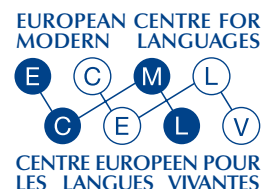


EN

Motivation and language teacher education: a call to action



Motivation and language teacher education: a call to action

Contents

Motivation and language teacher education: a call to action	2
The teaching and learning of additional languages in Europe.....	2
European policy	2
Language learning outcomes	4
The central role of motivation in the learning of additional languages.....	5
Perspectives on motivation.....	6
Teacher motivation.....	6
The relation between teacher motivation and learner motivation.....	7
Motivation and the design of teacher education programmes.....	8
Motivational challenges specific to language education.....	10
Teacher and learner motivation and plurilingual education	11
Implications of the basic tenets of	
Self-Determination Theory for (language) learning	11
A crucial difference between languages and other school subjects	12
The concept of plurilingualism	13
Implementing plurilingual education	14
Artificial intelligence and teacher motivation: challenges and affordances	19
The emerging educational role of artificial intelligence	19
Potential impact of AI on language diversity	20
Potential impact of AI on language teaching and learning	20
How might artificial intelligence impact on language teacher motivation?	21
AI in language teacher education	22
Conclusion	23
References	25
Appendix: Council of Europe resources related to	
language teacher motivation and motivation in language teaching	34
1. Motivation in relation to language teachers and language teacher education	34
i. Language teachers	34
ii. Language teacher educators	35
2. Motivational challenges posed by plurilingual and intercultural education	36
i. Language teachers	36
ii. Language teacher educators	37
3. Artificial intelligence, digitalisation and implications for motivation	38
i. Language teachers	38
ii. Language teacher educators	39



Motivation and language teacher education: a call to action

This call to action is addressed to authorities, institutions and individuals responsible for pre- and in-service language teacher education. It is a follow-up to the [motivation manifesto](#) that the European Centre for Modern Languages published on the European Day of Languages 2025 and has been prepared under the terms of the [ECML's cooperation with the European Commission](#) by the same EC-ECML expert group as the motivation manifesto.¹

The paper is divided into five sections:

- an introductory review of the situation of additional languages in European education systems;
- a brief theoretical overview of research into motivation and its relevance for language teachers and language teacher education;
- a discussion of the motivational challenges that plurilingual and intercultural education poses for teachers and learners, explored from the perspective of Self-Determination Theory;
- a summary of the challenges and affordances posed by artificial intelligence and a consideration of their implications for language teacher motivation;
- a brief conclusion.

Each section of the call to action concludes with questions that invite readers to reflect on and discuss the relevance of the issues raised to their own situation. The appendix provides details of relevant Council of Europe resources.

The teaching and learning of additional languages² in Europe

European policy

On the European Day of Languages, the Council of Europe and the European Union celebrate Europe's linguistic and cultural heritage as a cornerstone of democracy, inclusion and social cohesion. Both organisations have always been strongly committed

¹ Ada Bier (Italy), Debora Carrai (Norway), Jonas Erin (France), Ingela Finndahl (Sweden) and David Little (Ireland, coordinator).

² The term “additional language” refers to any language that is learnt in addition to the language(s) that an individual acquires in early childhood. It avoids the confusion that can easily arise when a language that is “foreign” to the majority of students is the home language of a minority.

to language learning as the means by which European citizens gain access to this rich heritage, enhance their employability as members of an international community, and come to share the unity in diversity that defines European identity.

In 1995 the EU's Council of Education Ministers resolved that everyone should be able to acquire and maintain an ability to communicate in at least two community languages in addition to their mother tongue. This policy aspiration was renewed in the [Recommendation of the Council of the European Union of 22 May 2019](#), which called on member states to

explore ways to help all young people to acquire before the end of upper secondary education and training – in addition to the language of schooling – where possible, a competence level in at least one other European language which allows them to use the language effectively for social, learning and professional purposes, and to encourage the acquisition of an additional (third) language to a level which allows them to interact with a degree of fluency.

By including the language of schooling the Recommendation acknowledged the challenge that many young people face when they are educated through a language that is not their first.

Since the 1970s the Council of Europe has promoted the learning of languages for communication and exchange. It began by developing approaches to adult language teaching that focused on learners' communicative needs (e.g. Ek J.A. (van) (1975), *The threshold level*, Council of Europe, Pergamon Press); this focus quickly spread to language teaching at school; and through the 1980s the Council coordinated an ambitious programme of international workshops for language teachers and teacher educators that sought to promote communicative language teaching. In the 1990s the Council of Europe adopted the concept of plurilingualism, defined as the individual's ability to communicate in two or more languages by drawing on an integrated competence "in which languages interrelate and interact" (Council of Europe 2001: 4). The Council of Europe's advocacy of plurilingual and intercultural education, renewed in [CM/Rec\(2022\)1](#) (Council of Europe 2022), on the importance of plurilingual and intercultural education for democratic culture, is a response to two challenges. The first is a tendency on the part of public authorities and civil society to think that proficiency in one additional language is enough provided that language is English; and the second is the populist notion that proficiency in minority or migrant languages is harmful to societal cohesion.

