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Motivation of Lower Secondary School Pupils to Learn the English Language

Prohlášení

Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně a uvedla úplný seznam použité a citované literatury.

V Hranicích 15. 4. 2022

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vlastnoruční podpis

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ABSTRACT

This diploma thesis focuses on the motivation of lower secondary school students to learn English. The theoretical part provides a review of literature of Czech and foreign authors dealing with the issue of motivation in the school environment and the personality of the pupils aged 11 to 15 years. The practical part analyses the results of a questionnaire survey in five primary schools and compares these results with previous research. The thesis comes to conclusions that pupils' motivation to learn English is rather high, their motivation has a low to medium correlation with their family background and the level of education of the parents. The research also identified positive performance motivation and future orientation as the strongest motives for learning English among the pupils.

Introduction

This diploma thesis deals with the motivation of lower secondary school pupils to learn English language. Although the concept of motivation is rather complex and difficult to comprehend, its essence is familiar to people across generations, educational levels, career fields and leisure interests. Feeling motivated or unmotivated is a state that everyone experiences on a daily basis, even though they may not be fully aware of it. Motivation is also often discussed in the context of the educational process. I dare say that having motivated students is a dream of all teachers, whatever subject they teach. Regarding foreign languages, Penny Ur (2012, p. 10), for example, claims that motivation is even key to learning them successfully.

Before I started my job as an English teacher in a lower secondary school, full of ideals, I had been convinced that the motivation to learn a foreign language as a mean to discover the world was natural to a human. Nevertheless, the reality of the school classroom was different. Rather than natural motivation, I perceived more of a reluctance to learn. Since I was frustrated by this situation and wanted to understand the learners better, I decided to examine the topic of motivation more closely and obtain data that could be helpful not only in my further pedagogical work as I believe that understanding students, their specificities and needs is the foundation on which successful teaching and learning can be built.

The thesis consists of two parts. The theoretical part offers an insight into the terminology related to motivation through definitions and explanations of various authors dealing with this topic. Furthermore, space is devoted to an overview of motivational theories, including theories of foreign language learning, selected factors affecting motivation to learn, and learners' motives for learning. The research target group of the thesis is learners aged between eleven and fifteen years of age, so the specifics of this period of human life from the perspective of developmental psychology are also covered in the theoretical part. As the topic of motivation in a school environment has already been described and researched by a number of experts, the theoretical section also includes an overview of works whose results in comparison with the results of this thesis are discussed in the final chapter. The practical part is focused on the analysis and evaluation of the questionnaire survey, which was conducted in five primary schools in the districts of Vsetín, Hranice and Prostějov.

1 Aims of the thesis

The main aim of this diploma thesis is to find out whether and to what extent lower secondary school pupils are motivated to learn English language. The main objective was further elaborated into the following sub-objectives:

- To find out to what extent are lower secondary school students motivated to learn English.
- To examine how is the motivation to learn affected by age and gender.

Another part of the research focuses on the pupils' family background (from the learners' perspective) and its possible influence on their motivation to learn. Other sub-objectives are therefore:

- To ascertain if there is a possible correlation between the family background (including parents' education) and the level of motivation.

The last part of the research interest concerns learners' motives for learning English. In this regard, the thesis aims to find out:

- What are the strongest motives for learning English among pupils, and how the strength of these motives changes depending on the grade being studied.

2 Theoretical Background of Motivation

2.1 Concept of Motivation

The concept of motivation permeates almost all scientific disciplines and is widely discussed by both the professional and the lay public. For the purposes of this thesis, it is considered to be necessary to first define not only the concept of motivation but also other associated concepts.

The term motivation comes from the Latin verb moveo, -ere, meaning to move in English (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 3). It can therefore be inferred that motivation is a kind of a mover on which all human action depends to a large extent. The issue of motivation is a broad one and it is difficult, perhaps virtually impossible, to give its unique definition. As Dörnyei (2001, p. 1) states: "*Motivation is best seen as a broad umbrella term that covers a variety of meanings*". Dörnyei himself defines the term motivation very broadly as: "*An abstract, hypothetical concept that we use to explain why people think and behave as they do*" (Dörnyei, 2001, p.1). Kelvin Seifert also describes motivation in a simple way as: "*The energy or drive that gives behaviour direction and focus*" (2011, p. 116). Similarly, for example, Jeremy Harmer, who describes motivation as: "*Some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something*" (Harmer, 2007, p. 98). Lokša, Lokšová (1999, p. 10) define motivation as a set of factors that control not only a person's behaviour, but also their experience in relations both to the surrounding world and to themselves. It has three functions: dynamizing, activating and directing. Kirovová (2017, p. 50) summarizes the concept of motivation as the processes that give direction, intensity, and constancy or variability to human behaviour. According to Nakonečný (2014, p. 15), these processes are intrapsychic, stemming from a certain inner need and leading to a desired inner state. These processes can be triggered by endogenous or exogenous factors. The latter are referred to as incentives.

It can be concluded that the complexity of the concept of motivation leaves room for different interpretations by experts. In general, motivation can be understood as an abstract, invisible force that induces human individuals to think and act in a certain way.

2.2 Motivational Behaviour

The desired state is achieved through motivational behaviour which the authors Lokša, Lokšová (1999, p. 11–12) summarize into five phases.

1. In the first phase, one becomes aware of a certain need. For example, hunger.

2. The second phase is the value orientation phase. In it, everything is evaluated on the basis of what the person lacks.

This phase includes two components:

- the desired object, in the case of hunger, food.
- expectations, which determine the direction and goal of behaviour

3. In the third phase, the specific action that a person takes to achieve his or her goal has already occurred. In the case of hunger, one goes to a restaurant.

4. In the fourth phase, the final, need-satisfying behaviour occurs.

5. The fifth phase is then the phase of satisfaction.

However, Hrabal, Man and Pavelková (1989, p. 20) point out that the motivational process is often more complicated for the following reasons:

- Two or more needs are actualized simultaneously, or a motivational conflict arises.
- Satisfaction of the actualized need is prevented, resulting in frustration.
- Satisfaction of the need is not immediately possible, or immediate satisfaction is less valuable than delayed satisfaction, requiring goal setting.
- Behavioural motivation is closely linked to cognitive processes; cognitive motivational processes come into play.

Ciccarelli and White (2012, p. 170) describe motivational behaviour through the motivational cycle. At the beginning, there is a need that leads to drive which triggers actions that lead to the achievement of the goal. Once the goal is achieved, the drive is reduced and the organism returns to a balanced state. The cycle is a never-ending circle.
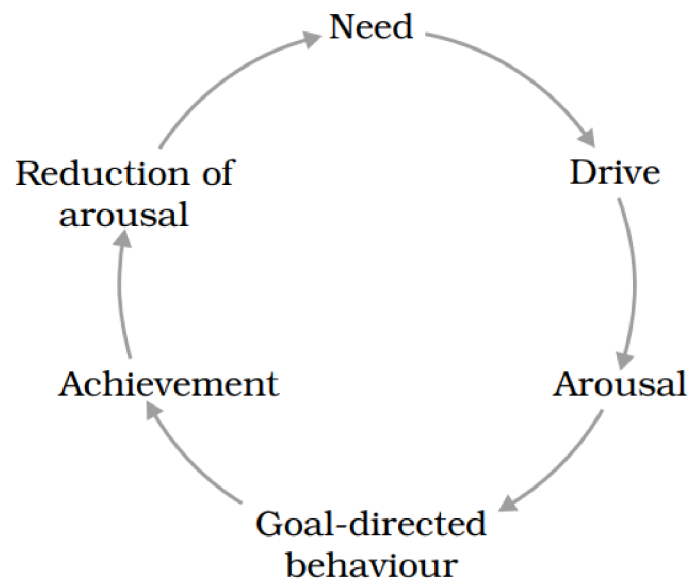
Figure 1: Motivational cycle (Ciccarelli, White, 2012, p. 170)

To sum up, in both interpretations of motivational behaviour, there is a need at the beginning that prompts an individual to take an action. The action is directed towards the satisfaction of this need. Motivational behaviour is a complex process in which various circumstances may intervene to make the satisfaction of the need more difficult.

2.3 Need, Motive, Drive, Incentives

In the context of the theoretical definition of the concept of motivation and the issue of motivational behaviour, it is also necessary to define other associated concepts. These are: **need, motive, drive and incentives.**

Need can be defined as the inner lack of some necessity although it can also be triggered by an excess of, for example, negative stimuli. Human needs are not isolated. Generally,

they are interdependent and form complex hierarchical relationships. (Lokša, Lokšová, 1999, p. 12– 13)

A motive arises when a need is actualized. They can be explained as causes of motivation, factors that induce, maintain, or even terminate motivation. Motivation is triggered by multiple motives which can vary in intensity, focus, and constancy, and may or may not be conscious. (Kirovová, 2017, p. 150)

Brophy (2004, p. 4) mentions two other concepts in relation to motives, which, however, need to be distinguished from them. These are the concepts of goals and strategies. While goals are the immediate objectives of particular sequence of behaviour, strategies are the methods by which goals are achieved and thus motives are satisfied. For Brophy, motives represent relatively general needs or desires that prompt people to initiate purposeful action sequences. Goals and strategies are more specific, explaining the direction and quality of action sequences in specific situations. Ciccarelli, White (2012, p. 171) divide motives into two basic groups: **biological and psychosocial**. No motive, however, is purely biological or psychosocial. on the contrary they interact to a large extent. **Biological motives** are also referred to as physiological motives; they are innate to humans and controlled by the physiological mechanisms of the human body. These are, for example, hunger, thirst, or sex motives. **Psychosocial motives** are learned Not only needs play a role in motivational behaviour, but also motives, drives or incentives. While needs, motives, and drives arise from a person's inner state of mind, incentives represent the external world. However, their actualization is intertwined. and their development is conditioned by social factors. They include, for example, the need for achievement, affiliation, power, curiosity and exploration, and self-actualization motives. (Ciccarelli, White 2012, p. 171)

Plháková (2003, p. 320) divides the motives into four categories. In addition to biological motives, which are included in a category referred to as self-preservation motives, there are stimulating, social, and individual psychological motives. While stimulating motives are manifested by the need for an optimal level of activation and external stimuli, social motives, according to her, regulate interpersonal relationships. Individual psychological motives are the search for the meaning of life, the self-concept defence, and the need for autonomy in decision-making and freedom in action. (Plháková, 2003, p. 320)

In the context of motives, the term **drive** is also used. Kirovová (2017, p. 150) points out that this concept is not uniformly defined. However, she refers to Huczynski and Buchanan's (2013) definition of drive as an innate biological determinant of behaviour that is triggered by its unsatisfaction, and Coon, Mitter, and Martini's (2017) definition of drive as a state of need-driven, goal-directed tension. Drive as a kind of tension produced by need is also understood by Ciccarelli and White (2003, p. 171).

Closely related to the concepts of need and motive is also the concept of **incentive**, because as Hrabal, Mann, Pavelková (1989, p. 17) explain, it is the mutual interaction of needs and incentives that gives rise to motives. As mentioned above, incentives have to do with factors that come from the outside world. They can be both **positive** and **negative**. While **positive** ones induce behaviour towards oneself and are usually able to satisfy a person, negative ones induce behaviour away from oneself. (Hrabal, Mann, Paveková, 1989, p. 17)

Incentives are often complex, thus they can usually satisfy more than one human need. Rosina (in Hrabal, Mann, and Pavelková, 1989, p. 17) considers, for example, money to be the most complex incentive.

To conclude, not only needs play a role in motivational behaviour, but also motives, drives or incentives. While needs, motives, and drives arise from a person's inner state of mind, incentives represent the external world. However, their actualization is intertwined.

2.4 Motivational Conflict

Hrabal, Mann, Pavelková (1989, p. 20) point to the existence of a motivational conflict that arises when a person is in a situation in which two or more incentive values exist independently of each other. They distinguish four types of motivational conflicts.

- **Conflict between two positive incentives** – can occur, for example, while shopping, when one cannot decide which shoes to buy because they all are beautiful.
- **Conflict of two negative incentives** – arises when a person finds themselves in a situation that requires them to do something unpleasant – for example, a child has to do a difficult homework assignment, for which, if he did not do it, an unpleasant consequence (for example parental punishment) would follow.

- **Conflict of one positive and one negative incentive** – one situation has both positive and negative motivational value for a person. For example, when ordering a hamburger in a restaurant knowing that it will not make one feel good.
- **Conflict of several positive and several negative incentives** – for example, children who are the subject of an argument between their parents may find themselves in such a situation.

2.5 Motivation to Learn

While the previous chapter discussed motivation for human behaviour from a general perspective, the following chapter will introduce major motivational theories focusing on learning, including foreign language learning.

Brophy (2004, p. 4) understands students' motivation to learn as the extent to which the learner is willing to work on tasks that the teacher may or may not require. It is based on students' subjective experiences, "*especially those connected to their willingness to engage in lessons and learning activities and their reasons for doing so*" (Brophy, 2004, p. 4). Motivation to learn does not necessarily mean being excited about every lesson; motivation occurs when learning is seen as important and taken seriously by students (Brophy, 2004, p. 16).

Motivation as a willingness is also seen by Bomia et al. (in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p.7), who extend the definition to include concepts such as need, desire and compulsion to engage and succeed in the learning process.

Skinner and Belmont (in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 7) believe that motivated learners spontaneously reach for more challenging tasks, are active, exerting intense effort and concentration to perform at their best. At the same time, they remain optimistic, enthusiastic and curious.

Linda Lumsden considers motivation to be a complex, multi-dimensional concept. According to her, motivation to learn is related to the reasons why students choose to participate or not to participate in learning activities. The reasons for participating may vary to a high degree (Lumsden, 1999, p. 9).

It follows from the above that an individual could be considered a motivated learner if he/she enjoys learning, learns for his/her own sake, is aware of the importance

of learning for his/her own benefit, and is not afraid of obstacles that arise on his/her educational journey, seeing them as challenges rather than obstacles.

2.6 Motivational Theories

There are a number of motivational theories and their various classifications in the literature. Choosing one to act as a representative of all the others is virtually impossible, for as Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 4) state, "...*no existing motivation theory to date has managed – or even attempted – to offer a comprehensive and integrative account of all the main types of possible motives, and it may well be the case that devising an integrative 'supertheory' of motivation will always remain an unrealistic desire*". However, all the motivational theories attempt to explain the same thing, which is why people behave as they do (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 4). Lokša, Lokšová (1999, p. 10) believe that a useful division for school environment is according to the main paradigms of contemporary psychology, i.e. the behaviourist, humanistic and cognitive approaches.

2.6.1 Behaviorist, Humanistic, Cognitive Approaches

- Behaviourist approach

The behaviourist approach, the source of motivation is the desire to achieve pleasant consequences of a certain behaviour or, on the contrary, to avoid unpleasant consequences. The main motivating factor is reinforcement by extrinsic reward. (Lokša, Lokšová, 1999, p. 10)

A prominent advocate of behaviourism in the learning process was the American psychologist B. F. Skinner, who extended the theory of behaviourism by explaining learning as a response to a stimulus and stressing the importance of reinforcement. The behaviourist approach has also had considerable influence in the field of English language teaching (audiolingual method), however, as Williams et al. point out, it had significant limitations as students only responded mechanically to stimuli, without engaging the mind. (Williams, et al., 2015, p. 7)

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- Humanistic approach

As Nakonečný (2014, p. 330–331) states, the main principle of the humanistic approach is the belief in the fulfilment of human potential. In contrast to behaviourism, where human behaviour is determined by a response to the past, the humanistic approach tends to believe that human behaviour is defined by a relationship to the future. In other words, as Lokša, Lokšová (1999, p. 11) explain, motivation is understood as an aspiration to transcend one's present state of existence by realizing one's developmental potential. Williams, et al. (2015, p. 12) add, for humanists each individual is unique, with free will, acting intentionally.

One of the representatives of humanistic principles was the American psychologist Abraham Maslow with his hierarchy of needs (Figure 2). The base of the pyramid is comprised of basic biological needs, which include food, drink, sleep, rest, sex, etc. Above these are the needs for security (safety, law, order, protection, help, care). The middle of the pyramid is comprised of the interpersonal needs (family, love, close personal relationships), followed by self-esteem and self-actualization needs. The goal of each individual, according to Maslow, is to fulfil their creative potential and grow. But for this to be possible, the lower needs of hierarchy must first be met. (Nakonečný, 2014, p. 165; Wiliams et al., 2015, p. 12–13)

Figure 2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs (available from: https://www.thoughtco.com/maslows-hierarchy-of-needs-4582571)

In the classroom, according to Maslow's theory, it is assumed that students who are tired or hungry do not engage fully in learning. Similarly, rejected students and students who feel anxiety. A serious problem may arise when frustration over the absence of needs is

chronic. As Brophy based on Frame (1996) writes: *"Rational people want arrangements in place that will enable them to meet their needs routinely, not just for the moment"* (Brophy, 2004, p. 7).

Lokša, Lokšová (1999, p. 11) point out that according to humanistic theories it is the teacher who plays a significant role in forming the right motivational structures in pupils. Thus, (s)he should ensure the creation of an environment characterised by warm personal relationships, security and unconditional acceptance. Brophy (2004, p. 7) summarizes that for successful motivation, teachers must address both lower and higher learners' needs. Yet, it is often the learners themselves who act against Maslow's hierarchy of needs. For example, when they reduce sleeping so that they can study longer for a test.

- Cognitive approach

The cognitive approach understands human behaviour as the result of cognitive processes, i.e. it is concerned with how a person's thinking influences his behaviour. Each individual acts on the basis of self-processed information and his own decisions. In school environment, cognitive theories explain how mental processes direct learning. (Lokša, Lokšová, 1999, p. 11; Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 6; Williams et al., 2015, p. 102) Selected theories based on the cognitive approach will be briefly discussed in the following subsections.

2.6.2 Expectancy Value Theories

These describe *"how behaviour results from whether a person expects success in a particular activity and the perceived value for that person of success in that activity"* (Williams et al., 2015, p. 102).

In other words, motivation is influenced by two factors. The student's expectation of success and the value the student places on the goal. This model of motivation can be written with multiplicative formula: expectancy x value = motivation. This shows that the relationship between expectation and value *"is multiplicative rather than additive"*; to be motivated, a student must have at least some expectation of success as well as must assign a task at least some positive value. If a student has zero expectation of success, but value the task highly, he will not be motivated at all. Likewise, if he has high expectation

of success, but does not value the task, he will not be motivated in the same way. (Seifert, 2011, p. 113–114)

2.6.3 Achievement Motivation Theory

The original theory of Atkinson and Raynor (1974), which was formulated within an expectancy-value framework as Atkinson saw achievement behaviours to be determined by expectancies of success and incentive values, includes two additional concepts. The need for achievement and the fear of failure. Individuals with a predominant need for achievement perform tasks for its own sake, tend to initiate achievement activities, work hard at them and do not get discouraged by failure. Conversely, individuals who are dominated by fear of failure are driven to perform well by fear of a negative outcome. (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 14)

2.6.4 Self-efficacy Theory

The pioneer of self-efficacy theory is Albert Bandura. The core of the theory lies in a person's judgment of his capabilities to perform a task. According to one's sense of efficacy, the person takes further actions and steps to achieve the goal. People with low levels of self-efficacy find difficult tasks as personal threats. *"They dwell on their own personal deficiencies and the obstacles they encounter rather than concentrate on how to perform the task successfully"* (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 16). Such people easily lose faith in their abilities and are prone to give up early. (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 16)

Kelvin Seifert notes that if a person's self-efficacy is very low, he can develop *learned helplessness* which, as he explains is *"a perception of complete lack of control in mastering a task"* (Seifert, 2011, p. 107). People with learned helplessness tend to see the source of the problem in themselves, to generalize problems to many areas of life, and to see the problem as permanent. Others, according to Seifert, more optimistic individuals may see the sources of problems outside. For example, in teacher, in difficult task, etc. (Seifert, 2011, p. 107)

2.6.5 Self-worth Theory

Covington's theory (1998) assumes that people are motivated to behave in ways that will enhance their personal value and worth. When these values are threatened, individuals resort to face-saving behaviours. (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 10)

Linda Lumsden (1999, p. 20) adds that all individuals seek both self-approval and the approval of others. She mentions two terms often used to characterize how people think and feel about themselves. These are the concepts of *self-concept* and *self-esteem*. While self-concept is defined by Lumsden (based on Raffini, 1993) as "*...the collection of perceptions we possess about such things as our strengths, weaknesses, abilities, personality traits, and performance of roles*", self-esteem is seen as "*a product of how much relative importance we attach to each of these specific personal attributes and roles*" (Lumsden, 1999, p. 20).

Ames (in Lumsden, 1999, p. 20) states that once a child becomes a part of the educational process, his overall sense of self-worth or self-esteem becomes closely related to his or her self-concept of ability in the school environment. The students soon learn that what matters most to teachers, parents, and even classmates are their performance and comparison of their abilities with others, not their improvement and effort. Various strategies such as procrastination, cheating or intentional avoidance of tasks can then be used to protect self-image. (Lumsden, 1999, p. 21-22)

2.6.6 Goal Theories

According to goal theories, goals are the main sources of motivation, not needs or drives (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 19).

