needed too much time and effort". This was a major shift in the learner's mindset that was triggered by the recognition that the proficient classmate did not travel abroad, but worked harder than her to achieve her goals. This shift in her mindset allowed her to believe that her low ability can be increased through directed effort and time. This learner's example is an important indication that it might be possible to dislodge someone from a fixed mindset, which in turn might allow the person to start rebuilding her motivation; and if the newly generated growth mindset is enhanced and sustained, long-term goals can be achieved.Consider also the following example of a learner who made many fixed mindset statements when she told me about past experiences and how she gradually changed her beliefs and demonstrated a growth mindset about the ability to learn a second language:

> *After several failure experiences, I spent more time studying English and my grades started to improve. I realised that good English learners are not smarter than me. They*

122

just spent more time studying English than I did. Now, whenever I fail, I mainly blame myself for being careless and ask these learners about their learning strategies. Now, I even believe that I can be an English teacher if I try hard and spend more time studying English (ID102)

During the interview, this learner talked about her past failures experiences and attributed these failures to various maladaptive beliefs about the ability to learn a second language. Then, she started talking about her current successful language learning experience and about her recovery from demotivation journey. She clearly expressed how she changed her belief in the malleability ability to learn a second language over time. After she spent more time studying English, she observed her own progress and the outcome of putting forth more effort and spending more time studying English. This observation changed her maladaptive belief that successful language learners are naturally smarter than her. It also changed her attributional style where she attributed their success to effort instead of their intelligence. Within her newly developed growth language learning mindset, she valued hard work and believed that trying different learning strategies (i.e. putting effort) can improve her ability. Thus, she attributed her past failure to her "carelessness" and responded by changing her learning strategies accordingly in order to increase her ability. She even created an optimistic vision of the future: "I can be an English teacher" and associated it with putting more effort and spending more time studying English. Her growth mindset helped her to improve her capabilities, survive against failures and develop a better future vision.

6.2.2 Attributional styles

The second conceptual theme that emerged from the participants' responses was the attributional styles. All the interviewees voluntarily talked about their past failures and made different attributions that seemed to be consistent with the literature of L2 motivation. No matter what current situation of the learner was at that point, they gave more details about their past failures and the bad experiences they had to deal with. Although I have not directly asked any learner about failure experiences, the participants discussed their past experiences and attributed past failures and successes to three main causes: ability, effort, or teachers. Therefore, the broad conceptual theme of attributional style consisted of these three data-driven subthemes.

An important finding in the data was the impact of attributing successes or failures to ability and effort on the L2 demotivation and remotivation processes. The

attributions that the participants made did not lead to similar outcomes and did not affect their motivation similarly. The data revealed significant variations in the way these attributions affected the learner's motivation, demotivation, and remotivation. Contrary to my expectation, no attribution played a major role exclusively in the L2 demotivation or remotivation mechanisms.

Intriguingly, both attributing past failures to ability and effort did not always lead to L2 demotivation. Also, recovery from L2 demotivation occurred after attributing failure to any internal or external factors. Based on the motivation literature, it was anticipated that attributing failure to effort would be an appropriate attribution that could help learners to overcome setbacks and rebuild their motivation through increasing effort in the future tasks, while attributing failure to ability would be an inappropriate attribution that would keep the learners in the hold of demotivation for extended periods because ability is a stable and uncontrollable factor. However, it was evident that recovery from demotivation could happen as a result of adopting a growth mindset about the malleability of the ability to learn a second language, even when the learners attributed their past failure and demotivation to ability. This suggests that it was not the attribution of failure to ability that decreased L2 motivation or obstructed recovery, but rather, the way by which the malleability of language learning ability was perceived. Perceiving ability to learn a second language as being a stable, uncontrollable and natural endowment obstructed successful recovery from L2 demotivation, while perceiving ability as being unstable, controllable and malleable facilitated that process. I will present different examples to illustrate this point below.

Ability attributions

Because some causal variables like ability are designated as stable and others like luck as unstable in the attribution theory, several researchers (e.g. Andrews & Debus, 1978; Perry et al.,1993; Weiner, 1979) argued that attributing failure to a stable factor such as lack of ability can negatively influence learners' motivation, while attributing failure to unstable factors such as lack of effort can increase the motivation, Thus, these researchers, who designated ability as a stable factor, suggested changing the attributions of failing students from low ability to lack of effort to improve their motivation and performance. However, as I mentioned earlier in (section 3.3.3), Dweck's (1999) research has demonstrated that some students perceive ability as an unstable factor that can be increased through effort and practice. In Dweck's model, the

key point for an individual's motivation is how these variables are seen by that individual. Thus, people's mindsets influence not only their attributions, but also the meaning of these attributions.This suggests that attributing failure to lack of ability does not necessarily lead to decreases in motivation.

The data supported Dweck's (1999) model and showed that after L2 demotivation occurs, recovery from demotivation could happen as a result of adopting a growth mindset about the malleability of the ability to learn a second language, even when the learners attributed their past failure to lack of ability. This suggests that it was not the attribution of failure to ability that decreased L2 motivation or obstructed recovery, but rather, the way by which the malleability of ability was perceived. Perceiving ability to learn a second language as being a stable, uncontrollable and natural endowment obstructed successful recovery from L2 demotivation, while perceiving ability as being unstable, controllable and malleable facilitated that process.

Ability to learn a second language was perceived by fixed mindset language learners as being fixed, limited and naturally gifted, while growth mindset language learners believed that this ability can be increased through effort and practice. Therefore, when language learners attributed their own or others' past failures and successes to ability, their motivation to learn English was influenced differently according to their diverse perceptions of this ability (i.e. their language learning mindset).

The following example shows a learner who made many statements that showed her tendency to endorse a growth language learning mindset. Although she attributed her past failures to lack of ability, she remained motivated and tried different effective strategies to increase her language learning ability. Within her growth mindset, she valued hard work and increased her effort in order to increase her ability after claiming that she failed the test because her "ability to learn a second language was lower than many other successful language learners' abilities". This indicated to me that attributing failure to ability did not demotivate her or obstructed successful language learning. Her perception of the ability to learn a second language as being malleable has protected her from demotivation and motivated her to put forth more effort and apply effective strategies to improve her situation:

> *I failed in the test because I was a weak language learner. I knew that my ability to learn a second language was lower than many other successful language learners'*

abilities…. However, I believed that I can increase my ability through practicing and studying harder. These successful language learners are not born successful. They worked hard and spent enough time trying to improve their ability and become successful language learners (ID103).

On the other hand, another learner who made many fixed language learning mindset statements showed how attributing past failure to lack of "special ability" demotivated her. Perceiving language learning ability as being naturally gifted, fixed or stable and attributing other successes to that special ability, she believed that there was nothing she could do to increase it. Ability attribution in this case had a negative impact on the learner's L2 motivation and obstructed her ability to create a positive future L2 self. When this learner says "I stopped studying English", she strongly indicated that she is vulnerable to develop learned helplessness and attributed this vulnerability to "lacking that ability". I could see here that it is not merely attributing failures to ability that obstructed successful language learning. Rather, it was this participant's belief about language learning ability (i.e. her language learning mindset) and how this maladaptive belief negatively influenced her responses to failure experiences and her explanation of others' success:

> *Every time I failed an English test and observed other successful language learners who had that special ability passing the exam easily, my hate toward the English classroom increased. I stopped studying English because I knew that I lacked that ability and everything I did was useless. I never imagined myself a successful language learner (ID106).*

Attribution to effort

Many interviewees attributed their past failures to lack of effort. Based on the previous attribution studies that designated effort as an unstable factor and that effort attributions should be encouraged (e.g. Andrews & Debus, 1978; Perry et al.,1993; Weiner, 1979), this attribution was expected to have a positive impact on the learner's motivation in most cases. However, analysis of the data showed that the impact of this attribution on the language learners' motivation varied. In some cases, attributing to effort did not have such a positive impact on the learner's motivation. Similar to the perception of ability, the diverse perceptions of effort influenced the participants' language learning experiences and their L2 motivation diversely,This variation was to a large extent, the function of the language learning mindset.

126

The data provided evidence that it was not attributing to lack of effort that demotivated language learners. Rather, it was the way they perceived effort and hard work (i.e. their mindset). If effort is perceived as an essential part of having a successful language experience, attribution failure to effort has a positive impact on the learner's motivation and helps the learner to remain committed by putting forth more effort into future tasks. On the other hand, if effort is perceived as an indicator of lacking natural ability, attributing failures to effort has a negative impact on the learner's motivation because the learner tends, in this case, to reduce effort in order to look confident and pretend to have a natural ability that, within her fixed mindset, is essential for successful language learning.

Growth mindset langauge learners who attributed their past failures to effort either increased their effort and overcome the bad experiences with the least negative impact, or were optimistic about their performance in the future tasks because they associated success with increasing their effort. In line with findings of ample educational psychology research (e.g. Dweck, 1999; Dweck, 2006; Dweck, 2009; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck & Molden, 2005; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Hong et al., 1999; Molden & Dweck, 2006; Nussbaum & Dweck, 2008), the data demonstrated that effort was perceived by growth mindset language learners as the key to successful language learning. All the growth mindset language learners remained motivated and were able to create a positive future vision in their mind. Within their growth language learning mindset, these participants blamed themselves for not making enough effort to achieve their language learning goals. Therefore, they could easily modify their behaviour by increasing their effort or intending to increase it in order to change the negative outcome into a positive one.

On the other hand, consistent with findings of ample educational psychology research (e.g. Dweck, 1999; Dweck, 2006; Dweck, 2009; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck & Molden, 2005; Dweck & Sorich, 1999), the data demonstrated that fixed mindset language learners perceived effort as an indicator of lacking the talent or the natural ability to learn a second language. Some fixed mindset language learners attributed their past failures to lack of effort but were still demotivated and did not increase their effort to improve their learning trajectory. I will present two examples to interpret this finding.

In the following example, the interviewee attributed getting "bad results" to "not studying hard" and demonstrated her awareness of the effectiveness of different strategies that she could use to facilitate successful language learning:

> when I see my bad results in the English tests, I mainly blame myself for being careless and not studying hard. I did not care about learning English and did not try different strategies to learn it. I regret every single moment I have wasted without studying hard before the test. If I studied harder, did my research, asked questions, and found answers, I would have succeeded. It is my fault. I should have learned more vocabulary, watched more movies or read more English books and articles. However, I know that spending more time and using different learning sources will improve my language (ID108)

Attribution of past failures to effort clearly had a positive impact on the motivation of this growth mindset learner. Within her growth mindset, she believed that studying harder and increasing her effort will change her future results. She expressed her feeling of guilt that resulted from not trying effective learning strategies in the past to achieve her goals. Therefore, she remained motivated because she believed that putting more effort would modify her bad results and "improve her language". Perceiving effort as a malleable factor that can be increased and change any negative outcome, she overcame the negative impact of failure and remained motivated.

Consider the following example that revealed how attributing to effort affected other language learners differently and how it may not have a positive impact on the participant's motivation.. Interestingly, some fixed mindset language learners perceived the need to put forth more effort as an indicator of lacking the natural ability. Therefore, even when these learners attributed past failures to effort, they lost interest in learning English and did not increase their effort in order to improve their experience. They believed that the naturally gifted successful language learners did not need to make effort in order to achieve their goals. They felt embarrassed about having to put more effort and avoided studying hard in order to look as confident as those successful language learners looked. For example:

> I know I failed many of my English tests because I did not study hard. Many of my friends who had a natural ability passed the same test successfully without studying. They did not need to spend too much time and effort to pass English tests. I tried to pretend that I am one of them and that I can pass the test without studying too hard. When we had a break before the English test, I pretended that I was as confident as they were and hid my anxiety by telling them that I did not need to study and that it

was an easy test. I felt that if my friends noticed that I frequently opened the book to revise, they would judge me and think that I am different from them (ID106).

The above language learner started her quote by attributing her past failure to lack of effort. Then, she endorsed a fixed language learning mindset by associating others' successful language learning experiences with having a natural ability. She believed that these successful learners could succeed and pass the English test with the minimum effort because they have a special language learning ability. Although she attributed her failure to lack of effort, she did not study harder to change her future results. Within her fixed mindset, she thought that putting forth effort would indicate to others that she lacked this natural ability. She tried to show everyone that she did not lack that ability by reducing the time and effort she spent before the test. Therefore, her perception of effort as an indicator of lacking natural ability had demotivated her and obstructed successful language learning and affected her behaviour negatively.

Attribution to teacher

In line with the findings of L2 demotivation research that showed how language teachers be a major source of demotivation (e.g. Arai, 2004; Dornyei, 1998; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Song, 2005; Trang and Baldauf, 2007; Ushioda, 1998; Yan, 2009; Zhang, 2007). All the participants in the data talked about the teacher role in facilitating or obstructing successful language learning. They attributed their current and past failures or successes to the quality of teaching, teacher's support, the teacher's personality characteristics, and the personal relationship with the teacher. The data also showed that less-than-ideal teachers could have a long- or short-term effect on some learners' motivation and persistence. These learner's motivation decreased for years, for the whole academic year or for the period of one lesson. Both motivated and demotivated language learners shared similar views of many personal characteristics and teaching skills or behaviours and categorised them as being potential teacher-related demotivators. Some of these characteristics included:

1- Lack of emotional support: "*They could not help us to get rid of the negative feelings that we had towards learning English*" (ID111)
2- Lack of raising awareness: *"If they at least told me about its importance, I would have studied harder and be motivated to learn it"* (ID109)
3- Lack of flexibility and tolerance: *"I blame my childhood teachers for being very strict*" (ID104)
4- Humiliation and carelessness: *"I hated English teachers because they were humiliating, scary, careless, and not qualified"* (ID103)

5- Lack of academic support: *"They did not consider that we were beginners and needed their support and patience in order to overcome the challenging experience of learning another language"* (ID110)

6- Lack of practice: *"the teacher gave us the new lesson and the information that we needed to pass the course but she did not give us time to practice or SPEAK"* (ID105)

7- Instructional and traditional teaching style: *"teaching was very traditional and boring. No interaction. no practice. I felt so bad" (*ID105)

8- Lack of teaching skills: "*teachers were not qualified enough. They used to give us the information that they must provide but they did not ask us to give anything back… do you understand?" (*ID101)

9- Prejudice: "*My second teacher was horrible so she made me hate English. She kept humiliating me in front of my classmates and I always felt discriminated against"* (ID109)

10- Weakness and hesitation: "*I remember when I had an in-confident teacher who always says (I think, I feel, I am not sure), I lost trust in her ability"* (ID104).

However, perceptions of the teacher's role in obstructing successful language learning varied significantly among demotivated and motivated language learners. Although all the interviewees discussed the teacher's role as being an important factor that contributes to successful language learning, only demotivated language learners reported that less-than-competent English teachers had a destructive influence on their motivation and perceived it as a major factor that can obstruct successful language learning. Significantly, demotivated learners attributed other' success to a natural ability but perceived the teacher as a major factor that can facilitate and obstruct successful language learning. Thus, their motivation increased, decreased, and was rebuilt according to their perception of the English teacher (i.e. competent teacher or less-than-ideal teacher).

On the other hand, successful language learners who reported more positive feelings and attitudes toward English learning were not influenced negatively when encountering a less-than-ideal teacher. Indeed, all the learners who reported having a successful language learning experience minimised the negative effect of less-than-competent teachers and did not overemphasise the teacher's role. Rather, they stressed the superiority of their own effort and perceived the teacher's contribution as a secondary factor that could only facilitate successful language learning but could not obstruct it.

After I identified the influence of the perception of the teacher's role on the participant's motivation, another question of what contributed to a particular perception

of the teacher's role remained unanswered. I dug deeper in the data to find a characteristic that is shared by all the demotivated learners who overemphasised the teacher's role and attributed past failure to less-than-ideal teachers. Intriguingly, only fixed mindset language learners overemphasised the teacher's role and attributed their failures to the less-than- ideal teachers. On the other hand, the only participants who minimised the teacher's role were the growth mindset language learners.

This finding was initially surprising and difficult to analyse. I suspected the existence of a relationship between the mindset and the perception of the teacher's role because it was not clear how a language learner believes in the importance of natural ability in successful language learning, may also believe that a good teacher can facilitate successful language learning. A fixed mindset language learner, who believes that the ability to learn a second language is fixed and cannot be increased, should be expected to believe that nothing, even the teacher, can increase that ability. This confusing result will be investigated and discussed further in the quantitative study.Therefore, it was evident that attributing past failures to the teacher is an external attribution but can be controllable or uncontrollable. The data in current study showed that this level of controllability varied according to the language learning mindset. This finding is important as it might explain why more recent studies contradicted older studies (e.g Arai, 2004; Dornyei, 1998; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Song, 2005; Trang and Baldauf, 2007; Ushioda, 1998) and found that teacher's direct behaviours were the least influential of all the demotivators studied or found them to be not strong demotivators (e.g. Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Kikuchi, 2011; Kim, 2009; Li & Zhou, 2013). The following two examples clearly present how these successful language learners perceived the teacher role in the language learning journey:

> *Teachers only care about grades and exams. So, the teachers had the minimum effect on my learning experience. I have to do my best and achieve my goals (ID108)*

> *I arrived at the conclusion that the teacher is not the primary factor that makes me fail or succeed. It is all about the effort I make. (ID102)*

The following successful language learner clarified the concept very clearly. She attributed successful language learning (i.e. reaching the top of the stairs) to effort (i.e. my feet). She also explained how the hand of the teacher (i.e. help and support) could be replaced by other various effective learning resources if this help did not result in a positive outcome:

I have to reach the top of the stairs using my feet, while the teacher holds my hand to support me when I need help. I can replace this hand with other resources if it does not help me properly. The teachers have qualifications, but not all of them have good skills. I admit that the teacher has an important role in this process but my role is more important" (ID105)

The example below shows very clearly how overemphasising the role of the teacher and underestimating the outcome of effort had a destructive power on the learner's motivational level. Overemphasising the teacher's role, this learner minimised the role of effort and hard work and believed that other successful language learners achieved their goals in shorter periods as a result of being taught by a competent teacher. This perception of the teacher's role had a significant negative impact on this learner's motivation as she reported losing interest, giving up and reducing effort and time whenever she was being taught by less-than ideal teachers:

No matter how hard you try, you will never achive your goals if you are not taught by a competent teacher. I believe that language learners who have a good teacher can achieve better in a shorter period than the learners who are being taught by a weak teacher. After I attend the first lesson with a new teacher, I can tell if I will pass the course or fail. If my teacher is not good enough, I know that I will fail and thereby lose interest in the English class. (ID107)

Furthermore, the data revealed that teachers could remotivate some learners and change their negative learning trajectory. Some of the students who remained in the demotivation for extended periods were unable to bounce back and rebuild their motivation unless they had a competent teacher who helped them to recover from demotivation and overcome challenges. For instance, some learners became demotivated only during the presence of the demotivating teacher and bounced back as a result of having another remotivating teacher. Consider the following example:

I hated English that year and when I had the English classroom, I felt too bored… my marks went lower than usual and I did not do well in the tests. In the following year, I had an excellent teacher who remotivated me and made me love English again …. (ID111)

The learner above described how her motivation and grades decreased and her feelings toward English learning has changed, when she had a perceivably incompetent teacher that made her feel bored in the classroom. She attributed this failure to the teacher then explicitly mentioned "remotivation" and linked it to one of her good

teachers. She described how this teacher made her bounce back and regain her positive feelings toward English learning after being demotivated for a whole academic year.

6.2.3 Vision

L2 disappointment

Generally, all the participants discussed their vision and revealed issues that were related to instructional nature of English classes in the Saudi state schools and its impact on their oral proficiency. In most cases, the participants talked about starting their language learning journey having dreams, visions, goals and future plans. Although Saudi learners used to accept passing the exams and following instructional English learning as a normal learning process during the school years, they realised the significance of learning English for their academic future and career as they grew up. Therefore, their vision components have changed and their goals have changed. However, when they realised that attending the traditional instructional English classes did not help them to achieve fluency, their vision was broken.

Language learners' proficiency level was found to be a significant factor in the L2 demotivation research (e.g. Falout et al., 2009; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Ghadirzadeh, Hashtroudi & Shokri; 2012; Tsuchiya, 2006). In the current study, although all the participants believed that learning instructional English inside the classroom did not help them to improve their oral proficiency level and noticed a large gap between the desired outcome (i.e. achieving fluency) and the actual outcome (i.e. low oral proficiency level), their perception of this outcome varied significantly. Thus, their various perceptions affected their motivation differently and generated diverse feelings: L2 dissappointment and L2 satisfaction.

L2 disappointment was one the feelings that appeared as a major factor that contributed to the demotivation of all demotivated learners. The data revealed that fixed mindset language learners expressed higher level of disappointment about their low proficiency level, these learners felt disappointed when they found that the oral proficiency level they could achieve through attending English classes was lower than they expected. The following two examples illustrate this point:

> *Looking at the amount of instruction we received at school and the length of hours we spent in English classes, I realised that the result and the progress we could make is less than expected...I was really disappointed and clearly lost interest because I felt that what we were learning at school was useless and impractical. I could not even make a*

short conversation. I wanted to learn how to speak that language and use it… you know… I was not able to use it. We had to study the book then pass the test and that was it. I was so sad… I was frustrated that I could not speak or understand English although I was learning at school (ID109).

When I started learning English … I was shocked …. disappointed… confused… it was different from what I expected … I expected to be able to speak as well as my cousins did… of course I was learning but not what I expected… it was all about grammar, books, exams and memorisation…(ID106)

These two fixed mindset learners expected making good progress and being fluent speakers of English as a result of spending enough time and receiving large amount of instruction. Their goal has been always to speak English fluently. However, they did not achieve what they expected from learning English at school. Thus, they felt disappointed and became demotivated when they found that learning English experience was different from what they always thought of and dreamed about. They described their feelings of disappointment and how her loss of motivation resulted from not achieving the expected outcome. Their vision was unsurprisingly broken because traditional English teaching in Saudi Arabia focused on memorisation and grammar.

On the other hand, growth mindset learners were satisfied with the slow progress they could make as a result of receiving instructional English lessons. They believed that all proficient speakers of English were once beginners and attended similar classes as a first step in their language learning journey. Therefore, they did not experience negative feelings of disappointment, and thereby remained motivated. For example:

I know that I am not a fluent speaker of English. I also know that I will not achieve fluency soon. I consider myself a beginner who can only make simple sentences. not a conversation. However, when I listen to the Saudi teacher who speaks English fluently or encounter other Saudi girls who are fluent speakers of English, I imagine them when they were beginners like me and how they remained committed to learn English until they achieved their goal. Being a beginner who speaks broken English is the first step of a long learning journey that will definitely lead to achieving fluency one day (ID102).

Although this growth mindset learner did not perceive her oral proficiency level as being high, she perceived this slow progress as being a natural part of any learning process. She classified herself as being a beginner who cannot use her English for communicatiation. However, her perception of low proficiency level as being a natural part of the learning process generated a feeling of satisfaction about the less-than-expected outcome of attending English classes in Saudi Arabia. This feeling of

satisfaction helped this learner to remain motivated and resilient in the face of failure to communicate or use English in real life situations.

Contrary to the findings of the previous studies that showed how proficiency level distinguished demotivated from motivated language learners (e.g. Falout et al., 2009; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Tsuchiya, 2006), the results above suggest that it not the factor of having low oral proficiency level that demotivated language learners in the current study. Rather, it was the way they explained it, the way they perceived it, and the feelings that they experienced about this factor. Disappointment about the oral proficiency level that could be achieved as a result of attending instructional English classrooms was experienced only by fixed mindset language learners, leading to their demotivation. On the other hand, growth mindset language learners were satisfied about the slow progress and remained motivated and committed although they had similar low oral proficiency level. This finding suggests the existence of a relationship between the language learning mindset and L2 disappointment. This finding will be investigated further in the quantitative study.

Ought-to L2 self

In a collectivist society, such as Saudi Arabia where family has a significant role in one's lifestyle, I expected to encounter language learners who discuss their parents' wishes and dreams or the feeling of pride they experience after achieving success to satisfy their parents. However, contrary to my assumptions, the data showed a different pattern of ought-to L2 self-representations. Only four interviewees talked about trying to avoid disappointing their parents and about how other members of society perceived them. For example, when I asked the participant below why she remained motivated and was able to overcome several learning obstacles, she replied:

> *Because I thought that it is something not common… not everyone one can do it… it makes you feel different… people will admire me if I can do something special… they will know that I am a special girl and my parents will be very proud of me (ID110)*

I asked this motivated learner to justify her strong desire to learn English language and why she maintained her motivation despite of all the difficulties she encountered. She justified it saying that it gave her a feeling of positive distinction and appreciation. She believed that speaking English fluently would differentiate her from others in a positive way. Then, she stressed the positive feelings she developed as a result of completing any special and challenging task successfully. This learner is more

concerned with her social status and her position among others rather than what she would love to do and possess. However, her ought-to L2 self energised her motivation and strengthen her desire to learn English. Consider the following example that also revealed the remotivational power of the ought-to L2 self:

> *It started in the summer holiday when my family members made fun of me and told me that I wasted time learning English achieving nothing. Now, I dream of being a fluent speaker in order to avoid others' comments about my bad English (ID102)*

This learner who has been demotivated for a long time and has never had an image of herself speaking or majoring in English has rebuilt her L2 motivation to learn English. I asked her to talk about her remotivation and how she could bounce back after having a four-year period of L2 demotivation. She remembered the first time she started thinking seriously of pursuing a better course of English learning when her family members opened her eyes at her situation and expressed their disappointment of her progress. Her family members' negative comments about her oral proficiency made her reconsider her situation and rebuild her motivation. Trying to avoid disappointing others, she decided to recover from L2 demotivation and gain confidence in her ability to create a different image of her future L2 self. In this case, Ought-to L2 self facilitated recovery and helped the demotivated learner to change the negative trajectory of her learning.

Ideal L2 self

The last factor that also influenced L2 demotivation was the ideal future L2 self. in line with the findings of previous L2 demotivation research (e.g. Carpenter et al., 2009; Dornyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Falout, 2016), it was evident that creating a positive ideal L2 self had a motivational power that protected some learners from demotivation, and a remotivational power that helped some learners to bounce back and recover from demotivation successfully. However, fixed mindset language learners, in some cases, lacked the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self, and thus lost interest in learning English and became demotivated. In other cases, fixed mindset language learners could create a positive ideal L2 self, but the motivational power of this ideal L2 self was obstructed by their belief that they lack a natural ability to achieve their goals.

In the data, it was expected to find evidence that supports and demonstrates the motivational power of the ideal L2 self. However, my analysis focused on L2 demotivation and looked at the ideal L2 self of demotivated language learners. I was

more interested in investigating three issues: (a) the demotivated learners' ability to develop an ideal L2 self; (b) the influence of lacking the ability to develop a positive ideal L2 self on the learner's motivation; and (c) the factors that contribute to higher or lower ability to construct a particular ideal L2 self.

Contrary to ought-to L2 self, the ideal L2 self and its motivational and remotivational power appeared in all cases. The key to understanding how the L2 Motivational Self System operated within the Saudi culture lies in the increasing autonomy of women in Saudi Arabia. There is a big difference between Saudi women' situation now and their situation fifty years ago. In the past, women were not given the chance for education or employment. Due to social, religious and cultural restrictions, they used to be dependent on their families and their men (husbands, father or brothers). Therefore, their vision and formation of ideal self was restricted to getting married, having children and being good wives and mothers. Now, the situation has radically changed, the opportunities of education, scholarships and jobs that are given to Saudi women are equal to the ones that are given to men. It is socially normal now to see a wife who is studying or working while her husband is taking care of the children or being a house husband. This radical change in the society and cultural norms has had a great impact on the Saudi women and the future selves they created. It explained why ideal L2 self played a greater role in the Saudi learners' motivation than the role that ought-to L2 self played.

When I focused on the ideal L2 self of the demotivated language learners, the data revealed that lacking the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self could be a demotivating factor. In other words, the learners' failure to create a clear and vivid image of their ideal L2 self seemed to contribute to L2 demotivation. For example:

> *I am not a good learner of English and do not study it hard. I know it is important and wish to speak it fluently. However, I would never consider learning English if it was not compulsory and never had an image of myself speaking English fluently. (ID109)*

Although she recognised the importance of learning English and expressed her desire to learn it, the fixed mindset langauge learner above confirmed that she would never learn English if it was optional and explicitly articulated her lack of ability to imagine or visualise a future L2 self that can speak English fluently. This lack of ability affected the learner's English learning experience negatively and decreased her motivation to "study it hard". Many other fixed mindset language learners expressed

137

similar lower ability to create a positive ideal L2 self. It can be suggested that the fixed language learning mindset decreased the learner's ability to generate an attractive image of her future L2 self, and thereby has contributed to L2 demotivation indirectly (through lowering the ideal L2 self).

In the current study, it was also evident that lacking the ability to develop a vivid positive ideal L2 self has obstructed successful recovery from demotivation in some cases. For example, the same learner (ID109) was excited and interested (i.e. motivated) before she started learning English but the first teacher who taught her when she was a child had a major long-term negative impact on her L2 motivation. She remained in the hold of L2 demtoivation for a long time, even when the demotivating factors ceased to exist. It can be suggested that this participant's lack of ability to develop a positive future L2 self obstructed her recovery from L2 demotivation.

Another important finding in the data was intriguing. Some demotivated participants made many statements that indicated their ability to create a positive ideal L2 self. These learners often gave details about the characteristics that they ideally liked to possess expressing their hopes, aspirations and wishes. However, the motivational power of their ideal L2 self was not demonstrated. Although they could live up the dream and discussed the ideal L2 self that they ideally liked to achieve, they stated that achieving this self was difficult or even impossible. Consider the following example:

> *I always imagine myself when I am older, speaking English fluently with foreigners, or working in a career where everybody speaks only English. I even imagine myself studying abroad. These are all dreams. I wish I can achieve all these dreams. However, I realised that it is not easy to learn English. Every time I fail in the English test, I lower my expectations because I lose hope and feel that I am helpless to change my situation. I feel like I do not have the ability to be the person I always imagine myself to be. It feels like if you really are a good person who would like to help poor people but you do not have the money to help them (ID104).*

The above learner was categorised as being a fixed mindset language learner. Although she made many fixed mindset statement during the interviews, she was able to create a positive ideal L2 self that should have a positive influence on her motivation. Interestingly, however, the motivational power of the ideal L2 self was not demonstrated as the learner "lowered her expectation" after facing setbacks. Also, "losing hope" and "feeling helpless" are strong indicators of this participant's demotivation. A possible explanation, for the participant's perception of the difficulties

138

and failures as being demotivating factors despite developing a positive ideal L2 self, is that the learner's fixed mindset has decreased this ability or contributed to the change of the developed ideal L2 self, resulting in the learner's demotvation. Another explanation is that the participant's ability to create a positive ideal L2 self did not decrease or change. However, the demotivational power of the fixed mindset might have obstructed its motivational power. This notion was supported by the example that the learner provided at the end of her quote. For this fixed mindset language learner, lacking the ability to learn a second language after creating a positive ideal L2 self is similar to lacking the money to achieve the desired goal of helping poor people after setting a good intention. This finding suggests that there is a relationship between the ideal L2 self and the language learning mindset. This assumption will be further investigated and discussed in the quantitative study.