In a world that is increasingly interconnected yet often divided, the shared vision of the Council of Europe and the European Union loses nothing of its political, educational and

cultural urgency. Language learning and teaching are, at their core, acts of human connection. Plurilingual and intercultural competences open doors to understanding how others think, feel and relate to the world. They enable us to share lived experience and cultural and historical perspectives and to address together the major challenges of the contemporary world. Without effective language education it is difficult to foster intercultural dialogue, move beyond cultural stereotypes, and build relationships that transcend linguistic barriers.

In your context, to what extent is this European view of the importance of international communication and exchange, and thus of language learning

- shared by politicians, policy makers and civil society?
- reflected in school curricula?

Language learning outcomes

The goals of the language education policies of the Council of Europe and the European Union can be met only if language teaching reliably results in the development of communicative proficiency; only thus can citizens move easily between the languages in their repertoire as their situation demands. EU Council Recommendation of 22 May 2019 noted that according to the 2012 special Eurobarometer report summary, “almost half of Europeans report that they are unable to hold a conversation in any language other than their first language”. It also summarised the findings of the [First European survey on language competences](#) (European Commission 2012): “Only four in ten learners in secondary education reach the ‘independent user’ level in the first foreign language ...[and] only one quarter attains this level in the second foreign language”.

Results from the [2023 Eurydice Key data report on teaching languages at school in Europe](#) and the [2024 Eurobarometer on Europeans and their languages](#) show positive progress in the knowledge of English as a foreign language. Seventy per cent of young Europeans consider that they can hold a conversation in English, which is 9 percentage points higher than in the 2012 survey. This advance, however, may be less impressive than it seems; “hold a conversation” falls a long way short of “use the language effectively for social, learning and professional purposes” (called for by the 2019 EU Council Recommendation – see above). The evidence of the First European Survey suggests that the extent to which non-anglophone young people can lead part of their lives through English is likely to be quite limited.

The same sources report that there has been very little progress as regards the learning of other foreign languages. Because English is a global lingua franca, it has the status of a second rather than a foreign language in some European societies, and proficiency in English is often regarded as a basic educational requirement. But to limit second/foreign language education to English alone threatens to undermine the essential plurality of European identity; it also ignores the essential role that languages other than English play in public administration (Ongaro and van Thiel 2018), international relations and diplomacy (Project Muse 2014), and trade (Hellekjær and Hellekjær 2015).

The evidence reported in this section shows that language learning achievement in many European education systems falls a long way short of the plurilingual and intercultural vision shared by the European Union and the Council of Europe.

If this is the case in your country, what do you think are the chief causes?

The central role of motivation in the learning of additional languages

According to the Eurydice key data report cited in the previous section, lack of motivation was the most frequently mentioned factor likely to discourage young people from learning a second additional language. In response, the ECML developed its motivation manifesto, recognising that in many education systems “second additional language” includes regional and minority languages. The manifesto’s proposals are also relevant, of course, to the teaching and learning of English.

The motivation manifesto argues that learners of all ages are motivationally empowered by their language learning if they belong to a welcoming and supportive learning community, are encouraged to share control of the learning process, and are simultaneously users and learners of their target language(s). The manifesto proposes that in order to respond adequately to the motivational challenges faced by learners, we need to develop a motivational ecology that is sustained by the mutually supportive efforts of policy makers, legislators and administrators; curriculum developers; language teacher educators; school inspectors; regional and local authorities; school principals and managers; language teachers; and language learners themselves.

For language learners, teachers are the most important actors in the motivational ecology. As the explanatory memorandum attached to CM/Rec(2022)1 insists, successful implementation of plurilingual and intercultural education depends crucially on teachers (Council of Europe 2022: 34); in any education system, teachers are the crucial agents of change.

In your context, is lack of motivation perceived as

- a major factor in discouraging students from learning a second additional language, whether regional, minority or foreign?
- a problem for learners of English?

If your answer to either question is yes, what solutions have been proposed?

Perspectives on motivation

Teacher motivation

Although research is still at a relatively early stage of development (Lamb and Sahakyan 2025; Mahmoodi and Yousefi 2022; Mercer 2018; Urdan 2014), language teacher motivation is best understood as a complex construct that encompasses cognitive, affective and conative dimensions. It explains *why* individuals decide on a particular course of action (direction), *how much effort* they invest in its pursuit (intensity), and *for how long* (persistence) (Dörnyei 2001).

Among many theoretical perspectives, Self-Determination Theory (SDT) offers a particularly useful conceptualisation as it frames motivation in terms of the fulfilment of three fundamental psychological needs – autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci and Ryan 1985, 2000). When teachers feel autonomous, they see themselves as agents of their own professional actions; when they experience competence, they believe they can effectively manage teaching and learning processes; and when they experience relatedness, they feel meaningfully connected to their students, colleagues and professional communities. The degree to which these needs are satisfied affects both the intensity and the quality of teachers' motivation, which can vary in its reliance on extrinsic and intrinsic (self-determined) factors (Deci, Kasser and Ryan 1997).