- Goal-setting Theory

  The goal setting theory described by Edwin A. Locke and Gary Latham (1990) is concerned with differences in individual performance based on different goal attributes. There are three areas where goals may differ: specificity, difficulty and goal commitment. (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 20) As Dörnyei and Ushioda notes, goal-setting theory is compatible with expectancy-value theories "*in that commitment is seen to be enhanced when people believe that achieving the goal is possible*" (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 20).

Locke presents, inter alia, these conclusions:

- ❖ The more difficult the goal, the greater the achievement,

- ❖ the more specific the goal, the more precise performance,

- ❖ goal both specific and difficult lead to the highest performance, when goals are specific and difficult, the higher the commitment, the better the performance,

- ❖ feedback showing progress makes goal setting most effective,

- ❖ the importance of the goal, its attainability or at least the vision of progress towards it increases commitment to goals. (Locke, 1996, p. 118–121)

- • Goal Orientation Theory

A goal orientation theory, which has been developed to explain motivation for learning and performance in school settings, works with two basic concepts (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 21):

Mastery orientation, characterized by the pursuit of 'mastery goals', is focused on learning content, and **performance orientation**, which refers to the pursuit of 'performance goals'; the individual learns not for the content, but to demonstrate his or her abilities and get good grades. (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 21).

In other words, as Wentzel and Brophy (2014, p. 23) explain, if students tend to be performance-oriented, they actually have little interest in learning anything and are easily discouraged by potential difficulties.

Seifert (2011, p. 99) mentions one additional **performance-avoidance** or **failure-avoidance goal** in relation to performance goals and mastery goals, emphasizing that mastery, performance or performance-avoidance goals do not exist in their pure form, but are experienced in combinations.

The application of goal theories in the school environment involves an emphasis on creating relationships and cooperation that encourage students to accept goals and avoid creating pressure. When these conditions are well set, students can focus on learning without fear or task resistance. (Brophy, 2004, p. 9)

2.6.7 Self-determination Theory

The basis of self-determination theory, which has been described in detail by, for example, Richard Ryan, Edward Deci or Robert Vallerand, is the division of motivation of human behaviour into **extrinsic** and **intrinsic**. Intrinsic motivation refers to doing something for its own sake, as it is intrinsically satisfying and pleasurable. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to doing something because of the outcome that the activity will bring. Thus, in the case of extrinsic motivation, it is the result that brings satisfaction, not the activity itself. (Deci, Ryan, 2000; Dörnyei, 2001)

Within the self-determination theory, the concept **amotivation** is also described as "*the state of lacking an intention to act. When amotivated, a person's behaviour lacks intentionality and a sense of personal causation*" (Deci, Ryan, 2000, p. 61). As Ryan, Deci and Seligman (in Ryan, Deci, 2000, p. 61) also point out, this state of lacking an intention is the result of several causes: "*…not valuing an activity, not feeling competent do it, or not believing it will yield a desired outcome*".

The core of self-determination theory is the fulfilment of three key psychological needs. These are the need for competence, relatedness and autonomy. If these needs are met, it is believed that the person will maintain intrinsic motivation and become self-determined with respect to extrinsic motivation. (Ryan, Deci, 2000, p. 65)

The issue of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is often simplified, described as intrinsic motivation, especially in school settings, is good, while extrinsic motivation is bad. However, as Williams et al. point out the reality is more complex and the distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is not always clear, just as the division between external and internal motives, since what is external motive for one may be internal motive for another and vice versa. "*People are constantly changing, and central to self-determination theory is the idea of internalization – the degree to which someone comes to feel that a perhaps once external motive belongs to them in the sense that it now feels internal.*" (Williams, et al., 2015, p. 106–107)

To sum up, the number of theories presented above demonstrates that the motivation of human behaviour can be interpreted and understood in many different ways. In the list, cognitive theories, according to which human behaviour (including learning) is driven by mental processes, predominate. According to Expectancy Value theory, human motivation is driven by the expectation of success and the value that is

placed on a given goal. The Achievement Motivation theory suggests that two other concepts play a role in the motivation process. These are the need for success and the fear of failure. Self-efficacy theory considers essentials how a person perceives his or her own abilities to perform a task. In the case of low self-efficacy, experts describe the risk of the phenomenon so-called learned helplessness. Self-worth theory is based on cultivating and protecting one's personal value and worth. When these values are threatened, one resorts to what experts refer to as face-saving behaviour.

The focus was also on those motivational theories in which the main sources of motivation are not motives and needs but goals. According to goal setting theory, an individual is motivated to act if the goal they have set is reasonably difficult, specific, and important to the individual. Goal mastery theory includes two motivational orientations in the learning process: Mastery and Performance. While an individual with a mastery orientation learns because what (s)he is learning interests him/her, an individual with a performance orientation is not concerned with the learning content but with performing well and getting good grades. The list concludes with the self-determination theory, according to which there is extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. While the former refers to the outcome of an activity, the latter focuses on intrinsic feelings of satisfaction and pleasure.

2.7 Motivation to Learn a Foreign Language

The long-held view that learning a language is completely different from learning any other subject generated a number of motivational theories that discussed different insights from those offered by mainstream psychological approaches. (Williams, et. al, 2015, p. 111; Dörnyei, 2001, p. 13)

As Dörnyei (2001, p. 13) writes: "*This has been largely due to the specific target of our field: language. It does not need much justification that language is more than merely a communication code whose grammar rules and vocabulary can be taught very much the same way as any other school subject.*" For the purposes of this thesis, two dominant L2 motivational theories will be presented. The Gardner and Lambert's Socio-psychological model and Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System.

2.7.1 The Social-psychological Model

Until the 1990s, the most influential figures in L2 motivational theory research were Canadian social psychologists Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert. Based on their research conducted in bilingual Canada, they concluded that the attitudes an individual holds toward the L2 community greatly influence one's success in L2 learning. (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 15; Williams, Burden, 1997, p. 115)

Gardner and Lambert see language learning not as a mere acquisition of knowledge of a given language, but as the learner's willingness "*to identify with members of another ethnolinguistic group and to take on very subtle aspects of their behaviour, including their distinctive style of speech and their language*" (Gardner, Lambert in Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 40).

According to Gardner's motivational theory (1985), three components are involved in the motivation to learn a foreign language:

- *motivational intensity or effort,*

- *desire to learn the language,*

- *attitudes towards learning the language* (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 41).

In order for an individual to be truly motivated, all three components need to be present. Motivation is also related to orientation (Gardner's term for a goal), but it is not a part of it. Its role is to arouse motivation and orient it towards the goals set. (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 41)

Gardner distinguishes between two orientations. The **integrative orientation**, which is dominant when an individual studies a language in order to identify with the culture and speakers of that language, and the **instrumental orientation**, which is when an individual studies a language for pragmatic reasons in order to achieve external goals (promotion, a higher salary, passing exams, etc.). (Williams, Burden, 1997, p. 116)

As Ema Ushioda (in Williams et al., 2015, p. 111) notes, Gardner and Lambert's theory was a breakthrough as it began to consider the role of the learner and his or her attitudes; success language learning was no longer seen solely in the learner's natural talents and teaching methods. Nevertheless, the socio-educational model had its shortcomings as it "*...had little to say to teachers about what was happening with a particular student in a particular class at a particular time*" (Ushioda in Williams et al., 2015, p. 111).

2.7.2 L2 Motivational Self System

Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System was created in 2005 as a synthesis of existing research in the field of motivation to learn a foreign language, enriched with psychological theories of the self (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 79).

The system is based on the concept of possible selves (described, for example, by Markus and Nurius, 1986). Possible selves are an individual's visions of themselves in the future (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 80). They include ideas about who the individual might become, what he or she would like to become and also, conversely, what he or she is afraid of becoming (Marcus and Nurius in Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 80). The actions of the individual are thus determined by the effort to become his *"hope to be self"*, and conversely to avoid becoming the *"feared self"* (Williams, et al., 2015, p. 115).

In creating the L2 Motivational Self System, Dörnyei also drew on Higgins' Self Discrepancy theory (1987) based on one's projections of *ideal* and *ought to selves*. The ideal self represents an individual's vision of himself, what he would like to achieve in the future, what attributes he would like to possess in the future (i. e. one's dreams, aspirations, etc.). The ought to self then refers to those attributes that the individual believes he ought to possess (obligations, duties). (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 82)

As Dörnyei and Ushioda explain, the motivation of human behaviour then lies in desire to *"…reduce the discrepancy between one's actual self and the projected behavioural standards of the ideal/ought selves"* (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 20011, p. 82).

Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System consist of three components (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 86):

1. *Ideal L2 Self* – If the individual's ideal self speaks L2, this is a strong motivator to learn, as the individual wants to diminish the discrepancy between his current and ideal self.

2. *Ought-to L2 Self* – It refers to the attributes that an individual believes he ought to have. He acquires this belief from the outside world – to meet what is expected or to avoid sanctions.

3. *L2 Learning Experience* – The environment in which the learning takes place and the learning experience also contribute to the motivation to learn the language. In this

context, Dörnyei speaks, for example, of the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, classmates or the experience of success.

To summarize, among the many motivational theories of foreign language learning, two important theories of the last decades have been described in chapter 2.6: Garnder and Lamber's Social-psychological model and Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System. The core of the Social-psychological model is the willingness and effort to identify with the L2 community, driven by an integrative or instrumental orientation. According to Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System, one is motivated to learn by visions of oneself in the future. Neither theory can be considered universal or the only correct one, but both have found a prominent place in the field of L2 motivational theories and have provided an unwavering foundation for further research.

2.8 Factors Affecting Motivation to Learn

Motivation to learn does not exist in isolation. On the contrary, a number of factors are involved in its formation for each individual, many of which influence the initial attitudes that learners develop towards learning. (Lumsden, 1999, p. 16)

For the purposes of this thesis, the following factors will be introduced in this chapter: the role of parents and family background, developmental changes, the role of the teacher, the needs of learners.

2.8.1 The Role of Parents and Family Background

Parents and the home environment as such are crucial to the development of a child's personality. This is also the case for the development of attitudes towards education. Ecles et al. (in Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 30) summarise four parenting factors that have been traditionally identified as significantly shaping student motivation:

- *developmentally appropriate timing of achievement,*
- *high confidence in one's children's abilities,*
- *a supportive affective family climate,*
- *highly motivated role models.*

As Lumsden (1999, p. 15) argues, attitudes towards learning are already formed in young children based on what they encounter in the home environment. *"When parents nurture their children's curiosity about the world by welcoming their questions, encouraging exploration, and familiarizing them with resources that can enlarge their world, they are giving their children the message that learning is a worth-while endeavour, and that it is also frequently fun and satisfying"* (Lumsden, 1999, p. 15). Otherwise, if parents respond to their children's questions with irritation and impatience, it is very likely that children's interest in learning is likely to decline over time. Until someone appears to reawaken this interest in knowledge (Lumsden, 1999, p. 16). A similar view on the importance of family background in building interest in learning is shared by Nick Thorner who adds that if a child is not involved by parents in "enrichment activities" such as reading and his interest and curiosity is not sufficiently stimulated, *"there will be a narrower range of topics a child feels they can relate to"* (Thorner, 2017, p. 89).

Whether a child is motivated to learn also depends on a level of his emotional security he feels. If a child does not learn to believe in himself and his abilities, this will be reflected in his motivational patterns. A child who does not believe in his/her abilities will find it difficult to face the challenges that school will bring, not least because his/her ability to tolerate and cope with failure will be severely affected. (Lumsden, 1999, p. 16)

Nevertheless, it is also the overall atmosphere and stability of the home environment that plays an important role in the development of students' motivation to learn. If a child experiences stress at home, he is likely to be more distracted and impulsive, which can then hinder him from meeting learning goals. If a child feels rejected by his family, he may be under the impression that he will be rejected by everyone, including his teachers, and thus lose the desire to please others through his efforts. Such situation can escalate to the student even testing the teacher to confirm his negative self-image. (Thorner, 2017, p. 88–89)

It is also the parents' relationship to education that contributes to shaping their children's motivation to learn. Parents who have rather negative memories of their school years may find it difficult to move away from this negative experience and see their children's education in a new objective light. The bitterness that school may have left in them may lead them to keep distance from their children's school life and not to be actively involved. Conversely, parents who have positive experiences with their own education and consider education important are likely to have a positive attitude towards their children's school life and are willing to support them in their studies. Such parents apt

to be actively involved in their child's education, maintain contact with teachers, and want their child to receive the best. (Lumsden, 1999, p. 16– 17)

Parents' education raises the question of whether its level affects their children's motivation to learn. Petra Sandayová, who in her diploma thesis examined the influence of the family on children's education, concluded that although there is no correlation between parental education and children's educational attainment, children of parents with higher levels of education are more likely to be interested in education than children of parents with lower levels of education. According to Sandanyová, less educated parents are generally more liberal about their children's education and do not put much energy into helping them prepare for school. On the other hand, more educated parents are actively involved in their child's school life, encouraging the child to do as well as possible and promoting a positive attitude towards school. (Sandanyová, 2008, p. 26)

However, as Thorner points out, too much pressure from parents on a child's school performance can be rather harmful and have a negative impact on motivation to learn. The student then may be afraid *"to try, or feel he lacks ownership of their learning"* (Thorner, 2017, p. 89).

The socio-economic background of the family cannot be ignored in terms of children's relationship to education either. In families with better social backgrounds, education is considered more valuable than in families with poorer social backgrounds, and it can therefore be inferred that children from these families will have higher educational aspirations than children from poorer backgrounds. Thus, it can be summarised that the higher the parental education, the higher the socio-economic status of the family and the higher stability of the family, the higher the educational aspirations of the pupils will be. (Sandanyová, 2008, p. 26– 27)

Some experts believe that parents are also a strong (de)motivating element in learning a foreign language. R. C. Gardner (in Daniel, et al., 2018, p. 3) distinguishes between the active and passive role of the parent in the child's second language learning. The active role can be positive or negative. A positive active role refers to parents who show active interest in the child's progress in language learning and encourage success. A negative active role refers to parents who discourage the child from learning the language by their behaviour. Either by openly belittling the importance of learning the language or by prioritising other areas of learning. (Daniel, et al., 2018, p. 3)

The passive role concerns the parent's attitudes towards the second-language community (= integrative orientation). According to Gardner, if the parent has a good attitude towards the second language, the integrative orientation of a child is supported, otherwise it is inhibited. The passive role of the parent has a strong influence on the learner even if the parent seemingly supports the child in his/her studies. If the parent actually has a negative attitude towards the second language community, the child who senses this in the parent will inevitably experience a decrease in motivation to learn. (Daniel, et al., 2018, p. 3; Dörnyei, 2001, p. 39)

Concluding the aforementioned statements, the personality of the parent is absolutely crucial in motivating children to learn. Children are not only influenced by what parents explicitly say, but also by their behaviour and the environment they create at home. Parents may not even be fully aware of the fact that they may be sowing demotivation for learning in their children whether through their negative attitude towards education, their lack of interest in their child's school performance, emotional disharmony in the family, or their rejection of the child and their curiosity.

2.8.2 Developmental Changes

The gradual maturation of the body is associated with developmental changes in cognitive, social and emotional areas. These changes are then reflected in attitudes towards the self, including the need to protect one's self-worth. (Lumsden, 1999, p. 17)

Ames (in Lumsden, 1999, p. 17) points out that the older children get, their belief in their own abilities decreases, especially if they experience failure or receive a negative feedback, they subsequently tend to underestimate themselves and not to expect too much from themselves. Furthermore, older children develop a more differentiated view of effort and ability. "*While effort can increase the chance for success, ability sets the boundaries of what one's effort can achieve. Effort new becomes the 'double-edged sword.' Trying hard and failing threatens one's self-concept of ability*" (Ames in Lumsden, 1999, p. 17).

Changes in attitude to school work, which may appear as a loss of interest and effort, should be seen by teachers as a defence of the pupil's self-esteem and self-concept of ability. Students who engage in behaviours (such as procrastination, not trying, false effort, or even effort denial) actually want to avoid the negative consequences of potential failure by "*separating failure from effort*". For older students, it is easier to fail because

they did not even try, thus achieving a kind of *"failure with honour,"* than to fail despite effort. (Lumsden 1999, p. 18)

That motivation to learn practically decreases with age (in terms of positive motives identified by the pupils themselves) confirmed Stráská and Blažková by their research (see chapter 5). They refer to Miroslav Zelina's (1983) explanation of this downward trend, who was of the opinion that older pupils are more critical of their own motives for learning, or that they are better able to recognise the motives that lead them to learn than younger pupils. As Blažková and Stráská explain in their conclusion: this phenomenon thus can be understood not as a decrease in motivation with age, but as a more realistic analysis of one's own motivation at a later age. (Stráská, Blažková, 2001, p. 20)

Despite these facts, Penny Ur (2012, p. 264) is convinced that the learning potential of adolescents is higher than, for example, that of young children.

Some experts debate whether adolescents' attitudes towards school work are affected by gender differences. Vágnerová (2004, p. 428) believes that adolescent girls tend to be more conscientious, sometimes even perfectionistic. Compared to boys, they care about the standard of their grades. Boys only work as much as is necessary at school and are less concerned about the grades. Thorner (2017, p. 84) notes that the gender difference can also be seen in the attribution of failure. While boys tend to blame external factors for any failure, girls find fault in their own incompetence. Regarding motivation to learn a foreign language, Thorner believes that male motivation is more at threat than female motivation. *"Research has suggested that they see learning languages as something girls are better at, and therefore attach less value to it"* (Thorner, 2017. p. 85). Boys are then more likely to pursue subject that are perceived by society as masculine – for example, mathematics or science (Thorner, 2017, p. 85).

Being mindful of the specifics related to the current developmental period of their students is essential for teachers. Therefore, the specifics of the developmental period of adolescents, i.e. lower secondary school pupils, will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5 of this thesis.

To summarize, developmental changes in the adolescent in the cognitive, social and emotional domains are also reflected in the self-perception. The individual naturally feels the need to protect his or her self-esteem and self-confidence and therefore to eliminate situations that could threaten them. Motivation to learn rather decreases with

increasing age. However, this may not be a real decline in motivation but a more realistic self-perception of students.

2.8.3 Teacher's Behaviour

Whether or not students are motivated to learn a particular subject is largely influenced by the teacher. As Thorner (2017, p. 46) argues: "*Learners strongly associate the subjects they study with the people who teach them.*" Student who like their teacher will put more energy into his subject to please him/her with their hard work. Therefore, a popular teacher is a motivating teacher (Thorner, 2017, p. 46).

Anything teachers do or say in the classroom, how they act or react, has a motivational influence on students' motivation in both positive and negative ways. Thus, teachers' behaviour becomes "*a powerful motivational tool*". (Dörnyei, Ushioda, 2011, p. 109)

The motivational effectiveness however depends on an interplay of several broad factors, such as teacher's personality, attitudes, enthusiasm, distance or immediacy, professional knowledge, and classroom management style (Dörnyei, Ushioda; 2011, p. 28). Zoltán Dörnyei (2001, p. 32) lists 4 general points concerning appropriate teacher's behaviour. They are teacher's:

a) *enthusiasm,*

b) *commitment to and expectations for the students' learning,*

c) *relationship with the students,*

d) *relationship with the students' parents.*

- Teacher's enthusiasm

Dörnyei (2001, p. 32) shares the ideas of the American psychologist Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, who argues that there is no more influential teacher than the one who is brimming with enthusiasm and passion for his or her subject. These researchers are of the opinion that although students might make fun of this dedication, they deep inside appreciate it. Such commitment towards the subject matter is infectious, they believe, and can awaken a similar interest in students. Jere Brophy (2004, p. 274) stresses that

projecting enthusiasm does not mean *"pep talks or false theatre. Instead, it means identifying good reasons to find a topic interesting, meaningful, or important, and then communicating those reasons to students when teaching about the topic"*. Brophy believes that a teacher's low-key, sincere, albeit brief comment about the usefulness, uniqueness, or interest of a topic or activity is often enough to achieve. (Brophy, 2004, p. 274)

- Commitment to and expectations for the students' learning

If teachers demonstrate to learners that they care about their learning and progress, that they are ready to do their best to help them succeed, pupils are likely to adopt the same attitude. To express that the students' learning matters to teachers, they should, for example, offer concrete assistance, explain things individually, respond immediately when help is requested, show concern when things are not going well, etc. On the contrary, if students are under the impression that the teacher does not care, even the most motivated students may become demoralised. (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 34) The importance of a sense of caring in the learning process is also emphasised by Linda Lumsden (1997), who based her views on several contemporary research (Borswoth, 1995; Johnson, Farkas; 1997; Wasley, et al., 1997; Noblit, et al., 1995; etc.), argues that students are less likely to put maximum effort into their studies if they do not feel *"a sense of caring from and rapport with their teachers"*, no matter how good their subject matter knowledge and teaching style (Lumsden, 1997, p. 32).