Another important finding in the data was that developing a positive ideal L2 self had remotivated some of the participants who experienced L2 demotivation for short or extended periods in my study. The following example revealed the remotivational power of the ideal L2 self:

> *In the past, I lost interest because I have never imagined myself speaking another language and my goal has always been to merely pass the English tests with minimum effort. However, my dreams and goals have grown and speaking English became a major part of all my dreams. Now, my goal is to become a fluent speaker who can speak confidently in any situation. I always have an image in my mind of myself using English in my workplace and everyday life. This is why I study English harder now (ID103)*

This learner described how developing a positive ideal L2 self who can speak English fluently remotivated her and facilitated recovery from L2 demotivation. She also made it very clear that changing her ideal L2 self from "passing the English tests with minimum effort" to "become a fluent speaker of English" has helped her to rebuild her motivation and study English harder. Developing a more positive future ideal L2 self, had a remotivational power and a positive influence on this learner's experience. It can be suggested that the newly developed positive ideal L2 self significantly shifted her learning trajectory.

It is worth noting that developing a positive ideal L2 self had a remotivational power only in the learning experiences of the growth mindset language learners. The remotivational power of the ideal L2 self was not demonstrated in the data of the fixed

mindset language learners, making the assumption of the presence of a relationship between the ideal L2 self and the language learning a more crucial.

6.2.4 Coping mechanisms

As I mentioned previously, several internal and external factors were not perceived similarly by the interviewees. The data also showed that even when language learners perceived certain factors as being potential demotivators, the ensuing diverse responses were to a large extent the function of various coping mechanisms they used to overcome or cope with L2 demotivation. The data revealed that some learners were negatively influenced by the demotivating factors and experienced demotivation for short or long periods, but were able to recover and remotivate themselves for several reasons. On the other hand, other learners remained in the hold of demotivation for extended periods and were not able to recover. In some cases, remaining in the hold of demotivation for a long period was the first stage that took the learner to a different stage where she developed learned helplessness or became vulnerable to develop it.

In line with previous studies in educational psychology research that explored what makes some students resilient and able to overcome challenges or even to flourish during difficult situations (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007; Diener & Dweck , 1980; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Robins & Pals, 2002; Yeager & Dweck, 2012), this study found that L2 resilience associated strongly with both growth language learning mindset and personality hardiness. The data revealed that the language learning mindsets can explain the variation in the language learners' resilience and vulnerability.

The reported stories revealed several types of language learners: motivated learners, demotivated learners, remotivated learners, resilient learners, learner who are vulnerable to develop learned helplessness, and learners who has developed learned helplessness. Language learning mindset seems to be the major factor that significantly distinguished these types of learners from each others and influenced their coping mechanisms or their responses to demotivators. In addition to language learning mindset, however, other factors influenced the diverse responses produced by the participants in the current study such as the ideal L2 self, personality hardiness and their perception of the teacher's role.

It is worth mentioning here that the data showed that, after experiencing failures, learners who demonstrated having a growth language learning mindset shared one particular characteristic; they all applied effective adaptive strategies to overcome the learning setbacks and remain motivated such as (autonomous learning, increasing effort, or seeking for help or guidance). In contrast, fixed mindset language learners applied ineffective or destructive strategies that lead to L2 demotivation or facilitated overcoming the negative emotional impact of demotivation but did not change their learning trajectories or facilitate recovery such as (denial or cheating). The strategies of denial and avoidance, by ignoring stressful situations, and distracting the self with ineffective strategies and useless activities were reported by Maddi (2013).

This finding supports Falout's (2012) assertion that language learners develop a number of coping strategies to cope with L2 demotivation and that hese strategies may be adaptive or maladaptive coping processes that are influenced by the learners' beliefs about themselves and their experiences. The maladaptive strategies were also similar to the strategies reported by Arai (2004) who showed that the less successful learners were sleeping in class, dropping out of class, ignoring the teacher, and discontinuing study.

Three content-driven subthemes were grouped under the broader conceptual theme of coping mechanisms: personality hardiness, L2 resilience, vulnerability to develop learned helplessness. I explain below how each subtheme emerged and present a number of examples that clarify each one.

L2 Resilience

Consistent with the results of the studies conducted by psychology researchers to explore what makes some students resilient and able to overcome challenges or even to flourish during difficult situations (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007; Diener & Dweck , 1980; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Robins & Pals, 2002; Yeager & Dweck, 2012), this study found that the language learning mindsets can explain the variation in the language learners' resilience and vulnerability.

It was evident in the current study that some learners showed different levels and types of L2 resilience in the face of the negative impact of demotivating experiences. Symptoms of L2 resilience included: controlling and regulating emotions; understanding that obstacles are natural part of learning English; remaining positive despite the existence of failures and setbacks; positive adaptation to negative changes; and perceived controllability. The data demonstrated that growth mindset language

learners were more resilient in the face of failures and learning setbacks. They did not feel threatened by others' successful language learning experiences because they believed that they can increase their ability through effort. They perceived their mistakes and failures as being the best source for growth, learning and wisdom. Thus, they remained motivated and even enjoyed challenging tasks more than easy ones. When they experienced failures, they learned from their mistakes, challenged themselves, and increased their effort in order to improve their experience. Even when these learners experienced demotivation, they were able to recover and rebuilt their motivation shortly and carried on their language learning successfully. These learners were not excellent language learners who perceives English learning as an easy task or an enjoyable journey. Rather, they were fully aware of the difficulties they had to face and knew how to interact with them in a positive way. For example:

> *There ARE language learning obstacles and setbacks of course, but they do not obstruct me from achieving my goals. In order to protect myself from the negative influences of failure experiences, I keep thinking positively and use different strategies to do better in the future tasks, reduce the stress. I learn from my mistakes and look at my bad experience from the positive angel (ID108).*

This learner who made many growth mindset statements expressed her awareness and acknowledged the existence of learning setback and difficulties. However, she explicitly stated that these setbacks did not demotivate her. Then, she expressed her resilience by explaining how she adopted different strategies to protect herself, recover after failure and to maintain her positive attitude. When she said "I learn from my mistakes and look from the positive angel, she indicated how her resilience assisted her in striving to master challenges and perceiving mistakes as a source for learning and growth.

Developing L2 resilience by language learners affected the language learning experiences differently. It was found that language learners who developed L2 resilience applied different adaptive and maladaptive strategies when they experienced failures and difficulties. Adaptive strategies included applying effective learning strategies, seeking for social and academic help, and learning from their mistakes. In contrast, maladaptive strategies included denial, cheating, and remaining positive without changing learning strategies. Both types of strategies helped the language learners to maintain their broad motivation, or to survive the negative impact of failures and to flourish despite of the existence of demotivating factors. However, applying

adaptive strategies helped them to pursue a successful language learning experience, while applying the maladaptive strategies only protected the learners from the negative emotional impact of failures.

Interestingly, some interviewees showed a different type of psychological resilience. These learners were influenced by demotivators in a different way. They could successfully avoid or overcome the negative impact of failures or demotivators on their emotional status but not on their L2 motivation. They developed this type of psychological resilience through adopting maladaptive strategies such as denial and self-isolation after experiencing failures. For example, they avoided talking about their English progress, stopped worrying about the English test, or avoided speaking with proficient speakers of English. Interestingly, these learners became demotivated but did not completely lose interest in the English classroom or develop a universal dislike toward learning English. They did not dedicate time and effort to change their learning trajectory or improve the outcome.Therefore, the strategies they applied helped them to overcome the stress that they experienced and to control their negative emotions about failure, but did not terminate or change their negative learning trajectory. Although these strategies could be helpful initially as a survival technique, denial of the reality of the situation causing stress made it difficult for these learners to make a decision to change their situation. I classify these learners as resilient because they are different from learners who gradually lost interest in learning English or developed learned helplessness in that they did not develop negative attitude toward learning English. For example:

> I used to say (I'll be fine). Although I felt that I would never succeed in learning English, I never hated English. I kept doing what I had to do and taught myself to always be positive even after I failed most of the tests. I kept telling myself that English is the only school subject that I was not good at. I also always told myself that failing English courses did not mean that I am a looser because I was good at other subjects. I did not worry a lot about changing my experience but never felt bad about myself and never lost faith in myself (ID107).

The above example reveals how a language learner can be in a state of denial and develops psychological resilience in the face of the negative impact of failures. Resilience helped this learner to regulate her emotions and cope with the the demotivating experience. However, it was not an adaptive coping strategy because it did not motivate her to change her learning strategies or seek for academic help to change

143

her situation. Teaching this learner to adopt more effective and adaptive strategies can practically increase her motivation to change her negative learning trajectory rather than emotionally coping with it.

A remarkable difference that distinguished resilient from vulnerable language learners was their language learning mindset and their perceptions of "mistakes". According to Dweck's model (1999, 2006), growth mindset learners embrace difficulties and perceive them as being challenging rather than threatening because they believe that mistakes and failure experiences are the best source for learning, development, and growth. Similarly, making a mistake in the English classroom or when communicating in English was perceived differently by the two groups. Growth mindset language learners embraced challenges and perceived mistakes as a source of learning and growth, while fixed mindset language learners felt threatened and perceive mistakes as an indicator of lacking ability or intelligence. When I looked further into how resilience was developed and why mistakes were differently perceived by the learners, I found that it was not only the language learning mindset that explained the diverse vulnerable and resilient responses produced by the participants. Rather, there were many other factors that helped these learners to think positively, be resilient and remain motivated. One of the factors was the personality hardiness, which emerged as an important subtheme in the data and will be discussed in the following section.

Personality hardiness

The data revealed that one of the factors that helped some participants to be resilient in the face of demotivators and difficulties is having a hardy personality. Some interviewees made statements that reflect their resilience in the face of learning challenges and setbacks inside the English classroom. Similar to growth mindset language learners, these learners remained committed and motivated, embraced difficulties and perceived them as being challenging rather than threatening. They believed that mistakes and failure experiences are the best source for learning, development, growth as it helped them to improve and learn new information. Examples of these statements included:

> *When learning English, I wish if I make a mistake every day, so I learn something new every day (ID105)*

A humiliating teacher or classmates who laugh at my mistakes will never stop me from achieving my goals. I am determined to achieve my goal and make my learning experience a good one although the environment is not helpful (ID110)

My motivation and my concentration increase when the grammar lesson becomes more complicated or the vocabulary gets more difficult, but I feel bored when the teachers repeats information that I already know (ID100)

In line with previous psychology research that designated personality hardiness as the basis for psychological resilience (e.g. Bartone, 2006; Bonanno 2004; Maddi, 2005; Maddi, 2013; Waysman, Schwarzwald & Solomon, 2001), many participants attributed their L2 resilience to their general personality hardiness. When the participants were asked about what helped them to be resilient, high hardy participants reported sharing their negative feelings and seeking for help. They also reported having strong social connections and support (friends or family members). Thus, they knew when to ask for help from specialists, family members, internet sources, books or more advanced learners. This supports the research into hardiness that showed that personality hardiness assiociates with adaptive coping strategies (Cash & Gardner, 2011; Maddi, 2013). As a result of their adaptive strategies, high hardy people exhibit increased frustration tolerance in tasks that require concentration and persistence (Vogt, Rizvi, Shipherd, & Resick, 2008; Wiebe, 1991). On the other hand, low personality hardiness associated with applying maladaptive coping strategies such as denial and avoidance, by ignoring stressful situations, and distracting the self with ineffective strategies and useless activities (Maddi, 2013).

These learners shared demonstrating the three components of a hardy personality: (a) they believed in their ability to change their negative experiences into positive ones (control); (b) they confirmed that they perceived life difficulties and setbacks as being challenging rather than threatening (challenge); and (c) they remained devoted to achieving their goals even in the existence of adversities (commitment). Consider the following examples:

Control: I have a hardy personality. I do not allow anybody to enter my circular protective wall that I build around myself. I always manage making my own experience a good one even it seemed a bad one for every one (ID110).

Challenge: I enjoy challenging experiences more than the easy ones. I feel happier when things get more challenging (ID100).

Commitment: Generally, I am a flexible person... I easily cope with stressful events and remain dedicated to learn from them (ID105)

Social support: My mother's support helped me to survive and overcome the negative impact of any difficult experiences (ID103)

It can be seen from the above examples that the symptoms of the personality hardiness are all present: commitment, control, and challenge. These learners associated their resilience in the face of L2 demotivation with their general personality hardiness. It is worth noting that personality hardiness as a characteristic was not simply given by the participants as a key source of their resilience in every case of the data. Some resilient language learners tended to speak about their general personality characteristic when they feel that I admire their resilience in the face of English learning setbacks. This indicated to me that the participants retrieved these personal characteristics and utilised them whenever they faced a challenging or difficult learning situation.

After the emergence of the personality hardiness as a sub-theme in the first set of interviews, I asked all the participants to speak about their general personality characteristics in the second sets of interviews. Because hardy individuals and growth mindset language learners in the current study shared many positive characteristics and responses to failures, I aimed at examining if there is a relationship between the language learning mindset and personality hardiness. The data did not identify a strong connection between both variables. Some fixed mindset language learners were hardy individuals in their everyday life, while other fixed mindset leaners were lower in hardiness. Also, not all growth mindset learners were hardy individuals. This suggests that these are two independent variables that might influence the learners' motivation and resilience independently. This finding will be further investigated in the quantitative study.

Learned helplessness

While Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) confirmed that demotivation does not mean a complete loss of motivation and that recovery from demotivation could occur if the demotivators cease to exist, Nakata (2006) warns that demotivated language learners might gradually develop learned helplessness. It was evident that some fixed mindset language learners who remained in the hold of demotivation for extended periods and experienced repeated failures, were more vulnerable to developing learned helplessness, or developed learned helplessness. Having a fixed mindset about their ability was found

to be the main factor that increased their vulnerability to developing learned helplessness. This finding is consistent with the educational psychology research findings that demonstrated that the students' mindsets and their beliefs of malleability of their personal characteristics has a significant impact on their level of resilience in the face of failures (Nussbaum & Dweck, 2008, Yeager, & Dweck, 2012).

Even when demtoviated learners experienced success and their L2 motivation temporarily increased, they failed again and lost interest again because they noticed a gap between their effort and the outcome. The influence of repeated failures and the feeling of the gap between the effort and the outcome on L2 motivation varied among growth mindset and fixed mindset language learners. Only fixed mindset language learners perceived failure as unavoidable and perceived their experience as uncontrollable. They could not see the point of attending classes and trying harder. Within their fixed language learning mindset, the learners' maladaptive beliefs were the main reason they devalued the role of hard work and developed learned helplessness (i.e. stopped putting forth any effort to change the negative trajectory of their learning).

As I mentioned earlier, fixed mindset language learners devalued effort and hard work and thus remained in the hold of demotivation for extended periods. The data showed that, in some cases, fixed mindset language learners were vulnerable to developing learned helplessness, or even developed learned helplessness. Symptoms of developing learned helplessness included: developing a universal sense of dislike toward any English task, escaping English classes, perceived lack of control and believing that failure is inevitable, ignoring easy English homework, ignoring the teacher if attendance is compulsory, giving up easy English tasks, avoidance of participating in the English class or putting forth any effort, and refusing to study before the English test. Consider the following example:

> *I hated the English language when I found that I lack the ability to learn something new. I felt that failure was unavoidable and that I was wasting my time trying to change my situation. I stopped attending the English classes because I felt helpless. I could not see the point of attending the English class if I could not understand anything (ID109)*

This fixed mindset language learner, who believed that she "lacks the ability", developed learned helplessness and perceived her experience as uncontrollable. She clearly expressed her devaluation of effort and denied its positive outcome when she described it as a "waste of time", and thereby stopped putting forth any effort to change

the negative trajectory of her learning. Eventually, she developed a universal dislike "hate" toward the language itself and could not see the point of attending classes and trying harder. Within her fixed language learning mindset, she devalued hard work, became demotivated, and eventually developed learned helplessness.

In the subsequent quote, another learner who made many fixed mindset statements explained that she disliked English and completely lost interest to learn it, reemphasising her belief that she lacked the ability to learn it. After repeated failures and noticing the gap between her effort "tried everything" and the outcome "failed most of the tests", this learner developed learned helplessness and attributed her learned helplessness to lacking the natural ability. Symptoms of developing learned helplessness included: perceived uncontrollability "nothing could change my situation"; universial dislike toeard English "hated english" and denial "neglectful/stopped feeling anxious".

> *I became neglectful and did not touch the book if I have an English test. Nothing could change my situation. I felt helpless because I tried everything to pass the English test but failed most of the tests. I stopped feeling anxious or worried before the English test. I even hated English more when I saw my classmates passing the tests and realised that it was not about English. it was all about me (ID107)*

The last following example reveals different symptoms of developing learned helplessness. This participant made many fixed mindset statements during the interview and showed how demotivated language learners who held a fixed language learning mindset could gradually shape solid negative beliefs and develop learned helplessness:

> *I remember few times that I studied hard and passed the English test. Passing these tests motivated me for a short time until I failed again. When I found that English we learn at school did not help us to communicate in real life situations and that I could not even make a short conversation, I completely hated it. Gradually, English class became like a 45-minute break where I ate, drank and secretly chatted with my friends. I even escaped the English class whenever I could (ID105).*

This learner explained how her L2 motivation increased for short periods after she experienced success and observed her own growth and progress. However, repeated failures and noticing the gap between her effort and the outcome demotivated her again. eventually, her continuous disappointment about the outcome contributed to developing learned helplessness and the end of putting forth any effort. Her behaviour and attitude that developed gradually in the English classroom indicated to me that she developed something worse than merely loss of motivation. Her description of the English classroom revealed many symptoms of developing learned helplessness: ignorance "ate,

drank, and chatted", giving up "escaped the English class", and universal dislike "completely hated it".

Several interviewees in the data attributed their helplessness to feeling disappointed about the oral proficiency level achieved as a result of attending instructional English classes. However, failure in achieving fluency (low proficiency level) was not the factor that lead to developing learned helplessness. Rather, it was the way they perceived these failures and the way they felt about it (their disappointment or their satisfaction). Fixed mindset language learners behaved helplessly becuase they perceived their low proficiency level as being an uncontrollable failure. In contrast, growth mindset language learners behaved resiliently because they perceive it as a controllable failure. Consider the following example:

> *When I was a child, my dream was to speak English fluently as well as my father did. However, after trying hard and failing to make a conversation several times in different situations, I started to feel disappointed about the outcome of learning English at school. I gradually felt helpless and felt that I will never be able to achieve my goals. The situation now is worse than before. I hate being in an English class or listening to someone speaking English and try to escape the English class whenever I can. Even when my father told me that there was a good private English institution that he is willing to afford if I would like to enrol in an intensive English course, I refused because I felt that I would definitely fail to improve my English and waste his money (ID109)*

Symptoms of developing learned helplessness are all present: developing a universal dislike toward English language "hate listening to someone speaking English"; behaving helplessly "escape the English class whenever I can"; and perceived lack of control "felt that I will never be able to achieve my goals/ I would definitely fail" after repeated failure "several times in different situations". Her perceived lack of control was generalised to other learning situations where learning and growth are anticipated and trying hard would be beneficial. This generalisation of negative feelings was demonstrated by her refusal to the idea of enrolling an intensive English course in a good English institution.

6.2.5 Attitudinal dispositions

The interviews revealed that the participants developed various negative attitudes toward learning English that contributed to L2 demotivation. These attitudes were related to family, cultural, or religious background. It was also found that these negative attitudinal dispositions changed over time for several reasons and thereby

facilitated recovery from L2 demotivation. The participants talked about different cultural and religious factors that had shaped their attitudes towards learning English and how these factors influenced their motivation. They explained how these attitudes demotivated them and how changing these attitudes significantly remotivated them. In this section I will describe each attitudinal disposition and present some examples to clarify each subtheme.

Cultural attitude

Cultural attitude refers to the attitude towards other cultures and the individuals of these cultures. The majority of the participants have never travelled abroad but developed these attitudes based on the knowledge they received from media and internet. Many respondents discussed their beliefs about the negative influences of western culture on the traditional Saudi culture. For these learners, media reveals all the western cultural traditions and values that are unacceptable in a conservative and traditional society such as Saudi Arabia. For instance, it shows how premarital sexual relationships, gambling, and drinking are normally accepted behaviours in the western cultures. All the participants discussed their dislike toward the western culture's traditions and its potential negative influences but their attitude toward learning English was not affected by this cultural attitude similarly.

In the current study, few interviewees developed negative attitude toward English learning and perceived it as being a source of westernisation that threatens the identity of Saudi individuals. On the other hand, other learners expressed their curiosity and desire to know more about western cultures and wanted to improve their proficiency in order to communicate with people from other western cultures. They did not perceive English as a language of a particular community. Rather, they perceived the world as being a small village and English as being an international language that facilitates communication with people from different communities worldwide. This finding supports the voices that refute the linguistic imperialism view and confirms the assertion that although Saudi learners are exposed to the English language's western values and ideologies that might contradict their own, it can be seen as a positive opportunity for Saudi learners to accept differences between the two cultures (e.g. Hare, 1996). It is similar to Youssef and Simpkins' study (1985) results that showed that Arabs, who lived in a U.S.dominated culture for a long time and were under daily

exposure of the Western ideology, held a positive view of their ethnicity and remained proud of their own identity. Consider the following example:

> *I do not like the western culture and the western lifestyle. However, I would like to learn English in order to know more about other cultures, communicate with people from other cultures, and be able to learn the useful things from them (ID100)*

Similar to the finding that Saudi students feel that learning English and the Western culture is needed although they do not agree with the Western ideology (Elyas, 2008), this learner expressed her dislike toward western cultures, butrevealed her desire to learn English and communicate with western people and people from different cultures. Her negative attitude toward western cultures did not demotivate her or influence her feelings toward learning English. She was even curious to know more about them and believed that learning English would facilitate this process. This finding supports Azuri (2006) discussion about exposing Saudi young generation to the idea of acceptance and tolerance of others (USA and theWest) and introducing the concept of living in harmony with the 'others' or the 'West'.

In contrast, the following participant revealed how negative attitude towards western cultures can affect the attitude toward learning English negatively, obstruct successful language learning and demotivate language learners:

> *I do not only hate the English classroom. I feel annoyed when I hear a Saudi individual speaks Arabic but integrates some English words in their sentences. I know that these people try to show off thinking that they are cool. We should be proud of our culture and language. Western cultures are not better than us. we have great values, history and traditions that we should be proud of. We should not be proud of learning their language. I believe that western people should be proud of learning or speaking our language (ID101).*

This participant expressed many negative feelings toward learning English during the interview. She was very proud of her own Saudi culture, its values, its traditions, its history and its language. Therefore, she believed that other cultures are not superior to her own culture. She was irritated by people who switch between their language and other languages because she felt that they were not proud of their own language and their own culture. She even believed that western people should be proud if they learn Arabic because, for her, this represents and demonstrates the superiority of her own culture.

Based on similar examples in the data, it can be suggested that the language learners' negative cultural attitudes affect them differently and trigger different positive and negative attitudes toward learning the language of a particular culture. It generates negative attitude that obstructs successful language learning and causes L2 demtovation in some cases, but triggers curiosity and some other positive feelings that can positively influence L2 motivation. These findings confirm Elyas (2008) argument that English as a language will stay, while people are reshaping, remoulding, and adjusting it to suit their cultural and social norms. They also support Kabel's (2007) argument that language learners have a mind of their own and can carry their own hidden plan in learning a language.

Religious attitude

In a religious society, such as Saudi Arabia, I expected to find learners who would be motivated to learn English in order to propagate their religion, Islam. However, Saudi learners' religious attitude had the minimum effect on their L2 motivation in the current study. Only two learners expressed their negative attitude towards all foreign languages because they are proud of their language (i.e. Arabic) and described it as "the language of Quran" referring to the holy book for Muslims. This negative attitude toward foreign languages gave sense of relief to these learners when they experienced failures. It seemed that their feelings toward their Arabic language and their Muslim Arabic identity has been used sometimes as an excuse when they encountered difficulties and challenges in order convince themselves that failure to learn English did not generate any feelings of shame. For example:

> *I have always thought of English as being a non-Muslim language. I have never worried about learning this language and never experienced negative feelings when I could not learn it. I believe that it should be optional to study other languages. As a Muslim society, we should be proud of "the Quran language" and never worry about learning other languages (ID107)*

This learner explained how her belief that English is a non-Muslim language affected her motivation to learn it. She minimised its importance and the consequences of failing to learn it. Linking her respect to her Muslim identity with her respect to Arabic language, she did not worry about learning any language except Arabic.

Family background

In line with previous research that found that family background play a vital role in the Saudi student's English learning journey (Khan, 2012; Shah, Hussain, & Nassef,

2013), family background, particularly educational background played a significant role in the participants' language learning experiences. Most of the successful language learners, in the data, reported that their parent's English proficiency and creating an environment where they can be exposed to English vocabulary and books had a significant motivational power on their English learning experience. In addition, the amount of exposure to English language at home and the parental use of English in everyday life were also found to have a significant positive impact on the participants' attitude toward learning English. In contrast, some participants who reported having unsuccessful language learning experience or experiencing L2 demotivation attributed their negative attitude towards learning English to lack of family support and guidance.

However, Similar to all other factors, however, family background and lack of family support did not affect the learners' motivation in the same way. In the data, it was evident that the parents' behaviours and beliefs about English learning influenced their children's attitude towards English language learning diversely. For instance, some interviewees reported that growing up with uneducated parents demotivated them and attributed their L2 demotivation to lack of parental involvement and support in learning English, while other learners attributed their increased L2 motivation to the same factor as they wanted to improve their parents' situation, believing that learning English is associated with social and economic power. They believed that learning English will help them to get better jobs and improve their parents' socio-economic status. Consider the following example:

> My parents are not well educated. They believed that a good woman should be a good wife and mother. I always had a goal to prove to them that I can change their life by being well-educated. I did not want to re-live their life. I wanted to show them that education is the key to live a better life….English is more than a school subject and learning English affects many aspects of our social life. It can influence our educational attainment and career choices. Thus, I study it really hard and aim at achieving fluency (ID100)

This participant who had uneducated parents was not negatively influenced by her parents' beliefs and opinions. Although she reported that they had the old-fashioned traditional mindset that did not care about women's education, she worked hard to flourish and prove to them that she can change their life if she became well-educated. Then, she explained why she studied English hard by associating successful learning English with success in education and workplace.

One of the recurrent findings that were related to family background was the effect of the parent's beliefs about the participants' abilities on the L2 motivation. The data revealed that parents' beliefs and the relevant behaviours have influenced the participants' own perception of their own abilities. Interestingly, many interviewees who held a particular language learning mindset reported that their parents contributed to the formation of this mindset and thereby affected their attitude towards English learning and motivation. This findings supports the assertion that some parents can promote a particular mindset unintentionally (e.g. Dweck, 2008; Rattan, Good & Dweck, 2012). Consider the following example:

> *When I asked my parents to find a private English tutor for me in order to help me to improve my English before the English test, they told me that I might not be a "language person". They told me that my older sister and my brother did not have any problems with learning English and that my sister was learning in the same school and was being taught by the same teacher. They convinced me that I lacked the talent to learn English and that there was nothing I could do about it. So, I believed that I lacked a natural ability that my siblings had and stopped trying hard (ID101)*

The above fixed mindset learner revealed how the parents used a strategy that they thought would give some comfort to this participant telling her that she might have lacked the natural language learning ability. This maladaptive strategy has affected the learner's attitude toward learning English negatively and contributed to the formation of her fixed language learning mindset. As a result, she devalued effort and its positive outcome and thereby accepted her weakness and stopped putting forth the required effort to change her negative learning tejectory. In this case, another reasonable explanation of the parents' behaviour would be that they hold a fixed language learning mindset themselves. Within their fixed mindset, they did not motivate their daughter to work harder or utilise different learning sources. Rather, they attributed their other children's successful language learning to having natural ability to learn a second language and attributed this participant's failure to her lack of that ability. Therefore, they applied a destructive strategy that might have formed their daughter's language learning mindset and demotivated her.

The following example also shows how family religious background can influence their children's' attitude toward learning English:

> *When I was a child, my parents always said that this is non-Muslim language, why are we learning it? It is wasting of time to learn a language that would not benefit us or*

increase our religious knowledge. They never said anything positive about learning English that would motivate me (ID107).

This example shows how a religious family who had extreme views and labelled foreign languages as non-Muslim languages can affect their children attitude negatively and thus demotivate them. However, not all the participants who grew up in a religious family were influenced by their parents' attitude. Some interviewees discussed their parents' beliefs and perceived them as being old-fashioned or traditional beliefs of older generations that did not affect their attitude or motivation negatively.

6.2.6 Emotions

Although emotions have been seen by major SLA scholars as being fundamentally important motivators (e.g. Dornyei & Ushioda, 2009; MacIntyre, MacKinnon & Clement, 2009; Ushioda & Chen, 2011), affect and emotion has received relatively little attention in the second language acquisition literature. Dornyei and Ryan (2015) asserts that "past research on learner characterestics has suffered from a general emotional deficit" (p.10). The data revealed that emotions played various roles in the participants' language learning experiences, motivation, demotivation, and remotivation. Interestingly, emotions had dual effect on L2 motivation. For instance, some interviewees reported losing interest in English learning because they felt jealous observing other successful language learners, while others reported recovery from L2 demotivation as result of experiencing the same feeling (i.e. jealousy). It was evident that similar emotions could have a motivational, demotivational, or remotivational power in the data. In this section, I will present the most important three emotional factors that were discussed by the participants and present examples that demonstrates the impact of these emotions on language learning motivation.

Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

In the resilience research literature, several protective factors were found to enable individuals to be resilient and to better adapt to stresses including hardiness (Bonanno, 2004). Personality hardiness was regarded as the facilitator or the pathway to resilience under stress by many researches (e.g. Bartone, 2006; Bonanno 2004; Maddi, 2005; Maddi, 2013; Waysman, Schwarzwald & Solomon, 2001). The data, in the current study, showed how the language learners responded differently to demotivating factors. While resilient learners applied various adaptive and maladaptive strategies to

overcome the stress that they experienced or to control their negative emotions about failure, other learners gradually lost interest in learning English or developed learned helplessness.

Some language learners in the current study gave different explanations of the stressors and thereby responded differently to them. Stress has been defined, in the psychology literature, as the perception that the demands of an external situation are beyond one's perceived ability to cope (Lazarus, 1966). It is experienced in response to a range of physical, occupational and emotional stimuli that go beyond normal limits and become stressors (King, Stanley, & Burrows, 1987). Continued exposure to stress can lead to physical and mental symptoms such as anxiety and depression.