Other motivational theories may be regarded as complementary, enhancing the specification of the core dimensions addressed by SDT. Self-efficacy theory, for instance, emphasises the importance of perceived capability in maintaining effort and resilience; it thus clarifies the dimension of competence (Bandura 1982, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy 1998). Interest theory posits that teachers' individual interest stems from a synthesis of knowledge, emotional involvement and persistence, manifested in the enjoyment of and dedication to teaching; satisfaction comes from the practice of teaching itself (Tobias 1994; Long and Woolfolk Hoy 2006). Goal-orientation theory provides insight into how the aims pursued by teachers – whether mastery-oriented or performance-oriented – shape their involvement and their teaching approach

(Ames 1992; Malmberg 2008). And flow theory captures the experiential aspect of motivation: “flow” – a state of optimal immersion in and enjoyment of an activity – arises from the alignment of perceived challenges and individual competences (Csikszentmihalyi 1988, 1997).

Taken together, these theoretical perspectives indicate that teacher motivation is contingent upon a sense of competence, the recognition of value and interest in teaching, the pursuit of meaningful goals, and the direct experience of engagement and enjoyment, all within professional environments that promote autonomy and foster meaningful relationships.

- What information do your programmes of language teacher education provide about research into motivation?
- How do your programmes relate theoretical perspectives on teacher motivation to the development of teachers’ pedagogical skills?

The relation between teacher motivation and learner motivation

Teacher motivation is crucial not just for teachers’ professional well-being but also because it profoundly affects the quality of students’ learning experiences.

Based on the theorisation of the Pygmalion and Golem effects in educational psychology – the former describes how higher teacher expectations can lead to improved student outcomes (Rosenthal and Jakobson 1968), while the latter explains how lower teacher expectations may result in less successful academic performance (Babad, Inbar and Rosenberg 1982) – more recent research has shown that teachers’ perceptions and beliefs are closely related to their instructional practices and relationships with learners, and can thus significantly influence students’ attitudes and, in turn, their achievement (e.g. De Angelis 2011; Blanchard and Muller 2015). Investigating educators’ attitudes and perceptions is therefore of great importance, not only to better understand their characteristics and underlying processes, but also because of the potential impact they may have on students’ attitudes and learning achievement (Bier and Lasagabaster 2025).

A still limited but expanding body of research shows that teacher motivation affects student motivation and achievement (see Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011). Studies suggest that there is a dynamic and reciprocal relationship between teacher and student motivation (Mercer 2018): motivated teachers are more likely to create learning environments that encourage participation and engagement, and to persevere in supporting their students. Students’ responses, in turn, can either strengthen or weaken

teachers' motivation. However, this reciprocity is not symmetrical; teachers are responsible for initiating, maintaining and promoting motivational processes in the classroom (Deci, Kasser and Ryan 1997), as their attitudes, beliefs, expectations and teaching practices determine the conditions under which students learn.

This asymmetry is especially noticeable in contexts where student motivation may be fragile or constrained by external factors, as in learning environments where the languages present have unequal status or varying degrees of perceived relevance, or where strong social expectations are attached to the learning of some languages over others (Lasagabaster and Bier 2024). In such contexts, teachers' ability to sustain their own motivation becomes an essential condition for supporting the motivation of their students. This emphasises the need to consider teacher motivation as a pivotal dimension of educational quality, rather than as a marginal or negligible aspect of teaching; if teachers are expected to foster motivation in their students, they must themselves experience it in their own professional lives.

What do your programmes of language teacher education have to say about

- the interdependence of teacher motivation and learner motivation?
- the relation between teaching methods, learner motivation and learning achievement?

Motivation and the design of teacher education programmes

If teachers' motivation depends on the fulfilment of basic psychological needs as well as on the quality of their professional experiences, both pre- and in-service teacher education should be designed with a view to meeting those needs and ensuring the quality of those experiences. In other words, student teachers and their in-service colleagues should not only learn about motivation, but experience a process of professional development that explicitly aims to nourish their motivation. This means, among other things, supporting the development of a coherent professional identity while fostering teachers' sense of agency. In order to promote more self-determined forms of motivation, teachers must be given opportunities to express their own teaching vision, connecting theoretical perspectives with their beliefs and experiences while gradually internalising professional goals (Dörnyei and Kubanyiova 2014; Kubanyiova 2014, 2020).

Pre- and in-service teacher education should prepare teachers to meet the demands of professional practice, including the unpredictable demands of an uncertain future.

Throughout their careers teachers should be supported in the autonomous development of their professional skills (European Commission 2015). They should be given opportunities to experience self-efficacy by making well-considered choices regarding their professional needs. This is a matter of developing routines, exercising creativity and enacting practical strategies (defined as “moves”; Michaels and O’Connor 2012). In this way their teaching competences are strengthened and their future careers secured (see, for example, Homann, Beckmann and Emke 2025).

Whether teacher education programmes are organised at state or regional level (Ligozat, Klette and Almqvist 2023), their different components should be coherently structured (Doetjes, Domović, Mikkilä-Erdmann and Zaki 2024; Carrai and Hatlevik 2024). They should combine clear pathways for the development of professional competences with opportunities for exploration. Safe spaces encourage teachers to try out new practices, take pedagogical risks and learn from experience without fear of negative judgement (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy 1998). Experimentation in a safe environment under the supervision of expert practitioners, together with guided reflection and the development of metacognitive awareness, may further help to sustain engagement and strengthen self-efficacy over time (Golombek and Doran 2014).