Teacher's expectation is also a key element in motivating students to learn. This fact has been confirmed by several researchers, whose results show that students themselves want teachers to set high expectations for them (Johnson, et al., 1997; Wasserstein, 1995 in Lumsden 1997). There is an opinion among experts that the lower the teacher's standards, the less motivated the students are to meet them. Conversely, when teacher expectations are high, student engagement increases (Ravitch, 1995; Steinberg, 1996 in Lumsden 1997). There are two terms in the literature in relation to teachers' expectations: *the Pygmalion effect* (a consequence of positive expectation) and *the Golem effect* (a consequence of negative expectation), the essence of which is that a teacher's expectation can, under certain circumstances, take the form of *a self-fulfilling prophecy*. A teacher who has some expectations (positive or negative) towards a pupil usually treats

the pupil in such a way that the pupil actually becomes a good or bad student. (Pavelková, 2002, p. 52; Dörnyei, 2001, p. 35)

- Relationship with the students

Teachers who care about building a good relationship with their students not only on an academic but also on a personal level are naturally motivating teachers. As Dörnyei (2001, p. 36) explains: *"Teachers who share warm, personal interactions with their students, who respond to their concerns in an empathic manner and who succeed in establishing relationships of mutual trust and respect with the learners, are more likely to inspire them in academic matters than those who have no personal ties with the learners."* Building a good relationship is a gradual process that is built on three cornerstones: Teacher's acceptance of pupils, the ability to listen and pay attention, availability for personal contact. (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 36–38)

- ❖ *Teacher's acceptance of pupils.* This means the ability to accept all pupils as they are in a non-judgemental way. The acceptance, however, should not be confused with approval. The ability to accept does not mean to approve of everything the person says or does (Dörneyi 2001, p. 37). Jeremy Harmer points out that a teacher should also be even-handed. The ability to treat all students equally is not only a necessary condition for building a good relationship, but also one of the marks of a teacher's professionalism (Harmer, 2007, p. 115).

- ❖ *The ability to listen and pay attention.* As Wlodkowski (2008, p. 67) writes: *"Of all the skills necessary for empathy, listening is the most important"*. In other words, nothing says more about the attention which teachers pay to student than the way they listen to them. Jeremy Harmer (2007, p. 114) is convinced that when a teacher listens to a student, listening itself is not enough, but it is important to make eye contact, approach to the student and generally seemed interested in what the student is saying. Dörnyei (2001, p. 38) further advises teachers to pay personal attention to students and recommends: greeting students and remembering their names; smiling at them; talking to them about their lives outside school, taking an interest in their hobbies, notice interesting features regarding their appearance, recognizing their birthdays, etc. However, Penny Ur (2012, p. 267) argues that adolescent students are not always willing to share their

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personal matters. Therefore, teachers should be careful when dealing with students' personal issues because while sometimes students may welcome a teacher's interest, at other times they may feel embarrassed and uncomfortable.

❖ *Availability for personal contact.* Being available not only mentally but also physically plays a role in building a positive relationship. Joining students for lunch, giving them an e-mail address/telephone number and encouraging them not to be hesitate to write/call when needed, meeting those who need or want an assistance regularly might be examples of such availability. (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 38)

- Relationship with the parents

In Dörnyei's opinion good relationship with the students also depends on good relationship with their parents. *"For most children their parents' opinion matters, and therefore parents can be powerful allies in any motivational effort."* In order to develop collaborative relationship, he recommends being in regular contact with them, keeping them informed of their children's progress, and asking for their assistance when doing some supportive homework. (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 39)

In conclusion, the teacher's personality is another important factor involved in shaping the motivation to learn a subject. However, evidenced by all the statements above, it is not just about his knowledge, but about what personality traits he possesses and what kind of relationship he has not only with his students but also, for example, with their parents. From the information presented it can be inferred that students appreciate a teacher who is warm, smiling, responsive, fair and passionate about the work he or she does.

2.9 Learners' Needs

Motivation to learn is highly influenced by students' intrinsic needs. Hrabal and Pavelková (2010, p. 121) list five groups of these needs and note that it is largely in the teacher's power to actualize them. These needs are:

1. Cognitive needs

2. Social needs

3. Performance needs

4. The need for responsibility, compliance with moral standards

5. The need to conceive one's future

2.9.1 Cognitive Needs

Cognitive needs are classified as secondary needs and are needs that may or may not develop in an individual. If they are developed during schooling, they become a permanent source of development of the student's personality and a quality source of learning. By arousing cognitive needs, success and the formation of cognitive dispositions are most reliably achieved. When cognitive needs are met, their development is simultaneously reinforced. (Pavelková, 2002, p. 23)

Ames' theory of goal orientation also refers to motivation in which the main motivating element is the vision of knowledge. The desire for knowledge of learning content is referred to as mastery goals (see chapter 2.6.6). As Dörnyei (2001, p. 10) points out, mastery goals are higher quality and more enduring than performance goals in that they are associated with a preference for challenging work, an instrinsic interest in learning activities, and positive attitudes towards learning. (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 10)

In the context of education, Pavelková divides cognitive needs into two subgroups according to the nature of the activity they actualize and by which they are both satisfied and reinforced:

- the need for meaningful receptive cognition (= the need to acquire new information),

- the need to search and solve problems.

The reinforcement of cognitive motivation depends on the nature of the cognitive processes induced (As regards the basic features of the learning situations induced, the teacher should remember: novelty, surprise, challenge, uncertainty, unusualness, mystery, possibility of experimentation); on the other hand, on the content of the learning and its attractiveness for the pupils. For the development of cognitive motivation, according to Pavelková, the following is essential: the teacher's attitudes and the style of his/her pedagogical work, his/her interest in the subject and the teacher's ability to explain the importance of the subject in practical life. (Pavelková, 2002, p. 23-25)

Thus, it can be concluded that the development of cognitive need as the most desirable need in the learning process in students should be the primary goal of every teacher.

2.9.2 Social Needs

Within educational process, social needs are also actualized. In the context of the school environment, two types of social needs are discussed among experts (Lokša, Lokšová, 1999; Pavelková, 2002; Hrabal, Pavelková, 2010), namely:

- the need for positive relationships – the need for affiliation and the fear of rejection,

- the need for social influence (or the need for prestige).

The need for positive relationships is fulfilled by interpersonal contact with other people. Typical behavioural characteristics of students with a dominant need for affiliation are as follows:

- friendship is more valuable than success,

- they learn for the affection of parents, teachers, classmates,

- they succeed in intergroup competitions,

- they are less anxious before exams,

- they create a pleasant atmosphere,

- they are adaptable, more dependent. (Pavelková, 2002, p. 38–39)

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Fear of rejection stems from long-standing disappointment in interpersonal relationships. Students with this fear often behave unnaturally, anxiously, fall behind in group competitions, and try to avoid negative feedback. This behaviour then provokes negative reactions from others. Thus, a kind of vicious circle is created. To break it is then the teacher's responsibility. (Hrabal, Pavelková, 2010, p. 156)

The need for influence and prestige is a secondary need, which manifests itself by exerting influence on the behaviour of others and trying to control them. A distinction is made between the negative and positive face of influence. While in the negative face the main goal is to control others for pleasure, in the positive face the goal of the influential individual is identical to that of the group. (Hrabal, Pavelková, 2010, p. 155–156) Teachers can influence the social needs of their students to a large extent through their own social needs, pedagogical methods and style. Hrabal and Pavelková (2010, p. 157– 158), for example, mention competition as a method that has a great influence on the actualization of desirable social needs, provided that it is "*wisely used*".

From the above statements it can be inferred that students with a developed need for affiliation generally do better both in contact with their classmates and in the learning process. Pupils who become entangled in a loop of fear of rejection or negative influence by their classmates should be offered help from the teacher.

2.9.3 Performance Needs

Pupils' attitudes towards performance are manifested by two tendencies. While some learners feel the need for successful performance others are dominated by the need to avoid failure. The two tendencies may be intertwined. Which tendency is more dominant depends largely on the pupil's disposition, the nature of the demands on the child (whether or not they are appropriate; whether or not the child is adequately encouraged in meeting them) the experience of success and failure and their consequences, and the performance orientation of the parents. If the child develops a need for successful performance, performance situations are associated with pleasurable experiences for the child. Otherwise, in the case of a dominant avoiding failure tendency, a kind of defence mechanism develops to protect the individual self from failure. (Pavelková, 2002, p. 32–33)

In case of this need, students often resort to the strategies of face-saving behaviours. These are discussed, for example, by Martin V. Covington within his self-worth theory.

They include:

- *Non-performance:* The easiest way to avoid failure is to avoid the activity that might cause it.

- *Taking on too much*: Learners dilute their attention and effort into so many jobs that they have no time to give each one proper attention.

- *Setting impossibly high goals:* Setting high goals that virtually no one could achieve makes the person feel that it is not their fault that they are failing to achieve them.

- *The academic wooden leg:* Here the proverbial wooden leg refers to a minor personal weakness that the individual blames in order to avoid admitting to a greater feared weakness. For example, nervousness, not personal incompetence, was to blame for failure on a test. (Covington, Teel in Dörnyei, 2001, p. 88)

It is in the teacher's power to prevent the fear of failure, Dörnyei (2001, p. 91– 94) lists several ways how to do this. All of them consist in promoting the pupil's confidence.

- *Providing experiences of success*. Allowing the pupil to regularly experience a sense of success is a building block in developing a healthy self-esteem.

- *Encouraging the learners*. The teachers should regularly let the learners know that they believe in their abilities and skills and that the goal they are pursuing is achievable.

- *Reducing language anxiety*. Limiting competitive activities (reduce competitiveness in favour of cooperation; treat error as a friend of the learning process, not as an undesirable phenomenon; when testing, prevent poor results by providing all the information, including the assessment criteria, also allow enough time so that even the slower ones do not feel under undue pressure.

The information above shows that while successful performance orientation affects the learning process rather positively, avoiding failure tendency rather negatively. However, even this orientation may not be invariable and can be eliminated or avoided altogether by certain teacher practices. By creating a tolerant, learner-centred environment where failure is not demonised but is seen as part of the learning process, a solid basis for reducing the fear of failure is provided.

2.9.4 The Need for Responsibility

Even the tendency to complete school tasks can be a source of motivation to learn. They can be of different nature. Pupils may work to gain rewards or avoid punishment, or they may recognise the importance of tasks to their lives. The latter is more desirable in the learning process, in which case the learner is likely to learn voluntarily, of his or her own free will. (Hrabal, Pavelková, 2010, p. 124)

From this it can be concluded that if the learner works of his or her own free will, the learning process will be of higher quality and the knowledge and skills acquired will be more permanent.

2.9.5 The Need to Conceive One's Future

As described by Hrabal, Mann, Pavelková (1989, p. 74), perspective orientation consists in the ability to see one's future, to set perspective goals, the achievement of which mobilizes and activates the individual in the long term.

An individual is not born with a perspective orientation, but it is rather a developmentally higher stage preceded by an orientation towards short-term goals typical of younger school age (Hrabal, Mann, Pavelková, 1989, p. 82). Its development is related to the development of cognitive (perception of time, development of thinking, attention, memory or imagination, ability to work with hypotheses, deductions, etc.) and motivational processes (ability to tolerate more distant rewards, ability to be patient and persistent in achieving long-term goals, ability to evaluate the value of a long-term goal compared to a short-term one; formation of a sufficiently stable hierarchy of the individual's needs). The authors also note that the need to plan for one's future develops unevenly over time, but that the need for planning for one's future becomes significantly stronger between the 7th and 8th year of lower secondary school. (Hrabal, Mann, Pavelková, 1989, p. 80)

They attribute this mainly to a change in external conditions: the approaching end of schooling, the intensifying pressure from parents and teachers on pupils regarding their future direction (Hrabal, Mann, Pavelková, 1989, p. 81).

Nick Thorner (2017), like Hrabal, Mann, and Pavelková (1989) and Hrabal and Pavelková (2010), sees the learner's perspective orientation as absolutely crucial in terms

of motivation to learn. Thorner (2017, p. 20) adds that the more a pupil is able to connect his/her schoolwork to his/her future ambitions, the more motivated he/she will be to complete the tasks. The authors also agree that it is the teacher who can stimulate students' perspective orientation to a large extent.

Thorner (2017, p. 21), for example, refers to Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (see chapter 2.7.2) and recommends teachers continuously restore pupils' imaginations about their future lives and the goals they would like to achieve in the future. Zoltán Dörnyei (2001, p.82), however, points out that a teacher should not rely only on the student's long-term goals as a source of motivation, because learning a language is a long-term process and it cannot be assumed that the highest goal (e.g. to communicate with a native speaker, etc.) will be a strong enough motivator throughout the entire period of study. Dörnyei therefore recommends setting short-term specific goals, also referred to as 'proximal sub-goals', which serve as immediate incentives.

To summarise, the fully developed need to conceive one's own future is a strong motivating element for older pupils, but its emergence and intensity is influenced by many other factors, some of which can and some of which cannot be reinforced by the school environment. However, teachers should also guide their pupils to set and achieve short-term goals that will make the journey towards a long-term goal shorter and more enjoyable.

3 English Language in Czech Curriculum

The compulsory study of a foreign language in the Czech education system is enshrined in the curricular document known as the Framework Educational Programme for Elementary Education. English language, which is offered to pupils preferably as a first foreign language (Zelinková, Černá, Zitková, 2020, p. 49), is taught within one of the nine educational areas called Language and Language Communication.

Language and Language Communication is considered to be a core area in the Czech educational process. It is, like other educational areas, divided into separate parts – educational fields. There are three educational fields in Language and Language Communication educational area: *L1, foreign language and another foreign language.* (MŠMT, 2021, p. 16)

The aim of foreign languages studies is to equip pupils to communicate effectively in Europe and the world. The study is designed to remove language barriers and naturally increase the mobility of individuals not only in their personal life but also in their further academic and working life. It is also intended to lead students to learn about and understand different cultures and ways of life. Thus, leading them to mutual tolerance and understanding. Foreign language studies are provided in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. The level of the elementary graduate's foreign language should be A2, and A1 for the second foreign language. The Framework Educational Programme includes a list of expected outcomes that pupils are expected to achieve in each educational area, each educational field. This list is provided in the annex entitled Standards and specifies the expected outcomes in years 5 and 9. (MŠMT, 2021, p. 16-17)

The expected outcomes for foreign language at the end of the lower secondary school are as follows (MŠMT, 2021, p. 26-27):

Listening comprehension

- A learner understands the information in simple listening exercises if they are presented slowly and clearly.
- A learner understands the content and meaning of a conversation, as far as it relates to the topics learned.

- A learner with SLD (Specific learning disabilities) understands basic information in short listening exercises within familiar topics.
- A learner with SLD understands simple questions regarding himself/herself.

Speaking

- A learner asks for basic information and responds adequately in ordinary formal and informal situations.
- A learner is able to talk about his/her family, friends, school and other topics learned.
- A learner tells a simple story and describe people, places or things that are familiar to him/her.
- A learner with SLD responds to simple questions concerning himself/herself.

Reading comprehension

- A learner finds the required information in simple authentic texts.
- A learner understands short and simple texts and finds the required information in them.
- A learner with SLD, with the help of visual supports, understand words and simple sentences that relate to the familiar topics.

Writing

- A learner completes the form with basic information about himself/herself.
- A learner writes simple texts regarding himself/herself, family, school and other topics learned.
- A learner responds to simple written messages.
- A learner with SLD responds to simple written messages that relate to himself/herself.

4 Lower Secondary School Student from the Perspective of Developmental Psychology

In the Czech school system, a child becomes a student of the lower secondary school at the age of eleven. This is at the beginning of a period of life that is referred to as adolescence in developmental psychology (Lally, Valentine-French, 2019, p. 215).

Vágnerová (2005, p. 321) refers to adolescence as a transitional period between childhood and adulthood in which a complex personality transformation occurs. The changes an individual undergoes are primarily biologically determined, but always influenced by psychological and social factors with which they interact. Vágnerová also describes the period as a specific stage of life, locating it between the tenth and twentieth years of life. It is an era of searching during which the individual has to face his or her own transformation, build an acceptable social status and develop a subjectively satisfying, more mature self-identity. (Vágnerová, 2005, p. 321)

Walker, Bobola (2017, p. 125) also see adolescence as a period characterized by the formation of personal and social identity. They recall the claims of German psychologist Erik Erikson, who argued that the main task of adolescents is to answer the questions: *"Who am I"* and *"Who do I want to be?"*.

The decade of adolescence can be divided into early and late one (Vágnerová, 2005, p. 323). The focus of this subchapter will be on the early phase, lasting until approximately the fifteenth year of life, as this is the phase that lower secondary school pupils experience.

The early phase of adolescence is referred to in developmental psychology as pubescence (Vágnerová, 2005, p. 323; Langmeier, Krejčířová, 2006, p. 143). In relation to the term pubescence, the term puberty is also used to refer to the period of *"rapid growth and sexual maturation"* (Lally, Valentine-French, 2019, p. 215).

The authors Langmeier, Krejčírová (2006, p. 143) divide the period of pubescence into two phases.

- **The prepubertal phase** (first pubertal phase), which begins with the first signs of sexual maturation and ends with the onset of menstruation in girls and the first nocturnal emission in boys. While girls experience this phase from approximately eleven to thirteen years of age, boys begin physical development approximately two years later. (Langmeier, Krejčíková, 2006, p. 143)

- **The phase of puberty proper** (the second pubertal stage), which begins after the end of prepuberty and lasts until the individual reaches reproductive capacity. The actual prepubertal period lasts from approximately thirteen to fifteen years of age.

    Physical maturation is most striking during puberty; however, as part of the overall development, there is also a change in the way of thinking and emotional experience. Puberty is characterised by the beginnings of independence from parents, while the importance of relationships with peers with whom they identify increases. (Vágnerová, 2005, p. 323)

However, Langmeier and Krejčířová (2019, p. 153-154) point out that under normal circumstances, adolescents maintain positive relationships with their parents, despite their desire for independence from parental influence. They remain the main source of social support.

For older adolescents it is important to distinguish themselves from both children and adults, which they show through adjustments in appearance, specific lifestyles, interests, etc. An important milestone of adolescents' lives is the end of schooling at the age of 15 and the subsequent choice of a career that will predetermine pubescent's later social status. The individual in adolescence is building his new, acceptable position in the world and is aware that (s)he must earn it in some way. Achieving this position fulfils a need for certainty that is no longer satisfied by dependence on the family, as it was in childhood. (Vágnerová, 2005, p. 323– 324)

4.1 Physical changes

The physical changes associated with puberty occur roughly between the eighth and fourteenth years of life and include changes in individual's height, weight and body composition. Human growth during this period is often referred to as distal-proximal development, meaning that the extremities (head, hands and feet) grow first, followed by the arms and legs, later the torso and shoulders. Therefore, the body of an adolescent may seem out of proportion. While females usually complete puberty by ages fifteen to seventeen, males usually finish around sixteen to seventeen. (Lally, Valentine- French, 2019, p. 215; Walker, Bobola, 2017, p. 118)

The growth spurt is accompanied by the process of sexual maturation. In this context, a distinction is made between primary and secondary sexual characteristics. Primary sexual characteristics are those related to the maturation of the reproductive organs.

Secondary sexual characteristics refer to visible bodily changes that signal sexual maturity. Secondary sexual characteristics in males include broadening of the shoulders, facial, pubic and underarm hair, and lower voice. In girls, these include breast growth, widening of the hips, and pubic and underarm hair. All of these physical transformations are caused by hormonal changes, which in both men and women can result in skin disease known as acne. (Lally, Valentine-French, 2019, p. 215–218)

Vágnerová (2005, p. 326) points out that the physical transformation of one's own body has different subjective meanings for individuals. While some are delighted and proud of their physical changes, others may feel ashamed of them.

The potential dangers associated with the subjective perception of one's own body transformation are pointed out by Walker and Bobola (2017, p. 120). While earlier adolescent boys may be more susceptible to drug addiction and earlier sexual activity, earlier adolescent girls may experience sexual harassment, which can have a negative impact on their mental health. They may become more prone to anxiety, depression, drug addiction and eating disorders. Individuals who mature more slowly compared to their peers are equally at risk because they may feel ashamed of their lack of physical development. (Walker, Bobola, 2017, p. 120)

4.2 Cognitive Development

During adolescence, there are also significant changes in cognitive development. Adolescents are gradually capable of abstract thinking, logical, deductive reasoning, orientation in hypothetical situations, and the use and understanding of symbols and metaphors (Piaget in American Psychological Association, 2002, p. 11).

In adolescence individuals are able to solve problems systematically and effectively, evaluate various alternatives including what-if possibilities in thinking about the world, think about the future, and set goals (Walker, Bobola, 2017, p. 121).

The changes that occur in the cognitive domain of adolescents are summarized by Walker and Bobola into five areas:

- *Attention* – adolescents are capable of both selective attention (the ability to attend to one stimulus while ignoring others) and divided attention (the ability to attend to multiple stimuli simultaneously).
- *Memory* – Working memory as well as long-term memory improve.
- *Processing speed* – The thinking of adolescents is accelerating.