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) conceptualised a situation-specific anxiety construct that they called foreign language anxiety (FLA) and used the 33-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) as an instrument to measure anxiety levels aiming to assess communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation associated with language anxiety. They defined it as "a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process" (p. 128). Horwitz (2010) confirms that FLA is related to communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. Moreover, MacIntyre (1999) defined it as the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language. Their theoretical model of FLA (Horwitz et al., 1986) has played a vital role in language anxiety research and has been widely accepted with subsequent research acknowledging foreign language anxiety as being separable from general anxiety (e.g. Chen & Chang, 2004; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). To explain the inconsistent results in anxiety reseach, Scovel (1991) discussed the distinction between facilitating and debilitating anxiety. He also noted a distinction between trait and state conceptualisations of anxiety that differentiated the tendency to experience anxiety (trait) from the experience of feeling anxiety (state).

Although Horwitz et al. and other consistent research have discussed the negative effects of FLA on language learning as a cause (e.g., Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2001; Coryell & Clark, 2009; Djigunovic, 2006; Horwitz, 1991; Liu, 2006; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1988; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Tallon, 2009), some researchers considered it a consequence rather than a cause or as having little effect on foreign

language achievement (e.g. Argaman & Abu-Rabia, 2002; Sparks & Ganschow 2007; Spieldmann & Radnofsky, 2001).

The data showed that the stress of the compulsory nature of learning English in Saudi Arabia has normally caused different levels of anxiety among language learners. This anxiety has been found to have dual effect on these learners' motivation. In some cases in the current study, anxiety has occasionally been found to facilitate language learning or to have a motivational, demotivational or remotivational capacity. Most of the learners in the current study reported that they would not study English hard if there was no pressure from English examinations (i.e. test anxiety). This finding clarifies the distinction between the two types of anxiety: debilitating anxiety (i.e. motivates the learner to escape and avoid the new learning task) and facilitating anxiety (i.e. motivates the learner to fight and approach the new learning task) (Scovel 1991). They even confirmed that they needed stressors in order to make an effort to learn English. More than 8 participants associated their increased effort in the university with the stressors exercised by the teachers and the university policies. Therefore, it seems that language learners do not always perceive anxiety as a negative factor. Instead, they need it sometimes in order to remain motivated to learn a foreign language and study harder. The following example demonstrated the remotivational power of anxiety in language learning.

> *I used to avoid thinking about learning English and never thought of changing my situation. However, being forced to study it intensively in the university and knowing that I will not pass my foundation year without passing the English courses has had a positive influence on my motivation. It forced me to study hard and worry about my grades. I had to enjoy learning English in order to succeed. My feelings toward English classes have gradually improved (ID100)*

The above participant expressed how her anxiety that resulted from the compulsory nature of learning English remotivated her and gradually affected her attitude towards learning English positively. She noted that obligation to learn English and linking success in achieving her academic goals to success in learning English increased her commitment to learn English and facilitated her recovery from demotivation. However, the following participant revealed how experiencing anxiety could demotivate some language learners:

> *I remember that strict teachers who forced us to study English regularly by giving us frequent stressful pop quizzes and asking many questions to test our progress have*

always scared me and decreased my motivation. I always felt hesitated to participate during their lessons and avoided embarrassment. All my negative feelings towards English language resulted from having these strict teachers (ID111)

This learner explained how her negative attitude toward learning English was gradually built as a result of experiencing anxiety. She described the teachers who put more pressure on the learners in a strict learning environment. Then, she explained that this strategy made her careless and caused her loss of interest in learning English. She confirmed that this type of anxiety decreased her motivation; increased her hesitation to participate in the English class; and generated her negative feelings toward learning English. This dual influence of stress on the language learner's motivation indicated to me that we cannot simply assume that anxiety is a negative or a positive emotional factor that can motivate or demotivate language learners. Each language learner is different and each individual is unique when the emotional factors' impact on L2 motivation is discussed.

These results took me back to the role of language learning mindset. As I mentioned earlier, contrary to fixed mindset learners, growth mindset learners embrace and enjoy challenges. Stress is a normal part of encountering challenges and growth mindset learners might feel stressful when encountering difficulties but remain committed, and resilient, while fixed mindset learners avoid challenges and embarrassment in the classroom in order to look confident and protect their face if the task is difficult. The two examples above gave more evidence that stressful and challenging experiences do not affect the participants' motivation similarly. It is not the pressure or the stress it triggers that influence the language learner's motivation. Rather, it is the way the learner perceives stressful situations and the way she regulates stress (i.e. her mindset). The findings also supports the arguement that some level of FLA may not be as negative and debilitative as traditionally believed and may contribute to keeping learners' motivation high (Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009). Their study showed that American advanced learners of Spanish reported higher levels of FLA than beginning and intermediate learners. but did not necessarily obtain lower course marks.

It was also evident in the data that other types of anxiety related to fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986) can be demotivating. This type of anxiety was linked to the idea of face in learning a second language. All the participants who experienced fear of negative evaluation discussed their concerns about losing face.

When learners felt that their face is threatened due to teacher's humiliation or peer pressure, they tried to avoid losing face and changed their behaviour even if it is a positive one. This debilitating anxiety prevented some English learners from being positively involved in the task and lead to hesitation in seeking for help or participating in the class. Feeling shy and being anxious about the negative outcome and the bad judgment of others hindered their openness and involvement in the learning experience. It seemed that the courage to use English depends on attaining a certain level of proficiency and it is in some way unsuitable and embarrassing for those who have not yet achieved this level of proficiency to use English.

Many participants, even growth mindset learners, thought that in order to use English, an individual needs to reach exceptional competence to avoid public loss of face. They felt anxious only when they had to use English in front of a competent speaker of English. They felt that proficient English speakers would judge them and undermine them. The following growth mindset learner attributed her lack of active involvement in the class to her feelings of shyness and anxiety. Then, she reemphasised her concerns about being judged and undermined:

> I still feel shy when I speak English because I am not a proficient speaker yet. I avoid participating in the class if the teacher does not ask me and force me to speak. If I make mistakes in front of proficient speakers of English, they might laugh at me or embarrass me by correcting my mistakes or criticising me or even by not understanding me (ID108)

Another learner below revealed the negative impact of FLA on L2 motivation. She explained how negative comments made by classmates embarrassed her and demotivated her. She associated her loss of interest to her feeling of anxiety. She explained how some embarrassing behaviours and comments of other classmaes affected her motivation negatively:

> I hated the English lesson and felt shy because when I participated or asked too many questions, my classmates always laughed and made fun of me. This was really embarrassing. So, I stopped participating and pretended that I understood even if I did not (ID111).

Jealousy

The data showed that when language learners observe other learners who excel in a particular task, they feel jealous. However, similar to other emotional factors, feelings of jealousy affected the participants differently. The data revealed that jealousy

could demotivate or remotivate language learners. Consider the following example that demonstrated how jealousy can have a significant remotivational power:

> *I never took English seriously until I felt jealous when my brother spoke English fluently and my father praised him. My father kept comparing between us. Jealousy played an important role in my experience. I wanted to be like my brother or even better than him (ID100).*

This previously-demotivated learner expressed how her jealousy of her brother who excelled in learning English and was praised by their father, had a positive remotivational power on her language learning experience. She also made it very clear that jealousy has played a significant role in her overall experience. She talked about jealousy more than once and discussed how it affected her motivation positively. When I asked her if the reason was to satisfy her father and attract his attention, she declined this explanation and made it very clear that it was to satisfy herself and because she liked to be always in the first rank and confirmed that she did not worry about external appreciation as much as she aimed at increasing her self-satisfaction. Her desire to excel in general and feelings of jealousy functioned together and facilitated remotivation, helping her to bounce back and start thinking of a practical solution to improve her English (she started learning English in the Canadian institution and enjoyed that experience).

The following example revealed a different negative influence of jealousy feelings on L2 motivation:

> *I was so confident and excited about learning English. Everything changed after my cousins came from the US to visit us and spoke English all the time while I couldn't understand them. I felt jealous when I saw my parents and everyone praising their fluency. I lost interest and lost self-confidence. I did not enjoy English classes since I met them. I wanted to be as fluent as they were but knew that instructional English classes would not help me to achieve that goal (ID104)*

The example above showed how encountering fluent speakers of English and feeling jealous of their proficiency might demotivate some language learners. This participant described her language learning experience and how motivated and confident she was before encountering more proficient speakers of English and after encountering them. She attributed her loss of interest and self-confidence in the English classroom to her feelings of jealousy from these proficient speakers.

These results confirmed and reemphasised the important role that the language learning mindset play in L2 motivation. Observing successful language learners can cause jealousy but the language learning mindset and the way others' success is explained affect the learners' feelings and the way they regulate them. Growth mindset language learners might feel jealous of successful language learners but their jealousy motivate them to increase their effort and achieve similar success. On the other hand, fixed mindset language learners feel jealous and suspect their abilities and lose interest in challenging experiencing.

6.3 Summary

Chapter 6 presented and discussed the results of the first primary exploratory qualitative study which aimed at investigating how Saudi learners of English perceive demotivating factors and how they interact with, affected by, and respond to them differently. Results showed that different psychological concepts stood out as key to the variations in L2 demotivation and L2 resilience among Saudi language learners. Findings of the qualitative phase of the current study can be summarised in the following points:

6.3.1 Findings related to L2 demotivation

1- L2 demotivation happens when internal or external factors break some of the constituents of a learner's vision, but the detrimental influences did not demotivate language learners similarly even in seemingly identical situations;

2- Saudi learners of English perceived the motivational and demotivational power of various factors differently;

3- Creating a positive ideal L2 self had a motivational and remotivational power, while lacking the ability to create it had a demotivational power;

4- English teachers affected the language learners' motivation differently according to the way the teacher's role is perceived by the learner and their language learning mindset;

5- Disappointment with the oral proficiency achieved as a result of learning English at school can demotivate language learners. However, the learners' level of disappointment about the oral proficiency level was influenced by their language learning mindset;

6- Attitudes toward learning English were affected by the language learners' cultural attitudes, religious attitude and family background differently;

7- Attributions of past failures to several factors affected language learners differently according to the way they perceived these attributions;

8- Emotions influenced the learners' motivation differently. Potentially negative and positive emotions affected L2 motivation diversely, by either motivating or demotivating language learners.

6.3.2 Findings related to L2 resilience, L2 remotivation, and L2 vulnerability

1- Personality hardiness and growth language learning mindset facilitated language learners' resilience in the face of demotivating factors;

2- Growth language learning mindset facilitated recovery from L2 demotivation (i.e. L2 remotivation);

3- Fixed language learning mindset obstructed recovery from L2 demotivation and contributes.

4- Fixed language learning mindset associated with the vulnerability to developing learned helplessness.

6.3.3 Findings related to the language learning mindset

1- The diverse ways by which Saudi English learners perceive different internal and external factors is to a large extent the function of the language learning mindset held by the learner;

2- The fixed language learning mindset had a demotivational power, while the growth language learning mindset had a motivational and remotivational power;

3- The language learning mindset seemed to influence the construction of a particular ideal L2 self;

4- The motivational and remotivational power of ideal L2 self might be obstructed by the demotivational power of the fixed language learning mindset;

5- Personality hardiness seemed to be an independent variable that does not associate with the language learning mindset. Neither all growth mindset language learners were hardy individuals, nor all fixed mindset language learners were low hardy individuals;

6- Fixed language learning mindset can change over time in the right circumstances, and thus a growth mindset can be consciously generated to facilitate recovery from demotivation.

6.4 conclusion

To conclude, the language learners' different perceptions of various factors and attributions (i.e. their mindsets) played a significant role in their language learning experiences, motivation and demotivation. The data showed that all the potentially demotivating factors did not influence the language learners similarly. Even when the language learners shared the same perceptions of a particular factor as being demotivating, their responses to that demotivating factor vary according to their language learning mindsets. Furthermore, the data confirmed that even a fixed language learning mindset could change over time in the right circumstances, and thus a growth mindset can be consciously generated in order to help demotivated learners to bounce back and recover their motivation successfully.

It can be seen that the psychological concept of mindsets interacted with all the potentially demotivating factors and affected L2 demotivation, by guiding the language learners' interpretations and shaping their responses to these factors. The data gave evidence of the powerful influence of the language learners' mindset on their language learning experience, their resilience, and their motivation. To conclude, the language learning mindset has been found to explain to a large extent the way by which each English learner responded to L2 demotivators – this factor stood out as a key to success (or failure) in coping with or overcoming demotivation.

Although these general findings provided clear answers to the research questions raised in the current study, there are a number of limitations that need to be considered. First, only female participants were interviewed in the current study. Interviewing male language learners might reveal different results, especially when discussing psychological concepts and the role they play in language learning experiences. Second, the results of the qualitative analysis revealed that different variables affected the way language learners process demotivating factors and interact with them. However, the relationships between these variables cannot be confirmed or generalised before further quantitative investigation of these relationships is conducted. These limitations encouraged me to conduct a secondary confirmatory quantitative study in

order to test the relationships that appeared in the qualitative phase and to examine if the language learning mindset that the language learner holds can predict L2 demotivation. The next chapter will present and discuss the results of a confirmatory quantitative study that aims at complementing and supporting the results of the present qualitative study.

CHAPTER SEVEN: The quantitative study

7.1 introduction

The major focus of the current thesis is the dynamism of L2 demotivation and reforming previous thinking of L2 demotivation. Trying to move the L2 demotivation mainstream research into a new phase that focuses on the complexity of its process and its development in dynamic interaction with a collection of internal, contextual and social factors. Using a mixed method research methodology, the focus of the exploratory qualitative study was to understand the conditions that make language learners learn, react, interact and feel differently while they are learning in identical learning situations, with an emphasis on exploring the role of various psychological constructs in shaping the learners' responses to L2 demotivating factors. This thesis employed theoretical models in psychology in an attempt to explain the complex psychological mechanism of L2 demotivation and remotivation, focusing on four key concepts, including mindset, learned helplessness, hardiness and attribution theory. Therefore, the processes involved in L2 demotivation were investigated mainly through examining demotivated learners' different explanations of their language learning experiences.

In the previous chapter, I presented the results of the qualitative study which allowed me to gain new insights into L2 demotivation and demonstrated how different psychological factors shaped and guided the language learners' responses and interaction with L2 demotivation. However, the results of the qualitative study cannot be generalised and further investigation was needed to examine if the discovered relationships are statistically strong and if they can be generalised. Therefore, I conducted a follow-up confirmatory quantitative study that mainly aims at testing and targeting specific findings.

In this section, I will present the results of the confirmatory quantitative study and investigate the relationship between L2 demotivation and several psychological factors. Although I conducted a large scale quantitative study, the main aim of the follow-up study was to test certain relationships that emerged in the qualitative phase of this mixed methods study. It also aimed at investigating the generalisability of particular

hypotheses in wider populations. In the next section, I will present the hypotheses that were assumed based on the qualitative results. Then, I will present and discuss the results of the quantitative study.

7.2 Aim of the quantitative study

This confirmatory study is an extension of the first exploratory qualitative study that was conducted in the same context in 2013, which suggested that having a particular language learning mindset plays an important role in the language learners' motivation, demotivation, resilience, remotivation and vulnerability to develop learned helpessness. The qualitiative results also suggested that the language learning mindset interacted with many motivational or demotivational factors, and thus shaped the language learners' diverse responses to these factors. These results indicated that there might be significant empirical links, not only between language learning mindsets and L2 demotivation, but also between the mindset and other important variables such as ideal L2 self, L2 disappointment, and perception of the teacher's role. Significantly, the qualitative results showed that the psychological construct of language learning mindset may be a key component in L2 demotivation and remotivation. Therefore, the main purpose of the present study is to investigate whether there is an interrelationship between the language learning mindset and many other variables that emerged in the qualitative study.

Another important aim is to investigate if L2 demotivation can be predicted by the particular language learning mindset that is held by the language learner. Therefore, the study mainly aims at investigating the following findings of the qualitative study:

1- The relationships between L2 demotivation/ L2 vulnerability and the five variables that emerged in the qualitative data: language learning mindset, ideal L2 self, L2 disappointment, overemphasis of the teacher's role, and personality hardiness;

2- The relationships between the language learning mindset and the four variables that emerged in the qualitative data: ideal L2 self, L2 disappointment, overemphasis of the teacher's role, and personality hardiness;

3- The differences between fixed mindset language learners and growth mindset language learners with regard to their L2 demotivation, L2

vulnerability to develop learned helplessness, L2 disappointment, ideal L2 self, and perception of the teacher role;

4- The differences between resilient and vulnerable language learners regarding their personality hardiness and language learning mindset;

5- The key factors that contributed to L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability to develop learned helplessness.

Confirming the above results and providing more evidence for the impact of the language learning mindset on L2 demotivation will have important pedagogical implications and can provide English teachers an alternative method to reduce the negative impact of demotivation and help their student to rebuild their motivation to learn English. The concept of 'mindset' and the fact that it can be taught could be a useful resource for both students and teachers in the L2 classroom. Based on the results of the qualitative phase of the study, there are six research hypotheses in the current study:

Research hypothesis 1 (H1): both L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability correlate positively with (a) having a fixed language learning mindset; (b) being disappointed about the achieved oral proficiency level; and (c) overemphasising the teacher's role.

Research hypothesis 2 (H2): both L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability negatively correlate with (a) the positive ideal L2 self and (b) personality hardiness.

Research hypothesis 3 (H3): fixed language learning mindset positively correlates with (a) L2 disappointment, and (b) overemphasis of the teacher's role, and negatively with (c) the ideal L2 self, but not with (d) personality hardiness.

Research hypothesis 4 (H4): fixed mindset language learners are more likely to be (a) demotivated; (b) vulnerable to develop learned helplessness; (c) disappointed about their oral proficiency level; (d) less able to create a positive ideal L2 self; and (e) less autonomous (by overemphasising the teacher's role) than the growth mindset language learners.

Research hypothesis 5 (H5): resilient language learners are more likely to have (a) growth language learning mindset and (b) a hardy personality than the vulnerable language learners.

167

Research hypothesis 6 (H6): The fixed language learning mindset can lead to L2 demotivation directly (as result of attributing success and failure to a natural ability), and indirectly by affecting other motivational and demotivational factors such as ideal L2 self and the level of disappointment about oral proficiency level. Therefore, L2 demotivation can be predicted positively by the fixed language learning mindset and L2 disappointment, and negatively by the ideal L2 self.

Although a long history of L2 demtoviation research has listed all the demotivating factors that may negatively influence English learners' motivational level, it has focused largely on listing the demotivating factors but did not investigate in depth how or why the learners respond to these factors differently. In this regard, the present study aims at developing a new theoretical model that conceptualise the role of the language learning mindset within L2 demtovation. A questionnaire survey was designed and administered to 2044 female foundation-year students in King Abdul-Aziz University, Jeddah (see chapter 5). The six hypotheses that were assumed based on the qualitative data will be tested. The results of the quantitative component of this research will be presented and discussed with referring to the results in the qualitative data and previous research.

7.3 Results

7.3.1 Internal consistency reliability

Three terms that relate to quality criteria in quantitative research are reliability, measurement validity, and research validity. Reliability indicates the extent to which a measurement instrument and procedures produce consistent results in a given population in various circumstances (Dornyei, 2007) To examine the reliability coefficients for the various multi-item scales, Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients were computed using SPSS version 22.0. Table 5 presents the questionnaire's eight multi-item scales and their Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient and a sample item from each scale. For the majority of the scales in the questionnaire the reliability is over or close to 0.70, with the lowest reliability being of 0.64. This suggests that there is a display of homogeneity among the items of the composite variables. Oral proficiency mindset multi-item scale attained an unexpectedly low Cronbach's alpha coefficient but was increased by the deletion of four items. Also, one

item was deleted from the personality hardiness scale to increase the Cronbach alpha coefficient.

Table 5: Information about the multi-item scales

Variables	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Sample items
Lang. Learning mindset	7	.78	I have a certain amount of natural innate ability to learn English. It is fixed.
L2 vulnerability	7	.89	I wish if studying English is optional so I can withdraw from the course.
Oral proficiency mindset	3	.64	I believe that everyone can learn English as a subject and pass the test, but a natural ability is required to speak it fluently.
L2 demotivation	7	.87	While I am studying English, if I encounter a difficult task (beyond my ability), I lose interest and reduce time studying English.
Teacher's role perception	7	.73	The (English teacher) is the primary factor of success and failure in learning English.
Ideal L2 self	7	.83	I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.
L2 disappointment	7	.79	I am disappointed that spending long time studying English at school was useless for speaking outside school.
Personality hardiness	6	.69	I love challenging and difficult tasks and do not feel threatened. I rather focus on learning new things and enjoy hard work.

7.3.2 The correlations between the variables

Positive links between L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability and the variables (H1)

In order to test the first hypothesis (H1), which hypothesised the presence of positive links between L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability and (a) the fixed language learning mindset; (b) L2 disappointment, and (c) overemphasising the teacher's role, an analysis using Pearson's correlation coefficient supported the hypothesised relationships and revealed strong positive correlations between the three variables that emerged in the qualitative data and the two variables: L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability (see table 6).

Table 6: Correlations between L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability and psychological variables

	Language mindset	Teacher role perception	Personlaity hardiness	Ideal L2 self	L2 disappointment	L2 demotivation	L2 vulnerability
Language mindset		.34**	-.086**	-.21**	.30**	.48**	.40**
Teacher's role perception			-.078**	-.14**	.56**	.54**	.54**
Personality hardiness				.46**	-.17**	-.36**	-.34**
Ideal L2 self					.23**	-.41**	-.55**
L2 disappointment						.71**	.65**
L2 Demotivation							.81**
L2 vulnerability							

**p < .01.

Fixed language learning mindset (H1a)

First, in line with the qualitative data, the results revealed strong positive correlations between the two variables (L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability) and the fixed language learning mindset (see table 6). This result is important for three reasons: (a) it established a strong link between fixed language learning mindset and L2 demotivation; (b) it supported the finding in the qualitative data that suggested a relationship between L2 demotivation and the fixed language learning mindset; and (c) it echoed the results in the previous studies that employed Dweck's (1999) theoretical framework and found that strong fixed language learning mindsets can affect L2 motivation (e.g. Lou and Noels, 2016; Mercer & Ryan, 2010, 2012; Ryan & Mercer, 2011).

The strong positive relationship between the fixed mindset and L2 vulnerability is consistent with the findings of the qualitative data that revealed how the two mindsets created different psychological worlds that guided the learners' analysis of failure and setbacks, leading to different interpretations of these difficulties and different patterns of vulnerability or resilience. The relationship between these two variables will be further discussed below when the differences between resilient and vulnerable language learners are investigated (H5).

Perception of the teacher's role (H1b)

Considering the Saudi teacher's role in the classroom that extensively focuses on the grammatical rules and rarely exposes the students to communicative situations, the findings of the qualitative study showed that the learners, who overemphasised the teacher's role and link achievement of their goal (achieving fluency) mainly to having a competent teacher, were more demotivated than the learners who minimised that role.

In line with the qualitative data, the results of the quantitative data revealed strong positive correlations between the two variables (L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability) and perception of the teacher role, and thus supporting the hypothesised positive relationship between overemphasising the teacher's role and the two variables (see table 6). This result seems to provide an explanation of the unexpected results of the recent studies that found that teacher's direct behaviours were the least influential of all the demotivators or found them to be not strong demotivators (e.g. Kikuchi, 2011; Kim, 2009; Li & Zhou, 2013). It seems that it is not teachers' behaviours that demotivate language learners. Rather, it is the way the teacher's role is perceived that

171

influence the learner's motivation. Thus, language teachers only demotivate learners who overemphasise their role and perceive them as a major facilitator or obstructor in the language learning process.

The aim of the qualitative study was not to look at what teacher-related factors demotivated language learners. Rather, it attempted to explore why English teachers could influence, motivate, demotivate, and remotivate some language learners, while other learners were less affected or even not affected by negative teacher-related factors. The findings in the qualitative data revealed that Saudi learners' diverse perceptions of the teacher role played a role in the mechanism of demotivation. When being taught by a less-than- ideal teacher, only language learners who overemphasised their role and perceived this role as a major factor that can facilitate or obstruct successful language learning were vulnerable to experience L2 demotivation or L2 vulnerability to developing learned helplessness. They were also the only learners who linked recovery from demotivation to a competent teacher. Although all the language learners perceived the teacher role as being an important factor that can facilitate successful language learning, not all of them believed that the English teacher can obstruct this process.

L2 disappointment (H1c)

Although L2 disappointment about the achieved oral proficiency level emerged in the qualitative data as a major factor that had a negative impact on the language learners' motivation, it is worth noting that the qualitative study neither simply established a link between Saudi students' L2 demotivation and L2 proficiency level nor it simply blames the Saudi English teachers for their students' low proficiency level. Rather, it looked at how the Saudi students perceived their low proficiency level and explored if this perception influenced their motivation level differently. Indeed, the qualitative data showed that it is not the low proficiency level that functioned as a demotivating factor for Saudi learners of English. Rather, it was the way these students felt about this factor, the way they interpreted it, and the way they perceived it, and thus a relationship between feeling of disappointment and L2 demotivation was assumed.

As table 6 shows, the strongest positive correlations were identified between L2 disappointment and the two variables (L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability), thus supporting the hypothesised relationship between feeling disappointed about the achieved oral proficiency and being demotivated or developing learned helplessness. This result also echoed Kim's (2015) findings that the conflict between the students'

desire to use English for communication and the immediate need to pass the standardised tests was the main source of learners' demotivation.

Negative links between L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability and other variables (H2)

Ideal l2 self (H2a)

The qualitative results showed that the ideal L2 self can have a motivational and remotivational power, while lacking the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self can have a demotivational power, thus suggesting that lower ideal L2 self was associated with higher level of demotivation. The quantitative analysis gave more evidence and revealed a strong negative correlation between ideal L2 self and both L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability, thus supported the hypothesised negative relationship between ideal L2 self and the two variables (see table 6). The strong negative relationship identified here between ideal L2 self and L2 demotivation, also revealed that higher ability to create a positive ideal L2 self is associated with decreased level of L2 demotivation. This finding highlighted the motivational power of the ideal L2 self and echoed the findings of many quantitative studies that found that the ideal L2 self is a stronger predictor of language learners' motivation in various contexts (e.g. Al-Shehri, 2009; Csizer & Kormos, 2009; Dornyei & Chan, 2013; Islam, Lamb, Chambers, 2013; Kim, 2012; MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009; Magid, 2013; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009; Yashima, 2009;). Although ample research has validated the role of the construct of ideal L2 self in L2 motivation and confirmed its key role in motivating language learners, little research has examined its role in L2 demotivation.

Personality hardiness (H2b)

Table 6 shows that moderate negative correlations were identified between personality hardiness and the two variables (L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability), thus confirming the hypothesised negative relationship and the results of the qualitative data that suggested that personality hardiness helped some participants to be resilient in the face of demotivators and difficulties. The relationship that was identified between L2 vulnerability and personality hardiness also echoed the findings of previous studies conducted in the resilience research.

The items of the L2 vulnerability scale can be treated as negatively oriented items that aim at measuring L2 resilience. Therefore, the negative moderate relationship between L2 vulnerability and personality hardiness reflect a moderate positive relationship between personality hardiness and L2 resilience. This finding echoes the

findings of many studies in the resilience research literature that examined various essential characteristics that enable individuals to be resilient and found that hardiness was one of the characteristics that functioned as protective factors against adversities (e.g. Connor & Davidson, 2003; Earvolino-Ramirez, 2007; Waysman, Schwarzwald & Solomon, 2001; Windle, 2011). It is also consistent with previous research that has put hardiness as the basis for resilience (Bartone, 2006; Bonanno 2004; Maddi, 2005; Maddi, 2013).

Connections between the language learning mindset and other variables (H3)

The qualitative data showed that many of the factors that have influenced L2 motivation, were also influenced by the language learning mindset. In other words, the qualitative data showed that the diverse language learner's feelings, responses, explanations of the motivational and demotivational factors were to a large extent the function of the language learning mindset. In order to test the third hypothesis (H3) if the fixed language learning mindset positively correlates with (a) L2 disappointment, and (b) overemphasis of the teacher's role, and negatively with (c) the ideal L2 self and (d) personality hardiness, an analysis using Pearson's correlation coefficient confirmed the hypothesised relationships and revealed associations between the independent variables that emerged in the qualitative data and the fixed language learning mindset (see table 6).

L2 disappointment (H3a)

Table 6 shows that a moderate positive correlation was identified between the fixed language learning mindset and L2 disappointment, thus confirming the hypothesised positive relationship between both variables (H3a). This result also supports the finding in the qualitative data that suggested that the fixed language learning mindset associates positively with the disappointment about the achieved oral proficiency level, while the growth language learning mindset associates with the satisfaction about the oral proficiency level and perceiving it as being a normal part of the leaning process.

Perception of the teacher's role (H3b)

A moderate positive correlation was also identified between the language learning mindset and the perception of the teacher's role (see table 6), thus confirming the hypothesised relationship between the fixed language learning mindset and overemphasis of the teacher's role. One might suspects this result and argues that there

is a contradiction between the fixed mindset language learner's belief in the importance of a natural fixed ability for successful language learning and the belief that the English teacher is the primary factor that can facilitate or obstruct successful language learning. The qualitative data showed that some fixed mindset language learners attribute others' successful language learning to a natural ability and believe that they do not have that ability. Believing that they lack the ability to learn a second language, they attribute their own academic success or failure in the English classroom to the teacher's role. The moderate relationship between fixed language learning mindset and overemphasising the teacher's role might have three different explanations: (a) fixed mindset learners do believe that they lack the natural ability to learn a second language and do believe that the teacher can be the only primary factor that can facilitate their own success or failure inside the English classroom; (b) they believe that they lack they ability but they do not believe that the teacher can facilitate successful language learning, so they are merely overemphasising the teacher's role trying to attribute their failure to another perceivably uncontrollable factor, the teacher; or (c) both factors (perception of the teacher's role and the language learning mindset) are correlating because they measure the learners' mindsets' fixedness and the way they perceive the malleability of different factors.

Ideal L2 self (H3c)

The qualitative data showed that, in some cases, the motivational power of the ideal L2 self was not demonstrated because some fixed mindset language learners could visualise a positive ideal L2 self but found it difficult to achieve in the future. The qualitative data also showed that fixed mindset language learners were less able to create a positive ideal L2 self, thus a negative relationship between the two variables was assumed. A weak negative correlation was identified between ideal L2 self and fixed language learning mindset (see table 6). This weak correlation between ideal L2 self and fixed language learning mindset indicated to me that although fixed mindset language learner might lack the ability to create an ideal L2 self, having a fixed language learning mindset is not necessarily associated with lacking the ability to create ideal L2 self, and that the growth language learning mindset does not necessarily associate with the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self. In other words, this finding suggests that even when a language learner can visualise the characteristics that she ideally likes to possess and creates a positive ideal L2 self as a fluent speaker of English, she might also believe that that natural ability is essential to achieve fluency

(fixed language learning mindset). In this case, the demotivational power of the fixed language learning mindset (which devalues effort and believes that achieving fluency is uncontrollable) might contradict with the motivational power of the ideal L2 self and obstruct the demonstration of its power.