Attention should also be paid to designing learning experiences that are emotionally and intellectually stimulating. Deeper forms of engagement akin to flow (Csikszentmihalyi 1997) can be fostered by activities that are deemed significant, encourage active participation, and balance challenges with participants’ developing competences.

The relational dimension of teacher education is equally crucial. In professional learning communities (Hord 1997; Hargreaves 2003), collaborative activities, dialogue and ongoing exchange with peers and teacher educators help to reinforce the sense of relatedness that sustains motivation. School leaders make an important contribution in this regard by facilitating pedagogical discussion between the different partners involved in teacher education programmes (the so-called third space) (Daza, Gudmundsdottir and Lund 2021) and by creating opportunities for professional learning among teachers. In areas where geographical distances may hinder in-person collaboration, online meeting spaces can be used to foster a sense of belonging and cohesion among teacher groups from different schools. Schools may also benefit from teacher exchange, both in person and online.

To what extent do your programmes of language teacher education

- conform to the principles summarised in this section?
- seek to ensure that teachers' professional development is shaped by the same pedagogical dynamic as teachers are expected to enact in their classrooms?

Motivational challenges specific to language education

Although generally applicable, these considerations are especially relevant to language education, where complex and sometimes fragile contextual conditions influence both teacher and student motivation. Language teachers increasingly operate in multilingual environments in which the languages present enjoy unequal status (Lasagabaster and Bier 2024), levels of student motivation fluctuate, and teaching and learning are subject to intense external pressures of various kinds. All of these factors can easily undermine teachers' sense of agency and professional efficacy (on motivation for languages other than English in today's multilingual world, see Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie 2017; Ushioda 2017).

For teachers of English as an additional language, high levels of student exposure to English outside school ("extramural English") may lead to disengagement from formal learning because students find the English taught in school insufficiently challenging (Leona et al. 2021). In Scandinavia, the Netherlands and Flanders, extramural English has been shown to have a significant positive impact on students' proficiency (see, for example, Brevik 2018; De Wilde, Brysbaert and Eyckmans 2021; Sundqvist 2024; Sylvén and Sundqvist 2012). On the other hand, in contexts where such exposure is more limited, social and familial expectations risk generating pressure without necessarily translating into long-term student motivation. Teachers of languages other than English, including minority languages, face additional challenges related to the dominance of English but also to the status and perceived importance of the languages they teach, which are often regarded as marginal. All of these factors may weaken both student interest and teacher motivation.

In such situations, the role of the teacher as a motivational agent becomes even more crucial, and teachers' ability to sustain their own motivation is a key professional resource. At the same time, teachers' passion, enthusiasm, commitment and sense of purpose (Day 2004) may have a powerful "contagious" effect on students (Csikszentmihalyi 1997), contributing to the creation of more positive and engaging learning environments. These dynamics further reinforce the need for teacher education

to explicitly address motivation as a lived, context-sensitive dimension of professional practice, as well as a theoretical construct.

In your context

- do teachers of English find that their students' contact with English outside school has a positive or negative impact on their motivation in the classroom?
- do teachers of other languages experience the motivational challenges described in this section?

Teacher and learner motivation and plurilingual education

Implications of the basic tenets of Self-Determination Theory for (language) learning

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) assumes that we have an inbuilt propensity for learning, mastery and connection with others. This propensity generates psychological needs that must be satisfied in order to achieve healthy development. Among those needs, three are seen as fundamental: the needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. In a review of the impact of SDT on research in educational psychology, the theory's founders, Richard Ryan and Edward Deci, define these three needs as follows (Ryan and Deci 2020: 1):

- *Autonomy* concerns a sense of initiative and ownership in one's actions. It is supported by experiences of interest and value and undermined by experiences of being externally controlled, whether by rewards or punishments.
- *Competence* concerns the feeling of mastery, a sense that one can succeed and grow. The need for competence is best satisfied within well-structured environments that afford optimal challenges, positive feedback, and opportunities for growth.
- *Relatedness* concerns a sense of belonging and connection. It is facilitated by conveyance of respect and caring.

Ryan and Deci (2020: 1) add: "Thwarting of any of these three basic needs is seen as damaging to motivation and wellness. Accordingly, SDT's analysis of educational settings is primarily focused on the extent to which they meet or frustrate these basic needs." The central claims of SDT have been confirmed by an extensive body of empirical and

qualitative research carried out over the past four decades, briefly summarised in this 2020 article and presented in detail in Ryan and Deci's comprehensive (2017) handbook.

Little (2026a: 1-2) summarises the interdependence of autonomy, competence and relatedness as follows:

It is fundamental to our nature that we experience the urge to be autonomous, to set and follow our own agenda (as every parent knows, this urge begins to assert itself soon after birth). But the need to be autonomous is satisfied and brings fulfilment only if, in pursuing our agenda, we develop competence and nourish our relations with those around us – family members, work colleagues, fellow students, etc.

The same understanding of the relation between motivation and fulfilment underpins the concept of the empowered language learner on which the ECML's motivation manifesto is built:

Learners are empowered by their language learning if they

- belong to a welcoming and supportive learning community [relatedness];
- are encouraged to share control of the learning process [autonomy];
- are simultaneously users and learners of their target language(s) [competence].