- *Organization* – Adolescents become aware of their own thought processes, and are able to use mnemonic devices and other strategies to make their thinking more efficient.
- *Metacognition* – Adolescents are already able to think about thinking itself. As a result, they are capable of planning, thinking about future consequences of actions, no longer seeing the world in black and white, but are able to think in alternatives. (Walker, Bobola, 2017, p. 123)

The new ability to reason hypothetically can become a source of uncertainty for adolescents, leading to the reinforcement of temporary cognitive egocentrism, which is characterized by the following manifestations:

- they tend to be overly critical and polemical,
- they believe that their thinking is exceptional,
- tend to be hypersensitive and relational.
  (Elkind in Vágnerová, 2005, p. 336)

Other characteristic manifestations of cognitive development in adolescents are: (Walker, Taylor; Jaffe; Bjorklund, Green in American Psychological Association, 2002, p. 11; Vágnerová, 2005, p. 337):

- As new reasoning capabilities develop and are explored and practiced, adolescents may tend to participate in arguments that may often seem gratuitous to adults.
- Despite their already developed logical reasoning, it is typical for adolescents to make precipitate conclusions.
- Teenagers tend to be radical. Their radicalism is a defence against the ambiguities they encounter. Radical thinking leads to generalizations that are often erroneous, even nonsensical.
- Adolescents are often self-centred and it is a matter of their further cognitive development to begin to consider other people's perspectives.
- The development of critical thinking leads adolescents often to find discrepancies in what adults say or do.

4.3 Emotional Development

Hormonal changes in adolescence also lead to changes in the emotional state. The emotional reactions of adolescents tend to be less appropriate and highly variable. Adolescents are emotionally unstable, their emotional perception is intense, rather short-lived. The change in their own feelings is often surprising to themselves and they cannot explain the cause. During adolescence, the experience of negative emotions increases, with a typical tendency towards a bad or depressed mood. Hostility and aggression may also increase. The emotional state gradually stabilises during adolescence. (Vágnerová, 2005, p. 340–345)

4.4 Social Development

As Vágnerová (2005, p. 346) explains, during early adolescence, changes occur in relationships with adults, peers, and with the self. With changes in self-concept, the adolescent rejects subordinate status and begins to deny the authority of parents and teachers. The adolescent gradually detaches from the family and seeks autonomy. Parents seem imperfect; the criticism of them leads the adolescent to differentiate himself. With the need for independence from parental influence, peer relationships are strengthened and the need for friendship naturally grows. Adolescent identifies with peers, they become a source of emotional and social support. They seek someone they can trust and with whom they can share their inner feelings and find understanding. A close friend strengthens a teenager's self-esteem and confidence. This shift of focus from parents to peers does not mean that parents are less important in the adolescent's life. The emotional attachment to parents persists, although it has undergone a significant change compared to childhood. (Vágnerová, 2005, p. 346–402; American Psychological Association, 2002, p. 21)

Peer groups are growing in importance. G. C. Davenport defines peer groups as groups *"who interact frequently, who have similar norms and values, and who have similar aims and ambitions"* (Davenport, 1996, p. 349). There are pro- or anti-school peer groups. While the pro-group encourages its members to do school work, the anti-school encourages disrespect for authority and punishes members if they succeed in school. (Davenport, 1996, p. 349)

Nevertheless, peer groups serve as a support for the adolescent in the creation of individual identity, a source of understanding, acceptance, prestige, status and popularity. It is through peer groups that individuals gain information about the world around outside the family and about themselves. Identification with peers gives the adolescent the opportunity to develop moral judgement and values while clarifying how these differ from those set by parents. (Bishop, Inderbitzen; Micucci; Santrock in American Psychological Association, 2002, p. 21)

Peer influence can have both positive and negative consequences for an individual. Lally, Valentine-French (2019, p. 239) explain that as for negative ones, these may include cases when an individual is, for example, manipulated into risky behaviours or actions such as drinking alcohol, drug addiction, or involvement in criminal activities.

Attitudes towards school education and motivation to learn also change. School success ceases to be a goal; instead, willingness to work in school is conditioned by the pursuit of other, personally meaningful goals, such as admission to a chosen secondary school. Adolescents tend not to exert themselves too much; they are willing to learn primarily what they consider important. Attitudes towards teachers are also changing; adolescents are more critical of their demands and only accept their authority if they believe they deserve it. In various ways, adolescents seek to be treated as equals by teachers and, when this happens, are more inclined to work and cooperate with them. Otherwise, they tend to provoke and refuse teachers' demands. (Vágnerová, 2005, p. 362– 368)

Tessa Woodward (in Harmer, 2015, p. 83) notes that the students who have problems with an authority are primarily those who have problems at home. Moreover, teenagers have a highly developed sense of what is right and fair, feel bored by slow-paced lessons or activities that take too long, and become irritated if they do not see a reason for doing them. In view of these facts, conclusions can be drawn that adolescent learners may be perceived problematic. Penny Ur argues that this is mainly because they are still learning because they have to, not because they want to, and are therefore less willing to do school work. Ur also points out that all of the factors already mentioned above that are typical of adolescence, such as finding one's identity, relationships, physical changes, etc. can have a negative impact on their concentration during the learning process (Ur, 2012, p. 264). Nevertheless, Jeremy Harmer (2015, p. 83) is convinced that adolescents may be "*the most enjoyable and engaging to work with*", as they can be funny and creative.

From the beforementioned statements, it is evident that the period of adolescence is one of the most challenging in human life, given that the individual has to cope with

rapid changes in all spheres of his personality. These affect his physical dispositions, cognitive thinking; his emotional and social spheres are also undergoing intensive development. It is natural and expected by experts that all these changes will also be reflected in the attitude to school work. Learners begin to demand compelling reasons to perform the required tasks, the teacher ceases to be an unwavering authority. The pupil no longer wants to be a pupil, but rather an equal partner; the views of peers come to the fore.

Knowing, realising and accepting these facts allows the teacher to have more control over the situation and to make better use of the potential that adolescent pupils have in the learning process.

5 Previous Research on Motivation in the School Environment

Ratajová (2014) in her diploma thesis dealt with the issue of motivation and demotivation in English and French language classes at a traditional lower secondary school and at a school with extended language learning. The research consisted of observation and subsequent analysis of two English and two French language lessons and a questionnaire survey among the students and teachers who participated in these classes. The aim was to ascertain to what extent pupils are motivated to learn languages, how teachers motivate them and how teachers themselves are motivated in their work. Ratajová's findings showed that both teachers motivate their students sufficiently and that even less experienced teacher is capable of adequate motivation, especially by using humour and an inductive approach to explaining grammar. The author also concluded that students have a positive attitude towards their teachers and in most cases learn on the basis of intrinsic motivation, either because they enjoy the language or because they realise its importance for their future profession.

Ježová (2013) focused in her research on the attitude of teachers towards the issue of motivation. According to her findings, the teacher is the strongest possible driving force of the educational process and all other factors entering into this process can be influenced, determined and linked by the teacher. The teacher is the one who, according to Ježová, has power over the motivational factors occurring in learning process and also over the students whose role is submissive.

Chvalová (2014) in her diploma thesis investigated the motivation of pupils to learn English and its structure among the pupils of standard primary schools and Waldorf schools. The author focused on school performance motivation, motivational preferences and pupils' attitudes towards the English language. By questionnaire survey implemented in the seventh grades, it was found that Waldorf school pupils (with an average score of 12.85 out of a possible 16 points) showed higher motivation to learn English than pupils in standard schools (who scored 11.59 points). The motivation of Waldorf school pupils to learn English is significantly different from that of pupils in standard schools. Cognitive motivation is 7 % higher for Waldorf school pupils than for pupils from standard schools, whereas the need for prestige is significantly lower for Waldorf school pupils (5.85 %) than for standard school pupils (14. 69 %). For Waldorf school

pupils, the need for successful performance is also a strong motivator (20.55 %), whereas this category scored significantly lower for standard school pupils (14.44%).

Pupils from Waldorf schools showed different reasons for learning English than their peers from standard schools. Their motivation was predominantly cognitive, with positive social motivation and the need for successful performance outweighing motives such as fear of failure, a sense of obligation and the need for prestige. Independence and voluntariness prevailed in the home preparation of Waldorf school pupils, whereas pupils in standard schools were more likely to report that they had to be forced by their parents to prepare at home and that they sometimes received help.

Stránská, Blažková (2001) conducted a research in selected Prague schools, the aim of which was to study the level and structure of motivation of lower secondary school and grammar school students to learn from their own perspective. The authors studied the level of pupils' motivation to learn depending on their age, gender and parents' education.

To investigate learners' motivation, they used Kozéki's IMB questionnaire, which distinguishes between cognitive motivation (motives for cognition, developing one's own abilities), affective motivation (motives related to emotional relationships with other persons), and effective motivation (motives resulting from relationships with the expectations of others and the norms of society). The research results led the researchers to the following conclusions:

- The level of pupils' motivation to learn decreases with age.

- The level of motivation to learn is higher for girls than for boys.

- The level of motivation to learn is unrelated to parental education. (In the sense that the higher the parents' education, the higher the level of motivation to learn and vice versa).

- In most cases, cognitive motivation to learn prevails, which transforms into effective motivation towards the end of secondary school. The affective motivation decreases with age. Regarding the structure of motivation to learn, it was found that relationship with parents as a motivator was rated similarly by lower secondary school boys and girls. The shift occurred only at the end of secondary school, when it became clear that girls were much more influenced by their parents' views than boys. Relationship

with the teacher was not a significant motivating element in any of the grade groups studied, but for boys in the sixth year of lower secondary school and the second year of secondary school, the teacher is a greater authority figure than for girls of the same age. Girls, on the other hand, are more influenced by social prestige among their peers. As for cognitive motivation, it comes earlier for girls than for boys. Effective motivation develops in the same way in both genders, being age-dependent, not gender-dependent.

Pavelková, Hrabal (2010) in their publication presented the results of their research conducted between 2005 and 2007 in 25 primary schools in the Czech Republic. The aim of the research, which involved a total of 3108 pupils from the sixth to the ninth grades, was to investigate pupils' attitudes towards individual subjects. Among other things, the authors were interested in ascertaining the level of popularity, importance and difficulty of the subjects from the students' perspective. They also investigated the level of students' motivation for English.

Regarding the English language, it was found that:

- It is moderately popular with pupils (evidenced by an observed average score of 2.4 for grades 6 and 7; 2.6 for grade 8; and 2.5 for grade 9, with 1 being very popular; 5 being unpopular).

- It is considered to be rather difficult (with an average score of 3 for grade 6; 2.9 for grade 7; 2.8 for grades 8 and 9, with 1 being very difficult and 5 being very easy).

- It is highly significant (it is the most significant of all subjects). Here, the average score comes out to 1.6 for grade 6; 1.5 for grades 7 and 8; 1.4 for grade 9, with 1 being very significant, 5 being insignificant.

- Student motivation is rather average, with a mean score ranging from 2.2 to 2.3, with 1 being highly motivated and 5 being unmotivated.

The results also showed that the importance students attach to English increases slightly in the higher grades. Pupils in Years six and nine performed best in English (in terms of grades). There is no difference in attitudes towards English between boys and girls, but boys were found to perform worse.

Rahman et al. (2017) investigated the factors that influence motivation to learn English as a second language. The questionnaire research was conducted among 80 Form Five

students from a rural school on the East Coast of Malaysia. The factors on which the research focused were: parental influence, teacher influence and the students' own attitude. It was found that teachers are the strongest motivators for learning English as a foreign language. Students' own attitudes and the influence of parents proved to be moderate factors.

Shaaban, Ghaith (2000) investigated the motivation to learn English as a second language among 180 students at the American University of Beirut. The research was conducted using a modified version of the motivation scale developed by Wen (1997). Among other things, the aim of the research was to determine to what extent gender, level of English proficiency, or field of study influences motivation to learn a language. The data obtained revealed that low-proficiency students and females are more motivated to learn English than males and higher-proficiency learners. However, there was no significant correlation of the level of motivation to learn English with student's first foreign language or field of study.

Humaida (2012) conducted a research to investigate the general trend of motivation to learn English language in the faculty of arts at the Islamic University, Sudan. His sub-objectives were to identify whether and, if so, to what extent motivation is affected by age and the class level of the students. Research involving 40 male-only students showed no significant correlation between motivation and students' age or motivation and their class level. As for the level of motivation towards English among the students, this was found to be high.

6 Summary of the Theoretical Part

The aim of the theoretical part was to provide an insight into the issue of pupils' motivation to learn in the environment of Czech lower secondary schools. To this end, it was divided into four main chapters: Motivation, English language subject, Learner's personality and Summary of recent work on motivation.

At the beginning of the theoretical part, the objectives of the thesis were defined. The second chapter was devoted to the definition of the concept of motivation and other associated concepts. Several lines dealt with the concept of motivational behaviour, which was described through the five phases of the Slovak authors Lokša and Lokšová (1999) and the motivational cycle of the American psychologists Ciccarelli and White (2012). As concepts such as need, motive, drive or incentives also come into play during motivational behaviour, these were also explained.

Additionally, the second chapter offered descriptions of various motivational theories including two dominant theories to English language learning: Gardner and Lambert's Socio-psychological model and Dörnyei's Motivational Self-System. There were also discussed selected factors involved in learners' motivation to learn. Special attention was given to parents and the home environment they create, the teacher, and the needs of the learner. For all of them it was highlighted that they play an important role in the educational process.

Since the thesis deals with the issue of motivation to study English at Czech lower secondary school, the theoretical part also included a chapter on the subject of English language within the Czech curriculum. Space was also devoted to the characteristics of the target group of the thesis, i.e. pupils aged 11 to 15 from the perspective of developmental psychology. It has been suggested that at the same rate as an individual's physical, cognitive, emotional and social characteristics change, motivation for school work can be affected, usually in a negative way. Trying to ascertain whether this is indeed the case is one of the research objects in the practical part of this thesis.

The final chapter of the theoretical part offered a summary of recent work on learners' motivation to learn mainly English language given that this is a topic that remains in the focus of interest of many educational and psychological experts.

7 Introduction and Methodology

7.1 Aim of the Research

The main aim of the research part of this thesis is to investigate whether and to what extent lower secondary school students are motivated to learn English language. In relation to this, the following research questions were formulated:

1. To what extent are lower secondary school learners motivated to learn English?

2. How is motivation to learn affected by age?

3. How is motivation to learn affected by gender?

4. Is there a possible correlation between the family background and the level of motivation?

5. Is there a possible correlation between parents' education and the learner's motivation?

6. What are the strongest motives for learning English among lower secondary school students?

7. How does the strength of the motives change depending on the grade being studied?

7.2 Methods of the Research

To obtain the research data, it was decided to use a questionnaire as the most appropriate method. The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part, which aims to ascertain the level of students' motivation to learn English, was adapted from Hrabal (2002; the questionnaire was later reminded and recommended, for example, by Obst, 2017) and modified to a subject of English language. The third part of the questionnaire which focuses on motives for learning English was taken from Hrabal, Pavelková (2010) and adapted for this project. The author of the second part of the questionnaire, investigating the learners' family background with regard to support English language learning, is the author of this thesis herself.

7.2.1 Questionnaire

Bhatttacherjee (2012, p. 74) defines questionnaire *"as a research instrument consisting of a set of questions (items) intended to capture responses from respondents in a standardized manner"*.

Questions can be unstructured or structured. *"Unstructured questions ask respondents to provide a response in their own words, while structured questions ask respondents to select an answer from a given set of choices"* (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 74).

Široký (2011, p. 66) says that questionnaire is probably the most widespread and sophisticated data collection methods which, however, has its advantages but also disadvantages.

The advantages include:

- The preparation of the questionnaire as well as its administration is time-saving.

- It may easily and inexpensively reach a large number of respondents.

- It provides respondents more time for answering, if needed it can guarantee an anonymity.

The disadvantages include:

- possible questions skipping,

- low return,

- answering the questions by another person (people).

The last two disadvantages can be partially mitigated by a group-administered questionnaire which is implemented among respondents who are brought together at a common place and time and each respondent completes the questionnaire while in that place. (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 74)

A more recent type of questionnaire survey is an online or web survey. These are administered over the internet and using interactive forms. Many of them are for free, for example: Microsoft Forms or Google Forms.

As for question content and wording, Dillman in Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 75-77) recommends several rules for creating good survey questions:

- Language must be clear and understandable.

- Wording questions in a negative manner should be avoided.

- Biased language or tone should be avoided.

- Too detailed or, on the other hand, too general questions should be eliminated.

- Double-barreled[1] questions, imaginary questions as well as questions with built-in presumptions are also undesirable.
- The researcher should also make certain that respondents have all the information needed to answer the questions correctly.

The questionnaire created for the purpose of this thesis, contains closed structured or semi-closed items. The items belonging to the third part of the questionnaire, which measures the strength of motives for learning English, are Likert-type scaled[2] items. (Chráska, 2016, p. 161)

7.3 Setting of the Research

The online questionnaire survey was conducted at five lower secondary schools in Olomouc and Zlín regions, namely: Drahotuše Primary School, Ptení Primary School, Šafaříkova Primary School in Valašské Meziříčí, Potštát Primary School and Integra Primary School in Vsetín in June 2021.

Due to the fact the author of this thesis is employed as a teacher at one of the researched schools (Drahotuše Primary school), the research started and was piloted there. The questionnaire was created on the Google forms platform in Czech language in order to be understood by all pupils.

Firstly, the headmasters were asked for permission to conduct a research. Once they gave approval, the pre-research was conducted in the sixth grade of Drahotuše school to verify that the questionnaire would be understandable even for the youngest children from the target age group. Since this pre-research did not reveal any difficulties, the link to the questionnaire was sent to the rest of the schools. The original intention was to be present in person during the completion of the questionnaire in as many schools as possible in order to give the same instructions and to clarify any confusion that may have arisen during the implementation. However, due to the situation regarding Covid 19, this was not possible. Thus, all the teachers who were assigned to conduct it had been informed about the objectives of the survey and instructions for completing the questionnaire.

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[1] Double-barreled questions are defined by Bhattacherjee as those questions that can have multiple answers. (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 36)
[2] In Likert-type scales, the respondent is presented with certain statements and then selects the degree of agreement or disagreement on a bipolar scale (Chráska, 2016, p. 161)

They were asked to communicate the following issues with the learners:

- There is one questionnaire for one student.
- The questionnaire is anonymous, thus the learners may feel comfortable to be open and truthful.
- As for open-ended question, students should avoid answers such as:
- "I do not know". They should try to be as honest as possible.
- Questionnaire completing is not limited in time, however, it is preferred that learners write the answers that will come first to their minds.
- Completing the questionnaire takes about 15 minutes.

The teachers promised that the survey would be implemented in as many classes as possible by the end of June. Most of them also expressed interest in the results of the research, and were assured that these would be made available.

7.3.1 Characteristics of Researched Schools

Drahotuše Primary school

Drahotuše Primary School is a suburban school located in Drahotuše, the part of Hranice town in Přerov district. The school is attended by children coming from Drahotuše and also from neighbouring villages. The total capacity of the school is three hundred children. Since 2007 pupils have been educated according to the School Education Programme "*DRAŠKA*". The aim of this programme is to raise and educate children into people who will be:

Trustworthy (= **d**ůvěryhodní)

Decisive (= **r**ozhodní)

Active (= **a**ktivní)

Skilful (= **š**ikovní)

Communicative (= **k**omunikativní)

Assertive (= **a**sertivní)

English language becomes compulsory in the third grade. At lower secondary level there are three English lessons per week in all grades. The pupils of all grades also may attend optional English classes led by an English teacher. None of the English teachers is a native speaker, but they are all qualified. (ZŠ a MŠ Hranice, 2007)

Potštát Primary School

Potštát Primary School is located in the village Potštát in Přerov district. It is a small, fully organized school attended by an average of about one hundred children from Potštát and surrounding villages. The learners are educated according to the School Education Programme titled *"Na světě je každý rád"*.

English language is mandatory from the third grade, similar to Drahotuše school, there are three English lessons per week in all grades at lower secondary level. English is taught also as an optional subject in the first and second grade at primary level.

None of the English teachers is a native speaker. (ZŠ a MŠ Potštát, 2007)

Šafaříkova Primary School

Šafaříkova Primary School is situated in the centre of Valašské Meziříčí in Vsetín district. It is a fully organized school with nine grades. The capacity of the school is up to 550 pupils. The school is attended by children from Štěpánov and neighbouring village of Hrachovec. The learners are taught according to the School Education Programme titled: *"Všude dobře, u nás nejlépe"*.

English language is taught from the second grade (with a time allocation of two lessons a week); from the third to the ninth grade with an allocation of three lessons per week. The seventh graders have four lessons a week, this fourth extra lesson is meant to be primarily for an English conversation.

The school also offers English as an optional subject that aims at preparing the pupils of the eighth and the ninth grade for the Cambridge KET exams. The time allocation for this optional subject is two lessons a week which are additional to the compulsory ones.