Personality hardiness (H3d)

The analysis revealed a negligible negative correlation between the fixed language learning mindset and personality hardiness (see table 6). This result confirms the hypothesised lack of relationship between the language learning mindset and the hardy personality, suggesting that having a low hardy personality does not necessarily associates with the existence of a fixed language learning mindset. This finding also support the qualitative results that showed that even fixed mindset language learners expressed some characteristics of a hardy personality.The moderate negative relationship that was identified between the personality hardiness and (L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability) earlier and the lack of a relationship between the language learning mindset and the personality hardiness indicated to me that the motivational and remotivational power of the personality hardiness might be obstructed by the existence of a fixed language learning mindset.

Summary

The correlations that the quantitative results revealed between the variables that emerged in the qualitative data, have initially supported most of the qualitative results and clarified some of the results. The confirmed hypotheses provided more evidence to the importance of the role that the language learning mindset play in the mechanism of L2 demotivation. The next task is to compare between the fixed mindset language learners and the growth mindset language learners and explore the main differences between the two groups.

7.3.3 A comparison between fixed mindset language learners and growth mindset language learners (H4)

In order to test the fourth hypothesis that the fixed mindset language learners are more likely to be (a) demotivated; (b) vulnerable to develop learned helplessness; (c) disappointed about their oral proficiency level; (d) less able to create a positive ideal L2 self; and (e) less autonomous (by overemphasising the teacher's role) than the growth mindset language learners, an independent-samples t-test was carried out to compare the scores of different variables for the growth mindset language learners and fixed mindset

language learners (see table 7). The participants were divided into two groups based on their responses to the language learning mindset multi-item scale: growth mindset language learners (N= 619) and fixed mindset language learners (N=677). The results in the quantitative data revealed significant differences in the scores of all the variables for both groups, thus supporting both the fourth hypothesis (H4) and the mindset-related findings of the qualitative study. In this section, I will discuss the results that is shown in table 7.

L2 demotivation (H4a)

The hypothesised difference in the level of L2 demotivation between fixed mindset language learners and growth mindset language learners (H4a) was confirmed by the t-test results. It was evident that there was a significant difference in the scores of L2 demotivation for the fixed mindset language learners and the growth mindset language learners and the magnitude of the difference in the means was large (see table 7), with the fixed mindset language learners being more demotivated than the growth mindset language learners. This result adds more evidence to the qualitative results that suggested that having a particular language learning mindset played an important role in the mechanism of L2 demotivation.

Table 7: Comparison between growth mindset language learners and fixed mindset language learners

	M	*SD*	*D*	*T*	Effect size[a]
L2 Vulnerability			1240	-16.630*	.2
Growth mindset group	2.4	1.0			
Fixed mindset group	3.5	1.4			
L2 demotivation			1280	-20.895*	.3
Growth mindset group	2.6	.94			
Fixed mindset group	3.8	1.1			
L2 disappointment			1294	-12.082*	.1
Growth mindset group	3.8	.99			
Fixed mindset group	4.5	.96			
Ideal L2 self			1276	9.004*	.06
Growth mindset group	5.1	.77			
Fixed mindset group	4.6	.95			

Perception of teacher's role		1203	-13.715*	.1
Growth mindset group	4.2	.91	
Fixed mindset group	4.8	.75	

*P < .05

ᵃEta squared

L2 vulnerability to develop learned helplessness (H4b)

Mercer and Ryan (2012) asserts that fixed mindset people tend more than others to avoid challenges, lower their language learning expectations, develop a sense of helplessness following their lack of success, thereby becoming easily demotivated. In addition, the qualitative data of the current study revealed that, in some cases, language learners gradually developed learned helplessness after experiencing repeated failure or remaining in the hold of demotivation for extended periods. When the causes of behaving helplessly were explored in the qualitative data, fixed language learning mindset was one of the key factors that played a significant role within learned helplessness.

Confirming the fourth hypothesis (H4b), the quantitative results revealed a significant difference in L2 vulnerability scores for the growth mindset language learners and the fixed mindset language learners and the magnitude of the difference in the means was large (see table 7), with fixed mindset language learners being more vulnerable to develop learned helplessness than the growth mindset language learners. This finding is also consistent with the ample research in educational psychology that employed Dweck's (1999) model and showed that when learners encounter setbacks, difficulties and failures, fixed mindset leaners are likely to display a helpless response pattern, while growth mindset learners are likely to exhibit a resilient and mastery-oriented response pattern (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007; Burnette, O'Boyle, VanEpps, Pollack, & Finkel, 2013; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Robins & Pals, 2002; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002; Yeager & Dweck, 2012).

L2 disappointment (H4c)

The interviews revealed that achieving fluency is one of the most important components of the Saudi language learner's vision. They were motivated to learn English as a language that can be used in real life and in their future careers. Therefore, they created a positive ideal L2 self of themselves as proficient speakers of English. However, as I mentioned in section 4.1, Saudi English teachers extensively focus on

178

grammatical rules and the repetition of words and phrases (Al-Mohanna, 2010; Al-Seghayer, 2011). Thus, English classroom and English teachers in Saudi Arabia do not provide these learners with the help and support required to achieve this goal. After spending between six or eight years learning English in the state schools, they fail to make a short conversation because they had very little exposure to communicative situations inside or outside the classroom (Alshumaimeri, 2003; Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013). As a result, Saudi students notice a large gap between the actual outcome and the desired outcome, which is being a fluent speaker of English (Khan, 2011). Nevertheless, the interviewees showed that this gap between the actual outcome (low proficiency level) and the desired outcome (being a fluent speaker of English) was perceived differently. Fixed mindset language learners were disappointed about the discrepancy between the desired outcome (i.e. achieving fluency) and the actual oral proficiency level, while growth mindset language learners were satisfied and perceived that discrepancy as a natural part of the learning process. Therefore, a significant difference in L2 disappointment scores between the two mindset groups was assumed.

Indeed, the analysis of the quantitative data revealed a significant difference in L2 disappointment scores for the growth mindset language learners and the fixed mindset language learners and the magnitude of the difference in the means was large (see table 7), with fixed mindset language learners being more disappointed about the achieved oral proficiency level than the growth mindset language learners. This finding confirmed the fourth hypothesis (H4c) and supported the qualitative results of the current study which revealed differences in the perceptions of the gap between their desired oral proficiency level and the actual oral proficiency level achieved among the growth mindset and fixed mindset participants.

Ideal L2 self (H4d)

A significant difference in the ideal L2 scores for the growth mindset language learners and the fixed mindset language learners was identified and the magnitude of the difference in the means was moderate, with fixed mindset language learners being less able to create a positive ideal L2 self. The significant difference that was identified between the two groups supported the fourth hypothesis (H4d) that fixed mindset language learners are more likely to have a lower ability to create a positive ideal L2 self. This result also supported the findings of the qualitative data that found that fixed

mindset language learners were less able than the growth mindset language learners in creating a positive ideal L2 self.

As I stated earlier, there is a lack of research that investigates the factors that contribute to the language learner' construction of a particular ideal L2 self and the factors that facilitate or obstruct the motivational power of future L2 selves. Therefore, this finding is interesting as it suggests that the language learning mindset might contribute to the construction of a particular ideal L2 self.

Perception of the teacher's role (h4e)

A significant difference in the perception of the teacher's role scores for the growth mindset language learners and the fixed mindset language learners was identified, and the magnitude of the difference in the means was large (see table 7). This finding supports the third hypothesis that fixed mindset language learners are more likely to overemphasise the teacher's role than growth mindset language learners. It also supported the qualitative data which showed that some interviewees tended to attribute their own demotivation and remotivation to the teacher and also, in the same time, attribute other's successful language learning to a fixed natural ability.

A long history of research on L2 demotivation have highlighted the teacher's significant potential to influence the English classroom and demotivate the English learner (Bahramy & Araghi, 2013; Falout et al., 2009; Kim and Seo, 2012; Trang and Baldauf, 2007; Vasilopoulos, 2011; Yan, 2009; Zhang, 2007). However, recent studies found that teacher's direct behaviours had the least impact of all the demotivators or found them to be not strong demotivators (e.g. Kikuchi, 2011; Kim, 2009; Li & Zhou, 2013). The quantitative results that focused on the teacher's role perception added value to the qualitative data in different ways: (a) it revealed a strong relationship between overemphasising the teacher's role and the two factors: L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability; (b) it revealed a moderate relationship between overemphasising the teacher's role and the fixed language learning mindset; and (c) it demonstrated that there is a significant difference between the fixed mindset language learners and the growth mindset language learners in the way they perceive the teacher's role.

The identified difference between the growth mindset language learners and the fixed mindset language learners also suggests that growth mindset language learners are more autonomous language learners because they value and stress the superiority of their effort as a key to success or failure in language learning, and thereby minimise the

role of any other factors, consult different learning tools and resources, overcome learning obstacles and avoid distractors. On the other hand, fixed mindset language learners who perceive the natural talent as a key to success are less autonomous learners because they devalue effort, and thereby attribute their success and failure to a competent teacher (i.e. uncontrollable factor that they cannot change).

To conclude, the quantitative results suggests that the attribution of failure and success to teachers played a role in L2 demotivation. However, it is not only the attribution to the English teacher that demotivates some language learners. Rather, it is the way the teacher's role is perceived that demotivates some language learners. The findings also indicate that teachers can be controllable or uncontrollable attribution; the level of controllability of this attribution is to a large extent the function of the language learning mindset.

Summary

To conclude, the promising results above supported the qualitative results in an unambiguous manner. The strength of the associations and the significant differences that appeared in the quantitative data explained why Saudi learners of English perceive and respond to demotivating factors differently. It was evident that language learning mindset plays a significant role in L2 demotivation. Perceiving the ability to learn a second language as being fixed and natural is associated with higher level of L2 demotivation, while perceiving that ability as being malleable is associated with lower level of L2 demotivation. It was also confirmed that fixed mindset language learners are more likely to emphasise the teacher's role, and thereby more likely to be demotivated if they encounter a less-than-ideal English teacher. Moreover, ideal L2 self, unsurprisingly, had a motivational and remotivational power. However, the fixed mindset language learners are found to be less able to develop a positive ideal L2 self, and thereby experience higher level of L2 demotivation. Even if they are able to create a positive ideal L2 self, the demotivational power of the fixed mindset seems to obstruct the motivational power of the ideal L2 self or to contribute to the construction of a particular ideal L2 self. Finally, feeling disappointed about the outcome (i.e. oral proficiency achieved) that resulted from attending English classes in Saudi Arabia associates largely with the fixed language learning mindset and with L2 demotivation.

Although the quantitative results supported the qualitative results significantly, A further fundamental issue of cause and effect remains unconfirmed: are high levels of

L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability a result of having a fixed language learning mindset or is high levels of L2 demotivation and vulnerability lead to establishing fixed language learning mindset beliefs?. Both qualitative and quantitative results suggest that the fixed language learning mindset interacted with all the other variables and lead to, or contributed to the L2 demotivation. However, the statistical techniques employed in the study do not allow me to legitimately make claims that specify the direction of cause and effect. At this point, I can simply state that the data demonstrate the relationships between the language learning mindset, ideal L2 self, L2 disappointment, perception of the teacher's role and personality hardiness to be important ones requiring additional investigation, especially in the matter of cause and effect. This will be discussed later when the sixth hypothesis is tested.

7.3.4 A comparison between resilient language learners and learner who are vulnerable to develop learned helplessness (H5)

As I stated previously, the items of the L2 vulnerability scale can be treated as negatively oriented items that aim at measuring L2 resilience. Therefore, the negative moderate relationship between L2 vulnerability and personality hardiness reflects a moderate positive relationship between personality hardiness and L2 resilience, with more hardy individuals (who scored higher in personality hardiness scale) being more resilient learners in the face of language learning setbacks (by scoring lower in the L2 vulnerability scale). The participants were divided into two groups based on their responses to the L2 vulnerability multi-item scale: resilient language learners (N= 740) and vulnerable language learners (N=614).

Table 8: A comparison between vulnerable learners and resilient learners

	M	*SD*	*D*	*T*	**Effect size**[a]
Language learning mindset			1226	-16.454*	.2
Resilient language learners	3.3	.92			
Vulnerable language learners	4.1	.82			
Personality hardiness			1301	14.857*	.2
Resilient language learners	5.0	.60			
Vulnerable language learners	4.4	.69			

*P < .05

In order to test the fifth hypothesis (H5a) that resilient language learners are more likely to have a growth language learning mindset, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the language learning mindset for the resilient language learners and the vulnerable language learners (see table 8). The results in the quantitative data revealed a significant difference in scores for both groups and the magnitude of the difference in the means was large, thus supporting both the fifth hypothesis (H5a) that resilient learners are more likely to have a growth language learning mindset and provided support for the qualitative findings that showed that growth mindset language learners expressed more resilience in the face of difficulties and setbacks. This significant difference between resilient and vulnerable language learners is consistent with the findings of the study conducted by Lou and Noels (2016) which investigated the influence of language learning mindsets on the responses to failure among language learners with different proficiency levels. Their findings showed that fixed mindset learners are more likely to respond in more helpless-oriented manner and express higher level of vulnerability, while growth language learning mindset significantly predicted adaptive mastery responses to failures and higher level of persistence.

The finding is also consistent with other several studies that demonstrated that mindsets has a significant effect on the students' level of resilience in academic settings (e.g., Hong et al., 1999; Nussbaum & Dweck, 2008; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). It also echoed the results of previous educational psychology research that showed that growth mindset learners are more resilient because of the way they perceive challenges, their ability to adapt to adversities, and the strategies that they use when they face setbacks (Blackwell et al., 2007; Olson & Dweck, 2008).

In order to test the fifth hypothesis (H5b) of whether resilient language learners were more likely to be hardy individuals, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of personality hardiness for the vulnerable learners and the resilient learners (see table 8). There was a significant difference in scores of the personality hardiness for the two groups and the magnitude of the difference in the means was large, with resilient language learners scoring higher in hardiness than the vulnerable language learners, thus confirming the fifth hypothesis (H5b) and providing more evidence to the qualitative data that revealed higher level of personality hardiness among the resilient language learners. This result was anticipated because ample

research has shown that personality hardiness was a strong predictor of resilience in the face of difficulties (e.g. Earvolino-Ramirez, 2007; Maddi, 2013; Windle, 2011; Yakunina, Weigold, Weigold, Hercegovac & Elsayed, 2013; Zhang, 2011). The next section will present how the final theoretical model, that conceptualised the impact of the language learning on demotivation, was developed.

7.4 Developing the final model

7.4.1 Elements of the hypothesised model (H6)

In this section, the sixth hypothesis will be tested and the final model will be developed. As I mentioned earlier, both qualitative and quantitative results suggest that the fixed language learning mindset interacted with all the other variables and lead to, or contributed to the L2 demotivation. However, all the statistical techniques employed did not allow me to legitimately make claims that specify the direction of cause and effect. Therefore, the main task here is to test the sixth hypothesis that the fixed language learning mindset can lead to L2 demotivation directly (as result of attributing success and failure to a natural ability), and indirectly by affecting other motivational and demotivational factors such as ideal L2 self and the level of disappointment about oral proficiency level.

My understanding of the literature of the educational psychology research of the mindset construct, combined with the qualitative and the quantitative results obtained in the current study led me to identify that three elements play significant roles within L2 demotivation: The fixed language learning mindset, ideal L2 self and L2 disappointment. First, a model that shows the correlations between these factors and their correlations with L2 demotivation was designed. Figure 1 shows the strength of correlations between the four variables (the fixed language learning mindset, ideal L2 self, L2 disappointment, and L2 demotivation) based on the quantitative results of the current study.
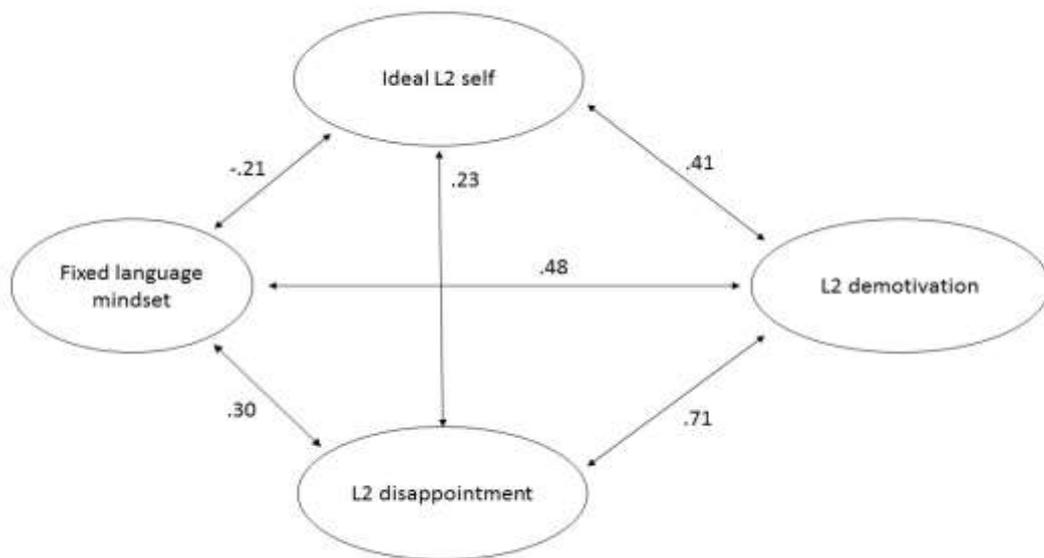
Figure 1: The elements of the model showing the strength of the correlations between the variables

The second step was to hypothesise the causal relationships between the four elements and thus develop a model that can be examined using SEM. Based on the quantitative and the quantitative analyses above, I hypothesised six causal relationships between the four variables in order to develop a theoretical model that conceptualises the role of the language learning mindset in L2 demotivation. The complete hypothesised model is presented in Figure 2 as a structural equation model. The directional causal paths hypothesised among these variables are represented in Fig 2. The six hypothesised causal paths are shown by single-headed arrows. The arrows were assigned a "+" sign or a "−" sign indicating whether a positive influence or a negative influence is assumed in a particular path.

Figure 2 shows a model that hypothesises that L2 demotivation can be predicted positively by the fixed language learning mindset and L2 disappointment, and negatively by the ideal L2 self. Therefore, three negative paths were assumed, from the fixed language learning mindset and L2 disappointment leading to ideal L2 self, and from the ideal L2 self leading to L2 demotivation. Three positive paths were assumed from the fixed language learning mindset leading to L2 disappointment and L2 demotivation, and from L2 disappointment to L2 demotivation.
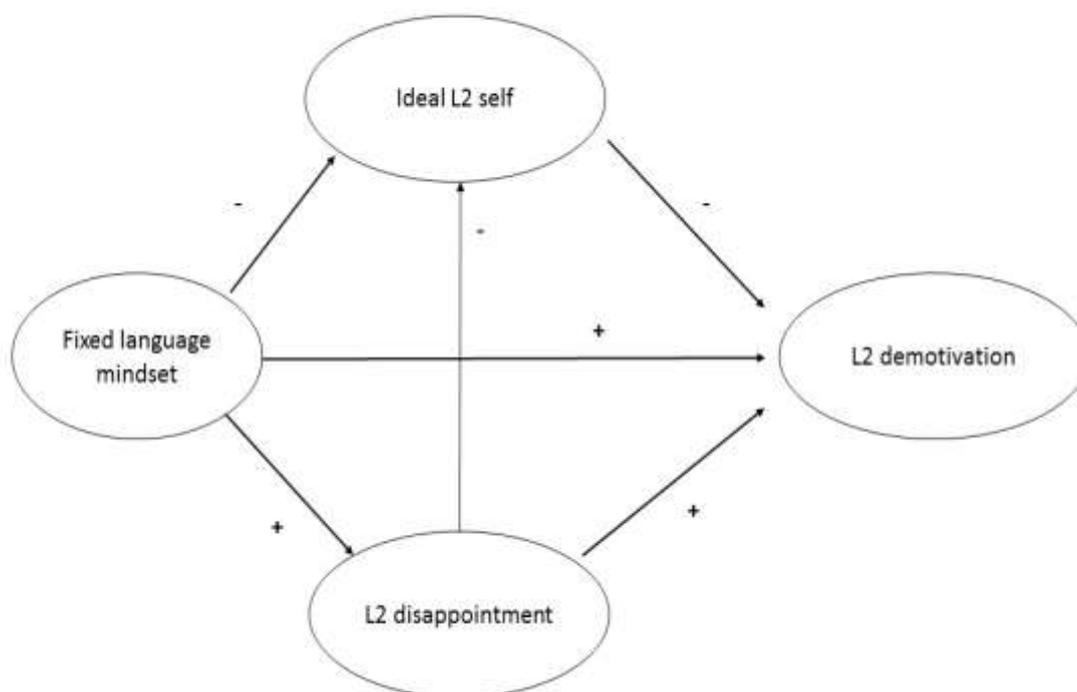
Figure 2: The hypothesised model displaying the causal paths leading to L2 demotivation

The three paths from the language learning mindset, ideal L2 self, and L2 disappointment leading to L2 demotivation hypothesised that these three factors are strong direct predictors of L2 demotivation. The three paths from the fixed language learning mindset leading to ideal L2 self, L2 disappointment, and from L2 disappointment leading to ideal L2 self hypothesised that the fixed language learning mindset is a strong indirect predictor of L2 demotivation by influencing the two direct predictors of L2 demotivation (ideal L2 self and L2 disappointment).

7.4.2 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

A structural equation modelling (SEM) to empirically test and examine the hypothesised model was conducted using Amos 22 (Arbuckle, 2013). SEM is a modern statistical technique that allows a set of relationships to be examined simultaneously. It is a confirmatory procedure rather than an exploratory one. The SEM analysis followed the recommended two-step approach of first examining the measurement model before proceeding to the structural model.

The measurement model is a confirmatory factor analysis aiming to establish construct validity, and so both convergent and discriminant validity had to be examined. To examine convergent validity, i.e., so that the indicators satisfactorily represent their latent constructs, three aspects were investigated. First, the rule of thumb for the construct reliability is to be .70 or higher, which was satisfied for the four constructs (see table 9). Second, the average variance extracted (AVE), as the rule of thumb, should be .50 or higher. All four factors satisfied this recommendation (see table 9).

Table 9: Reliability and validity of the constructs in the measurement model and their inter-construct correlations

	CR	AVE	Fixed mindset	Ideal L2 self	L2 disappointment	L2 demotivation
Fixed lang. mindset	.695	.534	.731			
Ideal L2 self	.807	.582	.268	.763		
L2 disappointment	.694	.534	.226	.123	.731	
L2 demotivation	.870	.575	.444	.560	.543	.758

CR = construct reliability, AVE= average variance extracted. Values in the diagonal are the square roots of their respective AVE

A final rule of thumb suggests that the standardised factor loadings of each indicator variable should be .50 or higher. All factor loadings were statistically significant and higher than this threshold. The overall trend, therefore, suggested acceptable convergent validity (see Table 10).

Table 10: Standardised and unstandardized factor loadings, standard errors, and critical ratios in the final model for the overall sample

Path		B	B	SE	CR
	Ideal4	.79	.929	.030	31.136***
Ideal L2 self→	Ideal5	.73	1.044	.035	29.642***
	Ideal6	.77		-------	
L2 disappointment→	Disapp5	.81	1.241	.071	17.439***

	Disapp4	.65	--------	
Fixed lang. mindset→	Fixed3	.66	.828	.059	13.973***
	Fixed4	.80	--------	
	Demtiv2	.69	--------	
	Demotiv3	.73	1.269	.045	28.243***
L2 demotivation→	Demotiv5	.80	1.309	.043	30.357***
	Demotiv7	.67	1.029	.038	26.934***
	Demotiv6	.88	1.332	.041	32.228***

*** p < .001

To examine discriminant validity, that is, to make sure that the constructs are sufficiently distinct from each other, the recommended measure is that the AVE values should be greater than their respective inter-construct correlations squared. This was also satisfied, as shown in Table 9. Finally, most of the standardised residuals were under ±2 and none of them exceeded ±2.5, suggesting that the observed covariance terms fitted the estimated covariance terms (see Tables 10 & 11). The measurement model also had a good fit, $\chi^2(46) = 120.957$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.629$, TLI = .989, CFI =.992, RMSEA = .028, PCLOSE = 1.00. These results suggested that the measurement model was satisfactory and that it was safe to proceed to the structural model.

The results for the overall sample, displayed in Table 11 show that all six paths are statistically significant. These results supported the sixth hypothesis and suggested that fixed language learning mindset can predict L2 demotivation directly and indirectly.

Table 11: Standardised and unstandardized coefficients, standard errors, and critical ratios in the final model for the overall sample

Path	β	B	SE	CR
Fixed mindset→ideal self	-.25	.212	.027	-7.745***
Fixed mindset→L2 disappointment	.23	.190	.028	6.689***
Fixed mindset→L2 demotivation	.23	.208	.025	8.416***
Ideal self →L2 demotivation	-.45	-.489	.028	-17.369***

L2 disappointment→L2 demotivation	.44	.478	.031	15.500***
L2 disappointment→ideal self	-.07	-.066	.030	-2.222*

*p < .05, ***p < .001

By taking a closer look at the obtained structural equation model, we can gain insights into the role of the language learning mindset in L2 demotivation. All the significant paths identified support the impact of the fixed language learning mindset on L2 demotivation. The final theoretical model that conceptualises the role of the language learning mindset in L2 demotivation was developed and displayed in Figure 3 below.

The model shows that believing that a natural ability or a talent is essential for successful language learning (i.e. the fixed language learning mindset) can lead directly to L2 demotivation. It also shows that the fixed language learning mindset increases the language learner's disappointment about the oral proficiency level and decreases the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self that can speak English fluently. Creating a positive ideal L2 self decreases L2 demotivation, while L2 disappointment increases L2 demotivation. This implies that the fixed language learning mindset can also indirectly lead to L2 demotivation. Finally, the weak causal relationship between L2 disappointment and ideal L2 self also suggests that feeling of disappointment about the oral proficiency level is not strongly related to the learner's ability to create a positive ideal L2 self.
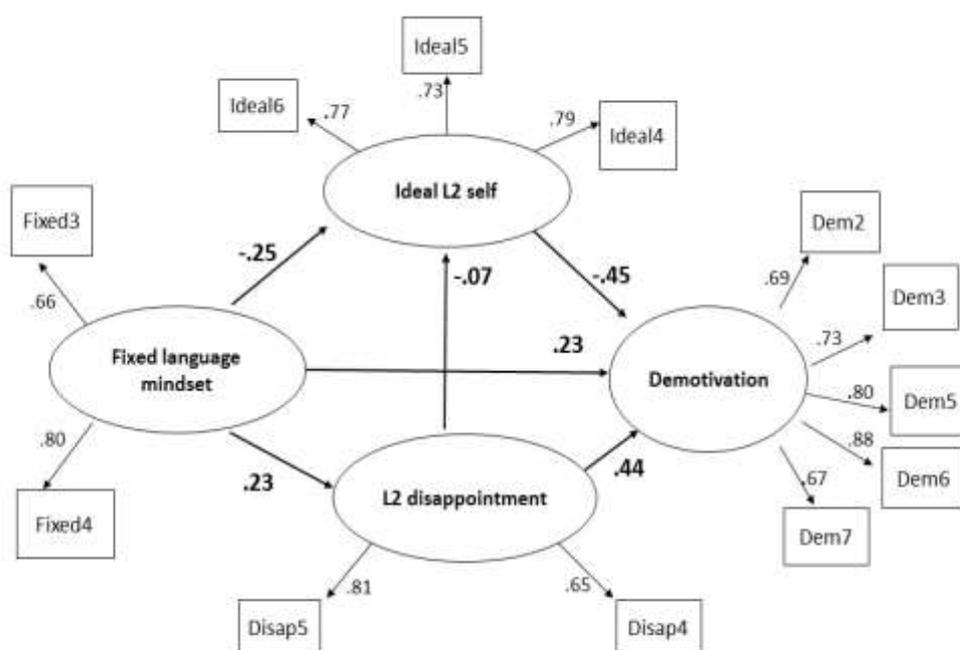
Figure 3: The final model.

7.4.3 Summary

A model that conceptualises the role that the language learning mindset plays in L2 demotivation was examined. Overall, the results showed that the fixed language learning mindset can directly and indirectly contribute to L2 demotivation. The model also supports the idea that the fixed language learning mindset can indirectly lead to L2 demotivation via decreasing the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self and increasing the level of disappointment about oral proficiency level; two factors that were found to be direct predictors of L2 demotivation. In other words, the language learners' demotivation does not only result from encountering external demotivating factors. Rather, it can be predicted by an internal psychological factor, that is, the language learning mindset, providing a new line of enquiry for the future researchers of L2 demotivation. I believe that the results of the model can serve as an empirical point of departure in the realm of investigation of L2 demotivation. Conceptualising L2 demotivation by focusing on the role of the language learning mindset and its contribution to the learners' perceptions and responses to demotivating factors, seems to

provide language educators with a new tool to minimise language learners' demotivation and help them to rebuild their motivation. It also seems to provide future researchers with new empirical links to investigate when researching L2 demotivation.

7.5 Conclusion

It can be seen that the psychological concept of mindsets interacted with all the potentially demotivating factors and affected L2 demotivation, by guiding the language learners' interpretations and shaping their responses to these factors. The data gave evidence of the powerful influence of the language learners' mindset on their language learning experience, their resilience, and their motivation. In this section, based on the qualitative results, I discussed why Saudi English learners perceived demotivating factors differently. The language learning mindset has been found to explain to a large extent the way by which each English learner responded to L2 demotivators – this factor stood out as a key to success (or failure) in coping with or overcoming demotivation.

The primary aim of the quantitative phase of the current study was to investigate the associations between the key factors that emerged in the qualitative data and the impact of the language learning mindset on L2 demotivation, L2 resilience and L2 vulnerability. While the qualitative data explored the underlying processes of L2 demotivation experienced by Saudi learner of English and revealed interesting results, the qualitative results could not be generalised without conducting the quantitative study. The quantitative results supported the qualitative findings and gave stronger evidence for the role of the language learning mindset in L2 demotivation. Indeed, the findings in the quantitative data complemented, confirmed, and supported all the hypotheses that were established based on the qualitative study, namely that the language learning mindset can predict L2 demtivation and shape the language learners' behaviour and responses to L2 demotivators.