In your programmes of language teacher education, how do you help teachers to

- take ownership of their professional development?
- acquire the confidence that accompanies professional mastery?
- experience a growing sense of professional interdependence and belonging?

A crucial difference between languages and other school subjects

SDT has clear implications for the way in which teaching and learning should be organised across the curriculum. When it comes to language teaching, however, autonomy, competence and relatedness assume added significance because they are essential features of the communicative language use that curricula expect students to become proficient in. Children acquire their first language by interacting with parents, siblings and caregivers (relatedness); they initiate and steer such interaction by exercising their instinctive agency (autonomy); and they repeatedly seek confirmation of their growing mastery as communicators and manipulators of linguistic form (competence). In acquiring their first language, in other words, they simultaneously fulfil basic psychological needs; that is why failure to acquire a first language is never

attributable to lack of motivation. Programmes of language teaching that aim to develop communicative proficiency need to find a way of replicating this process of language learning through agentive and interactive language use in the apparently artificial context of the classroom. If they fail to do so, learners are unlikely to develop the capacity to use their first additional language “effectively for social, learning and professional purposes” or their second additional language to “interact with a degree of fluency”, as envisaged by the 2019 Recommendation of the Council of the European Union quoted in the first section of this paper.

- To what extent do your programmes of language teacher education share this understanding of the goals of language teaching and the language learning process?
- How do your programmes seek to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills they need in order to help their learners to develop the kind and degree of proficiency envisaged by the 2019 EU Council Recommendation?

The concept of plurilingualism

Since the publication of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) in 2001, the Council of Europe’s work in language education has assigned a central role to the concept of plurilingualism, the ability to communicate in two or more languages by drawing on “a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact” (Council of Europe 2001: 4). Defined in this way, plurilingualism entails that new languages take root in the soil provided by the languages that are already present in the learner’s mind. So if, as the CEFR argues, the development of integrated plurilingual repertoires is the central aim of language education (Council of Europe 2001: 5), that has two significant consequences for language teaching. First, we must find ways of enabling learners to make use of the languages they already know when they are learning a new language; and second, when educating members of linguistic minorities, we must ensure that their home languages play a central role in their educational experience. By doing these things, we help our learners to develop repertoires in which “languages interrelate and interact”; at the same time, we recognise the importance of rooting language learning in the linguistic identity of the learner, which is fundamental to his or her self-concept and sense of autonomy. Both of these considerations entail that spontaneous language use should play a central role in language learning.

In your context

- what role(s) do the concept of plurilingualism and its implications for language teaching play in programmes of language teacher education?
- what use is made of the target language in the teaching of additional languages?

Implementing plurilingual education

The Council of Europe's commitment to the concept of plurilingualism and its educational consequences is reaffirmed by [Recommendation CM/Rec\(2022\)1](#), on the importance of plurilingual and intercultural education for democratic culture (Council of Europe 2022). The appendix to the Recommendation acknowledges that the full implementation of the measures it proposes is a long-term project "because it entails shifts not only in educational policy and practice but also in societal attitudes to linguistic and cultural diversity". The appendix also notes, however, that "much can ... be achieved in the meantime by adjusting policy and practice at the level of the educational institution and the classroom and by drawing on Council of Europe resources" (Council of Europe 2022: 14-15).

The appendix to the Recommendation (Council of Europe 2022: 17) proposes that programmes of teacher education should promote plurilingual and intercultural education by undertaking the following nine measures:

- i. assigning a central role in their own curriculums to the concepts and principles on which such education rests, including the language dimension of all curriculum subjects;
- ii. challenging attitudes, beliefs and preconceptions about language, language learning, plurilingualism, culture and intercultural learning;

The first two measures reflect the ambitious scope of the Recommendation. The concept of plurilingual and intercultural education applies to all curriculum subjects, not just additional languages; it thus has important implications for all learners, not just learners of additional languages or speakers of minority or migrant languages. And because plurilingualism entails the development of integrated linguistic repertoires in which languages "interrelate and interact", plurilingual and intercultural education works against the belief that some languages are more valuable than others. Cross-curricular collaboration, moreover, makes an essential contribution to the development of learners'

intercultural awareness and serves as a reminder of the unique contribution that additional languages can make in this regard.

In your programmes of teacher education

- how do you take account of the concepts and principles on which plurilingual and intercultural education rests?
- how do you challenge the various linguistic prejudices that plurilingual and intercultural approaches aim to overcome?

iii. developing student teachers' and teachers' own plurilingual and intercultural competences as an essential dimension of their pedagogical competences;

Language teachers' understanding of plurilingualism will be enhanced if they reflect critically on their own linguistic repertoires: the language(s) they first learnt as children, the language(s) they speak at home, the language of schooling, the curriculum language(s) they teach, and other additional languages they have learnt, whether formally at school or informally in the course of their lives outside school. If they come from a minority-language or immigrant background, they are likely to have important insights from which their peers can benefit. But teachers who have just two or three languages – their home language (through which they were also educated) and one or two additional languages learnt at school and university – will quickly discover how complex their linguistic repertoire is when they begin to reflect on the various styles, registers and genres they use and the purposes for which they use them. Reflection of this kind is “identity work” which helps to give teachers a sense of self-efficacy; the self-knowledge it brings increases their confidence as language specialists. Measures calculated to develop teachers' own plurilingual and intercultural competences are closely associated with measures (iv) and (v) below.