The school has a number of qualified English teachers, including one native speaker. (ZŠ Šafaříkova Valašské Meziříčí, 2018)

Integra Private Primary School

Integra Private Primary School, which provides education for pupils from the first to the ninth grade, is located in Vsetín. The total capacity of the school is 200 pupils, who come from different parts of the town and from surrounding villages.

Integra also provides education to disabled or (socially) disadvantaged children. In order to maintain a high level of individual care, there can be a maximum of 20 pupils per class. Although it is a private school, there is no tuition fee.

The pupils at Integra start with English in the third grade. The time allocation is the same in the first and second level of primary school (3 lessons per week). From the seventh grade onwards, German or English conversation is added (two lessons per week). The school employs qualified English teachers, none of whom are native speakers. (ZŠ Integra Vsetín, 2018).

Ptení Primary School

Ptení Primary School is a fully organized school located in the village of Ptení in Prostějov district. The school educates approximately 180 pupils, half of whom are commuters from the adjacent villages.

English is taught there from the third grade onwards, with a time allocation of three lessons per week at the first level. The same amount of time is allocated at lower secondary level, except in the sixth grade in which the weekly allocation is increased by one lesson.

The pupils at the eighth and the ninth grades can also choose English conversation as an optional subject in addition to the compulsory ones. English is taught by qualified teachers, none of whom are native speakers. (ZŠ a MŠ Ptení, 2007)

7.3.2 Participants

The questionnaire survey was intended for all pupils from the 6th to the 9th grade of lower secondary schools, i.e. for pupils aged 11 to 15 years. A total of 295 learners completed the questionnaire. Of these, 149 were boys and 146 were girls.

Sex	Respondents
Female	146
Male	149
In total	295

Table 1 Respondents

Table 2 displays the response rates through the involved grades of all researched schools. The largest number of questionnaires (83) was completed by students of Drahotuše Primary School, where all grades, i.e. grades 6 to 9, were involved in the research. Similarly, at Ptení Primary School all grades of lower secondary level were involved in the research, from where a total of 78 completed questionnaires were received. A significantly lower number of participants was received from Potštát Primary School,

where pupils of all grades were also involved, but the number of pupils in each grade was relatively low. (In the sixth grade, for example, only two learners). In total, 31 responses were received. At Integra and Šafaříkova Primary Schools, not all grades participated in the research. While at Integra Primary School the non-participating year was Year 6, at Šafaříkova Primary School, it was Year 8. The number of responses received from both schools was similar: 50 from Integra Primary School, 53 from Šafaříkova Primary School. In total, there were involved: 61 6th grade students, 72 7th grade students, 70 8th grade students, 92 9th grade students.

Attended grade	Respondents
Drahotuše Primary school	83
6	19
7	24
8	23
9	17
Integra Private Primary school	50
7	16
8	16
9	18
Potštát Primary school	31
6	2
7	7
8	9
9	13
Ptení Primary school	78
6	27
7	11
8	22
9	18
Šafaříkova Primary school	53
6	13
7	14
9	26
In total	295

Table 2 Respondents detailed overview

8   Questionnaire Results

The following chapter will present the results of the questionnaire. For the purpose of clarity, the questionnaire results will be divided into three sub-sections based on the topics surveyed:

1. Motivation to learn English

2. Family background with regard to support for English language learning

3. Students' motives for learning English

8.1.1   Motivation to English language

Item 1: Interest in the subject of English language. The first question investigated learners' interest in the English language. The results are positive as they show that 58% of the pupils surveyed are interested in English language. Of these, 20 % are very interested. 101 respondents (34.2 %) chose the option English language sometimes interests me, sometimes not. Only eight pupils (2.7 %) chose the option "*I am not interested in English language*".

In the subject of English language I am	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
very interested	59	20 %
interested	113	38.3 %
sometimes interested, sometimes uninterested	101	34.2 %
more uninterested than interested	14	14 %
uninterested	8	8 %

Table 3 Interest in the subject of English language

Item 2: Difficulty of the English language. The second question researched to what extent students find the subject of English easy or difficult.123 children (41.7 %) chose the option of rather easy (28.1 %) or very easy (13.6 %). On the other hand, 51 respondents (17.3 %) see English language as rather difficult, while 8 children (2.7 %) find the English language very difficult.

English is for me:	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
very easy	40	13.6 %
rather easy	83	28.1 %
medium easy	113	38.3 %
rather difficult	51	17.3 %
very difficult	8	2.7 %

Table 4 Difficulty of the English language

Item 3: Importance of English language for the future. The third question investigated whether pupils considered English language important for their future. 189 pupils (64.1 %) saw English language as very important or important for their future. For 91 learners (30.8 %) English language is moderately or rather important. Only 15 (5.1 %) respondents answered that English is not important for their future.

English is for my future	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
very important	87	29.5 %
important	102	34.6 %
medium important	65	22 %
rather important	26	8.8 %
unimportant	15	5.1 %

Table 5 Importance of English language for the future

Item 4: Time spent on home preparation for English lessons. The purpose of this question on time spent at home preparing for English was to ascertain how much effort a student has to put into studying English at home to cope with the pace of English lessons. The majority of pupils (57.6 %) reported spending less than half an hour a day preparing.

Considering the fact that respondents tended to comment on this item by saying "*I do not study at home*", "*I do not need to study at home*", or "*I only study at school and that is enough*", it was decided not to include this question in the overall calculation of learners' motivation due to the fact that no home preparation may mean both motivated and unmotivated for the subject.

The average time I spend a day preparing for English is	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
less than half an hour	170	57.6 %
no more than one hour	83	28.1 %
one to two hours	21	7.1 %
two to three hours	6	2 %
three or more hours	15	5.1 %

Table 6 Average time of home preparation

Item 5: Helping with home preparation. To the question whether pupils prepare for English at home on their own or whether (and how often) someone helps them prepare, 186 pupils (63.1 %) answered that no one helps them. The remaining 109 learners (36.9 %) answered that someone sometimes, very often or always helps them. However, those who always need help are minimal, only 2.4 %

I prepare for English at home	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
by myself	186	63.1 %
someone sometimes helps me	86	29.2 %
someone helps me very often	16	5.4 %
I always need someone to help me	7	2.4 %

Table 7 Help with home preparation

Item 6: Understanding of what is being taught. The question whether students understand what they learn in English brought positive results. 178 (60.3 %) respondents answered that they always or mostly understand. (Of these, always 20 %; mostly 40.3 %). 113 students (38.3 %) chose that they sometimes understand sometimes do not understand. Only 4 respondents (1.4%) chose an option "*I do not understand*".

To what is being taught in English classes I	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
always understand	59	20 %
mostly understand	119	40.3 %
sometimes understand, sometimes do not	113	38.3 %
do not understand	4	1.4 %

Table 8 Understanding of what is being taught in English classes

Item 7: Learner's feelings in English language classes. The question exploring how students feel in English classes also generated positive results. 195 respondents (66.1 %) answered that they feel either always (25.8 %) or mostly (40.3 %) comfortable. Only 4 learners (1.4 %) feel always uncomfortable.

In English classes I feel	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
always comfortable	76	25.8 %
mostly comfortable	119	40.3 %
sometimes comfortable, sometimes uncomfortable	80	27.1 %
mostly uncomfortable	16	5.4 %
always uncomfortable	4	1.4 %

Table 9 Learners feelings in English language classes

Item 8: Looking forward to English classes. The question whether and how often pupils look forward to English lessons revealed the following findings: 55 pupils (18.6 %) always look forward to English lessons. 96 pupils (32.5 %) usually look forward to it. 101 pupils (34.2 %) sometimes look forward to it and sometimes do not. The remaining 43 pupils (14.6 %) not very often or never look forward to English classes.

To English classes I look forward	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
always	55	18.6 %
usually	96	32.5 %
sometimes	101	34.2 %
not very often	25	8.5 %
never	18	6.1 %

Table 10 Looking forward to English classes

Item 9: Reasons for looking forward to English classes. The question about looking forward to English classes was followed by an open-ended sub-question that invited students to give a reason for their previous answer. For clarity, the answers are presented in two tables.

Learners who always or usually look forward to English lessons answered frequently:

To English classes I look forward because	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
I enjoy English.	41	27.2 %
we have a great/nice teacher	39	25.8 %
English is important for various reasons	28	18.5 %
other responses including I do not know	43	28.5 %

Table 11 Reasons for looking forward to English classes

Students who sometimes look forward to, rather do not look forward to, or never look forward to answered:

To English classes I do not look forward because	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
I am not good at it	31	21.5 %
it's boring	26	18 %
because of the teacher	21	14.6 %
I do not enjoy/ do not like English	14	9.7 %
other responses including I do not know	52	36 %

Table 12 Reasons for not looking forward to English classes

Among the responses, in several cases there were answers such as: I do not know or I do not understand the question. These are included in the other responses section.

Item 10: The significance of English language. The last close-ended question in the first part of the questionnaire explored how students perceive the significance of English. Again, positive results were found. For 173 pupils (58.7 %), English is significant (for 22.4 % very significant). Contrarily, for 27 pupils (9.2 %) it is little significant. Only four respondents (1.4 %) answered that English is not significant for them.

English is to me	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
very significant	55	18.6 %
significant	96	32.5 %
partly significant	101	34.2 %
not very significant	25	8.5 %
insignificant	18	6.1 %

Table 13 The significance of the English language to learners

8.1.2 Family Background with Regard to Support English Language Learning

Items 11,12: Parents' highest level of education completed. The second part of the questionnaire begins with questions about the parents' highest level of education completed. Question 11 enquires the mother's highest education, question 12 the father's highest education. In the case of both the mother's and the father's education, it was found, as the table below shows, that the respondents mostly did not know the level of their parents' education. The remaining answers show that the largest group is the children of parents who have ended their secondary school studies by final exam. Pupils of apprenticed parents are the second largest group.

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Level of education attained	Mother	Percentage of respondents	Father	Percentage of respondents
primary school	5	1.7 %	8	2.7 %
secondary vocational school	45	15.3 %	74	25.1 %
secondary school	81	27.5 %	74	25.1 %
higher professional school	19	6.4 %	8	2.7 %
university studies	58	19.7 %	36	12.2 %
I do not know	87	29.5 %	95	32.2 %

Table 14 Parents' education

Item 13: Importance of English from the parents' perspective. The question 13 surveyed whether and how often learners hear about the importance of English language at home. Results showed that 53 pupils (18 %) hear about the importance of English very often and 102 pupils (34.6 %) often. 93 pupils (31.5%) chose the option of not hearing this often at home. The remaining 47 pupils (15.9 %) never hear about the importance of English at home.

That English language is important to learn I hear at home	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
very often	53	18 %
often	102	34.6 %
not very often	93	31.5 %
never	47	15.9 %

Table 15 Importance of English from the parents' perspective

Item 14: Parental support for learning English. To determine whether students feel supported by their parents to learn English was the aim of question 14. The vast majority of students (253 = 85.8 %) feel very (37.3 %) or somewhat (48.5 %) supported. The remaining 42 pupils (14.3 %) feel that their parents are rather or completely unsupportive of them learning English.

In my English studies my parents support me	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
very much	110	37.3 %
they are rather supportive	143	48.5 %
they are rather unsupportive	25	8.5 %
never	17	5.8 %

Table 16 Parental support for learning English.

Items 15: Parental rewards for success in English. Item 15 dealt with parental rewards and punishments for success or failure in English language learning. 108 students (36.6 %) reported that their parents always reward them for a good grade. Another 20 % said that they are often rewarded, 19.3 % sometimes. Only 28 (9.5 %) pupils are not rewarded.

For a good grade in English, my parents reward (praise) me	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
always	108	36.6 %
often	59	20 %
sometimes	57	19.3 %
rarely	43	14.6 %
never	28	9.5 %

Table 17 Parental rewards for success in English

Item 16. The favourite place to learn. A semi close-ended question surveyed students' favourite place to learn. The results showed that the majority of pupils (224 = 75.9 %) preferred to learn at home. Other commonly occurring responses include: outdoors (in nature), at school, and nowhere.

The best place to learn is	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
home	224	75.9 %
at my friend's	18	6.1 %
at school	14	4.7 %
outdoors	9	3.1 %
nowhere	8	2.7 %

Table 18 Favourite place to study

Item 17: Home as a quiet place to learn from the learners' perspective. Question 17 surveyed whether learners consider their home to be a calm place for learning. The results show that the majority of the students (162 = 54.9 %) have quiet time to study at home. 113 learners (38.3 %) selected the option of sometimes yes, sometimes no. 20 children (6.8 %) do not have quiet time at home for learning.

Is your home a quiet place to learn?	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
yes	162	54.9 %
sometimes	113	38.3 %
no	20	6.8 %

Table 19 Home as a quiet place to learn from the learners' perspective

8.1.3 Students' Motives for Learning English

The final part of the questionnaire is aimed at determining the strength of motives for learning English. The students were questioned on a total of eight motives for which they were asked to select the option that most closely matched their attitudes towards learning on a five-point scale (strongly agree – agree – neither agree nor disagree – disagree – strongly disagree). All the motives stem from the five basic learners' needs described in Section 2.9. The surveyed motives, that were presented in the form of a statement, are: (adapted from Hrabal, Pavelková, 2010)

- teachers – the need for positive relationships,

- classmates – the need for prestige,

- subject – cognitive motivation,

- sense of obligations – moral motivation,

- need for successful performance – positive performance motivation,

- fear of failure – negative performance motivation,

- future occupation – perspective orientation,

- parents and their desire for good school performance.

Item 18: The need for positive relationship with the teacher. As Table 20 shows, the motive for a positive relationship with the teacher is not among the strongest. Only 6.4 % of students reported that they strongly agree that they learn because of the teacher. Slightly more respondents (9.3 %) chose the option of "agree". The option "neither agree nor disagree" was picked by 19.3% of the respondents. The majority of pupils (64.4 % in total) disagree or strongly disagree with the statement that they learn because of the teacher.

I learn English because I WANT MY TEACHERS TO LIKE ME.	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
strongly agree	19	6.4 %
agree	29	9.8 %
neither agree nor disagree	57	19.3 %
disagree	73	24.7 %
strongly disagree	117	39.7 %

Table 20 Need for positive relationship with the teacher

Item 19: Classmates – the need for prestige. As illustrated in Table 21, with the statement that they learn in order to be better than their classmates, strongly agree or agree a minority of respondents (16. 6 % overall, out of which 7.8 % agree with the statement; 8.8 % rather agree). 23.7 % of students selected the option "neither agree nor disagree". The majority of the respondents (59.6 % in total) disagree or even strongly disagree with this statement.

I learn English because I WANT BE BETTER THAN MY CLASSMATES	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
strongly agree	23	7.8 %
agree	26	8.8 %
neither agree nor disagree	70	23.7 %
disagree	57	19.3 %
strongly disagree	119	40.3 %

Table 21 Desire to excel over the classmates

Item 20: Cognitive motivation. 32.2 % of respondents strongly agree with the statement that they learn because what they learn interests them. 20.7 % of students agree with it. 28.8 % respondents chose the option that they neither agree nor disagree. On the other hand, 18.3 % of respondents disagree or strongly disagree that they learn because what they learn interests them.

I learn English because WHAT I LEARN INTERESTS ME	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
strongly agree	95	32.2 %
agree	61	20.7 %
neither agree nor disagree	85	28.8 %
disagree	21	7.1 %
strongly disagree	33	11.2 %

Table 22 Cognitive motivation

Item 21: Sense of obligation – moral motivation. The sense of obligation, according to the data, completely motivates 26.4 % of the respondents, rather motivates 23.4 % of the researched pupils. A similar number of pupils (26. 4 %) feel neither motivated nor unmotivated by the sense of obligation. A minority of respondents (23. 7 % in total) chose the option that they disagree (13. 9 %) or strongly disagree (9.8 %) that the sense of duty would make them learn.

I learn English because I KNOW I HAVE TO	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
strongly agree	78	26.4 %
agree	69	23.4 %
neither agree nor disagree	78	26.4 %
disagree	41	13.9 %
strongly disagree	29	9.8 %

Table 23 Sense of obligation

Item 22: Need for successful performance: positive performance motivation. A good feeling after learning something well was considered very motivating or motivating by 62.7 % of the students surveyed. 21.7 % considered this neither motivating, nor unmotivating. The remaining 15.6 % of the students disagree (9.2 %) or strongly disagree (6.4 %) that the feeling of satisfaction after having learned something well make them want to learn.

I learn English because I FEEL GOOD WHEN I LEARN SOMETHING WELL	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
strongly agree	114	38.6 %
agree	71	24.1 %
neither agree nor disagree	64	21.7 %
disagree	27	9.2 %
strongly disagree	19	6.4 %

Table 24 Need for successful performance

Item 23: Fear of failure: negative performance motivation. Fear of failure is perceived as a completely or rather motivating factor by 32.5 % of respondents. That this fear is neither motivating nor unmotivating was reported by 25.4 % of students. A total of 42 % of the respondents perceived fear of failure as a unmotivating factor for learning English.

I learn English because I AM AFRAID I WILL NOT LEARN ANYTHING	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
strongly agree	50	16.9 %
agree	46	15.6 %
neither agree nor disagree	75	25.4 %
disagree	55	18.6 %
strongly disagree	69	23.4 %

Table 25 Fear of failure

Item 24: Future occupation: perspective orientation. Regarding perspective orientation, the respondents answered as follows: the vast majority of the students surveyed (61.3 %) are strongly motivated or motivated to learn English by the prospect of future occupation. This motive is seen neither as motivating nor unmotivating by 21 % of students. Only 17.6 % of respondents in the questionnaire stated that they disagree or even strongly disagree that the vision of a future job motivates them to learn.

I learn English because I WANT TO HAVE A GOOD JOB	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
strongly agree	109	36.9 %
agree	72	24.4 %
neither agree nor disagree	62	21 %
disagree	33	11.2 %
strongly disagree	19	6.4 %

Table 26 Future occupation: perspective orientation

Item 25: Parents and they desire for good school performance. Being aware that parents want them to succeed in English class strongly motivates or motivates 38 % of pupils. An almost identical number of pupils (39 % in total) do not feel motivated to learn by their parents' wishes. The remaining 23.1 % of the respondents reported that parents' wishes are a neutral motivating factor.

I learn English because MY PARENTS WANT ME TO BE GOOD AT ENGLISH	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
strongly agree	51	17.3 %
agree	61	20.7 %
neither agree nor disagree	68	23.1 %
disagree	49	16.6 %
strongly disagree	66	22.4 %

Table 27 Parents and their desire for good school performance

Item 26: Other reasons for learning English. The last question of the questionnaire asked students to give other reasons for learning English. An overview of the most frequent responses is given in Table 28.

Other reasons for learning English	Respondents	Percentage of respondents
to get a good job and be able to travel in a future	52	17.6 %
to understand computer games, video clips, movies	33	11.2 %
it is fun, I like it	21	7.1 %
my relatives (parents/grandparents/siblings) want me to learn English	14	4,7 %
other responses or no responses	175	59.3 %

Table 28 Other reasons for learning English

An open-ended question number 25 was not mandatory, so not all respondents completed their response to it. These blank responses, along with other varied responses including "I do not know", fall under the largest item of 'other responses or no responses', which totals 175 (59.3 %) respondents. As the table illustrates, the second largest group is students who are learning English because they are aware of its importance for future careers and travel. A total of 52 respondents (17.6 %) gave both or at least one of these reasons. Being able to understand foreign video games, video clips or films motivates a total of 33 (11.2 %) of the pupils surveyed to learn. 21 pupils (7.1 %) learn English because they enjoy it, are good at it or find it fun. For 14 respondents (4.7 %), a relative is a motivating factor.

8.2 Analysis of the Results

The following chapter will present the results of the analysis of the obtained data, which was processed in Microsoft (MS) Excel. For the sake of clarity, the sequence of the previous chapter will be maintained - first the motivation to learn English will be analysed, followed by the family background. The last part of the analysis deal with the students' motives for learning English.

8.2.1 Methods

To analyse the results, descriptive statistics and dependence statistics were used. Total motivation values were determined by arithmetic mean, statistical dependence was measured by correlation coefficient[3] which was calculated using the CORREL function in MS Excel.

Dependence interpretation is adapted from De Vaus (2002), who reports that:

Correlation value	Dependence interpretation
0.01 – 0.09	Trivial or none
0.10 – 0.29	Low to medium
0.30 – 0.49	Medium to essential
0.50 – 0.69	Essential to very strong
0.70 – 0.89	Very strong
0.90 – 0.99	Almost perfect

Figure 3 The Interpretation of correlation value by de Vaus (2002), adapted from: Lušňáková, et al., 2019, p. 21.

8.2.2 Motivation to Learn English Language

The first part of the questionnaire, i.e. questions one to ten, served primarily to determine the level of motivation of lower secondary school students to English language. However, question number 4 was omitted from the measurement as it was decided during the evaluation that home preparation time is highly individual and it is not possible to objectively determine what home preparation time indicates a high or low level of

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[3] As Fiřtová (2021) explains, the correlation coefficient expresses the degree of linear dependence between two variables. It ranges from -1 to 1. Whereby: a value of 0 indicates no dependence between the variables, positive values indicate direct dependence, and negative values indicate indirect dependence.

motivation respectively. Question nine was also omitted as it is an open question to ascertain the reasons for the answer to question eight.