Several robust relationships between the language learning mindset and the language learners' L2 demotivation, L2 vulnerability, and L2 resilience were confirmed. The strengths and the directions of these associations were identified. The main results that were obtained and thus supported all the qualitative results can be summarised as follows:

1- There are strong positive correlations between both L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability and all other variables: (a) fixed language learning mindset; (b) L2 disappointment; and (c) overemphasis of the teacher's role;

2- There are negative correlations between both L2 demotivation and L2 vulnerability and the two variables: (a) ideal L2 self (strong); and (b) personality hardiness (moderate);

3- There are moderate positive correlations between fixed language learning mindset and the two variables (a) L2 disappointment, and (b) overemphasis of the teacher's role;

4- There is a negative correlation between the fixed language learning mindset and the two variables: (a) ideal L2 self (weak); and (b) personality hardiness (negligible);

5- Fixed mindset language learners are more likely to be (a) demotivated; (b) vulnerable to develop learned helplessness; (c) disappointed about their oral proficiency level; (d) less able to create a positive ideal L2 self; and (e) less autonomous (by overemphasising the teacher's role) than the growth mindset language learners;

6- Resilient language learners are more likely to have (a) growth language learning mindset and (b) a hardy personality than the vulnerable language learners;

7- The fixed language learning mindset can lead to L2 demotivation directly (as result of attributing success and failure to a natural ability), and indirectly by affecting other motivational and demotivational factors such as ideal L2 self and the level of disappointment about oral proficiency level. Therefore, L2 demotivation can be predicted positively by the fixed language learning mindset and L2 disappointment, and negatively by the ideal L2 self.

To conclude, the variation of L2 demotivation and L2 resilience among individual learners were found to be to a large extent the function of the language learning mindset. Broadly speaking, all the factors that would be regarded as potential demotivators (e.g. lacking ability, incompetent teachers, ineffective instructional English teaching, lack of ability to create a positive ideal L2 self, failure to achieve the created ideal L2 self, or low oral proficiency level) affected the learners differently according to the way they perceived these demotivators.

A variety of tests were conducted to check the role of the language learning mindset within L2 demotivation and clarified it. Moreover, the qualitative data demonstrated that the language learning mindset played a significant role in L2 remotivation. These promising results of the current mixed methods study have many theoretical and pedagogical implications that can provide English teachers an alternative method to reduce the negative impact of demotivation and help their students to rebuild their motivation to learn English. These implications will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSION

8.1 Scope of the present study

The major focus of the thesis has been the dynamism of L2 demotivation and reforming previous thinking of demotivation. It attempted to move the L2 demotivation mainstream research into a new phase that focuses on the complexity of its process and its development in dynamic interaction with several psychological constructs. Therefore, the present research employed theoretical models in psychology in an attempt to explain the complex dynamism of L2 demotivation and remotivation, focusing on four key concepts, including mindset, ideal L2 self, learned helplessness, hardiness and attribution theory.

In response to kikuchi's (2015) call for expansion of demotivation research focus when studying demotivators to study the complexities that language learners are dealing with in their everyday lives, this study investigated how the language learning mindsets interact with a variety of motivational and demotivational factors and affect responses to these factors, leading to variation in the learners' L2 motivation, L2 resilience, and L2 vulnerability to develop learned helplessness. Thus, it examined individual demotivated learners' different explanations of their language learning experiences, by drawing on different notions in Psychology research. The results of the study revealed the underlying processes involved in L2 demotivation.

It is worth noting that when I started this exploratory research to investigate L2 demotivation among Saudi Arabian learners of English, there were not any particular theoretical models of L2 demtoviation to adopt. In other words, I was not investigating demtoviation focusing on specific concepts. Therefore, no hypotheses were addressed before starting the qualitative investigation of the Saudi learners' L2 demotivation. However, the exploratory nature of the first study and the analysis of its finding opened the doors for integrating new concepts from other disciplines and assisted in developing a more comprehensive conceptualisation of the dynamism of L2 demotivation.

A mixed methods research methodology was used to understand and analyse the conditions that make Saudi language learners of English learn, react, interact and feel differently while they are learning in identical learning situations, with a particular emphasis on exploring the role of various psychological variables in shaping the

learners' responses to L2 demotivating factors. The findings of the present study demonstrated that demotivators do not affect language learners similarly and that the language learning mindset can lead to a considerable variation in the extent of their demotivation. The roles of other various psychological constructs were also investigated and they were found to interact with the language learners' mindsets diversly leading to a variation in the extent of resilience in the face of demotivators.

This research started with an primary phase of qualitative data collection and analysis. Three interviews were conducted with 13 female foundation-year university students. The participants in the qualitative study shared their beliefs and what they thought and felt about their English learning experience as a long journey involving a combination of stops, obstacles, challenges, rewards, enjoyment, boredom and discovery. Analysis of the qualitative data and interpreting the learners' perceptions suggested the existence of several relationships between various psychological variables and L2 demotivation and thus provided an important contribution to the psychology of language learning demotivation. Although the findings of the qualitative study gave evidence that the language learning mindset played an important role in shaping and guiding the language learners motivation and resilience, more investigation was required to identify the strength of the correlations between various variables. Therefore, a survey was designed and the second secondary quantitative phase of the study was conducted in order to test the hypotheses derived from the qualitative study and to generalise some of its results to larger populations. Collection and analysis of the quantitative data confirmed all the hypotheses and provided better understanding of the results of the qualitative phase of the study. Finally, a theoretical model that conceptualised the impact of he language learning mindset on L2 demotivation was developed. This study demonstrated that L2 demotivation can be predicted directly and indirectly by the fixed language learning mindset. While the fixed language learning mindset can lead directly to L2 demotivation, it can also lead to L2 demotivation indirectly by lowering the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self and increasing L2 disappointment.

8.1.1 The role of language learning mindset

The findings of the qualitative and quantitative components of this research has contributed to L2 demotivation research and complemented each other by establishing, for the first time, an empirical link between language learning mindsets and L2

demotivation. In line with the recent developing interest among the researchers in the field of language learning that explored the relationship between implicit self-theories or mindsets and students' language learning motivation and their reactions to failure situations (Lou & Noels, 2016; Mercer & Ryan, 2009, 2010; Noels & Lou, 2015; Ryan & Mercer, 2011, 2012) the current study found a that language learning mindset plays a significant role within L2 demotivation.

Language learning mindsets were also found to explain to a large extent why some learners remains in the hold of L2 demotivation for extended periods or even develop learned helplessness, while other learners develop psychological resilience and use their personal resources and effective coping strategies to positively adapt to potentially stressful demotivators or successfully recover from demotivation. This finding particularly supports Ryan and Mercer's (2011) argument that learners' beliefs about the role of natural talent can affect their motivation and their ability to develop a positive identity as self-directed language learner within different language learning contexts. It also supports their finding that strong mindsets that stress the superiority of natural talent over learners' directed effort, can demotivate language learners and make them vulnerable to developing a sense of helplessness following their lack of success.

According to Dornyei and Ushioda (2011), from an educational point of view, attributional processes (Weiner, 1979) are one of the most important factors that affect the formation of the individual's cognitive processes such as students' expectancies. However, as I mentioned in section 3.3.3, Dweck's model attempts to go beyond the attributional approach in several ways that were also presented. Consistent with her argument and with her model, the findings of my study demonstrated that (a) language learners are not the same before encountering demotivating factors because they have different mindsets and different goals that orient them toward different explanations of these factors; (b) language learning mindset not only affect attributions, but also influence the meanings of these attributions. Therefore, ability is not simply designated as stable factor; the key point for a language learner's motivation is how this factor is perceived and seen by that learner.

One of the objectives of the current mixed methods research study was to investigate the language learners' diverse responses in the face of demotivating factors and to examine the underlying processes within these processes. Various types of responses to demotivating factors and failure experiences appeared in the data including

L2 resilience, L2 remotivation, and developing learned helplessness. In line with findings in educational psychology research (e.g. Olson & Dweck, 2008), the results of the current study demonstrated that the existence of demotivating factors is not the only determinant of reactions to demotivators. Rather, it is the language learning mindset (interpretation and perception of different demotivators) that determines the learnes' ability to adapt to them or overcome their negative emotional impact and shapes their responses.

I mentioned in section 2.1.3 that I will refer to L2 remotivation when discussing "the process of conscious or unconscious retrieval of the lost energy to learn a second language or the recovery from L2 demotivation caused by any positive internal or external forces". First, with regard to L2 remotivation, there has been a strong evidence that even after demotivation happens, some students remain in the hold of demotivation for extended periods while other students recover from demotivation and rebuild their motivation in order to carry on their language learning journey successfully. Although the factors that facilitate L2 remotivation were not investigated in the quantitative data, the qualitative data revealed that the language learning mindset was a key to successful recovery from demotivation. Indeed, all the participants, who experienced L2 demotivation then successfully rebuild their motivation, have linked their recovery to changing their language learning mindset and the maladaptive beliefs that caused their demotivation. This change and gradual adoption of a growth language learning mindset happened for several reasons including encountering high achievers or hard working learners, observing their own growth and progress after using different strategies, or experiencing the positive outcome of hard work.

In terms of L2 resilience, I mentioned in section 3.5.4 that L2 resilience is related to language learners who encounter demotivating factors or experience failures and either (a) perceive these failures, difficulties, challenges and demotivators as an opportunity for growth and learning and, apply adaptive strategies, and thus remain motivated to pursue successful language learning; or (b) perceive difficulties and failures as being demotivating but apply some maladaptive strategeies that merely assist them to survive their negative emotional impact but do not positively affect their learning trajectory. The findings of the current study demonstrated that the essential part of L2 resilience was the positive adaptation to difficulties and maintaining positive feelings despite the existence of demotivating factors that potentially threatens

197

development.. In line with previous studies in educational psychology research that explored what makes some students resilient and able to overcome challenges or even to flourish during difficult situations (e.g. Blackwell et al., 2007; Diener & Dweck , 1980; Dweck & Sorich, 1999; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Henderson & Dweck, 1990; Robins & Pals, 2002; Yeager & Dweck, 2012), this study found that the language learning mindsets can explain the variation in the language learners' resilience and vulnerability. Although L2 resilience associated strongly with both growth language learning mindset and personality hardiness in the qualitative data, a stronger correlation was identified with language learning mindset than with personality hardiness, with stronger growth language learning mindset being associated with higher level of resilience.

The resilience-related findings also supported what Lou and Noels (2016) established in the field of language learning that, in failure situations, growth mindset language learners are more likely to respond in a more mastery-oriented manner and express higher persistence in learning, while fixed mindsets language learners are likely to respond in more helpless-oriented manner and express higher level of vulnerability. It was confirmed that growth mindset language learners are likely to respond more resiliently when encountered failures and have greater intentions to remain motivated or to bounce back and recover from short-term demotivation, while fixed mindset language learners were more likely to behave helplessly, and thereby remain in the hold of L2 demotivation for extended periods or to develop learned helplessness and completely lose their motivation. In sum, it was evident that growth language learning mindset is a crucial component of language learner's resilience in the face of failures and recovery from demotivation, while fixed language learning mindset is a crucial component of their demotivation and vulnerability to develop learned helplessness.

This study also highlighted the mindsets' potential for change under different circumstances and for a variety of reasons. This finding suuport Mercer and Ryan's (2010, 2012) findings with regard to the dynamism of mindsets and its development and changes across time. It also supported the argument of different researchers that the language beliefs are dynamic and can change according to interaction with contextual factors (e.g., Kalaja, Barcelos, Aro, & Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2015; Mystkowska, 2014; Paunesku et al., 2015; Yeager et al., 2016). This finding has important pedagogical implication for language educators because it suggests that growth language learning mindset can be taught and thus language learner's demotivation can be minimised and

their resilience can be increased in the face of failures and difficulties. Next, I will discuss the theoretical and pedagogical implications.

8.2 Theoretical implications

Research presented in this thesis addressed a number of theoretical issues and examined the application of several constucts from the psychology research into the research of L2 demotivation. First and foremost, the application of Dweck's (1999) implicit theories (mindsets) to L2 demotivation was examined: can the mindset theory explain the variations in the language learners' interaction with demotivating factors?. The results of the current study demonstrated that language learners hold different language learning mindsets that affect their perceptions of demotivating factors and their responses to them, and thereby influence their L2 demotivation and their L2 reilience. A new theoretical model that theorise the role of the language learning mindset within L2 demotivation has been developed. Thus, a clear answer was given to the application of mindset theory question.

Furthermore, the implications of Weiner's (1979) attribution theory was explored: do the individuals' diverse explanations of their own past failures and success (i.e their attributions) affect and shape their motivation differently?. The results in the present study gave evidence that the language learner's motivation cannot be predicted by the attribution that they make. Contrary to Weiner who designated ability as a stable factor and presented attribution to ability as an inapporpraite attribution, it was found that the influence of a particular attribution depends on the language learner's mindset and the perception of different factors. Neither attributing past success and failure to ability always influences the learners' motivation negatively, nor attributing to effort always influences the learners' motivation positively. Rather, the language learning mindset that the learner holds (i.e. the way that learner perceives ability and effort) is the actual determining factor that affect the learner's motivation positively or negatively. The findings of this study suspected the application of the attribution theory to L2 demotivation and strongly supported the mindset theory. Therefore, the results seem to support Weiner's claim that different attribution can influence learner's motivation differently, but refute his designation of ability as a stable factor that does

not change over time. Thus, an unambiguous answer to the attribution theory question was provided.

Moreover, the implicaion of Dornyei's (2005) L2 motivational system to L2 demotivation was tested: what role does the ideal L2 self play in L2 demotivation?. Although the ideal L2 self played a significant motivational and remotivational role as expected, more intersting findings existed in the current study. First, interviewes with demotivated language learners revealed that language learners might have a lower ability to develop a positive ideal L2 self that can speak English fluently. This decreased ability can negatively influence the language learner's motivation and lead to L2 demotivation. Second, It was found that this decreased ability was caused by the fixed language learning mindset. This finding show that the ideal L2 self is constructed diversly inside different language learning mindsets. Therefore, the findings of this study, for the first time, established an impirical link between the ability to construct a positive ideal L2 self and the language learning mindset. The results provided a clear answer to the question related to the L2 motivational system and added contributed to the literature by adding a new factor that can affect the construction of the ideal L2 self.

One of the main objectives of the current study was to investigate language learners' resilience and vulnerability in the face of failures. Therefore, this study examined the implications of Kobasa's (1979) conceptualisation of personality hardiness as a resource for resistance in the face of stressful situations: does personality hardiness facilitate language learners' resilience in the face of failures?. The qualitative results revealed that L2 resiliece associates with personality hardiness and the quantitative results revealed a negative relationship between personality hardiness and L2 vulnerability. However, no relationship was identified between personality hardiness and the language learning mindset. This suggests that the personality hardiness plays an important role in the language learners' resilience but this positive role might be obstructed if the language learner holds a fixed language learning mindset.

Finally, the theory of learned helplessness (Seligman & Maier, 1967) and its implications to language learning demotivation was examined: do language learners perceive loss of control and stop acting to change their situations when they are exposed to repeated failures and feel that action is detached from the outcome?. Although the results of this study supported the learned helplessness theory in that repeated exposure to failure and L2 dissapointment can lead to developing learned helplessness, they do

not show an automatic developing of learned helplessness after repeted exposure to failures. The findings identified a relationship between the vulneraibility to develop learned helplessness and the fixed language learning mindset. Disappointment about the low oral profeicincy was strongly predicted by the fixed language learning mindset. On the other hand, growth mindset language learners feel satisfied about their low oral proficeincy level and perceive it as a natural part of the language learning process. Thus, the findings of this study supported the theory in that repeated exposure to failures can increase L2 vulnerability to develop learned helplessness, but argue that the language learning mindset is the main determining factor that lead to the learners' disappointment/satisfaction about these failures, and thereby increase or decrease their vulnerability to developing learned helplessness.

8.3 Pedagogical implications

This section discusses some pedagogical implications of the current study. It will discuss how English teachers' understanding of the role of the language learning mindset within L2 demotivation can assist them in helping the demotivated language learners. The results of the current study provided a new theoritcal model for language educators and practitioners that can help them in preventing L2 demotivation, remotivating their demotivated students and improving their language learning experiences. The developed model conceptualised the fixed language learning mindset as a strong predictor of L2 demotivation and presented its direct and indirect impact on L2 demtivation.

Another important finding was suggested by the qualitative results is that the fixed mindset can change and can be consciously generated, and thus facilitate L2 remotivation or lessen the negative outcome of demotivation. This is in accordance with Dweck's (2008) conclusion that a growth mindset can be taught and promoted. Accordingly, it is important for educators to understand that children are not born holding a particular mindset, but instead, several internal and external factors affect and promote the emergence and prevalence of particular mindsets over time (Dweck, 1998; Dweck & Elliot, 1983).

The above results, along with the developed theoretical model, indicate that the psychological concept of "mindset" can provide an influential framework that may affect language learners' motivational level and inform pedagogical practice. In the

current study, it was demonstrated that the fixed language learning mindset has a detrimental impact on the language learners' motivation, resilience, remotivation. Therefore, the implications of these findings for the teachers' training, feedback and classroom behaviour will be disussed.

8.3.1 Teacher's classroom behaviour

Understanding one of the most important reasons behind L2 demotivation and being aware that teachers can help in preventing it or minimising it, can help them in remotivating their students and rebuilding self-confidence. It is a process of going back and looking at their students' demotivation in different new ways and with new perspectives. With regard to the teacher's behaviour in the classroom, Dweck et al. (1995) suggest that educators should aim at promoting a growth mindset in learners because this mindset tends to encourage learners to put forth more effort and cope better with setbacks or failure. According to the educational psychology research that showed that different kinds of praise or criticism can directly create or change mindsets (e.g. Cain & Dweck, 1995; Dweck & Master, 2008; Kamins & Dweck, 1999; Mueller & Dweck, 1998), English teacher can promote a growth language learning mindsets by

praising the student's effort, process and learning strategies rather than her personality, talent or intelligence (i.e. avoid labelling the students through using words such as stupid, slow, bad, smart, clever, or talented);

- representing effort as being essential for every learner rather than an indicator of lacking a natural ability to learn a second language (e.g. recognising and valuing the student who put effort by rewarding her with bonus effort grades, even if she makes mistakes or if the outcome is lower than expected);
- encourage effortful learning by representing successful language learning or excellent progress (e.g. higher oral proficiency or better writing skills) as something that can be achieved only through hard work, practice, effort and passion (e.g. by telling the students about famous success stories or asking them to research about famous achievers as a homework);
- differentiating effort grades by giving an effort grade for each segment. For instance, by diving the grade for a presentation into: researching the topic, planning and outlining the assignment, designing the powerpoint

slides, writing the essay, actual presentation skills, reflecting on the final outcome, and acting on feedback.;

- reinforcing the message that failures, difficulties and mistakes are natural part of the language learning process and genuine opportunities to grow and learn (i.e. by teaching the students to value and seek challenges or by inspiring the students and telling them about your personal failure experiences and show them how making mistakes was the fastest route and the most powerful way to master a new skill);

- encouraging ethe students to write down their mistakes in a log in order to normalise the process of making mistakes and to give them an opportunity to reflect on what they learnt from their mistakes.

The literature shows that students' mindsets can be primed, changed and taught and that teaching a growth mindset can enhance their motivation and thus improve their school achievement (e.g. Chen & Pajares, 2010; Dupreyat & Marine, 2005). Several psychology researchers has provided various influential direct and indirect strategies that teachers can apply to help their students to develop a growth mindset. A direct and effective way in which students' mindsets can be changed is through workshops, lectures and interventions that directly teach and promote a growth mindset (e.g. Aronson et al., 2002; Blackwell, et al., 2007; Yeager & Walton, 2011). These workshops are developed by psychology researchers including a number of classroom-based sessions where students are taught about growth mindsets and how their brains need to be exercised to get stronger. Reviewing the intervention studies conducted to change the students' mindsets in the literature has demonstrated that changing students' mindsets or priming a particular mindset can have a significant impact on their motivation and achievement (e.g. Dweck, 2008; Lou and Noels, 2016).

The current study suggests that establishing pedagogical approaches that encourage a growth language learning mindset can develop more positive L2 attitudes and can have a powerful influence on L2 learners' motivation and remotivation. This study was not aimed at providing details on how these strategies and approaches can be implemented in classroom settings, but highlighting the significance of the language learning mindset and other factors in an unambiguous manner will hopefully provide a stepping stone towards developing such practical implications through further research.

8.3.2 Teacher's feedaback

The results of the psychology research showed how adults' own mindsets and their feedback practices and can influence students to think about their abilities in different ways. For example, Good, Rattan, & Dweck (2007, cited in Dweck, 2008) found that teachers who learned about a growth mindset in math gave more support to the students by giving more effective strategies for improvement, while those who were taught that math ability is fixed were more likely to simply comfort the student, for example by explaining that not everyone can be talented and smart in math. In line with the psychology research, practical strategies can be suggested to the English teachers tohelp them to promote growth language learning mindsets through particular feedbacks. Through their feedback, teachers should be guiding their students towards autonomy by changing their maladaptive beliefs and stressing the superiority of their effort as a key to success or failure in language learning. They should remotivate their students by directing them towards consulting different learning tools and resources, overcoming obstacles and avoiding distractors and minimising the role of any other factors. It is also important for teachers to carefully select tasks, materials, and feedback tools that include positive implicit messages that emphasise the importance of effort.

Based on the studies that showed that different kinds of praise or criticism from adults can directly shape, create or change children's' patterns of reaction (e.g. Cain & Dweck, 1995; Kamins & Dweck, 1999; Mueller & Dweck, 1998), it can be suggested that English teachers should carefully consider their reactions or feedbacks when language learners make mistakes or achieve well. English teachers should avoid praising natural ability or talent in order to avoid promoting a fixed language learning mindset unintentionally. Instead, they should praise the process (i.e. effort or strategy) in order to promote the growth language learning mindset, motivate students to seek challenges and increase their resilience in the face of setbacks and difficulties. English teachers can also indirectly promote the growth mindset and thereby prevent L2 demotivation by highlighting the importance of making mistakes and failures in improvement, growth and learning new things (Rattan, Savani, Chugh, & Dweck, 2015).

It seems that, in order to promote growth mindset, teachers' feedback should be oriented toward future behaviour rather than past performance. For instance, when the evaluating the student's work, the teacher should provide information about what could

be done better next time (i.e. guide future behaviour) instead of judging, praising or criticising what has already been done (i.e. evaluating performance or final outcome). Praising and criticising what has already been done might risk closing down the student's future attempts or increase the fear of future behaviour and others' judjment. One way for teachers to retrain themselves to give better feedback is to learn some feedback sentence starters such as: "this work suggest that you might now start thinking about .."; or "I can identify the effort that you have put into this and next time you can try…". Effective feedback should be (a) informative; (b) focusing on something specific and aiming at making progress; (c) identifying levels of effort put into different aspect of work; (d) identifying the process employed to achieve the final version of the task; (e) suggesting different strategies the can be applied next time.

More broadly, English teachers should be given the opportunity for discussing language learning beliefs with their students. This can be achieved through allowing them to have private tutoring sessions with demotivated students or by allowing them to plan for seminars or workshops to discuss the reasons behind their students' demotivation . Moreover, teachers should create a supportive environment by deliberately setting up social encounters in which the students can (a) support, collaborate and give feedback to each other (i.e. regular peer-assessment); (b) express their own beliefs and understand the factors that demotivate them; (c) share their beliefs, concerns, experiences, and feeings with classmates; (d) working to create a collective growth mindset; (e) identify growth mindset role models and learn from their resilience and remotivation strategies.

The impact of L2 disappointment and lacking the ability to create a positive ideal L2 self on language learning demotivation in the current study, and the fact that these two demotivational factors can be predicted by the fixed language learning mindset have several implications for the teachers. Through their feedback, teachers should change their students' negative feelings about their low oral proficiency level and increase their ability to create a positive ideal L2 self through changing their fixed language learning mindset. For example, whenever they notice that their students are disappointed about their oral proficiency level, teachers should teach their students that having a low proficiency level is a natural part of the learning journey toward achieving fluency. They should promote a growth mindset by teaching their student that they can increase their oral proficiency level only through making mistakes, practicing and

putting forth more effort. Moreover, teachers can teach their students that their oral proficiency cannot be improved unless they minimise their teacher's role and value their own hard work outside the classroom.

8.3.3 Teachers' training

Teachers are frequently discussed in the educational psychology literature as essential source of support who can present materials in a growth mindset framework and give feedback that enhance a growth mindset. English teachers' awareness about the language learning mindsets should be raised. The language leaning mindsets, their impact on L2 motivation and resilience, and ways to promote the growth mindset should be introduced and clarified within the language teachers' in-service and pre-service training programmes. Training programmes should provide the teachers with the practical tools and effective strategies that can help them in promoting the growth language learning mindset. Teachers also need training on (a) how to explicitly and systematically raise the students' awareness of their own language learning mindsets; (b) how to work closely with students and explicitly discuss their beliefs; and (c) how toestablish a growth mindset language learning environment where hard work, effort, and gradual growth are valued.

It is worth noting that previous research has highlighted the importance of the teachers' own beliefs when discussing the students' mindsets (e.g. Cimpian, Arce, Markman, & Dweck, 2007; Lou & Noels, 2015; McCombs & Whisler, 1997; Peacock, 2001; Rattan et al., 2012). Language teachers' beliefs about the nature of language learning ability and their students' potential to master a new language can significantly influence their teaching strategies, their own motivation and their feedback or reaction to their students' failures or weaknesses. For instance, language teachers who believe that the ability to learn a second language is fixed are reasonably expected to be less motivated, create a less supportive learning environment, provide less instructive feedbacks, deliver implicit or explicit messages that promotes fixed language learning mindsets in their students and to orient them towards performance goals, thereby influence their motivation and achievement negatively (Lou & Noels, 2015; Rattan et al., 2012).

The findings of the current study suggest the capacity of every individual learner to develop their abilities if they are taught about the growth language learning mindset. Combining the results of this study with Dweck's (1999) findings, it is clear that

English teachers can manipulate, influence, enhance and promote the growth mindset using different strategies. However, English teachers seem to be unaware of the significant interaction between the language learning mindset and L2 demotivation, and we can reasonably assume that this situation is not restricted only to this learning environment. Therefore, a greater teachers' awareness of the concept of mindset is called for in order to increase the learners' motivation to learn English.

8.4 Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, it is limited in that it only looked at females' perception of language learning experiences. Interviewing male participants and comparing their responses to L2 demotivation with the female responses might elicit different and interesting results, especially when talking about psychological issues such as emotions, hardiness and feelings. Speaking English as a second language would significantly increase the applicant's employment opportunities in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, there is more pressure to learn English on males in Saudi Arabian society as they need jobs more than women, being in most cases, the main breadwinners who protect and provide care for the women in their family.

Second, it must be noted that in the saudi context, the compulsory second language taught in schools is English. Consequently, it is not quite clear how generalisable the findings are to other settings where the compulsory language taught in schools is not English.

Third, although the quantitative data results were well integrated with the qualitative data results and were certainly interesting enough to serve as the basis for further quantitative or qualitative studies involving larger samples from a wider range of contexts, I must mention the novel nature of the new constucts measures used in the survey for the second phase of this investigation to measure different psychological variables. Some measures were specifically developed for this research based on the information elicited from the qualitative data. Therefore, it might need to be modified if used in different contexts.

The second limitation is related to the nature of the survey scales is that no scale was designed to measure L2 remorivation. Also, the multi-item scale that was designed in order to measure resilience or vulnerability after failures asked about imagined situations. This type of questions might be limited in that it does not elicit real

information about real experiences that would reflect actual resilience or vulnerability to learned helplessness. I believe that the items can be improved by changing them to statements that reflect actual experiences (e.g. when I failed the first English course, I stopped trying and withdrew the course).

Another limitation is related to the formation of the language learning mindset. In both studies, the development of a particular mindset and the factors that might have contributed to its formation were not investigated. In the survey, background items could be improved by asking about the parent's educational level or the type of school attended before university. Also, more scales could be designed to explore the teachers' behaviours that contributed to the formation of a particular language learning mindset.

8.5 Contribution of the study and recommendations future research

The current study made every effort to understand L2 demotivation among Saudi learners of English and to identify different psychological concepts that can explain why Saudi students perceive and respond to demotivating factors differently in identical learning situations. While the majority of previous studies were conducted to identify and list the factors that demotivated language learners, the findings of the current mixed methods study have specifically contributed towards in-depth understanding the complexity of L2 demotivation and L2 remotivation. The results have contributed towards identifying new variables that interact with language learning demotivation differently rather than identifying the demotivating factors.

To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study that approached L2 demotivation by exploring how and why demotivating factors are perceived diversely by Saudi learners of English, and why these learners react to L2 demotivation differently. By stablishing an empirical link between demotivation of Saudi Arabian learners of English and the psychological concept of mindset, this is the first study that provided a theoretical framework that conceptualises the role of the language learning mindset within L2 demotivation.

It is also the first study that provided an initial understanding of the mechanism of L2 remotivation among Saudi learners of English. This was achieved by empirically investigating the factors that helped some learners to flourish or recover after

experiencing failures or facing learning setbacks and the factors that made other learners remain in the hold of L2 demotivation or even develop learned helplessness.

It should be noted here that research into language learning mindsets is still very much in its initial phase. Although the exploratory nature of the current study involved interviews and questionnaires in order to understand the complexity of demotivation, the findings have generated new questions that further research will need to address. The results of the current study revealed that a considerable number of Saudi learners of English hold a fixed language learneing mindset and many other negative attitudes, perceptions or feelings towards learning English in the classroom. The results also showed that all these negative beliefs can demotivate them or contribute to their vulnerability to develop learned helplessness. While the findings and the insights offered by the current mixed methods study can be valuable, much can be still gained by considering a range of theoretical perspectives and methodological approaches. Many additional important questions remained beyond the scope of this study, but the potential for future studies in this little-researched field within language learning demotivation is considerable.

First, the findings of the current study showed that language learning mindset could change in some cases for several reasons, then highlighted the potential reasons behind this change. Future longitudinal and experimental research is needed to investigate the reported reasons in more detail and explore the best strategies that can help in changing the language learning mindsets and how to maintain this change for longer periods. One of the research questions that need to be addressed and answered using an intervention research with respect to language learning mindsets is: can demotivated language learners rebuild their L2 motivation, increase their effort, or improve their actual achievement if they are taught to develop a growth language learning mindset?.

Second, further research need to be conducted to investigate how language learning mindsets and other negative beliefs are shaped and what contributed to their formation. It will be important to explore the role of various other factors and processes that may contribute to the formation of language learner's mindset such as family background, cultural dispositions and the role of different teaching methodologies.