Do your programmes of language teacher education

- encourage teachers to reflect critically on their own plurilingual and intercultural competences?
- help teachers to develop their plurilingual and intercultural competences?

- iv. engaging teachers in a detailed exploration of what plurilingual and intercultural approaches to education entail in terms of classroom practice;
- v. helping teachers to develop the pedagogical competences needed to manage linguistic and cultural diversity for the benefit of all pupils and students;

Two key principles that underpin plurilingual and intercultural classroom practice are that all languages and cultures present in a given class are of equal value, and that all home languages should find a place in the daily life of the classroom. It is an important part of teachers' professional competence that they have the confidence to allow their learners to communicate with one another in languages the teachers themselves do not understand. Experience has shown that when home languages are included in this way, learners are highly motivated, develop unusual levels of language awareness and autonomy, and undertake ambitious language-related projects on their own initiative (Little and Kirwan 2017; Little 2025). The sense of achievement that this engenders greatly boosts teacher motivation.

In your context

- how does language teacher education prepare teachers to meet the challenge of linguistically diverse classrooms?
- are teachers encouraged to include home languages in their lessons even if those languages are unknown to them?

- vi. helping teachers to develop the pedagogical competences needed to support a democratic classroom culture that fosters autonomous learning and critical thinking and makes space for the inclusion of the learner's voice;

This measure implies a pedagogy that meets learners' need for autonomy, competence and relatedness and thus ensures their motivation. The CEFR treats language learning as a variety of language use (Council of Europe 2001: 9), which implies that the target language should be the preferred medium of teaching and learning; and language learning through language use maximises the interrelation and interaction (Council of Europe 2001: 4) between the new language and the languages already present in the learner's mind. Autonomous learning entails that learners share responsibility for planning, implementing and evaluating their learning (Little et al. 2017); the reflective processes that this involves help to develop critical thinking; and when a plurilingual approach is adopted, learner agency is expressed in a plurilingual voice (Little 2026b). Besides being strongly motivational, a classroom culture that possesses these features is also a democratic culture; as such it helps to prepare learners for democratic citizenship.

In your programmes of language teacher education

- what role is played by the concepts of learner autonomy, critical thinking and the learner's voice?
- how do you help teachers to develop the pedagogical competences summarised in measure (vi)?

vii. helping teachers to develop assessment competences that take account of plurilingual and intercultural learning;

Recent decades have seen the emergence of an assessment culture that promotes formative assessment (Black and Wiliam 2009), assessment for learning (Black and Wiliam 2012), and learning-oriented assessment (Carless 2007; Jones and Saville 2016) as essential supports for effective teaching and learning. At the same time, pedagogies designed to foster learner autonomy emphasise the importance of developing learners' skills of self-assessment (Dam and Legenhausen 2010, 2011; Little and Erickson 2015). These developments have prompted a growth of interest in "assessment literacy" (Baker and Taylor 2024a, 2024b), the knowledge and skills that language teachers need if they are to design, administer and interpret tests and exams with reliability and validity. In the context of plurilingual and intercultural education, assessment literacy also includes the ability to design assessment procedures that take account of learners' plurilingual repertoires (Dendrinos and Gotsoulia 2015).

In your context

- are language teachers expected or required to use formative assessment/assessment for learning to inform their teaching?
- how much importance is attached to developing learners' skills of self-assessment?
- to what extent do formal assessment procedures take account of learners' plurilingual repertoires?
- what role does assessment literacy play in programmes of language teacher education?

viii. encouraging teacher mobility as an important aspect of professional development;

Teacher mobility contributes to language teachers' professional development in two ways. First, regular visits to countries or communities where the languages they teach are in daily use enable them to keep abreast of linguistic and cultural developments. This supports their classroom use of the target language (Vold and Brkan 2020) and helps

them to develop coherent and engaging teaching moves that facilitate learners' oral participation in lessons (Carrai 2025). Second, teacher exchange schemes provide them with new pedagogical experiences and the possibility of developing a critical perspective on their own context. Understood in these two ways, mobility is an important factor in reinforcing language teachers' confidence and motivation and maintaining their sense of relatedness and belonging.

In your context

- is mobility a regular part of language teachers' pre- and in-service education?
- what use is made of teacher exchanges?
- is teacher mobility supported by financial grants?

- ix. developing teachers' competence in action research so that they can contribute to the evidence-based development of educational policy and practice.

Research undertaken by teachers in their own classrooms, whether "action research" (Burns 2009; McNiff 2013) or "exploratory practice" (Hanks 2017), can make an important contribution to the development of language education policy and practice. By researching their own classrooms, teachers assert their autonomy as competent language professionals; teachers who carry out classroom research are necessarily motivated teachers.