The individual items were for the research purposes quantified as follows[4]:

Questions 1,2,3,7,8 = 0 to 4 points (with 0 unmotivated, 4 very motivated)

Questions 5,6,10 = 0 to 3 points (with 0 unmotivated, 3 very motivated)

Each student could score a total of 30 points. The results of all pupils were converted into percentages for clarity, then the average of the results for the whole school was calculated. The calculated values are presented in Table 29. The same procedure was used to calculate the average motivation of each grade (results in Table 30) and gender (results in Table 31).

As for individual respondents, they achieved almost all possible results, with values ranging from 3 to 100 %. The most motivated student is an eighth-grade student from Šafaříkova Primary School in Valašské Meziříčí, whose answers showed that she is 100 % motivated to learn English. In contrast, a ninth grader from Potštát school was measured to be only three percent motivated. The mean motivation was measured by taking the arithmetic mean, the median is the same. The modus, the value with the highest statistical frequency, is 0.63, which was reached by 28 respondents.
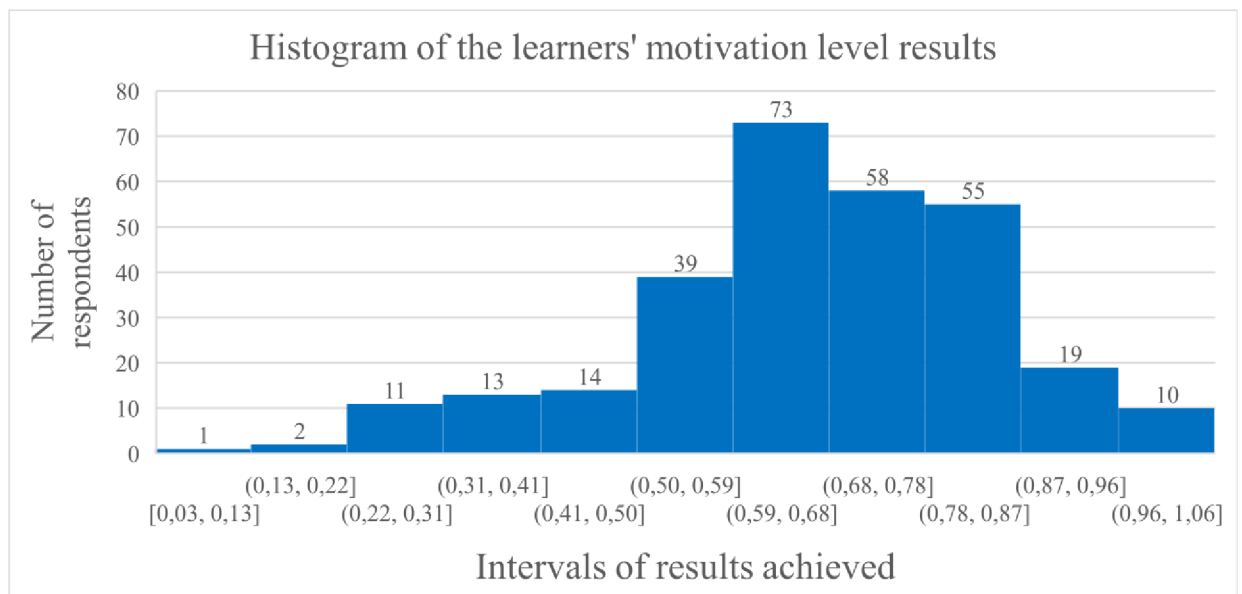

Figure 4 Histogram of the learners' motivation level results

[4] The procedure was adopted from Veronika Chvalová's diploma project *Waldorfská škola a motivace ve vyučování*. For the purposes of this thesis it was subsequently modified.

Figure 4 shows the number of values recorded at each interval. The majority of respondents achieved a motivation level of 59 to 68 %.

Table 29 demonstrates the average results of the motivation levels of the schools surveyed, as well as the average motivation of all students surveyed.

School	Average motivation in per cent
Drahotuše Primary School	63.17 %
Integra Primary School	69.53 %
Potštát Primary School	65.48 %
Ptení Primary School	66.67 %
Šafaříkova Primary School	71.70 %
In total on average	**66.95 %**

Table 29 Average motivation per school

The data show that the most motivated pupils are those of Šafaříkova Primary School in Valašské Meziříčí with a value of 71.7 %. Pupils at the primary school in Ptení came second with 66.67 %. Contrarily, pupils of Drahotuše Primary School proved to be the least motivated with a value of 63.17 %. It should be noted, however, that the schools involved in the research had different numbers of respondents (see table 2), the results may therefore be influenced by this fact. Nevertheless, on the basis of the research data, it can be concluded that students' motivation to learn English is above average. The average motivation of all students involved in the research is 66.95 %.

It was also researched whether the level of motivation varies depending on the year being studied. The results are presented in Table 30.

Grade	Average motivation in per cent	Number of respondents
6	67 %	61
7	70 %	72
8	68 %	70
9	64 %	92
In total on average	**67 %**	**295**

Table 30 Level of motivation by individual grades

The data in Table 30 show that the most motivated students are the seventh graders (with an average score of 70 %) and the eighth graders (with an average score of 68 %). The results also show that the least motivated students are the ninth graders (with an average score of 64 %). This means that a decline in motivation was proved although it cannot be claimed certainly that the level of motivation declines in direct proportion to age, given the average score of the sixth graders of 67 %, the second lowest in the table. However, even here it is important to note the unequal number of respondents from different year groups. Respondents from the sixth grades were, as shown in Table 30, the fewest in the survey, which may have influenced the final result.

Another research objective was to determine whether motivation to learn differs between boys and girls. The results are presented in Table 31.

Gender	Average motivation level in per cent	Number of respondents
Female	67.99 %	146
Male	65.93 %	149
In total on average	66.95%	295

Table 31 Level of motivation by gender

As can be seen in Table 31, the results revealed that girls are slightly more motivated to learn than boys. However, the difference between their motivation levels is low at only 2.06 %.

8.2.3 Family Background with regard to Support for English Language Learning

The second area of the research interest was the learners' family background and its possible relation to motivation for language learning. Respondents were first asked about their parents' highest level of education (see chapter 8.1.2). This was with the aim of finding a link between parents' level of education and their children's motivation to learn. For this purpose, the following procedure was applied: firstly, the average value of motivation of all learners within a certain level of education of each parent separately was

calculated. The data were then entered into tables 32 and 33. For the clarity, the different combinations of mother's and father's education are not considered at this point. The values shown in Tables 32, 33 are the researched data for each parent separately.

Mother's highest level of education	Level of pupils' motivation in per cent	Number of respondents
primary school	69 %	5
secondary vocational school	63 %	45
secondary school	69 %	81
higher professional school	63 %	19
university studies	70 %	58
I do not know	66 %	87
In total on average	**67 %**	**295**

Table 32 Motivation and mother's education

Father's highest level of education	Level of pupils' motivation in per cent	Number of respondents
primary school	71 %	8
secondary vocational school	63 %	74
secondary school	68 %	74
higher professional school	75 %	8
university studies	72 %	36
I do not know	66 %	95
In total on average	**67 %**	**295**

Table 33 Motivation and father's education

It can be seen in both tables that the values measured are similar and range from 63 % to 70 % for mother's education; and from 63 % to 75 % for father's education. Nevertheless, it is also important to mention that these results are not 100 % accurate considering the fact that a large number of respondents do not know the highest educational attainment of their parent or both parents. Even so, the findings suggest that the level of motivation is not strongly related to the level of parental education. The following part of the analysis is used to prove this assumption.

For this purpose, the level of parents' education was scored as follows, in the next phase:

primary school – 1 point

secondary vocational school – 2 points

secondary schools – 3 points

higher professional school – 4 points

university studies – 5 points

Parents whose education level was unknown were excluded from the analysed sample. If the education level of at least one parent was known, the mean value of education in the family was calculated. The value of the education coefficient ranges from one to five, which helps to determine the overall level of education in the family. The values of the survey are presented below in Table 34.

Education coefficient	Average level of motivation
1	69 %
1.5	67 %
2	64 %
2.5	67 %
3	66 %
3.5	65 %
4	73 %
4.5	71 %
5	70 %
In total	**68 %**

Table 34 Average value of motivation by parental education

The average value of the education coefficient in families is 3.22. Motivation of students with less educated parents in the interval 1-3 points of the education coefficient is 67 %. Motivation of pupils with more educated parents in the interval 3.5-5 points is 70 %.

The statistical dependence of family educational attainment on pupils' motivation was then measured using correlation analysis in a purged sample of 218 pupils with at least one parent's education data. **The resulting correlation coefficient of 0.13 proves a low to medium statistical dependence.**

Another research problem in this section was to determine whether students feel to be supported to learn English at home and what conditions they have to learn. The aim was to determine whether these conditions reflected on pupils' motivation to learn. Questionnaire items 13–17 were intended to provide answers to these questions. These questions were designed with the assumption that a pupil who is encouraged to learn feels supported himself/herself, hears at home that English is important and is praised or rewarded for good performance in English class. Regarding the conditions for learning, it was hypothesised that a pupil who has suitable conditions for learning at home does not prefer other places to learn and considers his home a quiet place.

With these assumptions the items were scored as follows:

Questions 13,14 = 0 to 3 points (with 3 very often; 0 never)

Question 15 = 0 to 2 points (with 2 at least sometimes; 0 never)

Question 16 = 0 to 2 point (with 2 at home; 1 elsewhere [5]; 0 nowhere)

Question 17 = 0 to 2 points (with 2 yes; 0 no)

Thus, each respondent could score a maximum of 12 points. The calculated values for all respondents were then converted into percentages and compared with the values of students' motivation to learn English. The results are presented in Table 35.

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[5] However, since a preferred learning place does not necessarily mean that the individual does not have suitable conditions for learning at home, the option of another place was scored with one point because even if they do not learn at home, they are at least learn somewhere else and therefore actively engaged in English, which should be considered in the context of their motivation.

School	Average motivation in per cent	Average family background values in per cent	Number of respondents
Drahotuše Primary School	63 %	73 %	83
Integra Primary School	70 %	76 %	50
Potštát Primary School	65 %	68 %	31
Ptení Primary School	67 %	71 %	78
Šafaříkova Primary School	72 %	76 %	53
In total on average	**67 %**	**73 %**	**295**

Table 35 Motivation and family background

As shown in Table 35, the calculated average family background values range from 68 to 76 % and do not differ much from the calculated mean motivation to learn English values. The average family background values are slightly higher than the motivation values for all schools, in the schools with the highest values of pupils' motivation (Integra Primary School and Šafaříkova Primary School), the family background also reported the highest values. It can therefore be concluded that there is a possible correlation between the family background and motivation to learn.

This was verified by correlation analysis, which showed a low to moderate dependence between the variables, given that the resulting correlation coefficient is 0.22.

8.2.4 Students' Motives for Learning English

The last part of the questionnaire aimed to determine what are the strongest and what are the weakest motives of students to learn English and whether the strength of these motives is affected by increasing age, i.e. whether there is a difference in the strength of motives between the sixth and ninth graders, between whom the age difference is the greatest.

In order to measure the strengths of the motives, the responses were scored, with:

strongly agree: 5 points

agree: 4 points

neither agree nor disagree: 3 points

disagree: 2 points

strongly disagree: 1 point

Subsequently, the average value of each motive strength was calculated. The calculations produced the following results (see Figure 5): The strongest motive for learning English among the respondents with a score of 3.79 is the feeling of satisfaction after successful performance – positive performance motivation. The second strongest motivation with a score of 3.74 is the vision of future occupation – perspective orientation. The third strongest motive is moral motivation – the sense of obligation with a score of 3.56. On the contrary, the weakest motive with a score of 2.18 is the need for a positive relationship with the teacher.
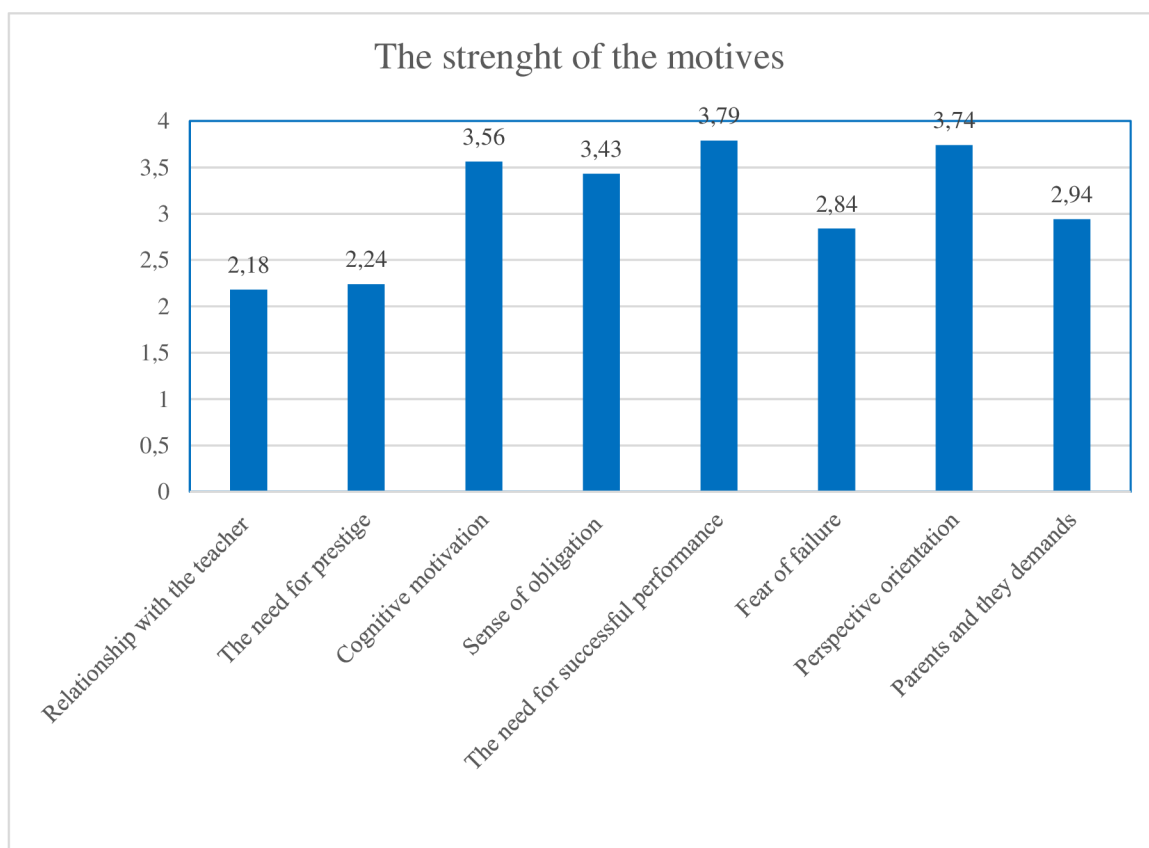

Figure 5 Strength of the motives

It can therefore be concluded that the above results are positive, as they show that learners are largely learning for their own sake (either to feel good about what they have learned well or to get a good job in the future). Thus, it can be inferred that their motivation to learn English is largely intrinsic, as also evidenced by the fact that extrinsic motivational factors: a good relationship with the teacher as well as the need to excel over their classmates resulted last in terms of strength. It is evident that learners realise the importance of a foreign language and are delighted when they make progress in it.

The answer to the question of whether the strength of motives is affected by age is provided by Table 36. The results it presents were obtained by augmenting the values from Figure 5 using the contingency table tool in MS Excel with sub-values for years six to nine.

Year	Parents	Future perspective	Fear of failure	Need for successful performance	Cognitive motivation	Need for prestige	Moral motivation	Relationship with the teacher
6	3,56	4,03	3,18	4,07	3,62	2,13	3,75	2,56
7	3,10	3,97	2,89	4,00	3,67	2,08	3,60	2,24
8	2,50	3,43	2,74	3,71	3,49	2,30	3,29	2,21
9	2,74	3,61	2,65	3,51	3,48	2,40	3,18	1,88
In total on average	2,94	3,74	2,84	3,79	3,56	2,24	3,43	2,19

Table 36 Strength of the motives in individual grades

As illustrated in Table 36, for all motives, except for the "need for prestige", there is a clear decrease in values between Year six and nine. In contrast, for "need for prestige" there is an increase in the values, which may be explained, for example, by the increased

competitiveness resulting from the current secondary school entrance procedures among young people. Generally, however, it can be concluded that the strength of the individual motives changes with age. Nevertheless, the strongest motive in both Year six and nine is a future profession, albeit with different values. In years seven and eight, the strongest motive for learning a language is the need for successful performance.

The weakest motive in year six and year seven is the need for prestige, and in year eight and year nine it is a good relationship with the teacher. A potential explanation for this phenomenon may lie in developmental psychology, whereby for pupils in the intensifying pubertal phase, a good relationship with any authority figure is significantly disregarded.

9 Discussion

The aim of this chapter is to answer the research questions stated at the beginning of the practical part. The conclusions are compared with other existing research.

1) To what extent are lower secondary school students motivated to learn English?

The overall average motivation of the 295 respondents **is 67 %. Thus, it can be concluded that students' motivation to learn English is rather high if it is assumed that 0 % = maximally unmotivated, 100 % maximally motivated**.

The survey of pupils' motivation to learn in the Czech environment has previously received considerable attention by Hrabal and Pavelková. Between 2005 and 2007, they conducted research on a sample of 3108 pupils at 25 primary schools. The overall score of motivation for English language corresponded to a value of 2.2 to 2.3 (with one being the most motivated and five the least motivated). Converted into percentages, the values are between 70.5 and 72 %. By comparing these results with the results of the research done as part of this thesis, the conclusion could be drawn that pupils were more motivated to learn English in the past than today. It is worth adding, however, that there is a considerable difference in the number of respondents in the individual studies which may have an effect on the final values.

2) How is motivation to learn affected by age?

The research has shown that the **ninth graders are the least motivated to learn English of all grades researched.** The highest values were achieved by the seventh graders (70 %), followed by the eighth graders (68 %), then the sixth graders (67 %). The ninth graders scored 64 %. **In other words, these results prove that from year seven onwards, there is a gradual decreasing trend in motivation to learn**. In terms of the results for the sixth graders, these may be influenced by the smaller number of respondents compared to the number of the seventh and eighth graders. However, even so, the research confirmed a downward trend in motivation. An explanation for this tendency could be found in developmental psychology, when the progressing puberty and the associated complex transformation of the pupil's personality leads to changes in the attitude to education (see chapters 2.8.2). Based on Vágnerová (2005), Tessa Woodward (in Harmer, 2015) and Ur (2012) the conclusion can be drawn that pupils with ongoing

puberty generally become more critical of what they learn, they are more willing to learn what they believe will benefit them. As new interests come to the fore, school can often be sidelined. In addition, all the changes taking place in their bodies can make learning processes more difficult, which can also discourage adolescents from doing school work.

Regarding specifically the ninth graders and their lowest motivation scores, it is likely that these results may also have been influenced by the time at which the students participated in the research (at the end of the school year – a time when they had already been admitted to secondary schools and thus no longer put as much energy into school activities and learning.)

Motivation to learn was previously investigated by Stránská and Blažková (2001). They conducted a research in selected Prague schools which showed an even stronger trend of declining motivation. This was demonstrated by the results found with average scores of 18.04 for the sixth grade pupils and 13.65 for the ninth grade pupils. It should be added that their research did not concern only English language, but learning as such.

3) How is motivation to learn affected by gender?

The mean values of motivation to learn English for males and females are 66 % (boys) and 68 % (girls). **The research therefore shows that females are more motivated, but only by two percentage points.**

Motivation by gender has also been studied by Stránská and Blažková (2001), who also proved that girls are more motivated to learn. However, the research within this thesis is closer to the conclusions of Hrabal and Pavelková (2005) who found that there is not much difference in attitudes towards English between girls and boys. They complemented their findings by noting that boys nevertheless perform slightly worse than girls in English.

That girls are generally more willing to do assigned school work and are more motivated to learn English was discussed in Section 2.8.2 where, based on the opinions of Vágnerová (2004) and Thorner (2017), it was summarised that girls naturally care more about their school performance and so work diligently and responsibly. Boys' lower motivation for English may also be affected by public perceptions of English as a subject in which girls are more likely to excel.

4) Is there a possible correlation between the family background and the level of motivation?