Third, this study investigated L2 demotivation among Saudi female university students. It would be interesting to examine the developed theoretical model by

investigating L2 demotivation among Saudi male students, younger learners of English in the Saudi schools, or language learners in other contexts, and compare the findings to the results of the present study. Finally, in order to provide further suggestions for English teacher training, future research should explore the language teachers' beliefs and their awareness of various psychological concepts (e.g. mindset, resilience, and hardiness) as well as their role in shaping or changing them. In addition, previous research has shown that the teacher themselves can hold fixed language learning mindsets. Therefore, exploring Saudi teachers' mindsets may be an important avenue to increasing both language teachers' and students' motivation.

REFERENCES

Abdollahi, A., Talib, M. A., Yaacob, S. N., & Ismail, Z. (2015). The role of hardiness in decreasing stress and suicidal ideation in a sample of undergraduate students. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 55*(2), 202-222.

Abrahamsson, N., & Hyltenstam, K. (2009). Age of onset and nativelikeness in a second language: Listener perception versus linguistic scrutiny. *Language Learning, 59*(2), 249-306.

Abramson, L. Y., Garber, J., & Seligman, M. E. P. (1980) Learned helplessness in humans: An attributional analysis. In J. Garber & M. E. P. Seligman (Eds.), *Human helplessness: Theory and applications* (pp. 3-34). New York: Academic Press.

Abramson, L. Y., Seligman, M. E. P., & Teasdale, J. D. (1978). Learned helplessness in humans: Critique and reformulation. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 87*, 49–74.

Agaibi, C. E., & Wilson, J. P. (2005). Trauma, PTSD, and resilience a review of the literature. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 6*(3), 195-216.

Aguilar, L., Walton, G., & Wieman, C. (2014). Psychological insights for improved physics teaching. *Physics Today, 67*(5), 43-49.

Ahmed, K. (2010). English in the Arab Gulf. *Asian Journal of University Education*, 6.1, 1-12.

Ahmed, Z., & Julius, S. H. (2015). Academic performance, resilience, depression, anxiety and stress among women college students. *Indian Journal of Positive Psychology, 6*(4), 367-370.

Al-Banna, H. (1997). Teacher training in the UAE: Problems and prospects. In K. E. Shaw (Ed.), *Higher education in the Gulf: Problems and prospects* (pp. 101–121). Exeter, England: Exeter University Press.

Aliakbari, M., & Hemmatizad, M. (2015). On Students' De-Motivation, Gender, Major, and Educational Level in Iranian EFL Context. *English Language Teaching, 8*(4), 106-116.

Al-Jarf, R. (2008a). A call for New Benchmarks at Saudi Language and Translation schools. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, *10*(4), 60-74.

Al-Jarf, R. (2008b). The impact of English as an international language (EIL) upon Arabic in Saudi Arabia. *Asian EFL Journal, 10*(4), 193-210.

Al-Mohanna, A. (2010). English language teaching in Saudi Arabian context: How communicatively oriented is it. *Journal of King Saud University-Languages and Translation, 22*, 69-88.

Al-Seghayer, K. (2011). *English teaching in Saudi Arabia: Status, issues, and challenges.* Riyadh, Saudi Arabia: Hala Printed Co.

Al-Seghayer, K. (2014). The Actuality, Inefficiency, and Needs of EFL Teacher-Preparation Programs in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature, 3*(1), 143-151.

Al-Shehri, A. S. (2009). Motivation and vision: The relation between the ideal L2 self, imagination and visual style. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 98-119). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Alshumaimeri, Y. A. (2003). *A study of Classroom Exposure to oral pedagogic tasks in relation to the motivation and performance of Saudi secondary school learners of English in a context of potential curriculum reform.* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Leeds, UK.

Alvesson, M., & Deetz, S. (2000). *Doing critical management research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Al-Zahrani, M. (2008). Saudi Secondary School Male Students' Attitudes towards English: An Exploratory Study. *Journal of King Saudi University-Language and Translation, 20,* 25-39

Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement goals in the classroom: Students' learning strategies and motivation processes. *Journal of educational psychology, 80*(3), 260-267.

Andrews, G. R., & Debus, R. L. (1978). Persistence and the causal perception of failure: Modifying cognitive attributions. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 70,* 154-166.

Arai, K. (2004). What 'demotivates' language learners?: Qualitative study on demotivational factors and learners' reactions. *Bulletin of Toyo Gakuen University, 12*(3), 39-47.

Argaman, O., & Abu-Rabia, S. (2002). The influence of language anxiety on English reading and writing tasks among native Hebrew speakers. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, *15*(2), 143-160.

Argungu, D.M. (1996). English, Muslims and Islamisation: Between needs and deeds in English and Islam, In *Creative Encouters 96, Proceedings of the International conference* (pp. 331-347). Malaysia.

Aronson, J., Fried, C. B., & Good, C. (2002). Reducing the effects of stereotype threat on African American college students by shaping theories of intelligence. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 38*(2), 113-125.

Aubrey, S., & Nowlan, A. G. P. (2013). Effect of intercultural contact on L2 motivation: A comparative study. In M. T. Apple, D. D. Silva & T. Fellner (Eds.). *Language learning motivation in Japan* (pp. 129-151). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Azeem, S. M. (2010). Personality hardiness, job involvement and job burnout among teachers. *International Journal of Vocational and Technical Education, 2*(3), 36-40.

Azuri, L. (2006), Debate on Reform in Saudi Arabia, *Inquiry and Analysis,* Series No. 294, pp. 1-6, availabe at https://www.memri.org/reports/debate-reform-saudi-arabia

Bahramy, M., & Araghi, M. (2013). The identification of demotives in EFL university students. *International Journal of Basic and Applied Science, 1*(4), 840-845.

Bailey, S., & Baines, E. (2012). The impact of risk and resiliency factors on the adjustment of children after the transition from primary to secondary school. *Educational and Child Psychology, 29*(1), 47-63.

Baird, G. L., Scott, W. D., Dearing, E., & Hamill, S. K. (2009). Cognitive self-regulation in youth with and without learning disabilities: Academic self-efficacy, theories of intelligence, learning vs. performance goal preferences, and effort attributions. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 28*(7), 881-908.

Baker, C. (1998). Transcription and representation in literacy research. In J. Flood, S. Heath, D. Lapps (Eds.), *A Handbook for Literacy Educators: Research on Teaching the Communicative and Visual Arts (*pp. 108–118). Macmillan, New York.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review, 84,* 191–215.

Barbour, R. & Schostak, J. (2005). Interviewing and focus groups. In B. Somekh & C. Lewin (Eds.), *Research methods in the social sciences* (pp. 41-48). London: Sage Publications.

Barcelos, A. M. F., & Kalaja, P. (2011). Introduction to beliefs about SLA revisited. *System, 39*(3), 281-289.

Barcelos, A. M. F., Kalaja, P. (2003). Conclusion: exploring possibilities for future research on beliefs about SLA. In P. Kalaja & A.M.F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New Research Approaches* (pp. 231-238). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic.

Bargai, N., Ben-Shakhar, G., & Shalev, A. Y. (2007). Posttraumatic stress disorder and depression in battered women: The mediating role of learned helplessness. *Journal of Family Violence, 22*(5), 267-275.

Bartone, P. T. (2006). Resilience under military operational stress: can leaders influence hardiness?. *Military Psychology, 18*(S), S131-S148.

Bartone, P. T., Eid, J., Hystad, S. W., Jocoy, K., Laberg, J. C., & Johnsen, B. H. (2015). Psychological Hardiness and Avoidance Coping Are Related to Risky Alcohol Use in Returning Combat Veterans. *Military Behavioral Health, 3*(4), 274-282.

Bartone, P. T., Kelly, D. R., & Matthews, M. D. (2013). Psychological hardiness predicts adaptability in military leaders: A prospective study. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 21*(2), 200-210.

Bartone, P. T., Ursano, R. J., Wright, K. M., & Ingraham, L. H. (1989). The impact of a military air disaster on the health of assistance workers: A prospective study. *The Journal of nervous and mental disease, 177*(6), 317-328.

Birbili, M. (2000). Translating from one language to another. *Social research update*, *31*(1), 1-7.

Blackwell, L. S., Trzesniewski, K. H., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Implicit theories of intelligence predict achievement across an adolescent transition: A longitudinal study and an intervention. *Child Development, 78,* 246–263.

Boaler, J. (2013). Ability and mathematics: The mindset revolution that is reshaping education. *Forum, 55(1*), 143–152.

Bonanno, G. (2004). Loss, trauma, and human resilience: Have we underestimated the human capacity to thrive after extremely aversive events? *American Psychologist,* 59, 20–28.

Brennan, M. A. (2008). Conceptualizing resiliency: An interactional perspective for community and youth development. *Child Care in Practice,14*(1), 55-64.

Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology: Methodology* (pp. 89–102). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Britt, T. W., Adler, A. B., & Bartone, P. T. (2001). Deriving benefits from stressful events: the role of engagement in meaningful work and hardiness. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 6*(1), 53-63.

Britten, N. (1995). Qualitative research: Qualitative interviews in medical research. *British Medical Journal,* 311, 251 – 253.

Broadfoot, P., & Osborn, M. (1993). *Perceptions of teaching: Primary school teachers in England and France.* London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Brown, J. D. (2005). Research methods for applied linguistics. In: A. Davies and C. Elder, (Eds.), *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 476-500). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Bucholtz, M. (2007). Variation in transcription. *Discourse Studies*, 9(6), 784-808.

Burnette, J. L. (2010). Implicit theories of body weight: Entity beliefs can weigh you down. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 36*(3), 410-422.

Burnette, J. L., & Finkel, E. J. (2012). Buffering against weight gain following dieting setbacks: An implicit theory intervention. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 48*(3), 721-725.

Burnette, J. L., O'Boyle, E. H., VanEpps, E. M., Pollack, J. M., & Finkel, E. J. (2013). Mind sets matter: A meta-analytic review of implicit theories and self-regulation. *Psychological Bulletin, 139*(3), 655–701.

Burnette, J. L., Pollack, J. M., & Hoyt, C. L. (2010). Individual differences in implicit theories of leadership ability and self-efficacy: Predicting responses to stereotype threat. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 3*(4), 46-56.

Burns, M. O., & Seligman, M. E. (1991). Explanatory style, helplessness, and depression. In C. R. Snyder, & D. R., Forsyth et al. (Eds.), *Handbook of social and clinical psychology: The health perspective* (pp. 267–284). New York: Pergamon general psychology series.

Busse, V., & Walter, C. (2013). Foreign language learning motivation in higher education: A longitudinal study of motivational changes and their causes. *The Modern Language Journal, 97*(2), 435-456.

Byrne, D., & Callaghan, G. (2013). *Complexity theory and the social sciences: The state of the art*. London: Routledge.

Byrne, M. (2001). Evaluating the findings of qualitative research. *Association of Operating Room Nurses journal, 73*(3), 703-706.

Cain, K. M., & Dweck, C. S. (1995). The relation between motivational patterns and achievement cognitions through the elementary school years. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 25-52.

Camacho, E. M., Verstappen, S. M., Chipping, J., & Symmons, D. P. (2013). Learned helplessness predicts functional disability, pain and fatigue in patients with recent-onset inflammatory polyarthritis. *Rheumatology, 52*(7), 1233-1238.

Campbell, E., & Storch, N. (2011). The changing face of motivation: A study of changes to second language learners' motivation over time. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 34*(2), 166-192.

Cantor, N. (1990). From thought to behavior: "Having" and "doing" in the study of personality and cognition. *American psychologist, 45*(6), 735-750.

Carpenter, C., Falout, J., Fukuda, T., Trovela, M., & Murphey, T. (2009). Helping students repack for remotivation and agency. In A. M. Stoke (Ed.), *JALT 2008 conference proceedings* (pp. 259-274). Tokyo: JALT.

Carroll, J. B. (1981). Twenty-five years of research on foreign language aptitude. In K. C. Diller (Ed.), *Individual differences and universals in language learning aptitude* (pp. 83–118). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Casado, M. A., & Dereshiwsky, M. I. (2001). Foreign language anxiety of university students. *College Student Journal, 35*(4), 539-551.

Cash, M. L., & Gardner, D. (2011). Cognitive hardiness, appraisal and coping: comparing two transactional models. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 26*(8), 646-664.

Chambers, G. (1993). Taking the 'de'out of demotivation. *Language Learning Journal, 7*(1), 13-16.

Chan, D. W. (2003). Hardiness and its role in the stress–burnout relationship among prospective Chinese teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 19*(4), 381-395.

Chen, J. A., & Pajares, F. (2010). Implicit theories of ability of Grade 6 science students: Relation to epistemological beliefs and academic motivation and achievement in science. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 35*(1), 75-87.

Chen, T. Y., & Chang, G. B. (2004). The relationship between foreign language anxiety and learning difficulties. *Foreign Language Annals, 37*(2), 279-289.

Chen, W. W., & Wong, Y. L. (2015). Chinese mindset: theories of intelligence, goal orientation and academic achievement in Hong Kong students. *Educational Psychology, 35*(6), 714-725.

Chiu, C. Y., Hong, Y. Y., & Dweck, C. S. (1997). Lay dispositionism and implicit theories of personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73*, 19-30.

Christophel, D. M., & Gorham, J. (1995). A test-retest analysis of student motivation, teacher immediacy, and perceived sources of motivation and demotivation in college classes. *Communication Education, 44*(4), 292-306.

Cimpian, A., Arce, H. M. C., Markman, E. M., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Subtle linguistic cues affect children's motivation. *Psychological Science, 18*(4), 314-316.

Clark, D. A., & Beck, A. T. (1999). *Scientific foundations of cognitive theory and therapy of depression*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Clement, R. (1980). Ethnicity, contact and communicative competence in a second language. In H. Giles,W. P. Robinson & P. M. Smith (eds.*), Language: social psychological perspectives* (pp. 147-154). Oxford, England: Pergamon.

Cochran, J. L., McCallum, R. S., & Bell, S. M. (2010). Three A's: How do attributions, attitudes, and aptitude contribute to foreign language learning?. *Foreign Lanuage Annals, 43*(4), 566-582.

Coetzee-Van Rooy, S. (2006). Integrativeness: untenable for world Englishes learners?. *World Englishes*, *25*(3-4), 437-450.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. (6th ed.). London: Routledge.

Contrada, R. J. (1989). Type A behavior, personality hardiness, and cardiovascular responses to stress. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 57*(5), 895-903.

Coryell, J. E., & Clark, M. C. (2009). One right way, intercultural participation, and language learning anxiety: A qualitative analysis of adult online heritage and nonheritage language learners. *Foreign Language Annals, 42*(3), 483-504

Cox, J. (2012). Relationship satisfaction and resilience: Military couples and deployment. *Human Communication, 15*(1), 41-57.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J., & Clark, V. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language learning, 41*(4), 469-512.

Csizer, K., & Dornyei, Z. (2005). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behavior. *Language learning, 55*(4), 613-659.

Csizer, K., Kormos, J. (2009). Learning experiences, selves and motivated learning behaviour: a comparative analysis of structural models for Hungarian secondary and university learners of English. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 98-119). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Daif-Allah, A. S., & Alsamani, A. S. (2013). Motivators for Demotivators Affecting English Language Acquisition of Saudi Preparatory Year Program Students. *English Language Teaching, 7*(1), 128-138.

Danermark, B., Ekstrom, M., & Jakobsen, L. (2005). *Explaining society: an introduction to critical realism in the social sciences*. London: Routledge.

Davydov, D. M., Stewart, R., Ritchie, K., & Chaudieu, I. (2010). Resilience and mental health. *Clinical psychology review, 30*(5), 479-495.

de Bot, K. & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2011) Researching second language development from a dynamic systems theory perspective. In M. H. Verspoor, K. de Bot & W. Lowie (Eds.) *A Dynamic Approach to Second Language Development: Methods and Techniques* (pp. 5–23). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

de Bot, K. (2015). Rates of change timescales in second language development. In Dornyei, Z., Maclntyre, P. D., and Henry, A. (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 29-37). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

de Bot, K., Lowie, W., Thorne, S., & Verspoor, M. (2013). Dynamic systems theory as a comprehensive theory of second language development. In M. Mayo, M. Gutierrez-Mangado, & M.Adrián (Eds)*, Contemporary approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 199–220). Amsterdam: John Benjamins..

de Bot, K., Lowie, W. & Verspoor, M. H. (2007) A Dynamic Systems Theory approach to second language acquisition. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 10 (1), 7–21.

Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and self-determination in human behaviour.* New York: Plenum Press.

DeKeyser, R. M. (2000). The robustness of critical period effects in second language acquisition. *Studies in second language acquisition, 22*(04), 499-533.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (2000). *Handbook of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dewey, J. (1997). *How we think*. Courier Corporation.

Diener, C. I., & Dweck, C. S. (1980). An analysis of learned helplessness: II. The processing of success. *Journal of personality and social psychology,39*(5), 940-952.

Dinger, F. C., Dickhäuser, O., Spinath, B., & Steinmayr, R. (2013). Antecedents and consequences of students' achievement goals: A mediation analysis. *Learning and Individual Differences, 28*, 90-101.

Djigunovic, J.M. (2006). Language anxiety and language processing. In S.H. Foster-Cohen, M.M. Krajnovic & J.M. Djigunovic (eds), *EUROSLA Yearbook* (pp. 191-212).

Dornyei, Z. & Shoaib, A. (2005). Affect in lifelong learning: Exploring L2 motivation as a dynamic process. In D. Nunan & P. Benson (Eds.), *Learners' stories: Difference and diversity in language learning.* (pp.22-41). Cambridge, UK University Press.

Dornyei, Z. & Skehan, P. (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In: C. J. Doughty and M.H. Long, (Eds), *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 589– 630). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Dornyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(3), 273-284.

Dornyei, Z. (1998). *Demotivation in foreign language learning.* Paper presented at the TESOL'98 Congress, Seattle, WA, March.

Dornyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dornyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dornyei, Z. (2009). The L2 Motivational Self System. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9-42). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Dornyei, Z. (2010). Researching motivation: From integrativeness to the ideal L2 self. In S. Hunston & D. Oakey (Eds.) *Introducing applied linguistics: Concepts and skills* (pp. 74-83). London: Routledge.

Dornyei, Z. (2014). Researching complex dynamic systems: 'Retrodictive qualitative modelling' in the language classroom. *Language Teaching, 47*(1), 80–91

Dornyei, Z., & Chan, L. (2013). Motivation and vision: An analysis of future L2 self images, sensory styles, and imagery capacity across two target languages. *Language Learning, 63,* 437-462.

Dornyei, Z., & Chan, L. (2013). Motivation and vision: An analysis of future L2 self images, sensory styles, and imagery capacity across two target languages. *Language Learning, 63*, 437–462.

Dornyei, Z., & Clément, R. (2001). Motivational characteristics of learning different target languages: Results of a nationwide survey. *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition, 23,* 399-432.

Dornyei, Z., & Csizer, K. (2012). 'How to design and analyze surveys in SLA research?' In A. Mackey & S. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (pp. 74-94). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Dornyei, Z., & Kubanyiova, M. (2014). *Motivating learners, motivating teachers: Building vision in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Dornyei, Z., & Otto , I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics* (Thames Valley University, London)*, 4*, 43-69.

Dornyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited.* New York: Routledge.

Dornyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching: Motivation* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Longman.

Dornyei, Z., Csizer, K., & Nemeth, N. (2006). *Motivational dynamics, language attitudes and language globalisation: A Hungarian perspective.*Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Dornyei, Z., Henry, A., & MacIntyre, P. D. (Eds.). (2015). *Motivational dynamics in language learning*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Doron, J., Stephan, Y., Boiche, J., & Scanff, C. L. (2009). Coping with examinations: Exploring relationships between students' coping strategies, implicit theories of ability, and perceived control. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 79*(3), 515-528.

Dunn, L. B., Iglewicz, A., & Moutier, C. (2008). A conceptual model of medical student well-being: promoting resilience and preventing burnout. *Academic Psychiatry, 32*(1), 44-53.

Dupeyrat, C., & Marine, C. (2005). Implicit theories of intelligence, goal orientation, cognitive engagement, and achievement: A test of Dweck's model with returning to school adults. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 30*(1), 43-59.

Dutton, M. A., Burghardt, K. J., Perrin, S. G., Chrestman, K. R., & Halle, P. M. (1994). Battered women's cognitive schemata. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 7,* 237–755

Dweck, C. (1975). The role of expectations and attributions in the alleviation of learned helplessness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31,* 674-685.

Dweck, C. (1998). The development of early self-conceptions: Their relevance for motivational processes. In J. Heckhausen & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulation across the life span* (pp. 257–280). NewYork: Cambridge University Press.

Dweck, C. (1999). *Self-theories: their role in motivation, personality, and development.* New York: Psychology Press.

Dweck, C. (2006). *Mindset: The New Psychology of Success.* New York, NY: Random *House.*

Dweck, C. (2007). The perils and promises of praise. *Educational Leadership, 65*(2), 34–39.

Dweck, C. (2008). Can personality be changed? The role of beliefs in personality and change. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 17,* 391–394.

Dweck, C. (2015). *Carol Dweck Revisits the'Growth Mindset'.* Education Week.

Dweck, C., & Elliott, E. S. (1983). Achievement motivation. In P. Mussen and E. M. Hetherington (Eds.), *Handbook of child Psychology* (pp.643-692). New York: Wiley.

Dweck, C., & Master, A. (2008). Self-theories motivate selfregulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 31–51). New York: Taylor & Francis.

Dweck, C., & Molden, D. C. (2005). Self-theories: Their impact on competence motivation and acquisition. In A. J. Elliot & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of competence and motivation* (pp. 122-140). New York: Guilford Press.

Dweck, C., & Sorich, L. A. (1999). Mastery-oriented thinking. In C. R. Snyder (Ed.), *Coping: The psychology of what works* (pp. 232-251). New York: Oxford University Press.

Dweck, C., & Leggett, E. L. (1988). A social cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological Review, 95,* 256–273.

Earvolino-Ramirez, M. (2007). Resilience: A concept analysis. *Nursing Forum, 42,* 73–82.

Ebling, M., & Carlotto, M. S. (2012). Burnout syndrome and associated factors among health professionals of a public hospital. *Trends in Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, 34*(2), 93-100.

Edwards, A. & Lampert, D. (Eds.) (1993). *Talking data: Transcription and coding in discourse research.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Eid, J., Helge Johnsen, B., Bartone, P. T., & Arne Nissestad, O. (2008). Growing transformational leaders: exploring the role of personality hardiness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 29*(1), 4-23.

Elliott, E. S., & Dweck, C. S. (1988). Goals: an approach to motivation and achievement. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 54*(1), 5-12.

Ellis, N. C., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2006). Language emergence: Implications for applied linguistics—Introduction to the special issue. *Applied linguistics*, *27*(4), 558-589

Elyas, T. (2008). The attitude and the impact of the American English as a global language within the Saudi education system. *Novitas-Royal, 2*(1), 28-48.

Elyas, T., & Picard, M. (2010). Saudi Arabian educational history: Impacts on English language teaching. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues, 3*(2), 136-145.

Epstein, R. M., & Krasner, M. S. (2013). Physician resilience: what it means, why it matters, and how to promote it. *Academic Medicine, 88*(3), 301-303.

Erbes, C. R., Arbisi, P. A., Kehle, S. M., Ferrier-Auerbach, A. G., Barry, R. A., & Polusny, M. A. (2011). The distinctiveness of hardiness, positive emotionality, and negative emotionality in National Guard soldiers. *Journal of Research in Personality, 45*(5), 508-512.

Erler, L., & Macaro, E. (2011). Decoding ability in French as a foreign language learning motivation. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(4), 496–518.

Erten, İ. H., & Burden, R. L. (2014). The relationship between academic self-concept, attributions, and L2 achievement. *System, 42,* 391-401.

Evers, J. C. (2011). From the past into the future. How technological developments change our ways of data collection, transcription, and analysis. *Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 12*, 1–31.

Falout, J. (2012). Coping with Demotivation: EFL Learners' Remotivation Processes. *TESL-EJ, 16*(3), 1-29.

Falout, J. (2016). Past selves: Emerging motivational guides across temporal contexts. In J. King (Ed.), *The dynamic interplay between context and the language learner* (pp. 47–65). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Falout, J., Elwood, J., & Hood, M. (2009). Demotivation: Affective states and learning outcomes. . A rationale for passivity and de-motivation revealed: An

interpretation of inventory results among freshman English students. *Journal of Language and Learning, 3*(2), 312-335.

Falout, J., Maruyama, M., (2004). A comparative study of proficiency and learner demotivation. *The Language Teacher 28*, 3–9.

Falout, J., Murphey, T., Fukuda, T., & Trovela, M. (2013). Japanese EFL learners' remotivation strategies. In M. Cortazzi & L. Jin (Eds.), *Researching cultures of learning: International perspectives on language learning and education* (pp. 328-349). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Falout, J., Murphey, T., Fukuda, T., & Trovela, M. (2013). Japanese EFL learners' remotivation strategies. In M. Cortazzi & L. Jin (Eds.), *Researching cultures of learning: International perspectives on language learning and education.* Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Faruk, S. (2013). English language teaching in Saudi Arabia: A world system perspective. *Scientific Bulletin of the Politehnica University of Timişoara Transactions on Modern Languages, 12*(2), 73-80.

Fasick, F. A. (2001). Some uses of untranscribed tape recordings in survey research. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 41*, 549 – 552.

Filep, B. (2009). Interview and translation strategies: coping with multilingual settings and data. *Social Geography, 4*(1), 59-70.

Fishman, J. A. (2010). Theoretical and historical perspectives on researching the sociology of language and education. In K. A. King & N. H. Hornberger (eds.), *Research methods in language and education: Encyclopedia of language and education 10* (pp.3-15). New York: Springer.

Foureur, M., Besley, K., Burton, G., Yu, N., & Crisp, J. (2013). Enhancing the resilience of nurses and midwives: Pilot of a mindfulness based program for increased health, sense of coherence and decreased depression, anxiety and stress. *Contemporary nurse, 45*(1), 114-125.

Franiuk, R., Pomerantz, E. M., & Cohen, D. (2004). The causal role of theories of relationships: Consequences for satisfaction and cognitive strategies. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30,* 1494–1507.

Funk, S. C. (1992). Hardiness: a review of theory and research. *Health psychology, 11*(5), 335-345.

Ganth, D. B., & Thiyagarajan, S. (2013). Role of infertility, emotional intelligence and resilience on marital satisfaction among Indian couples. *International Journal of Applied Psychology, 3*(3), 31-37.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation.* London: Arnold.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second-language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology, 13*(4), 266.

Gardner, R. C., Masgoret, A. M., Tennant, J., & Mihic, L. (2004). Integrative motivation: Changes during a year-long intermediate-level language course. *Language learning, 54*(1), 1-34.

Ghadirzadeh, R., Hashtroudi, F. P., & Shokri, O. (2012). Demotivating factors for English language learning among university students. *Journal of Social Sciences, 8*(2), 189.

Giles, H., & Byrne, J. L. (1982). An intergroup approach to second language acquisition. *Journal of Multilingual & Multicultural Development, 3*(1), 17-40.

Glasser, S. B. (2003, February 3). Qatar reshapes its schools, putting English over Islam. *The Washington Post.*

Gobel, P., & Mori, S. (2007). Success and failure in the EFL classroom: exploring students' attributional beliefs in language learning. *EUROSLA Yearbook, 7,* 149–169.

Gobel, P., Mori, S., Thang, S. M., Kan, N. G., & Lee, K. W. (2011). The impact of culture on student attributions for performance: a comparative study of three groups of EFL/ESL learners. *Journal of Institutional Research South East Asia, 9*(1), 27–43.

Good, C., Aronson, J., & Inzlicht, M. (2003). Improving adolescents' standardized test performance: An intervention to reduce the effects of stereotype threat. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 24*(6), 645-662.

Good, C., Rattan, A., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Adults' theories of intelligence affects feedback to males and females in math. Unpublished data, Columbia University.

Gorham, J., & Christophel, D. M. (1992). Students' perceptions of teacher behaviors as motivating and demotivating factors in college classes. *Communication Quarterly, 40*(3), 239-252.

Gorham, J., & Millette, D. M. (1997). A comparative analysis of teacher and student perceptions of sources of motivation and demotivation in college classes. *Communication Education, 46*(4), 245-261.

Graham, S. (1994). Classroom motivation from an attributional perspective. In H. F. O'Neil & M. Drillings (eds.). *Motivation: Theory and Research* (pp. 31-48). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Graham, S., & Golan, S. (1991). Motivational influences on cognition: Task involvement, ego involvement, and depth of information processing. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 83*(2), 187-194.

Grant, H., & Dweck, C. S. (2003). Clarifying achievement goals and their impact. *Journal of Personality and Social psychology, 85*(3), 541-553.

Green, J.; Franquiz, M., & Dixon, C. (1997). The myth of the objective transcript: Transcribing as a situated act. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(1), 172-176.

223

Greene, R. L., & Nowack, K. M. (1995). Hassles, hardiness and absenteeism: Results of a 3-year longitudinal study. *Work and Stress, 9*(4), 448-462.

Gregg, M., & Hall, C. (2006). The relationship of skill level and age to the use of imagery by golfers. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 18*(4), 363-375.

Gu, Q., & Day, C. (2007). Teachers resilience: A necessary condition for effectiveness. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*(8), 1302-1316.

Gutman, L. M., & Midgley, C. (2000). The role of protective factors in supporting the academic achievement of poor African American students during the middle school transition. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 29*(2), 223-249.

Hadley, G. (2004). *ELT and the new world order: Nation building or neo-colonial reconstruction?.* Paper presented at the SoLLs.INTEC International Conference, Cyberjaya, Malaysia.

Halai, N. (2007). Making use of bilingual interview data: Some experiences from the field. *The qualitative report, 12*(3), 344-355.

Halcomb, E. J., & Davidson, P. M. (2006). Is verbatim transcription of interview data always necessary?. *Applied Nursing Research, 19(*1), 38-42

Hamada, Y. (2008). Demotivators for Japanese Teenagers. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics, 12*(2), 1-23.

Hamada, Y. (2011). What demotivates and what prevents demotivation?. *Akita University Annual Research Report on General Education,* 13, 59−67.

Hamada, Y., & Kito, K. (2008). Demotivation in Japanese high schools. In K. Bradford-Watts (Ed.), *JALT 2007 Conference Proceeding* (pp. 168-178). Tokyo: JALT.

Hammersley, M. (2010). Reproducing or constructing? Some questions about transcription in social research. *Qualitative Research, 10*(5), 553-569.

Hare, A. (1996). Pragmatics and Ideology in Approaching Academic Texts. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on English & Islam: Creative Encounters* (pp. 369-375). Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Harkness, J. A. (2008). Comparative survey research: Goals and challenges. In E. D. De Leeuw, J. J. Hox, & D. A. Dillman (Eds.), *International handbook of survey methodology* (pp. 56–77). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Harley, B., & Hart, D. (1997). Language aptitude and second language proficiency in classroom learners of different starting ages. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19,* 379–400.