In your context

- do programmes of language teacher education seek to give teachers the skills they need to carry out classroom research?
- are teachers officially encouraged to research their own classrooms and thus provide evidence to inform the development of language education policy and practice

Before moving on to the next section, you may find it helpful to consider the following questions:

- How many of the above nine actions are already established features of your teacher education programmes?
- How could you introduce the actions that are missing in ways that reinforce teachers' autonomy and sense of professional competence and thus enhance their motivation?

Artificial intelligence and teacher motivation: challenges and affordances

The emerging educational role of artificial intelligence

Artificial intelligence (AI) refers to a set of computer technologies that can perform complex human-like tasks. These rapidly evolving tools are emerging as a “third voice” in classrooms. Traditionally, classroom interaction has been dialogic (Xian Li et al. 2024), between teacher and learners and among learners themselves; now the potential exists to create triadic interactional environments that incorporate dialogue between humans and machines (Yan Li et al. 2025). In such environments teachers must not only design their teaching but manage their learners’ interactions with AI. Among other things, this means knowing how to select appropriate tools and helping learners to critically evaluate AI-generated output, bearing in mind that AI systems may reproduce linguistic and cultural biases by privileging certain languages or language varieties over others. To go further and anticipate coming changes, the interaction between learners and AI will increasingly lead learners to make their own choices in their learning path (Xiao et al. 2023), which will significantly change the role of teachers towards that of pedagogical engineers or designers.

When they use AI tools, teachers acquire a second new role: to develop in their learners an AI literacy that encompasses technical, practical and human dimensions, as the recently adopted [Council of Europe Recommendation on AI literacy](#) explains. The technical dimension involves understanding how AI systems work, including their algorithmic structure and their relevance to specific purposes, which is in part a matter of language. The practical dimension concerns knowing how to use AI tools effectively, which includes the linguistic ability to formulate appropriate and effective prompts. And the human dimension focuses on understanding the impact of AI on human behaviour and its social context, which implicates values, cultures, organisations, etc. Engagement with each of these dimensions develops learners’ critical thinking skills.

In your context,

- what is official policy regarding the use of AI in classrooms?
- how in general do teachers respond to the challenges and potential of AI?

Potential impact of AI on language diversity

The Council of Europe's European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages protects 84 languages spoken by 209 minority communities across Europe. While these languages are living expressions of Europe's cultural diversity, they remain largely underrepresented in AI systems, digital resources and datasets. AI technology can either accelerate the endangerment of this linguistic and cultural heritage or, conversely, help to revitalise it, thus providing additional motivation to all stakeholders.

Digital inclusion is essential for democratic participation, so AI must be accessible to everyone, regardless of language, culture or location. When people cannot access digital educational services in their own language, inequalities grow and trust in institutions may decline. Therefore, AI literacy, capacity-building and equitable access to technology are key to strengthening democratic resilience through plurilingualism. Plurilingual and intercultural education fosters social cohesion by developing pluriliteracies, including AI literacy. At the same time, AI can support the motivation of minority or additional language teachers by offering new opportunities for exposure to these languages.

In your context,

- how does teacher education prepare language teachers to meet the challenges of linguistic diversity?
- what value is attached to the development of pluriliteracies?

Potential impact of AI on language teaching and learning

The CEFR, its Companion volume (Council of Europe 2020) and Recommendation CM/Rec(2022)1 assume that plurilingual and intercultural learning are grounded in human interaction that involves the negotiation of meaning in authentic sociocultural contexts that promote intercultural dialogue. We have seen that the acquisition of a first language fulfils the individual's need for autonomy, competence and relatedness; and we have argued that the teaching of additional languages should be conducted in ways that are designed to meet the same needs. From this perspective, the appropriate question is not "How can AI replace the teacher?" but "How can we use AI to foster the autonomy of our learners, develop their competence, and enhance the quality of human relationships at the heart of their learning experience?".

These are some of the things AI can already help language teachers to do:

- develop multimodal approaches that combine written text, image, audio and video;
- use transcription, reformulation, etc. to move between oral and written communication;
- design learning pathways that respond to learners' differing needs and profiles;
- create learning tasks at different levels of proficiency;
- personalise learning by including strategies to enhance plurilingual repertoires;
- make crosslinguistic strategies more explicit;
- provide learners with instant feedback;
- create simulated conversation partners (especially useful in the case of minority languages);
- enhance intercultural dialogue by simulating conversations with speakers from different cultural backgrounds.

In your context, how many of these AI-enhancements are

- included in programmes of language teacher education?
- used in language classrooms?

How might artificial intelligence impact on language teacher motivation?

Like any other new technology, AI can undermine teachers, especially if it is used to dictate how they teach. If teachers were required, for example, to implement standard AI-generated lesson plans, their autonomy and sense of professional competence would be eroded (Zhou 2025); and if AI appears to be more efficient than they are, for example by providing instant and apparently flawless translation, they may well experience reduced self-efficacy.

On the other hand, as we have seen, AI offers teachers multiple opportunities to extend their pedagogical repertoires by developing new skills (Schlemminger 2024). If teachers feel they are *choosing* how to use AI, making informed, critical, and responsible choices, their sense of autonomy will increase; and if they use AI creatively in ways that genuinely support learning goals, they will have an enhanced sense of professional competence grounded in pedagogical autonomy. AI can enhance teachers' self-efficacy by supporting lesson planning, differentiation and feedback, by providing a variety of scaffolding

techniques, and by helping them to identify communication strategies when their learners need them (Moundridou et al. 2024). With flow theory and its emphasis on optimal challenges in mind, AI can be used to provide a better match between challenge and skill, for example by tailoring tasks to learners' language profiles and proficiency level, which makes learning engaging rather than overwhelming.