One of the aims of this thesis was also to determine whether a student's family background in terms of perceived parental support for studying and conditions for learning affects students' motivation to learn. To this end, the questionnaire responses of the respondents were scored and further analysed. The correlation analysis revealed **that there is a low to moderate correlation between the family background and the level of motivation to learn a language**. All measured family background scores are higher than the overall motivation level of each school. The overall average score for all participating schools is 73 %. The pupils of Šafaříkova Primary School in Valašské Meziříčí have, according to the results, the most appropriate home conditions for learning – 76 %, so does the Integra Primary School in Vsetín with the same result. These schools also achieved the highest values in pupils' level of motivation. The results for Drahotuše Primary School are the same as the overall average for all schools, primary schools in Ptení (71 %) and Potštát (68 %) were both below this overall average. The correlation between motivation and family background is also supported by the most and lowest motivated classes. The sixth grade of Šafaříkova Primary School (81%) has the highest values of the family background, while the ninth grade of Drahotuše Primary School has the lowest (66 %). It can also be inferred from the data obtained, that pupils from urban schools have a better home environment (in the term of parental support and conditions for learning).

The influence of the family background on motivation was discussed, for example, by Sandanyová (2008), who argued that a better social environment of pupils had a demonstrable effect on motivation. In families with better social conditions, education is considered more valuable than in families with more modest conditions. This paper did not investigate the economic situation of the pupils, but examined the social background in terms of supporting and encouraging children to learn a foreign language and the conditions created for this. The research results confirmed that if pupils have a supportive home background, they are also motivated to learn.

5) Is there a possible correlation between parent's education and the learner's motivation?

The research **confirmed a low to moderate correlation between parental education and children's motivation to learn** (in the sense that the more educated the parent, the more motivated the child). The research showed that children of university educated mothers are the most motivated (70 % motivation level), similarly of mothers with primary education (69 %) and secondary education ended by final exams (69 %). According to the research results, children of mothers with higher professional education are the least motivated (63 %). In terms of the highest education of fathers, children of fathers with higher professional education (75 %), university absolvents (71 %) and fathers with primary education (71 %) are the most motivated. Children of fathers with secondary education are the least motivated (63 %).

Overall, the survey found that students from more educated families are more motivated (70 %) than those from less educated families (66 %). The differences, however, are not dramatic and the results are similar to the differences in overall motivation levels between schools.

Sandanyová (2008) did not find a correlation between parents' education level and their children's motivation to learn. Similarly, Stránská and Blažková (2001). Their research showed that the most motivated are the children of vocational school absolvents (regarding fathers) and secondary educated mothers. They found the least motivation among children of university graduates.

6) What are the strongest motives for learning English among pupils?

To rate the strength of each motive, a scale of one to five was used, with one = weakest motive; five = strongest motive. The results were presented in Section 8.2.4 in Figure 5 *Strength of Motives*.

The strongest motive identified by the research is a sense of satisfaction and a vision of a future career. Thus, it is likely to mean that the pupils are aware of the importance of English language for the future, since, as also confirmed by open-ended question 30, a significant number of pupils believe that English language is essential not only for getting a good job, but also for the capability of travelling.

Conversely, the need for prestige, and the need for a good relationship with the teacher emerged as weak factors from the survey. They achieved approximately 2.2 points. The negative motivational factors: fear of failure and learning from obligation were found to be moderately strong by the questionnaire.

Veronika Chvalová (2014) conducted similar research on motivation to learn in her diploma project. The aim was to compare motives for learning English in a standard lower secondary school and a Waldorf primary school. The results Chvalová obtained at the standard school are relevant for this research; however, they partly differ from ours. According to Chvalová, the strongest motive for learning English is a sense of duty (moral motivation), which reached rather average values in our research. On the other hand, the need for a positive relationship with the teacher (positive social motivation) resulted to be the weakest motive, which is the same for both researches.

7) How does the strength of the motives change depending on the grade?

With advancing age, in the period of continuing puberty and adolescence, changes occur in all spheres of the individual's personality (see chapter 4). It can therefore be assumed that individual motives for learning will also change over time. What motivates sixth-grade pupils to learn may appear as unmotivating to the ninth graders and vice versa.

The results of the research confirmed this conclusion. As shown in Table 35 in Section 8.2.4, **there is a decreasing trend in the strength of each motive between the sixth and ninth grade**, with the exception of the need for prestige, which in contrast shows an increase in strength. It is believed that this can largely be attributed to the fact that the ninth grade students take the secondary school entrance exams and thus perceive the presence of competition more than younger students. It is a common practice that the older a child becomes, the more the need to be better than others in order to be admitted to a particular school is emphasised not only by teachers but also by parents. Thus, they may no longer see their classmates as "teammates" but as competitors.

The increasing tendency of this motive's strength can also be explained by the phenomenon of the need to build a good social status (also described in Chapter 3). By performing above his/her classmates, a student may aspire to a high social status among peers. Being respected by the peers is important for adolescents. Peers are the ones whose opinions matter, often much more than those of parents or teachers. This

assumption is clearly supported by the results of decreasing parental and teacher influence with increasing age in Table 33.

9.1 Suggestions for Further Research

It is believed that the research has produced interesting and useful results that will be beneficial in the pedagogical work of lower secondary school teachers who will want to better understand the motivation of their pupils.

Nevertheless, there are several other possibilities for extending the research, for example in the following areas:

1) The learners' home background,

2) the personality of the teacher,

3) changes in pupils' motivation during adolescence.

1) The learners' home background

As this thesis has examined the home background of the learners only in terms of support for language learning, it may be suggested that further research could focus more on the social background of the family, including the economic situation and the family situation in terms of relationships (parental divorce, shared custody, etc.) This was the original intention, however, when arranging the research with the headmasters of each school, most of them expressed that this would be too intimate information and would therefore not agree to the research, although they were assured that it would be conducted anonymously. It would therefore be preferable for any further research to be qualitative with a smaller research sample, where the researcher would obtain the consent of the parents of the participating children.

2) The personality of the teacher

It can be also suggested to examine the teacher personality in the process of motivating students to learn. Thus, research could focus on the extent to which it is within the power of teachers to motivate their students, what specific steps teachers choose to motivate their students, and whether these steps are effective or ineffective.

3) Changes in pupils' motivation during adolescence

Finally, it is proposed to examine the development of students' motives for learning during adolescence. For example, a comparison of the development of the strength of motives in the first and final year of secondary school could yield interesting results.

Conclusion

The main aim of this thesis was to find out whether lower secondary school students are motivated to learn English language. This topic arose from the personal interest of the author who, as a novice teacher, perceived a rather negative attitude of her pupils towards the subject of English language.

For the purpose of the research, a questionnaire survey was conducted in which, in addition to the author's home school in Drahotuše, four other schools from the districts of Vsetín, Přerov and Prostějov participated. The research showed that the pupils' motivation is rather high, as the average motivation level score is 67 % (assuming 0 % = maximally unmotivated; 100 % = maximally motivated). Compared to the other participating schools, Drahotuše Primary School resulted with the lowest score of 63 %, However, the differences between the overall scores of individual schools were not large. The difference between the highest and lowest scores is 9 %. Furthermore, the research revealed that stronger motivation was measured in urban schools: Šafaříkova Primary School (72 %) and Integra Primary School (70 %). This might be explained by the better material equipment of urban schools and the overall higher standard of education that urban schools maintain with regard to competition between schools for pupils. As far as Integra Primary School is concerned, the high level of individualization, which as a private school it places emphasis on, probably may also play a key role.

It was also investigated whether and how motivation to learn English is affected by gender and age. In terms of gender, it was found that the motivation of boys and girls differed only slightly, by only 2 % (with 68 % measured for girls and 66 % for boys). However, the slightly higher values for girls can be seen as a confirmation of the validity of the views of some authors described in the theoretical part that girls have a more responsible approach to school work, from which it could be inferred that their motivation will also be higher. Boys' motivation may then be further compromised by the fact that English tends to be perceived as a subject in which girls are better.

The age of the learners and its possible influence on the level of motivation to learn the language was also an object of research interest. The research found that from the seventh grade onwards, motivation to learn gradually decreases. The outliers from this gradually decreasing trend were the sixth grades whose motivation level is the third lowest. However, this result may be influenced by the lower number of respondents compared to the number of respondents representing the other grades.

It is likely that the reasons for the downward trend lie in developmental psychology. As puberty progresses, the pupil's personality changes, which is often inevitably associated with a change in attitude towards school work. The lowest motivation values for pupils in year nine may have been further influenced by the fact that the questionnaire was completed at a time when the students had already been admitted to secondary school, hence, with the vision of holidays, their motivation to learn may naturally have declined.

Another sub-objective was to find out whether students' motivation to learn English is affected by their family background. It should be reiterated again that the home background was not investigated in detail, as the nature and sensitivity of the topic would have influenced the willingness of the school leaders to allow the research. The home background was therefore examined from two perspectives. Whether the highest level of parental education, and perceived parental support for language learning, has a possible influence on motivation to learn.

The research confirmed a low to medium correlation between parents' highest level of education and their child's motivation to learn a language. A low to medium correlation was also found between home background in terms of support and suitable conditions for learning and motivation. The research showed that if students have suitable conditions for learning and feel supported at home, their motivation to learn is higher.

The last part of the research focused on learners' motives for language learning. The research found that the strongest motives were those representing intrinsic motivation. The strongest motive is the need for successful performance, followed by the vision of one's own future and cognitive needs. In contrast, external factors such as the relationship with the teacher or the wishes of parents were identified as weaker motives. An interesting finding is that the strength of all motives decreases with age, which nevertheless reconfirms the general downward trend in motivation with age. The only motive whose strength increases with age is the desire for prestige, which is strongest in year nine. A possible explanation is that pupils at this age are already aware of the competition in their classmates, which is often reminded by adults in the context of the secondary school admissions process.

All in all, the distribution of the strength of individual motives can be considered to be positive, since it has been proven that pupils are highly aware that they are learning for themselves, for their interests and future.

To conclude, it is believed that the conclusions of the research will be useful not only in the author's further pedagogical work. The fact that students are motivated to

learn English to a high degree may be beneficial for all teachers who, due to various circumstances, may over time begin to miss the meaning of their work and easily fall into a vicious circle of frustration. The finding that pupils are motivated to learn can help these teachers to rediscover the reason for which they started that work. Furthermore, recognising that pupils' motivation is affected by a variety of factors can help teachers to refocus their attention on those they can influence. It is then left to them to do their best in actualizing these factors to help pupils become confident and active users of the English language.

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PICTURES

Figure 1: Motivational Cycle available from: CICCARELLI K. Saundra, WHITE J. Noland. *Psychology*. 3rd ed. Boston: Pearson, 2012. ISBN: 9780205832576.

Figure 2: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs available from: https://www.thoughtco.com/maslows-hierarchy-of-needs-4582571

Figure 3: The Interpretation of correlation value by de Vaus (2002) available from: LUŠŇÁKOVÁ, Zuzana, et al. Growing role of CSR activities in the area of human resources management and its evaluation using quantitative methods. *Mathematics in Education, Research and Applications*. 2019, (1), 16-29. ISSN 2453-6881. https://doi.org/10.15414/meraa.2019.05.01.16-29

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

e. g. – for example

i. e. – that is

L2 – Foreign Language

SLD – Specific Learning Disabilities

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Questionnaire for learners – original and translated version

Milí žáci, chtěla bych vás poprosit o vyplnění dotazníku, který zjišťuje, jaký máte vztah k angličtině, co vás na ní (ne)baví a co vás vede k tomu se do angličtiny učit či v ní nebo do ní "něco dělat". Výsledky průzkumu využiji ve své závěrečné práci na vysoké škole. Dotazník je ANONYMNÍ, nikde tedy nebudete uvádět své jméno.

Mockrát děkuji za vaši ochotu a spolupráci.
Eva Skotnicová, studentka Pedagogické fakulty Univerzity Palackého v Olomouci.

1. **Předmět anglický jazyk mě:**

   a) velice zajímá
   b) zajímá
   c) někdy zajímá, někdy nezajímá
   d) spíše nezajímá, než zajímá
   e) nezajímá

2. **Angličtina je pro mě:**

   a) velmi snadná
   b) spíše snadná
   c) středně snadná
   d) spíše obtížná
   e) velmi obtížná

3. **Angličtina je pro moji budoucnost:**

   a) velmi důležitá
   b) důležitá
   c) středně důležitá
   d) spíše důležitá
   e) nedůležitá

4. **Přípravě na angličtinu se denně průměrně věnuji:**

   a) méně než půl hodiny
   b) do jedné hodiny
   c) jednu až dvě hodiny
   d) dvě až tři hodiny
   e) tři i více hodin

5. Na angličtinu se doma připravuji:

a) sám
b) občas mi někdo pomáhá
c) velmi často mi někdo pomáhá
d) vždy mi musí někdo pomoct

6. Probíranému učivu v angličtině:

a) vždy rozumím
b) většinou rozumím
c) někdy rozumím, někdy nerozumím
d) nerozumím

7. Při hodinách angličtiny je mi:

a) vždy příjemně
b) většinou příjemně
c) někdy příjemně, někdy nepříjemně
d) spíše nepříjemně
e) vždy nepříjemně

8. Na hodiny angličtiny se:

a) vždy těším
b) většinou těším
c) někdy těším, někdy netěším
d) spíše netěším
e) nikdy netěším

9. A to z toho důvodu, že

....

10. Angličtina je pro mě:

a) velmi významná
b) významná
c) zčásti významná
d) málo významná
e) nevýznamná

11.,12. Nejvyšší dosažené vzdělání mých rodičů je:

Maminka	Tatínek
a) základní	a) základní
b) středoškolské	b) středoškolské
c) středoškolské s maturitou	c) středoškolské s maturitou
d) vyšší odborné	d) vyšší odborné
e) vysokoškolské	e) vysokoškolské
f) nevím	e) nevím

13. Že je důležité učit se anglicky, slýchám doma:
a) velmi často
b) často
c) spíše neslýchám, než slýchám
d) nikdy neslýchám

14. Rodiče mě ve studiu angličtiny podporují:
a) velmi
b) spíše podporují
c) spíše nepodporují
d) nepodporují

15. Když dostanu v angličtině dobrou známku, rodiče mě pochválí (odmění):
a) vždy
b) často
c) někdy
d) málokdy
e) nikdy

16. Kde se nejraději učíš?
a) doma
b) u kamaráda
c) jinde ....

17. Máš na učení doma klid?
a) ano
b) někdy ano, někdy ne
c) ne

18. Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE CHCI, ABY MĚ UČITEL(KA) MĚL(A) RÁD(A). Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
a) platí
b) spíše platí
c) někdy platí
d) spíše neplatí
e) neplatí

19. Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE CHCI BÝT LEPŠÍ NEŽ OSTATNÍ. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
a) platí
b) spíše platí
c) někdy platí
d) spíše neplatí
e) neplatí

20. Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE TO, CO SE MÁM UČIT, MĚ ZAJÍMÁ. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:

a) platí
b) spíše platí
c) někdy platí
d) spíše neplatí
e) neplatí

21. Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE VÍM, ŽE UČENÍ JE MÁ POVINNOST. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
a) platí
b) spíše platí
c) někdy platí
d) spíše neplatí
e) neplatí

22. Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE MÁM DOBRÝ POCIT, KDYŽ SE NĚCO DOBŘE NAUČÍM. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
a) platí
b) spíše platí
c) někdy platí
d) spíše neplatí
e) neplatí

23. Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE SE BOJÍM, ŽE NEBUDU NIC UMĚT. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
a) platí
b) spíše platí
c) někdy platí
d) spíše neplatí
e) neplatí

24. Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE CHCI MÍT POZDĚJI DOBROU PRÁCI. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
a) platí
b) spíše platí
c) někdy platí
d) spíše neplatí
e) neplatí

25. Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE MOJI RODIČE CHTĚJÍ, ABYCH BYL V ANGLIČTINĚ DOBRÝ. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
a) platí
b) spíše platí
c) někdy platí
d) spíše neplatí
e) neplatí

26. Uveď další důvody, kvůli kterým se do angličtiny učíš, kvůli kterým na hodinách angličtiny pracuješ:

....

....

Jsem: **dívka**   **chlapec**   (zakroužkuj správnou možnost)

Navštěvuji: .... ročník

na škole.. (uveď jméno školy).

ENGLISH VERSION

Dear learners, I would like to ask you to fill in a questionnaire that explores how you feel about the English language, what you (dis)enjoy about it and what makes you want to learn it and work during English lessons. I will use the results of the survey in my university's final project.
The questionnaire is ANONYMOUS, so you will not give your name anywhere.
Thank you very much for your willingness and cooperation.

Eva Skotnicová, student of the Faculty of Education, Palacký University in Olomouc.

1. In the subject of English language I am:

    a) very interested
    b) interested
    c) sometimes interested, sometimes uninterested
    d) more uninterested than interested
    e) uninterested

2. English is for me:

    a) very easy
    b) rather easy
    c) medium easy
    d) rather difficult
    e) very difficult

3. English is for my future:

    a) very important
    b) important
    c) medium important
    d) rather unimportant
    e) unimportant

4. The average time I spend a day preparing for English is:

    a) less than half an hour
    b) no more than one hour
    c) one to two hours
    d) two to three hours
    e) three or more hours

5. I prepare for English at home:

a) by myself
b) someone sometimes helps me
c) someone helps me very often
d) I always need someone to help me

6. To what is being taught in English classes I:

a) always understand
b) mostly understand
c) sometimes understand, sometimes do not
d) do not understand

7. In English classes I feel:

a) always comfortable
b) mostly comfortable
c) sometimes comfortable, sometimes uncomfortable
d) mostly uncomfortable
e) always uncomfortable

8. To English classes I look forward:

a) always
b) usually
c) sometimes
d) not very often
e) never

9. That is so for the following reasons:

....

10. English is to me:

a) very significant
b) significant
c) partly significant
d) not very significant
e) insignificant

11.,12. My parents' highest level of education is:

Mother	Father
a) ended primary school	a) ended primary school
b) ended secondary vocational school	b) ended secondary vocational school
c) ended secondary school	c) ended secondary school
d) ended higher professional school	d) ended higher professional school
e) ended university studies	e) ended university studies
f) I do not know	f) I do not know

13. That English language is important to learn I hear at home:

a) very often
b) often
c) not very often
d) never

14. In my English studies my parents support me:

a) very much
b) they are rather supportive
c) they are rather unsupportive
d) never

15. For a good grade in English my parents reward (praise) me:

a) always
b) often
c) sometimes
d) rarely
e) never

16. The best place to learn is:

a) home
b) at my friend's
c) elsewhere …………………………………

17. Is your home a quiet place to learn?

a) yes
b) sometimes
c) no

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18. I learn English because I WANT MY TEACHERS TO LIKE ME. With this statement I:

        a) strongly agree

        b) agree

        c) neither agree nor disagree

        d) disagree

        e) strongly disagree

19. I learn English because I WANT BE BETTER THAN MY CLASSMATES. With this statement I:

        a) strongly agree

        b) agree

        c) neither agree nor disagree

        d) disagree

        e) strongly disagree

20. I learn English because WHAT I LEARN INTERESTS ME. With this statement I:

        a) strongly agree

        b) agree

        c) neither agree nor disagree

        d) disagree

        e) strongly disagree

21. I learn English because I KNOW I HAVE TO. With this statement I:

        a) strongly agree

        b) agree

        c) neither agree nor disagree

        d) disagree

        e) strongly disagree

22. I learn English because I FEEL GOOD WHEN I LEARN SOMETHING WELL. With this statement I:

        a) strongly agree

        b) agree

        c) neither agree nor disagree

        d) disagree

        e) strongly disagree

23. I learn English because I AM AFRAID I WILL NOT LEARN ANYTHING. With this statement I:

     a) strongly agree
     b) agree
     c) neither agree nor disagree
     d) disagree
     e) strongly disagree

24. I learn English because I WANT TO HAVE A GOOD JOB. With this statement I:

     a) strongly agree
     b) agree
     c) neither agree nor disagree
     d) disagree
     e) strongly disagree

25. I learn English because MY PARENTS WANT ME TO BE GOOD AT ENGLISH. With this statement I:

     a) strongly agree
     b) agree
     c) neither agree nor disagree
     d) disagree
     e) strongly disagree

26. Name other reasons for learning English

....

....