Hasegawa, A. (2004). Student demotivation in the foreign language classroom. *Takushoku Language Studies, 107,* 119–136.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relationships.* New York: Wiley.

Henderlong Corpus, J., & Lepper, M. R. (2007). The effects of person versus performance praise on children's motivation: Gender and age as moderating factors. *Educational psychology, 27*(4), 487-508.

Henderson, J. (2015). The effect of hardiness education on hardiness and burnout on registered nurses. *Nursing Economics, 33*(4), 204-209.

Henderson, V. L., & Dweck, C. S. (1990). Motivation and achievement. In S. S. Feldman & G. R. Etliott (Eds.). *At the threshold: The developing adolescent* (pp. 308-329). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Hernandez-Martinez, P., & Williams, J. (2013). Against the odds: resilience in mathematics students in transition. *British Educational Research Journal, 39*(1), 45-59.

Hetherington, E. M. (1999). Should we stay together for the sake of the children?. In E. M. Hetherington (Ed.), *Coping with divorce, single parenting and remarriage: A risk and resiliency perspective* (pp. 93–116). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: a theory relating self and affect. *Psychological review, 94*(3), 319-340.

Higgins, E. T. (1989). Self-discrepancy theory: What patterns of self-beliefs cause people to suffer? In Leonard, B. (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 93-136). New York, NY: Academic Press.

Higgins, E. T. (1996). The" self-digest": Self-knowledge serving self-regulatory functions. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 71*(6), 1062-83.

Hilbert, A., Braehler, E., Haeuser, W., & Zenger, M. (2014). Weight bias internalization, core self-evaluation, and health in overweight and obese persons. *Obesity, 22*(1), 79-85.

Ho, D. (2006). The focus group interview: Rising the challenge in qualitative research methodology. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 29*(1), 1-19.

Hong, Y. Y., Chiu, C. Y., Dweck, C. S., Lin, D. M. S., & Wan, W. (1999). Implicit theories, attributions, and coping: A meaning system approach. *Journal of Personality and Social psychology, 77*(3), 588-599.

Hong, H., & Lin-Siegler, X. (2012). How learning about scientists' struggles influences students' interest and learning in physics. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 104*, 469–484.

Horwitz, E. K. (1991). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. In E. K. Horwitz, & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 37-39). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Horwitz, E. K. (1999). Cultural and situational influences on foreign language learners' beliefs about language learning: A review of BALLI studies. *System, 27*(4), 557-576.

Horwitz, E. K. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 21*, 112– 126.

Horwitz, E. K. (2010). Foreign and second language anxiety. *Language Teaching, 43*, 154-167.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal, 70* (2), 125-132.

Hsieh, P. H. (2012). Attribution: Looking back and ahead at the 'why' theory. In S. Mercer, S. Ryan, & M. Williams (Eds.), *Psychology for language learning: Insights from research, theory and practice* (pp. 90-102). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hsieh, P. H., & Schallert, D. L. (2008). Implications from self-efficacy and attribution theories for an understanding of undergraduates' motivation in a foreign language course. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 33*(4), 513-532.

Hystad, S. W., Eid, J., & Brevik, J. I. (2011). Effects of psychological hardiness, job demands, and job control on sickness absence: A prospective study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 16*(3), 265-278.

Ikeno, O. (2002). Motivating and demotivating factors in foreign language learning: A preliminary investigation. *Ehime University Journal of English Education Research, 2,* 1-19.

Irie, K., & Brewster, D. R. (2013). One curriculum, three stories: Ideal L2 self and L2-self-discrepancy profiles. In M. T. Apple, D. Da Silva, & T. Fellner (Eds.), Language learning motivation in Japan (pp. 110-128). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Islam, M., Lamb, M., & Chambers, G. (2013). The L2 motivational self system and national interest: A Pakistani perspective. *System, 41*(2), 231-244.

Jackson, S. E., & Maslach, C. (1982). After-effects of job-related stress: Families as victims. *Journal of organizational behavior, 3*(1), 63-77.

Jahedizadeh, S., Allahdadi, S., & Ghanizadeh, A. (2016). Probing the role of demotivation in avoidance goal orientation among EFL learners at private language institutes. *International Journal of Research Studies in Psychology, 5*(2), 3-13.

Jaksic, N., Brajkovic, L., Ivezic, E., Topic, R., & Jakovljevic, M. (2012). The role of personality traits in posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). *Psychiatria Danubina, 24*(3.), 256-266.

Javid, C., Farooq, M., & Gulzar, M. (2012). Saudi English-Major undergraduate and English teachers' perception regarding effective ELT in the KSASAUDI

ARABIA : a comparative study. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 85*(1), 55-57.

Jegathesan, M., Vitberg, Y. M., & Pusic, M. V. (2016). A survey of mindset theories of intelligence and medical error self-reporting among pediatric housestaff and faculty. *BMC medical education, 16*(1), 16-58.

Jessner, U. (2008). A DST model of multilingualism and the role of metalinguistic awareness. *The modern language journal*, *92*(2), 270-283.

Johnson R.B., Onwuegbuzie A.J., Turner L.A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(2), 112-133.

Julkunen, K. (2001). Situation- and task-specific motivation in foreign language learning. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language learning* (pp. 29-42). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

Kabel, A. (2007). The discourse of appropriation: a response to Karmani. *Applied Linguistics. 28*(1) 136-142.

Kalaja, P., Barcelos, A. M. F., Aro, M., & Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2015). *Beliefs, agency and identity in foreign language learning and teaching.* Pasingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Kamali, Z., & Fahim, M. (2011). The relationship between critical thinking ability of Iranian EFL learners and their resilience level facing unfamiliar vocabulary items in reading. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 2*(1), 104-111.

Kamins, M. L., & Dweck, C. S. (1999). Person versus process praise and criticism: Implications for contingent self-worth and coping. *Developmental Psychology, 35,* 835–847.

Kang, D. H. (2000). Motivation and foreign language learning in korean EFL context. *The Journal of English Language Teaching, 13*(1), 1–23.

Karmani, S. (2005). English, 'terror' and Islam. *Applied Linguistics 26*(2), 262-267.

Kartchava, E., & Ammar, A. (2014). Learners' beliefs as mediators of what is noticed and learned in the language classroom. *Tesol Quarterly, 48*(1), 86-109.

Kasimatis, M., Miller, M., & Marcussen, L. (1996). The effects of implicit theories on exercise motivation. *Journal of Research in Personality, 30*(4), 510-516.

Keblawi, F. (2005). Demotivation among Arab learners of English as a Foreign Language. In M. Singhal & J. Liontas (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Second International Online Conference on Second and Foreign Language Teaching and Research* (pp. 49-78). United States: The Reading Matrix.

Kelly, G. A. (1955). *The nature of personal constructs.* New York: Norton.

Khan, I. (2011). An analysis of learning barriers: The Saudi Arabian context. *International Education Studies, 4*(1), 242-247.

Khan, I. (2012). Teaching and learning of English: An exploratory study of difficulty and strategies. *British Journal of Social Sciences, 1(*1), 76-93.

Kidd, S., & Shahar, G. (2008). Resilience in homeless youth: the key role of self-esteem. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 78*(2), 163-172.

Kikuchi, K. (2009). Student demotivation in Japanese high school English classrooms: Exploring with qualitative research methods. *Language Teaching Research, 13,* 453-471.

Kikuchi, K. (2011). *Learner perceptions of demotivators in Japanese high school English classrooms.* (Doctoral dissertation). Temple University, Tokyo.

Kikuchi, K. (2013). Demotivators in the Japanese EFL Context. In M. T. Apple, D. D. Silva & T. Fellner (Eds.), *Language learning motivation in Japan* (pp. 206-224). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Kikuchi, K. (2015). *Demotivation in second language acquisition: Insights from Japan.* Bristol, Uk: Multilingual Matters.

Kim, C., & Keller, J. M. (2010). Motivation, volition and belief change strategies to improve mathematics learning. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 26*(5), 407-420.

Kim, K. J. (2009). Demotivating factors in secondary English education. *English Teaching, 64(*4), 249-267.

Kim, T. Y. & Seo, H. (2012). Elementary school students' foreign language learning demotivation: A mixed methods study of Korean EFL context. *The Asia Pacific Education Research, 21*(1), 160-171.

Kim, T. Y. (2011). Sociocultural dynamics of ESL learning (de) motivation: An activity theory analysis of two adult Korean immigrants. *Canadian modern language review, 67*(1), 91-122.

Kim, T. Y. (2012). The L2 motivational self system of Korean EFL students: Cross-grade survey analysis. *English Teaching, 67*(1), 29-56.

Kim, Y. K., & Kim, T. Y. (2013). English learning demotivation studies in the EFL contexts: State of the art. *Modern English Education, 14*(1). 77-102.

King, M, Stanley, G, Burrows, G. (1987). *Stress: theory and practice.* London: Grune & Stratton.

Kobasa, S. C. (1979). Stressful life events, personality, and health: an inquiry into hardiness. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 37(*1), 1-11.

Kobasa, S. C. (1982). The hardy personality: Toward a social psychology of stress and health. *Social psychology of health and illness, 4,* 3-32.

Kobasa, S. C. (1985). *Personal views survey.* Chicago: Hardiness Institute Inc.

Kobasa, S. C., Maddi, S. R. & Courington, S. (1981). Personality and constitution as mediators in the stress-illness relationship. *Journal of health and social behavior,* 368-378.

Kobasa, S. C., Maddi, S. R., & Kahn, S. (1982). Hardiness and health: a prospective study. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 42*(1), 168-177.

Kojima, S. (2004). *English learning demotivation in Japanese EFL students: Research in demotivational patterns from the qualitative research results of three different types of high schools* (Master Thesis). Kwansei Gakuin University, Hyogo, Japan.

Kray, L. J., & Haselhuhn, M. P. (2007). Implicit negotiation beliefs and performance: experimental and longitudinal evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93*(1), 49-64.

Kvale, S. & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing.* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. *System*, *32*(1), 3-19.

Lamb, M. (2007). The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *Tesol Quarterly,* 757-780.

Lamb, M. (2011). Future selves, motivation and autonomy in long-term EFL learning trajectories. In G. Murray, X. Gao, & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 177-194). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Lamb, M. (2012). A self system perspective on young adolescents' motivation to learn English in urban and rural settings. *Language Learning, 62*, 997–1023.

Langenkamp, A. G. (2010). Academic Vulnerability and Resilience during the Transition to High School The Role of Social Relationships and District Context. *Sociology of Education, 83*(1), 1-19.

Langer, S. K. (1967). *Mind: An essay on human feeling.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins Press.

Lapadat, J. C., & Lindsay, A. C. (1999). Transcription in research and practice: From standardization of technique to interpretive positionings. *Qualitative Inquiry, 5*(1), 64–86.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1997). Chaos/complexity science and second language acquisition. *Applied linguistics*, *18*(2), 141-165.

Larsen–Freeman, D. (2015). Ten "lessons" from complex dynamic systems theory: What is on offer. In Z. Dornyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 11–19). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2008). Research methodology on language development from a complex systems perspective. *The Modern Language Journal*, 200-213.

Lazarus, R. S. (1966). *Psychological stress and the coping process*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Lee, H. H., & Cranford, J. A. (2008). Does resilience moderate the associations between parental problem drinking and adolescents' internalizing and externalizing behaviors?: A study of Korean adolescents. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 96*(3), 213-221.

Leipold, B., & Greve, W. (2009). Resilience: A conceptual bridge between coping and development. *European Psychologist, 14*(1), 40-50.

Leondari, A., & Gialamas, V. (2002). Implicit theories, goal orientations, and perceived competence: Impact on students' achievement behavior. *Psychology in the Schools, 39*(3), 279-291.

Li, L. (2011). Why They Loathe Learning English? A Study on Chinese College EFL Learners' Demotivators. In B. Shenzhen, *proceedings of the International Conference on Information Management, Innovation Management and Industrial Engineering* (pp. 555-560). Los Alamitos, USA: IEEE.

Li, L., & Zhou, C. (2013). Different Faces of Demotivation: A Comparative Study on Chinese and Korean College EFL Learners' Demotivators. *Journal of Applied Sciences, 13*(6), 800-809.

Li, Y. (2011). Translating interviews, translating lives: Ethical considerations in cross-language narrative inquiry. *TESL Canada Journal, 28*(5), 16-30.

Liem, A. D., Lau, S., & Nie, Y. (2008). The role of self-efficacy, task value, and achievement goals in predicting learning strategies, task disengagement, peer relationship, and achievement outcome. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 33*(4), 486-512.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Liu, D. W., Fairweather-Schmidt, A. K., Burns, R. A., & Roberts, R. M. (2015). The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale: Establishing invariance between gender across the lifespan in a large community based study. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment, 37*(2), 340-348.

Liu, M. (2006). Anxiety in EFL classrooms: Causes and consequences. *TESL Reporter, 39*(1), 13-32.

Lockhart, K. L., Nakashima, N., Inagaki, K., & Keil, F. C. (2008). From ugly duckling to swan?: Japanese and American beliefs about the stability and origins of traits. *Cognitive Development, 23*(1), 155-179.

Loewen, S., Li, S., Fei, F., Thompson, A., Nakatsukasa, K., Ahn, S., & Chen, X. (2009). Second language learners' beliefs about grammar instruction and error correction. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*(1), 91-104.

Looney, R. R. (2004). Saudization: A useful tool in the kingdom's battle against unemployment?. *Journal of South Asian and Middle Eastern Studies, 27*(3), 13-33.

Lopez, G. I., Figueroa, M., Connor, S. E., & Maliski, S. L. (2008). Translation barriers in conducting qualitative research with Spanish speakers. *Qualitative Health Research, 18*(12), 1729-1737.

Lou, M. (2014). Changing Language Learning Mindsets: The Role of Implicit Theories of L2 Intelligence for Goal Orientations and Responses to Failure (Master dissertation). University of Alberta, Canada.

Lou, M., & Noels, K. A. (2016). Changing language mindsets: Implications for goal orientations and responses to failure in and outside the second language classroom. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 46,* 22-33.

Luthar, S. S., Cicchetti, D., & Becker, B. (2000). The construct of resilience: A critical evaluation and guidelines for future work. *Child Development, 71*(3), 543-562.

Lyons, J. A. (1991). Strategies for assessing the potential for positive adjustment following trauma. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 4*(1), 93-111.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning* (pp. 24-45). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner R. C. (1991). Anxiety and second language learning: Towards a theoretical clarification. In: E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 41-54). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1988). *The measurement of anxiety and applications to second language learning: An annotated bibliography*. (Research Bulletin No. 672). London, Ontario: University of Western Ontario.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning, 44*(2), 283-305.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Legatto, J. J. (2011). A dynamic system approach to willingness to communicate: Developing an idiodynamic method to capture rapidly changing affect. *Applied Linguistics, 32* (2), 149–171.

MacIntyre, P. D., MacKinnon, S. P., & Clément, R. (2009). Toward the development of a scale to assess possible selves as a source of language learning motivation. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 193- 214). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Mackay, A. & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: methodology and design.* Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Maddi, S. R. & Hightower, M. (1999). Hardiness and optimism as expressed in coping patterns. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research ,51*(2), 95-105.

Maddi, S. R. (1999). The personality construct of hardiness: I. Effects on experiencing, coping, and strain. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 51*(2), 83-94.

Maddi, S. R. (2005). On hardiness and other pathways to resilience. *American Psychologist, 60*(3), 261–262.

Maddi, S. R. (2013). Personal Hardiness as the Basis for Resilience. In S. R. Maddi (Ed), *Turning stressful circumstances into resilience growth* (pp 7-17). New York, NY: Springer.

Maehr, M. L. & Meyer, H. A. (1997). Understanding motivation and schooling: Where we've been, where we are, and where we need to go. *Educational Psychology Review, 9(*4), 371-409.

Magid, M. (2013). An application of the L2 motivational self system to motivate elementary school English learners in Singapore. *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 2*(1), 228-237.

Mahboob, A. (2009). English as an Islamic language: A case study of Pakistani English. *World Englishes, 28*(2), 175-189.

Mahboob, A., & Elyas, T. (2014). English in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *World Englishes, 33*(1), 128-142.

Maherzi, S. (2011). Perception of classroom climate and motivation to study English in Saudi Arabia: Developing a questionnaire to measure perception and motivation. *Electronic Journal of Research in Education Psychology, 9*(2), 763-798.

Maier, S. F., Peterson, C., & Schwartz, B. (2000). From helplessness to hope: The seminal career of Martin Seligman. In J. E. Gillham (Ed.), *The science of optimism and hope* (pp. 11–37). Philadelphia: Templeton Foundation Press.

Mancini, A. D., & Bonanno, G. A. (2009). Predictors and parameters of resilience to loss: Toward an individual differences model. *Journal of Personality, 77*(6), 1805-1832.

Mancini, A. D., Sinan, B., & Bonanno, G. A. (2015). Predictors of Prolonged Grief, Resilience, and Recovery Among Bereaved Spouses. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 71*(12), 1245-1258.

Marcos-Llinas, M., & Garau, M. J. (2009). Effects of language anxiety on three proficiency-level courses of Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals, 42*(1), 94-111.

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American psychologist,41*(9), 954-69.

Martin, A. J., & Liem, G. A. D. (2010). Academic personal bests, engagement, and achievement: A cross-lagged panel analysis. *Learning and Individual Differences, 20*(3), 265-270.

232

Martin, A. J., & Marsh, H. W. (2009). Academic resilience and academic buoyancy: Multidimensional and hierarchical conceptual framing of causes, correlates and cognate constructs. *Oxford Review of Education, 35,* 353–370.

Martinko, M. J., & Gardner, W. L. (1982). Learned helplessness: An alternative explanation for performance deficits. *Academy of Management Review, 7,* 195–204.

Mayahipour, S., Behjat, F., & Kargar, A. A. (2014). Iranian high school students' English academic proficiency and its relation to demotivational factors. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World, 6*(3), 375-384.

McCalister, K. T., Dolbier, C. L., Webster, J. A., Mallon, M. W., & Steinhardt, M. A. (2006). Hardiness and support at work as predictors of work stress and job satisfaction. *American Journal of Health Promotion, 20*(3), 183-191.

McDermott, M. A. N., & Palchanes, K. (1994). A literature review of critical elements in translation theory. *Journal of Nursing Education, 26*(2), 113-117.

McDonald, G., Jackson, D., Wilkes, L., & Vickers, M. (2013). Personal resilience in nurses and midwives: effects of a work-based educational intervention. *Contemporary Nurse, 45*(1), 134-143.

Mercer, S., & Ryan, S. (2010). A mindset for EFL: Learners' beliefs about the role of natural talent. *ELT journal, 64*(4), 436-444.

Meshkat, M., & Hassani, M. (2012). Demotivating factors in learning English: The case of Iran. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 31,* 745-749.

Midgley, C., & Edelin, K. C. (1998). Middle school reform and early adolescent well-being: The good news and the bad. *Educational Psychologist, 33*(4), 195-106.

Miller, L., & Ginsberg, R. B. (1995). Folklinguistic theories of language learning. *Second language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context, 9,* 293-316.

Miller, W. R., & Seligman, M. E. (1975). Depression and learned helplessness in man. *Journal of abnormal psychology, 84*(3), 228-238.

Mirshekarlou, E. N., Rashidkhani, B., Rezaiian, F., Vahid, F., & Najafi, R. (2015). Relationship Between Hardiness and Achieving Desired Body Mass Index. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition, 14*(1), 50-55.

Miura, T. (2010). The changes of L2 learning motivation. *JALT Journal, 32*, 29-53.

Molden, D. C., & Dweck, C. S. (2006). Finding" meaning" in psychology: a lay theories approach to self-regulation, social perception, and social development. *American Psychologist, 61*(3), 192-203.

Moreno-Walton, L., & Koenig, K. (2016). Disaster Resilience: Addressing Gender Disparities. *World Medical & Health Policy, 8*(1), 46-57.

Mori, Y. (1999). Beliefs about language learning and their relationship to the ability to integrate information from word parts and context in interpreting novel kanji words. *The Modern Language Journal, 83*(4), 534-547.

Morris, T., Spittle, M., & Watt, A.P. (2005). *Imagery in sport.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Mueller, C. M., & Dweck, C. S. (1998). Praise for intelligence can undermine children's motivation and performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75,* 33–52.

Munro, M. J., Flege, J. E., & MacKay, I. R. A. (1996). The effects of age of second language learning on the production of English vowels. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 17,* 313–334.

Murphey, T., & Falout, J. (2010). Critical participatory looping: Dialogic member checking with whole classes. *TESOL Quarterly*, *44*(4), 811-821.

Murphey, T., Falout, J., Elwood, J., & Hood, M. (2009). Inviting student voice. In R. Nunan & J. Adamson (Eds.), *Accepting alternative voices in EFL journal articles* (pp. 211–235). Busan, Korea.

Murphy, L., & Thomas, L. (2008). Dangers of a fixed mindset: implications of self-theories research for computer science education. *ACM SIGCSE Bulletin, 40*(3), 271-275.

Murphy, M., & Dweck, C. S. (2010). A culture of genius: How an organization's lay theory shapes people's cognition, affect and behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 36, 283-296.

Mystkowska, A. (2014). The role of mindsets in foreign language learning: A person-in-context perspective. In W. Szubko-Sitarek, L. Salski, & P. Stalmaszczyk (Eds.), *Language learning, discourse and communication* (pp. 133-147). New York: Springer International Publishing.

Nakata, Y. (2006). *Motivation and experience in foreign language learning.* Oxford: Peter Lang.

Nazari, A. (2007). EFL teachers' perception of the concept of communicative competence. *ELT Journal, 61*(3): 202–210.

Nelson, L. J., & Cooper, J. (1997). Gender differences in children's reactions to success and failure with computers. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 13(2), 247-267.

Nezhad, M. A. S., & Besharat, M. A. (2010). Relations of resilience and hardiness with sport achievement and mental health in a sample of athletes. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 5,* 757-763.

Nikolov, M. (1999). 'Why do you learn English?''Because the teacher is short.'A study of Hungarian children's foreign language learning motivation.*Language Teaching Research, 3*(1), 33-56.

Noels, K.A., & Lou, M. (2015). Mindsets, goal orientations and language learning: What we know and what we can do. *Contact, 41*(2), 41-52.

Nolen, S. B., & Haladyna, T. M. (1990). Motivation and studying in high school science. *Journal of Research in science teaching, 27*(2), 115-126.

Norton, B., & Syed, Z. (2003). TESOL in the Gulf: The sociocultural context of English language teaching in the Gulf. *TESOL quarterly, 37*(2), 337-341.

Nussbaum, A. D., & Dweck, C. S. (2008). Defensiveness versus remediation: Self-theories and modes of self-esteem maintenance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*(5), 599-612.

O'Neill, S.A. (2011). Developing a young musician's growth mindset: The role of motivation, self theories and resiliency. In I. Deliege & J. Davidson (Eds.), *Music and the mind* (pp. 31–46). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Olson, K. R., & Dweck, C. S. (2008). A blueprint for social cognitive development. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 3*(3), 193-202.

Ommundsen, Y., Roberts, G. C., Lemyre, P. N., & Miller, B. W. (2005). Peer relationships in adolescent competitive soccer: Associations to perceived motivational climate, achievement goals and perfectionism. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 23*(9), 977-989.

Oxford, R. L. (1998). *The unravelling tapestry: Teacher and course characteristics associated with demotivation in the language classroom*. Paper presented at the TESOL'98 Congress, Seattle, WA, March.

Oxford, R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(1), 12-28.

Padesky, C. A., & Mooney, K. A. (2012). Strengths-based cognitive–behavioural therapy: A four-step model to build resilience. *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy, 19*(4), 283-290.

Park, D., Gunderson, E. A., Tsukayama, E., Levine, S. C., & Beilock, S. L. (2016). Young children's motivational frameworks and math achievement: Relation to teacher-reported instructional practices, but not teacher theory of intelligence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 108*, 300–313.

Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Paunesku, D., Walton, G. M., Romero, C., Smith, E. N., Yeager, D. S., & Dweck, C. S. (2015). Mindset interventions are a scalable treatment for academic underachievement. *Psychological Science, 26,* 784–793.

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System, 29*(2), 177-195.

Peacock, M. (2009). Attribution and learning English as a foreign language. *ELT Journal, 64*(2), 184–193.

Perry, R. P., Hechter, F. J., Menec, V. H., & Weinberg, L. E. (1993). Enhancing achievement motivation and performance in college students: An attributional retraining perspective. *Research in Higher Education, 34*(6), 687-723.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pintrich, P. R., & De Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(1), 33-40.

Pishghadam, R., & Zabihi, R. (2011). Foreign language attributions and achievement in foreign language classes. *International Journal of Linguistics, 3*(1), 1-11.

Plaks, J. E., Levy, S. R., & Dweck, C. S. (2009). Lay theories of personality: Cornerstones of meaning in social cognition. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 3*(6), 1069-81.

Pomerantz, E. M., & Kempner, S. G. (2013). Mothers' daily person and process praise: Implications for children's theory of intelligence and motivation. *Developmental Psychology, 49*(11), 2040-46.

Quinn, J. (2010). Learning communities and imagined social capital: Learning to belong. London, UK: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Rahman, M., & Alhaisoni, E. (2013). Teaching English in Saudi Arabia: Prospects and challenges. *Academic Research International, 4*(1), 112-118.

Rattan, A., Good, C., & Dweck, C. S. (2012). "It's ok—Not everyone can be good at math": Instructors with an entity theory comfort (and demotivate) students. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 48*(3), 731-737.

Rattan, A., Savani, K., Chugh, D., & Dweck, C. S. (2015). Leveraging mindsets to promote academic achievement policy recommendations. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 10*(6), 721-726.

Riodan, C.A., Thomas, J.S., & James, M.K. (1985). Attributions in a one-on-one sports competition: Evidence for self-serving biases and gender differences. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 8,* 42-53.

Roberts, C. (1997). Transcribing talk: Issues of representation. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(1), 167-172.

Roberts, C. J., Campbell, I. C., & Troop, N. (2014). Increases in weight during chronic stress are partially associated with a switch in food choice towards increased carbohydrate and saturated fat intake. *European Eating Disorders Review, 22*(1), 77-82.

Robins, R. W., & Pals, J. L. (2002). Implicit self-theories in the academic domain: Implications for goal orientation, attributions, affect, and self-esteem change. *Self and Identity, 1*(4), 313-336.

Roeser, R. W., Midgley, C., & Urdan, T. C. (1996). Perceptions of the school psychological environment and early adolescents' psychological and behavioral

functioning in school: The mediating role of goals and belonging. *Journal of educational psychology, 88*(3), 408-422.

Ross, J. (2010). Was that infinity or affinity? Applying insights from translation studies to qualitative research transcription. *Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 11*(2).

Ross, M. (1989). Relation of implicit theories to the construction of personal histories. *Psychological Review, 96*(2), 341-357.

Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (1998). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Roth, D. L., Wiebe, D. J., Fillingim, R. B., & Shay, K. A. (1989). Life events, fitness, hardiness, and health: a simultaneous analysis of proposed stress-resistance effects. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*(1), 136-142.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs, 80*, 1-28.

Rubin, H.J. & Rubin, I.S. (2005). *Qualitative Interviewing: The Art of Hearing Data.* Thousand Oaks, CA: sage.

Rutter M. (1985). Resilience in the face of adversity: protective factors and resistance to psychiatric disorders. *The British Journal of Psychiatry, 147*, 598-611.

Rutter, M. (1987). Psychosocial resilience and protective mechanisms. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 57*(3), 316-331.

Ryan, G., & Bernard, H. (2003). Techniques to identify themes. *Field methods, 15*(1), 85-109.

Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 120-143). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 120-143). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Ryan, S., & Mercer, S. (2011). Natural talent, natural acquisition and abroad: Learner attributions of agency in language learning. In G. Murray, X. Gao, & T. Lamb (Eds.). *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 160-176). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Ryan, S., & Mercer, S. (2012). Implicit theories: Language learning mindsets. In S. Mercer, S. Ryan & M. Williams (Eds.). *Psychology for language learning* (pp.74-89). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Sakai, H., & Kikuchi, K. (2009). An analysis of demotivators in the EFL classroom. *System, 37*(1), 57-69.

Salili, F., & Lai, M. K. (2003). Learning and motivation of Chinese students in Hong Kong: A longitudinal study of contextual influences on students' achievement orientation and performance. *Psychology in the Schools, 40*(1), 51-70.

Salim, J., Wadey, R., & Diss, C. (2015). Examining the relationship between hardiness and perceived stress-related growth in a sport injury context. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 19,* 10-17.

Samwel, H. J., Evers, A. W., Crul, B. J., & Kraaimaat, F. W. (2006). The role of helplessness, fear of pain, and passive pain-coping in chronic pain patients. *The Clinical Journal of Pain, 22*(3), 245-251

Sandvik, A. M., Hansen, A. L., Hystad, S. W., Johnsen, B. H., & Bartone, P. T. (2015). Psychopathy, anxiety, and resiliency–Psychological hardiness as a mediator of the psychopathy–anxiety relationship in a prison setting. *Personality and Individual Differences, 72,* 30-34.

Sarkisian, C. A., Prohaska, T. R., Davis, C., & Weiner, B. (2007). Pilot test of an attribution retraining intervention to raise walking levels in sedentary older adults. *Journal of the American Geriatrics Society, 55*(11), 1842-46.

Saxena, S. (2015). Relationship between psychological hardiness and mental health among college students. *Indian Journal of Health and Wellbeing, 6*(8), 823-825.

Schroder, H. S., Dawood, S., Yalch, M. M., Donnellan, M. B., & Moser, J. S. (2015). The role of implicit theories in mental health symptoms, emotion regulation, and hypothetical treatment choices in college students. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 39*(2), 120-139.

Schumann, J. H. (1986). Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition. *Journal of Multilingual & Multicultural Development,7*(5), 379-392.

Schumann, J.H. (2015). Foreword. In Dornyei, Z., Maclntyre, P. D., and Henry, A. (Edt.). (2015). *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning.* (p.xv). Multilingual Matters Publications. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist, 26*(4), 207-231.

Scott, M. J., & Ghinea, G. (2013). Implicit theories of programming aptitude as a barrier to learning to code: are they distinct from intelligence?. In *Proceedings of the 18th annual ACM conference on Innovation and technology in computer science education* (p. 347). Kent, UK: ACM.

Scott, M. J., & Ghinea, G. (2014). On the domain-specificity of mindsets: The relationship between aptitude beliefs and programming practice. *IEEE Transactions on Education, 57*(3), 169-174.

Scovel, T. (1991). The Effect of Affect on Foreign Language Learning: A Review of the Anxiety Research. In Horwitz, E.K., & Young, D. J. (eds.), *Language Anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications* (pp. 15-24), Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist, 55,* 5-14.