I am: **girl**   **boy**   (circle the right option)

The grade you are currently attending is ……………………

at school …………………………………………………….. (name of the school)

Appendix 2 Overview of figures representing data from learners' questionnaire

Předmět anglický jazyk mě:

295 odpovědí

- velice zajímá
- zajímá
- někdy zajímá, někdy nezajímá
- spíše nezajímá, než zajímá
- nezajímá

34,2%

38,3%

20%
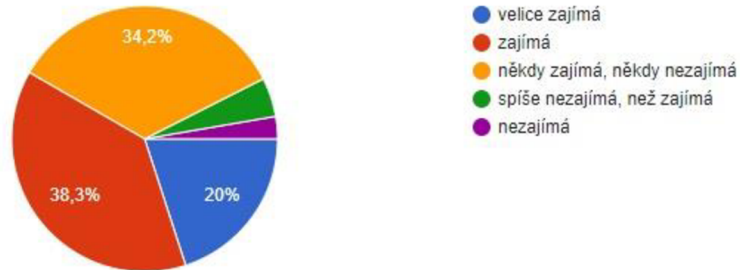
Figure 1: Interest in the subject of English language

Angličtina je pro mě:

295 odpovědí

- velmi snadná
- spíše snadná
- středně snadná
- spíše obtížná
- velmi obtížná

38,3%

17,3%

13,6%

28,1%
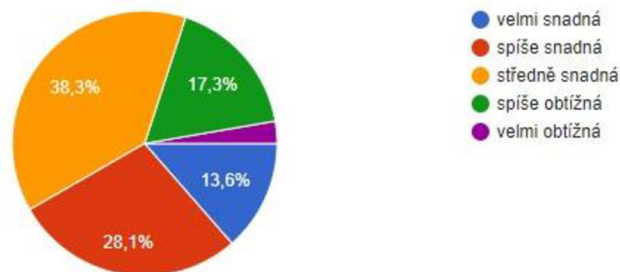
Figure 2 Difficulty of the English language

Angličtina je pro moji budoucnost:

295 odpovědí

- velmi důležitá
- důležitá
- středně důležitá
- spíše důležitá
- nedůležitá
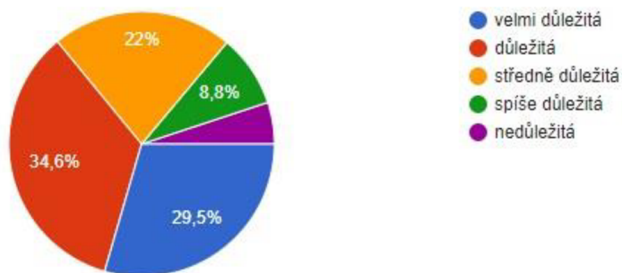
Figure 3 Importance of the English language for the future

Přípravě na angličtinu se denně průměrně věnuji:

295 odpovědí

- méně než půl hodiny
- do jedné hodiny
- jednu až dvě hodiny
- dvě až tři hodiny
- tři i více hodin

Figure 4 Average time of home preparation

Na angličtinu se doma učím (připravuji):

295 odpovědí

- sám
- občas mi někdo pomáhá
- velmi často mi někdo pomáhá
- vždy mi musí někdo pomoct
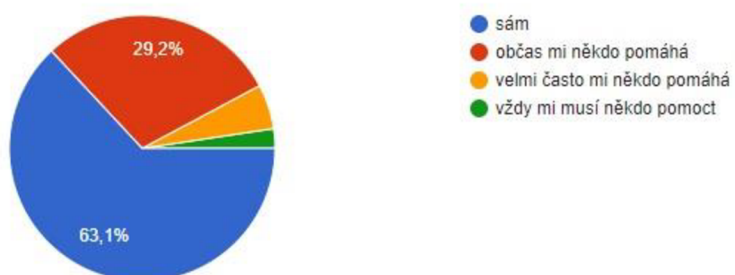
Figure 5 Help with home preparation

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Probiranému učivu v angličtině:

295 odpovědí

- ● vždy rozumím
- ● většinou rozumím
- ● někdy rozumím, někdy nerozumím
- ● nerozumím
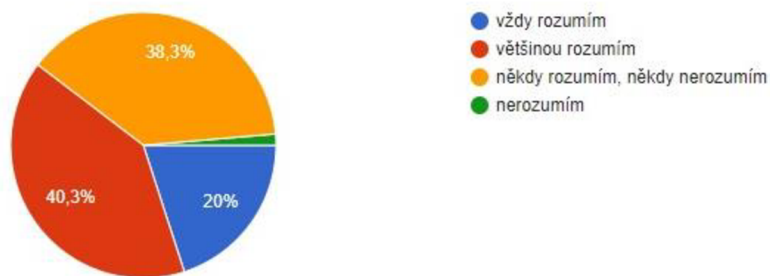
Figure 6 Understanding of what is being taught in English classes

Na hodinách angličtiny se cítím:

295 odpovědí

- ● vždy příjemně
- ● většinou příjemně
- ● někdy příjemně, někdy nepříjemně
- ● spíše nepříjemně
- ● vždy nepříjemně
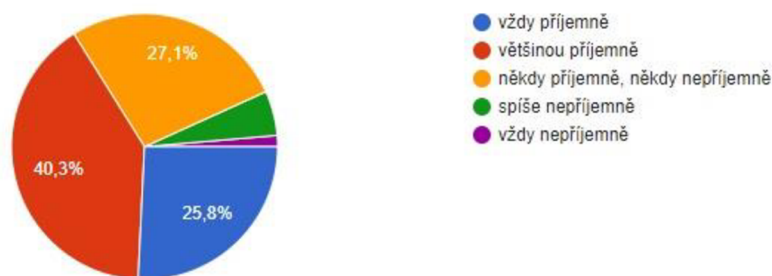
Figure 7 Learners feelings in English language

Na hodiny angličtiny se:

295 odpovědí

- ● vždy těším
- ● většinou těším
- ● někdy těším, někdy netěším
- ● spíše netěším
- ● nikdy netěším
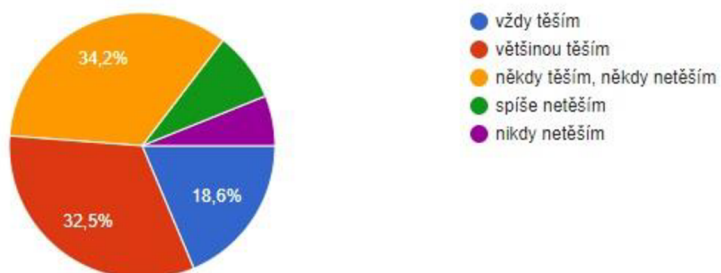
Figure 8 Looking forward to English classes

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Angličtina je pro mě:

295 odpovědí

- velice významná
- významná
- zčásti významná
- málo významná
- nevýznamná
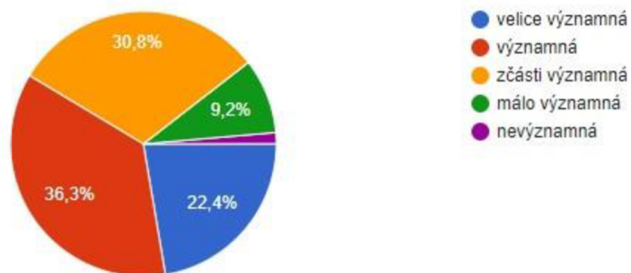
Figure 9 The significance of the English language to learners

Nejvyšší vzdělání mé maminky je:

295 odpovědí

- základní
- středoškolské
- středoškolské s maturitou
- vyšší odborné
- vysokoškolské
- nevím
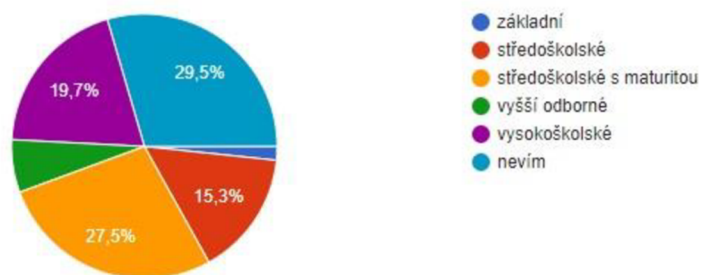
Figure 10 Mothers' education

Nejvyšší vzdělání mého tatínka je:

295 odpovědí

- základní
- středoškolské
- středoškolské s maturitou
- vyšší odborné
- vysokoškolské
- nevím
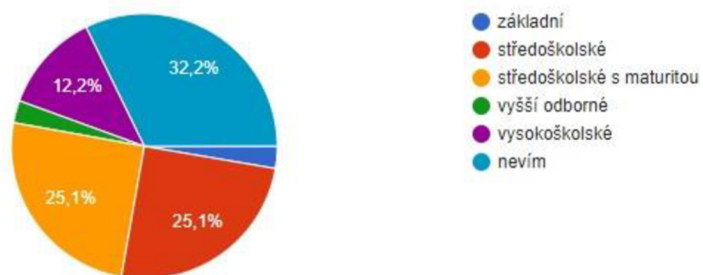
Figure 11 Fathers´ education

Že je důležité učit se anglicky slýchám doma:

295 odpovědí
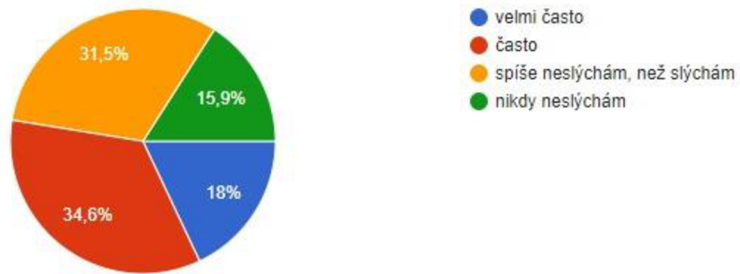
Figure 12 Importance of English from the parents' perspective

Rodiče mě ve studiu angličtiny podporují

295 odpovědí

Figure 13 Parental support for learning English.

Když dostanu v angličtině dobrou známku, rodiče mě pochválí (odmění):

295 odpovědí
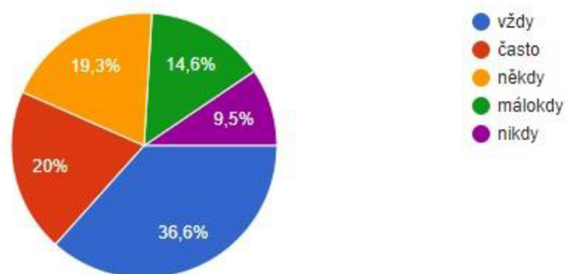
Figure 14 Parental rewards for success in English

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Kde se nejraději učíš?

295 odpovědí

- doma
- u kamaráda
- ve škole
- venku
- nikde
- Ve škole
- škola
- u babičky

△ 1/6 ▼
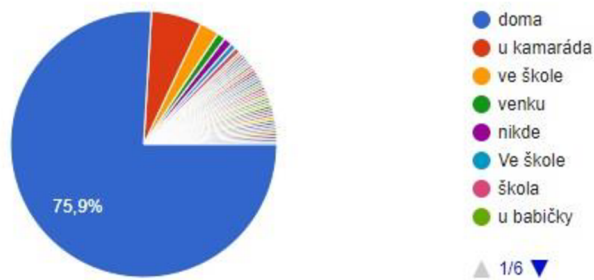
Figure 15 Favourite place to study

Máš na učení doma klid?

295 odpovědí

- ano
- někdy ano, někdy ne
- ne
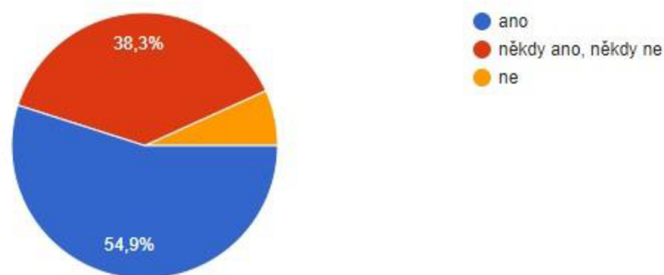
Figure 16 Home as a quiet place to learn from the learners' perspective

Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE CHCI, ABY MĚ UČITEL(KA) MĚL(A) RÁD(A). Toto tvrzení v mém případě:

295 odpovědí

- platí
- spíše platí
- někdy platí
- spíše neplatí
- neplatí
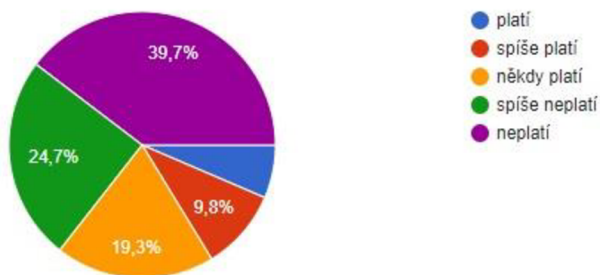
Figure 17 Need for positive relationship with the teacher

118

Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE CHCI BÝT LEPŠÍ NEŽ OSTATNÍ. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
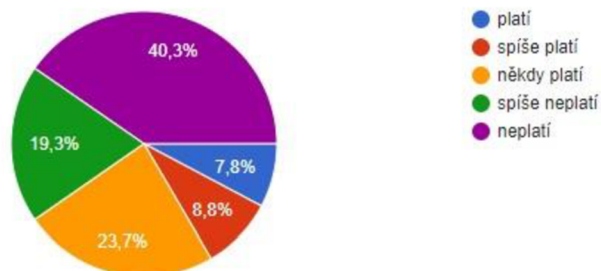
295 odpovědí

Figure 18 Desire to excel over the classmates

Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE TO, CO SE MÁM UČIT, MĚ ZAJÍMÁ. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
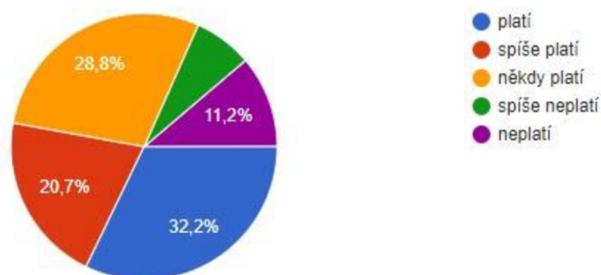
295 odpovědí

Figure 19 Cognitive motivation

Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE VÍM, ŽE UČENÍ JE MÁ POVINNOST. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
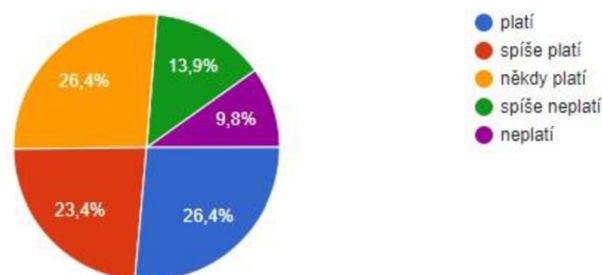
295 odpovědí

Figure 20 Sense of obligation

119

Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE MÁM DOBRÝ POCIT, KDYŽ SE NĚCO DOBŘE NAUČÍM. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
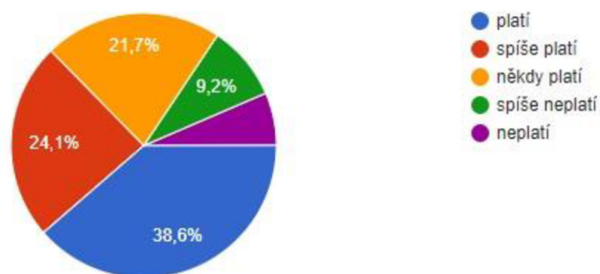
295 odpovědí

Figure 21 Need for successful performance

Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE SE BOJÍM, ŽE NEBUDU NIC UMĚT. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
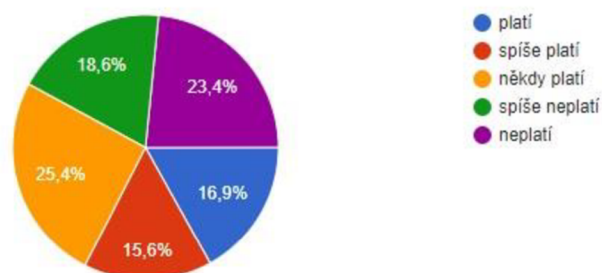
295 odpovědí

Figure 22 Fear of failure

Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ní), je to proto, ŽE CHCI MÍT POZDĚJI DOBROU PRÁCI. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
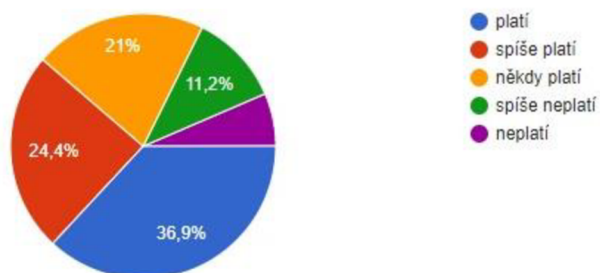
295 odpovědí

Figure 23 Future occupation: perspective orientation

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Když (už) v angličtině pracuji (učím se do ni), je to proto, ŽE MOJI RODIČE CHTĚJÍ, ABYCH BYL V ANGLIČTINĚ DOBRÝ. Toto tvrzení v mém případě:
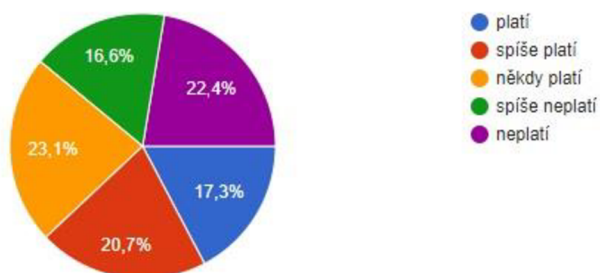
295 odpovědí

Figure 24 Parents and their desire for good school performance
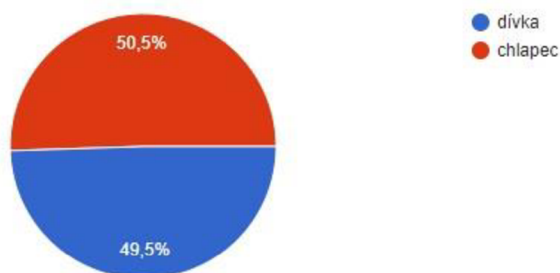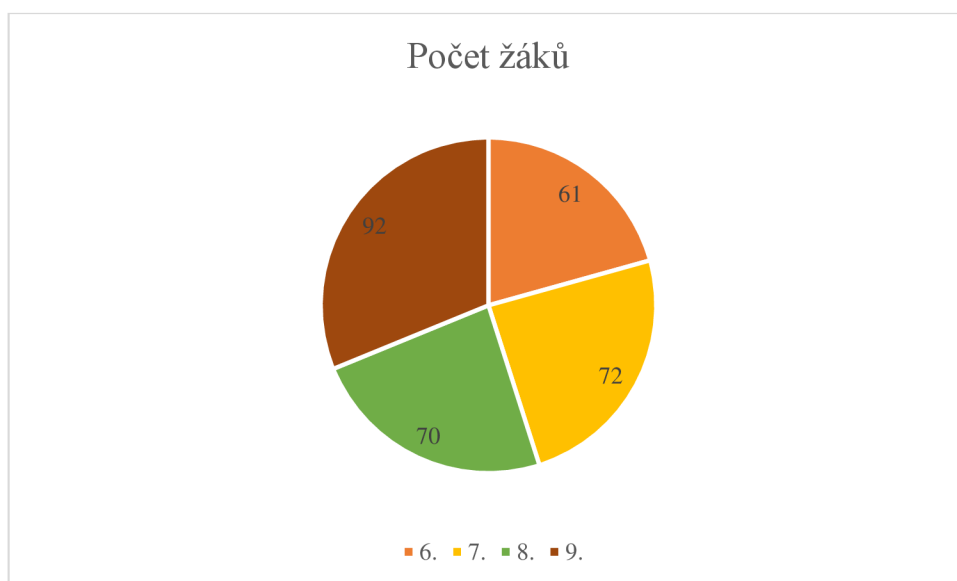
Jsem:

295 odpovědí

Figure 25 Sex of respondents

Figure 26 Number of respondents

ANNOTATION

Jméno a příjmení:	Eva Skotnicová
Katedra nebo ústav:	Ústav cizích jazyků
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Jana Černá
Rok obhajoby:	2022

Název práce:	Motivace žáků druhého stupně základní školy k učení se anglickému jazyku
Název práce v angličtině:	Motivation of Lower Secondary School Pupils to Learn the English Language
Anotace práce:	Diplomová práce pojednává o motivaci žáků druhého stupně základní školy k učení se anglickému jazyku. V teoretické části jsou prezentována základní teoretická východiska, pozornost je zaměřena na pojmy motivace, motivační chování, potřeby, pohnutky, faktory ovlivňující žákovskou motivaci, a osobnost žáka druhého stupně základní školy. Praktická část předkládá výsledky dotazníkového šetření realizovaného na pěti základních školách v okrese Vsetín, Hranice a Prostějov za účelem zjištění stavu žákovské motivace k anglickému jazyku.
Klíčová slova:	motivace, anglický jazyk, vliv rodičů, vliv domácího prostředí, vliv učitele, pohnutky, korelační analýza
Anotace v angličtině:	The thesis deals with the motivation of lower secondary school students to learn English. In the theoretical part, the basic theoretical background is presented, attention is focused on the concepts of motivation, motivational behaviour, needs, motives, factors affecting pupils' motivation and the personality of the lower secondary school learners. The practical part provides the results of a questionnaire survey conducted in five primary schools in the districts of Vsetín, Hranice and Prostějov with the purpose of determining the current state of pupils' motivation towards the English language.

Klíčová slova v angličtině:	motivation, English language, influence of parents, home background, influence of the teacher, motives, correlation analysis
Přílohy vázané v práci:	Příloha 1: Dotazník pro žáky v češtině a angličtině Příloha 2: Přehled grafů na základě dat z dotazníků pro žáky
Rozsah práce:	123
Jazyk práce:	angličtina