Seligman, M. E., & Maier, S. F. (1967). Failure to escape traumatic shock. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 74*, 1–9.

Sezgin, F. (2009). Relationships between teacher organizational commitment, psychological hardiness and some demographic variables in Turkish primary schools. *Journal of Educational Administration, 47*(5), 630-651.

Shah, S., Hussain, M., & Nassef, O. (2013). Factors impacting EFL Teaching: An exploratory study in the Saudi Arabian context. *Arab World English Journal, 4*(3), 104-123.

Shamloo, Z. S., & Cox, W. M. (2010). The relationship between motivational structure, sense of control, intrinsic motivation and university students' alcohol consumption. *Addictive Behaviors, 35*(2), 140-146.

Shaw, K. E. (1997). Higher education in the Gulf: Problems and prospects. In K. E. Shaw (Ed.), *Higher education in the Gulf: Problems and prospects* (pp. 15–18). Exeter, England: Exeter University Press.

Shehdeh, F. S. (2010). Challenges of teaching English in the Arab world: Why can't EFL programs deliver as expected?. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2*(2), 3600-3604.

Simoni, P. S., & Paterson, J. J. (1997). Hardiness, coping, and burnout in the nursing workplace. *Journal of Professional Nursing, 13*(3), 178-185.

Sippel, L. M., Pietrzak, R. H., Charney, D. S., Mayes, L. C., & Southwick, S. M. (2015). How does social support enhance resilience in the trauma-exposed individual?. *Ecology & Society, 20*(4), 136-145.

Sivan, E. (1986). Motivation in social constructivist theory. *Educational Psychologist, 21*(3), 209-233.

Skehan, P. (1989). Individual differences in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*(02), 275-298.

Skinner, E. & Zimmer-Gembeck, M. (2007). The development of coping. *The Annual Review of Psychology., 58,* 119-144.

Skinner, E. A., & Pitzer, J. R. (2012). Developmental dynamics of engagement, coping, and everyday resilience. In S. Christenson, A. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 21–44). New York: Springer Science.

Skukauskaite, A. (2012, January). Transparency in transcribing: Making visible theoretical bases impacting knowledge construction from open-ended interview records. *Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research,13*(1).

Smith, J. A. M. (2015). *Exploring the relationship between psychological hardiness and small business owner success* (Doctoral dissertation). The university of the Rockies, Denver, Colorado.

Song, Y. (2005). Motivation and demotivation in L2 learning. *Sino-US English Teaching, 2*(7), 79-81.

Sorace, A. (1993). Incomplete vs. divergent representations of unaccusativity in non-native grammars of Italian. *Second Language Research, 9*, 22–47.

Southwick, S. M., Sippel, L., Krystal, J., Charney, D., Mayes, L., & Pietrzak, R. (2016). Why are some individuals more resilient than others: the role of social support. *World Psychiatry, 15*(1), 77-79.

Sparks, R. L., & Ganschow, L. (2007). Is the foreign language classroom anxiety scale measuring anxiety or language skills?. *Foreign Language Annals*, *40*(2), 260-287.

Spielmann, G., & Radnofsky, M. L. (2001). Learning language under tension: New directions from a qualitative study. *The Modern Language Journal, 85*(2), 259-278.

Spray, C. M., Wang, C. J., Biddle, S. J., Chatzisarantis, N. L., & Warburton, V. E. (2006). An experimental test of self-theories of ability in youth sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 7(*3), 255-267.

Steinberg, G., & Gano-Overway, L. A. (2003). Developing optimism skills to help youths overcome adversity. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance, 74*(2), 106-122.

Stigler, J.W. and Stevenson, H.W. (1992). *The learning gap: Why our schools are failing and what we can learn from Japanese and Chinese education.* New York: Summit Books.

Stipek, D., & Gralinski, J. H. (1996). Children's beliefs about intelligence and school performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 88*, 397-407.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tabatabaei, O., & Molavi, A. (2012). Demotivating factors affecting EFL learning of Iranian seminary students. *International Education Studies, 5*(1), 181-190.

Taguchi, T. (2013). Motivation, attitudes and selves in the Japanese context: A mixed methods approach. In M. T. Apple, D. Da Silva, & T. Fellner (Eds.), *Language learning motivation in Japan* (pp. 169-188). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Taguchi, T., Magid, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 motivational self system among Japanese, Chinese and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 66-97). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Tallon, M. (2009). Foreign language anxiety and heritage students of Spanish: A quantitative study. *Foreign Language Annals, 42*(1), 112-137.

Talmy, S. (2010). Qualitative interviews in applied linguistics: From research instrument to social practice. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *30*, 128-148.

Taylor, S. (2001). Locating and conducting discourse analytic research. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor & S. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse as data* (pp. 5-48). London: Sage.

Temple, B. (2002) 'Crossed Wires: Interpreters, Translators, and Bilingual Workers in Cross-Language Research. *Qualitative Health Research 12*(6): 844–854.

Thang, S. M., Gobel, P., Nor, N. F. M., & Suppiah, V. L. (2011). Students' attributions for success and failure in the learning of English as a second language: a comparison of undergraduates from six public universities in Malaysia. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities, 19*(2), 459–474.

Tilley, A. (2003). "Challenging" research practices: Turning a critical lens on the work of transcription. *Qualitative Inquiry, 9*(5), 750-773.

Trang, T. T. T., & Baldauf Jr, R. B. (2007). Demotivation: Understanding resistance to English language learning-the case of Vietnamese students.*The Journal of Asia TEFL, 4*(1), 79-105.

Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 79*(4), 505-518.

Tse, L. (2000). Student perceptions of foreign language study: a qualitative analysis of foreign language autobiographies. *The Modern Language Journal, 84*(1), 69–84.

Tsuchiya, M. (2006). Profiling of lower achievement English learners at college in terms of demotivating factors. *Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan, 17,* 171-180.

Twinn, S. (1997). An exploratory study examining the influence of translation on the validity and reliability of qualitative data in nursing research. *Journal of advanced nursing*, *26*(2), 418-423.

Ungar, M. (2008). Resilience across cultures. *British journal of social work, 38*(2), 218-235.

Ungar, M. (2013). Resilience, trauma, context, and culture. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 14*(3), 255-266.

Ungar, M. (2015). Resilience and culture: The diversity of protective processes and positive adaptation. In L. Theron, L. Liebenberg, & M. Ungar (Eds.), *Youth resilience and culture* (pp. 37-48)*.* Nertherlands: Springer.

Ungar, M., & Liebenberg, L. (2011). Assessing resilience across cultures using mixed methods: Construction of the child and youth resilience measure. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 5,* 126-149.

Ushioda, E. (1996). Developing a dynamic concept of motivation. In T. J. Hickey (Ed.), *Language, education and society in a changing world* (pp. 239-245). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (1998). Effective motivational thinking: A cognitive theoretical approach to the study of language learning motivation. In E. A. Soler & V. C. Espurz (Eds.), *Current issues in English language methodology* (pp. 77–89). Castello de la Plana, Spain: Universitat Jaume I.

Ushioda, E. (2009). A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self and identity. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 215-228). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E., & Chen, S. A. (2011). Researching motivation and possible selves among learners of English: The need to integrate qualitative inquiry. *Anglistik: International Journal of English Studies, 22*(1), 43-61.

Vallerand, R. J. (1997). Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 29*, 271-360.

van Geert, P. (2000). The dynamics of general developmental mechanisms: From Piaget and Vygotsky to dynamic systems models. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *9*(2), 64-68

van Geert, P., & Steenbeek, H. (2005). Explaining after by before: Basic aspects of a dynamic systems approach to the study of development. *Developmental Review, 25*, 408-442.

Vanderbilt-Adriance, E., & Shaw, D. S. (2008). Conceptualizing and re-evaluating resilience across levels of risk, time, and domains of competence. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review, 11*(2), 30-58.

Verspoor, M., de Bot, K., & Lowie, W. (Eds.). (2011). *A dynamic approach to second language development: Methods and techniques*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Vispoel, W. P., & Austin, J. R. (1995). Success and failure in junior high school: A critical incident approach to understanding students' attributional beliefs. *American Educational Research Journal, 32*(2), 377-412.

Vogt, D. S., Rizvi, S. L., Shipherd, J. C., & Resick, P. A. (2008). Longitudinal investigation of reciprocal relationship between stress reactions and hardiness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*(1), 61-73.

Wagnild, G., & Young, H. (1993). Development and psychometric. *Journal of Nursing Measurement, 1*(2), 165-178.

Walker, L. E. (1977). Battered women and learned helplessness. *Victimology, 2,* 525-534.

Walker, L. E. (1996). Assessment of abusive spousal relationships. The battered woman syndrome. In F. W. Kaslow (ed.), *Handbook of relational diagnosis and*

dysfunctional family patterns, Wiley series in couples and family dynamics and treatment (pp. 338– 356). New York: Wiley.

Waller, M. (2001). Resilience in ecosystemic context: Evolution of the concept. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 71,* 290–297.

Walton, S. J. (1990). Stress management training for overseas effectiveness. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14*(4), 507-527.

Waninge, F., Dornyei, Z., & De Bot, K. (2014). Motivational dynamics in language learning: Change, stability, and context. *The Modern Language Journal*, *98*(3), 704-723.

Warrington, S. D., & Jeffrey, D. M. (2005). A rationale for passivity and de-motivation revealed: An interpretation of inventory results among freshman English students. *Journal of Language and Learning, 3*(2), 312-335.

Waschbusch, D. A., Sellers, D. P., LeBlanc, M., & Kelle, M. L. (2003). Helpless attributions and depression in adolescents: The roles of anxiety, event valence, and demographics. *Journal of Adolescence, 26*(2), 169−183.

Waysman, M., Schwarzwald, J., & Solomon, Z. (2001). Hardiness: An examination of its relationship with positive and negative long term changes following trauma. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 14*(3), 531-548.

Webb, W. M., Worchel, S., & Brown, E. H. (1986). The influence of control on self-attributions. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 49*, 260-267.

Weiner, B. (1976). An attributional approach for educational psychology. *Review of Research in Education, 4,* 179-209.

Weiner, B. (1977). Attribution and affect: Comments on Sohn's critique. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 69*(5), 506-511.

Weiner, B. (1979). A theory of motivation for some classroom experiences. *Journal of Psychology, 71,* 3-25.

Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review, 92,* 548-573.

Weiner, B. (1992). *Human motivation: Metaphors, theories, and research.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Weiner, B. (2010). The development of an attribution-based theory of motivation: A history of ideas. *Educational psychologist, 45*(1), 28-36.

Weiner, B. (2000). Intrapersonal and interpersonal theories of motivation from an attributional perspective. *Educational Psychology Review, 12,* 1–14.

Wellard, S., & McKenna, L. (2001). Turning tapes into text: Issues surrounding the transcription of interviews. *Contemporary Nurse, 11(*3), 180-186.

Wenden, A. L. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied linguistics, 19*(4), 515-537.

Wengraf, T. (2004). *Qualitative research interviewing.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

White, C. (2008). Beliefs and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 121-130). Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.

Wiebe, D. J. (1991). Hardiness and stress moderation: A test of proposed mechanisms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*(1), 89-99.

Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2002). The development of competence beliefs, expectancies for success, and achievement values from childhood through adolescence. In A. Wigfield & J. S. Eccles (Eds.), *Development of achievement motivation* (pp. 91–120). San Diego: Academic Press.

Williams, M. & Burden, R. (1999). Students' developing conceptions of themselves as language learners'. *The Modern Language Journal, 83*(2), 193–201.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. & Al-Baharna, S. (2001). Making sense of success and failure: The role of the individual in motivation theory. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 171-184). Honolulu: University of Hawaii (second language teaching and curriculum center).

Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Williams, M., Burden, R., & Lanvers, U. (2002). 'French is the language of love and stuff': Student perceptions of issues related to motivation in learning a foreign language. *British Educational Research Journal, 28*(4), 503-528.

Williams, M., Burden, R., Poulet, G., & Maun, I. (2004). Learners' perceptions of their success and failure s in foreign language learning. *Language Learning Journal, 30,* 19-29.

Wilson, T. D., Damiani, M., & Shelton, N. (2002). Improving the academic performance of college students with brief attributional interventions. In J. Aronson (Ed.), *Improving academic achievement: Impact of psychological factors on education* (pp. 88–108). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Windle, G., Bennett, K. M., & Noyes, J. (2011). A methodological review of resilience measurement scales. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes, 9,* 1-8.

Wong, M., & Canagarajah, S. (eds.) (2009). *Christian and critical English language educators in dialogue: Pedagogical and ethical dilemmas.* New York: Routledge.

Yaeger, D. S. & Walton, G. M. (2011). Social-psychological interventions in education: They're not magic. *Review of Educational Research, 81,* 267–301.

Yakunina, E. S., Weigold, I. K., Weigold, A., Hercegovac, S., & Elsayed, N. (2013). International students' personal and multicultural strengths: Reducing acculturative stress and promoting adjustment. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 91*(2), 216-223.

Yan, H. (2009). Student and teacher demotivation in ESL. *Asian Social Science, 5* (1), 109-12.

Yashima, T. (2009). International posture and the ideal L2 self in the Japanese EFL context. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 144-163). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Yeager, D. S., & Dweck, C. (2012). Mindsets that promote resilience: When students believe that personal characteristics can be developed. *Educational Psychologist, 47*(4), 302-314.

Yeager, D. S., Romero, C., Paunesku, D., Hulleman, C. S., Schneider, B., Hinojosac, C., Lee, H. Y., O'Brien, J., Flink, K., Roberts, A., Trott, J., Greene, D., Daniel, W., Walton, G. M., & Dweck, C. (2016). Using design thinking to improve psychological interventions: The case of the growth mindset during the transition to high school. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 108,* 374-391.

Yeigh, T. (2007). Information-processing and perceptions of control: How attribution style affects task-relevant processing. *Australian Journal of Educational & Developmental Psychology, 7,* 120-138.

Yi Tsang, S. (2012). Learning Japanese as a foreign language in the context of an American university: A qualitative and process-oriented study on de/motivation at the learning situation level. *Foreign Language Annals, 45*(1), 130-163.

Youssef, A., & Simpkins, E. (1985). Parent attitudes on Americanization and bilingual education: The Dearborn, Detroit, and Farmington study. *Bilingual Review/La Revista Bilingüe, 12*(3)190-197.

Zhang, L. F. (2011). Hardiness and the Big Five personality traits among Chinese university students. *Learning and Individual Differences, 21*(1), 109-113.

Zhang, Q. (2007). Teacher misbehaviors as learning demotivators in college classrooms: A cross-cultural investigation in China, Germany, Japan, and the United States. *Communication Education, 56*(2), 209-227.

Zughoul, M. (2003). Globalization and EFL/ESL pedagogy in the Arab world. *Journal of Language & Learning, 1* (2), 106-146.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Language learning mindset survey (items grouped into their scale)

We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions in a survey conducted by the School of English Studies of the University of Nottingham, UK, to better understand the thoughts and beliefs of learners of English in Saudi Arabia. This questionnaire is not a test so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers and you do not even have to write your name on it. We are interested in your personal opinion. The results of this survey will be used only for research purposes so please give your answers sincerely, as only this will ensure the success of this project. If you decide in the end that you would prefer not to participate in this survey, you will be free to opt out without any consequence. Thank you very much for your help!

<u>Language learning mindset</u>

1- I have a certain amount of natural innate ability to learn English. It is fixed.

2- My natural ability to learn English is something about me and will always remain the same.

3- I believe that the natural ability to learn English is stable. It is a god-gifted talent.

4- Everyone is able learn a second language, but this ability is individual, limited and fixed.

5- Learning English is easier for some learners because they are naturally smarter.

6- Some people can learn English and succeed without effort. Those are the people who have a special natural ability.

7- People who try hard and spend very long hours to study English lack the natural ability to learn other languages.

<u>Teacher's role perception</u>

1- I believe that learning English successfully is all about having a good teacher.

2- The (English teacher) is the primary factor of success and failure in learning English.

3- Teachers are always the ones who should be blamed when the students fail the English test.

4- I will simply fail or at least be a weak learner if I have a weak teacher.

5- If the English teacher is good enough to make English easy, students can pass the test easily without effort.

6- My English teacher can make me love or hate English and affect the amount of time I spend studying English.

7- If my English teacher humiliates me in the class, I do not participate and avoid embarrassing myself in front of my classmates.

Oral proficiency mindset

1- I believe that everyone can learn English as a subject and pass the test, but a natural ability is required to speak it fluently.
2- Some learners speak English more fluently because they have natural ability to speak other languages.
3- Observing a classmate who is a fluent speaker of English makes me feel helpless and assume that my natural speaking ability is lower than her.

Personality hardiness (commitment, control, and challenge)

1- When I experience failures, I try to find the exact reason for failure and the solution.
2- Failure and mistakes is a natural part of learning and growth. I remain committed to achieving my goal after experiencing difficulties.
3- I have the power to make a choice to affect and change the outcome positively even if the circumstances are negative.
4- When I encounter a difficult situation, I am able to choose and envision the solution that will lead to a positive outcome.
5- I share my negative feelings about failure with my friends, family members, and teachers and discuss solutions.
6- I embrace challenges and do not feel threatened. I rather focus on learning new things and enjoy new experiences.
7- I am open to seeking for help from specialists, family members, internet sources, books or more advanced learners.

Ideal L2 self

1- I can imagine myself living abroad and having a long discussion in English with native speakers of English.
2- I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.
3- Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.
4- I can imagine a situation where I am hanging out and speaking English with my international friends who are foreigners.
5- I can imagine myself studying abroad and using English effectively to give a presentation in English.
6- I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.
7- The dreams I want to achieve in the future require me to speak English proficiently.

L2 vulnerability/ resilience

1- I feel bored during the English class and feel the time goes very slowly.
2- I hate being in an English atmosphere and listening to an English teacher.
3- I wish if studying English is optional so I can withdraw from the course.
4- I feel it is waste of time to study English and that failure in English is unavoidable.
5- English is my least favourite subject in the school although I was so excited to learn it.

6- It is a burden to study English. I'd rather spend time and effort studying any subject than wasting my time studying English.

7- Whenever I can, I escape the English class because I feel it is useless and irrelevant to the final test.

L2 demotivation

1- During the past schooling years, as English lessons became more difficult, I gradually lost interest in learning it.

2- When I have a bad teacher, I lose interest and reduce the time I spend studying English.

3- After each failure in an English test, I simply lose interest and hate trying again.

4- While I am studying English, if I encounter a difficult task (beyond my ability), I lose interest and reduce studying time, wishing to pass the test by luck.

5- I easily lose interest in goals which prove hard to reach such as English homework that needs too much effort and time.

6- I feel upset when I study English hard but fail the test, so I save time and reduce the effort in the future tests.

7- Observing other better successful proficient English learners makes me feel worse and lose interest, that it is about me not about English.

L2 disappointment

(1) Looking at the time we spent studying English in school, I am shocked and disappointed that we cannot speak English in real life.

(2) I was excited about learning English at school before I started, but found it boring and unpleasant.

(3) Learning English at school was disappointing and irrelevant to my dream of being a fluent speaker of English.

(4) I am disappointed that spending long time studying English at school was useless for speaking outside school.

(5) I am not happy with the school English materials as they lack promoting authentic English language use.

(6) I feel disappointed that I can't speak English although I do my best in the English class.

(7) I feel lost, confused and shocked when I compare my English to native speakers of English.

Background questions

Please provide the following information by ticking (✓) in the box or writing your response in the space.

1- How old are you?

    (a) Between 16 and 18   (b) Between 19 and 21   (c) Over 21

2- At what year did you start learning English at school?

    (a) Year 1 or before (6 years old or younger)

    (b) Between year 4 and 6 (between 9 and 11 years old)

    (c) Intermediate school (12 years old)

3- Please rate your current overall proficiency in English by ticking one of the following
   (a) Upper Intermediate level and over: Able to converse about general matters of daily life and topics of one's specialty and grasp the gist of lectures and broadcasts. Able to read high-level materials such as newspapers and write about personal ideas.
   (b) Intermediate level: Able to converse about general matters of daily life. Able to read general materials related to daily life and write simple passages.
   (c) Lower Intermediate level: Able to converse about familiar daily topics. Able to read materials about familiar everyday topics and write simple letters.
   (d) Post-Beginner level: Able to hold a simple conversation such as greeting and introducing someone. Able to read simple materials and write a simple passage in elementary English.
   (e) Beginner level — Able to give simple greetings using set words and phrases. Able to read simple sentences, grasp the gist of short passages, and to write a simple sentence in basic English.

4- What foundation-year programme are you studying at the moment?

   (a) Science   (b) Arts

Attitude toward learning English at school

5- At the end, I would like you to share your honest and true feelings about learning English as a subject in the school. Based on my previous research and experience as an English teacher, I have noticed that the attitude and feelings towards English learning vary across different students and different levels. Some students love it and enjoy being in an English classroom and feel very excited when they know that English is the next class, while others feel anxious and bored and upset because English is not the favourite subject for everyone… so, which group you think you belong to?
   (a) The first group (excited and happy).
   (b) The second group (bored and unhappy).

The Arabic version of the survey is available online in the following link:

http://www.surveygizmo.com/s3/2083604/language-learner-s-mindset-2

Appendix B

Informed Consent (English and Arabic)

Project title: investigation of L2 demotivation among Saudi learners of English

Purpose and brief description: This interview study aims to explore why Saudi learners of English perceive demotivating factors differently and exhibit diverse repsonses in the face of these factors.

Please, read the following information and check a response as necessary:

I confirm that the purpose of the study has been explained and that I have understood it.	Yes	No
I have had the opportunity to ask questions and they have been successfully answered.	Yes	No
I understand that my participation in this study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time, without giving a reason and without consequence.	Yes	No
I understand that all data are anonymous and that there will not be any connection between the personal information provided and the data.	Yes	No
I understand that there are no known risks or hazards associated with participating in this study.	Yes	No
I confirm that I have read and understood the above information and that I agree to participate in this study.	Yes	No
I consent to my data being transcribed and wish to be referred to anonymously.	Yes	No
I consent to an audio file of my participation to be used, but would like identifying factors any presentation of my data.	Yes	No
I consent to a video file of my participation to be used, but would like identifying factors from any presentation of my data.	Yes	No
I consent to an audio/video file of my participation to be used with any available identifying factors	Yes	No

Participant's signature: _____ Date: _____

Participant's Name (in block capitals): _____

Researcher's signature: _____Date:_____

عنوان البحث مشكله الاحباط في تعلم اللغة الانجليزية عند الطالبات السعوديات في السنة التحضيريه وفحص اسبابها وايجاد استراتيجيات ناجحة لتجاوزها

الرجاء الاشارة الى نعم او لا

اؤكد ان اغراض البحث تم شرحها لي من قبل الباحث واني فهمتها

نعم   **لا**

تم اعطائي الفرصة للسؤال والاستفسار وتم الاجابة عليها بوضوح

نعم   **لا**

تم توضيح ان المشاركة في هذه الدراسة تطوعي وانه بامكاني الانسحاب في اي مرحلة دون اعطاء اسباب وبلا اي عواقب

نعم   **لا**

تم ايضاح ان هذه البيانات المستخلصة لاغراض البحث لن تكون شخصياتها معروفة وسيتم اخفاء الاسماء ولن يتم التعرف على هوية المشاركين الا من قبل الباحث

نعم   **لا**

اتفهم تماما ان من الممكن ان يحدث امور خارجه عن ارادتنا تعيق سير البحث

نعم   **لا**

لقد قرأت المعلومات السابقه بتمعن واعطي موافقتي التامه للمشاركة في البحث

نعم   **لا**

انالا امانع تسجيل وكتابة الحوار الذي سيتم في اللقاء تفصيليا للتحليل بدون كشف هويتي

نعم   **لا**

انا اوافق على استخدام مقطع صوتي لاغراض البحث ولكن بشرط ازاله اي شي ممكن ان يدل على هويتي ويعرف بشخصي

نعم   **لا**

اسم المشارك ....التاريخ.............................

توقيع المشارك

اسم الباحث............................. التاريخ ....

Appendix C

Data Collection Permission Form

This form has to be filled by the researcher and approved by Head of Postgraduate and Scholarships Unit, Head of Educational Affairs Unit and Vice-dean of ELI at women campus.

Part I: Researcher's Statement of Commitment

Researcher name	Fatemah hammad albalawi
KAU ID	00009674
Research Title	Investigation of L2 demotivation among Saudi Arabian learners of English as a second language
Research Participants	Students taking the English assessment test
Data collection instrument (questionnaire, interview, classroom observation, etc)	Interviews and Questionnaire

I confirm that I will fully address the following ethical issues

- **Informed consents will be signed by all participants wherein each participant will acknowledge the following:**
    - o **The participant has been given enough information about the research: purpose of the research; the reason why she was chosen as a participant; and place, time, duration and frequency of data collection sessions.**
    - o **The participant is made aware that she can withdraw from the study at anytime. (However students cannot withdraw from classes wherein data collection has been approved by ELI).**
    - o **The participant is reassured of anonymity and confidentiality issues**
- **Sufficient precautions will be taken in the processing and storage of confidential material** (interviews, completed questionnaires, written samples/reflections).

Researcher's signature   Date

Fatemah Hammad Albalawi   15-07-2014

Appendix D

Faculty of Arts Ethics Approval Form

Researcher	Fatemah Hammad Eid Albalawi
School/Division	School of English studies
Project title	An investigation of remotivation process among demotivated learners of English as a second language
Date	20-12-2012
E-mail	aexfhal

(1) Researcher Information. Please tick as appropriate.

YES ☐ NO ✗ Member of staff conducting research project

If ticked *YES* above, is the research funded by a RC that needs proof of ethics approval? And what is the funding body?

YES ✗ NO ☐ Postgraduate Researcher

If ticked *YES* above, indicate level of studies and supervisor.

PhD ✗   MA ☐   Supervisor: Zoltan Dornyei

YES ☐ NO ✗ Member of staff obtaining approval for data collected by students on a module.

If ticked *YES* above, indicate level of studies.

PhD ☐   MA ☐   UG ☐

Module Code and Module Name

_____

If obtaining approval for a module, in the sections below provide an overview of the type of projects the students will do. Attached with your paperwork the guidelines given to the students about the type of data they will collect, as well as the information about the relevant areas of the ethics protocol that they will need to follow. Students need to provide signed informed consent forms from ALL participants with their submitted work, as well as the tick sheet signed by them.

253

(2) Provide a brief summary of the research aims/questions [max 500 characters & spaces].

The main aim of this study is to develop a theory that is based on the investigation of L2 demotivation among Saudi Arabian ESL learnrs and the exploration of the remotivation process. It addresses the following research questions: (1) what type of factors mainly demotivate ESL learners? (2) What is the degree of influence of different demotives and what factors are best controllable by the students?, (3) why do the same demotivating factors affect individual learners differently?, and (4) what distinguish motivated learners from demotivated learners in terms of their ability to control L2 demotivation and to overcome demotivation and keep their motivation at the highest level even in extremely demotivating learning context?. Three studies will be conducted using mixed methods to find answers for the research questions and to conceptualise L2 demotivation.

 (3) Methods – tick as appropriate and provide an explanation as indicated below.

Part A YES ☐ NO ✖ psychophysiological measures (e.g. response times, eyetracking, ERP, etc.)

YES ☐ NO ✖ prolonged visual and/or auditory stimuli

YES ✖ NO ☐ interviews (focus groups) === will be recorded and transcribed and the informed consent forms will be signed by participants before conducting the interviews. However, the identities of the participants will never be presented to anyone but the researcher. A close relationship will be built with them and their contact details will be available to me in a private file that nobody has an access to.

YES ✖ NO ☐ questionnaires ==== these will be anonymous.

YES ☐ NO ✖ other

Part B YES ☐ NO ✖ using data produced by students (e.g. their essays)

YES ☐ NO ✖ using data freely available on-line

YES ☐   NO ✖   using data available on-line only available to members of the group

YES ☐ NO ✖ were the participants aware that work would be used for research purposes

Part C YES ☐ NO ✖ procedures likely to change participants' mood, be aversive or stressful

YES ☐ NO ✖ misleading participants about an experiment or withholding information

YES ☐ NO ✖ information-gathering on sensitive issues (e.g. sexual, racial, religious or political attitudes, etc.)

YES ☐ NO ✖ procedures which might be harmful or distressing to people in a specially vulnerable state (e.g. depressed, anxious, bereaved, etc.)

254

YES ✗ NO ☐ discussion or investigation of personal topics (e.g. relationships, **<u>feelings of success and failure</u>**) or any other procedure in which participants may have an emotional investment. The participants will be asked to talk about their past bad experiences and to tell me about the failure stories that they had during their English language journey.

For anything ticked YES, please provide more detailed information. Indicate any potential risks to participants and justify this risk. For interviews, please be clear whether the interviews are being recorded, how the identities' of participants are being protected, and who will have access to the data (e.g. will participants' recordings be presented at conference presentations). For Part B, for any data not publically available, indicate how you will obtain permission from participants to use their data.

(4) Location of data collection.

YES ✗ NO ☐ Will the task be performed outside of campus.

If data collection is occurring on campus please give the location. If data collection is occurring off campus, please provide information about the location.

Data will be collected inside King Abdulaziz University campus in Saudi Arabia, Jeddah

(5) Participants, access, and inducements.

YES ☐ NO ✗ participants under 16 (if so, you may need to undergo a CRB check)

YES ☐ NO ✗ participants recruited from special sources (e.g. prisons, hospitals, schools. etc.)

YES ☐ NO ✗ participants whose capacity to give consent may be in doubt (e.g. learning disability, confusion, etc.)

YES ☐ NO ✗ participants who have received medical, psychiatric, clinical psychological or other similar attention

YES ☐ NO ✗ participants being investigated in connection with a performance deficit (e.g. dyslexia)

For anything ticked YES, please provide more detailed information and justification.

YES ☐ NO ✗ are there any inducements for taking part

If YES, please provide more detailed information and justification.

(6) Data storage and anonymity.

YES ☐ NO ✗ is there a possibility of disclosure of confidential information (e.g. to other participants)

YES ☐ NO ✗ is there a possibility of identification of participants (e.g. when reporting results).

255

(7) Awareness of ethical behavior when collecting data.

Researchers must indicate awareness of ethical behavior when collecting data from human participants by submitting the completed *Awareness of Ethical Behavior for Data Collection* (next pg) with this application. For students on a module, this form must be submitted with their work.

(8) Informed Consent Form

Provide an informed consent form for approval. The final page gives guidelines for producing one.

For Office Use Only

YES ☐   The form Awareness of Ethical Behavior for Data Collection has been included and ticked appropriately.

YES ☐   An appropriate consent form has been provided.

Approved By: _____ Date: _____

Agreed By: _____ Date: _____