In your context

- do language teachers typically respond to AI as a threat or as a challenge?
- should all language teachers be expected to develop AI skills, or should AI be the responsibility of one or two teachers in a given institution?

AI in language teacher education

With these motivational considerations in mind, it is clear that language teacher education must do more than provide training in the use of new tools. It must help teachers to develop a set of professional, critical and pedagogical AI skills that align with plurilingual and intercultural aims.

- Teachers need to develop [critical AI literacy](#); that is, they need to understand how AI systems generate content, where their biases come from, and how outputs can misrepresent languages or cultures. This includes evaluating accuracy, detecting stereotypes, and knowing when *not* to rely on AI.
- Teachers need pedagogical design skills with AI: the ability to create meaningful tasks (not just prompts) that use AI to foster reciprocal plurilingual communication. This means designing activities in which learners engage critically with AI-generated content so as to interact or mediate in human relations. Teachers also need to be strengthened in their ability to monitor and assess the learners' choices when designing their own learning paths with the support of AI technologies.
- Teachers need to develop multimodal orchestration skills so that they can select and combine AI tools (written text, audio, visual) to help diverse learner groups to achieve their communicative goals (Drackert et al. 2025).
- Teachers need to develop ethical and data awareness so that they understand privacy requirements and data use. They need, for example, to be able to ensure that language repertoire recognition does not lead to the identification of their learners' ethnicity, to resist the technical implantation of traditional language hierarchies, and to contribute to their learners' digital citizenship education by teaching them to use AI responsibly.

- Given that generative AI tools are controlled by language (prompts), teachers need to foster learners' language proficiency so as to reinforce their agency when using chatbots, AI notebooks or other tools based on large language models.
- Most importantly, teachers need to learn how to strengthen relational and intercultural mediation skills in AI-enhanced environments. In other words, they need to know how to keep the human dimension central – facilitating dialogue and fostering empathy, tolerance for ambiguity and critical thinking – while using AI as a support rather than a substitute for genuine communication (Council of Europe 2024).

Together, these skills position language teachers not as passive users of AI, but as critical, creative professionals who can shape technology in the service of plurilingual and intercultural language education. The development of these skills requires conditions in which teachers can choose (autonomy), succeed (competence) and feel connected (relatedness). This in turn requires the provision of a low-risk environment in which they can experiment without fear of failure. Language teacher education should frame AI not as a replacement but as a *collaborative partner* that strengthens teachers' motivation by enhancing autonomy, competence and relatedness, and thereby amplifies rather than diminishes their role as the primary driver of learner motivation in the classroom. By insisting on strong human relationships in language teacher education and language classrooms, we can ensure that human-machine interaction does not lead to a false representation of social relations or even to social isolation.

In your programmes of language teacher education

- which of the features included in the above description are already present?
- how could you incorporate the features that are absent?

Conclusion

If the language education policies of the Council of Europe and the European Union are to succeed in practice, language learners must be motivated to learn. As the motivation manifesto argues, this means empowering them; and we do this by integrating them in welcoming and supportive learning communities, encouraging them to share control of the learning process, and ensuring that they are simultaneously users and learners of their target language(s).

In order to be effective agents of learner empowerment, language teachers themselves must be motivated. In this call to action language teacher motivation has been

considered principally from the perspective of Self-Determination Theory, according to which formal learning, including pre- and in-service language teacher education, should be organised in ways that meet the universal human need for autonomy, competence and relatedness.

The motivation manifesto argues that education systems should develop a motivational ecology that is sustained by other stakeholders besides learners and teachers: policy makers, legislators and administrators; curriculum developers; language teacher educators; school inspectors; regional and local authorities; school principals and managers. Although this call to action is addressed primarily to authorities, institutions and individuals responsible for language teacher education, the issues it raises and the questions it proposes are also relevant to the concerns of these other stakeholders.

References

- Ames C. (1992), "Classrooms: goals, structures, and student motivation", *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Volume 84, Issue 3, pp. 261-71, DOI: 10.1037/0022-0663.84.3.261.
- Babad E. Y., Inbar J. and Rosenthal R. (1982), "Pygmalion, Galatea, and the Golem: Investigations of biased and unbiased teachers", *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Volume 74, Issue 4, pp. 459-74, DOI: 10.1037/0022-0663.74.4.459.
- Baker B. and Taylor L. (2024a), *Language assessment literacy and competence – Volume 1: research and reflections from the field*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Baker B. and Taylor L. (2024b), *Language assessment literacy and competence – Volume 2: case studies from around the world*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Bandura A. (1982), "Self-efficacy mechanisms in human agency", *American Psychologist*, Volume 37, Issue 2, pp. 122-47, DOI: 10.1037/0003-066X.37.2.122.
- Bandura A. (1997), *Self-efficacy: the exercise of control*, Freeman, New York.
- Bier A. and Lasagabaster D. (2025), "The impact of divergent language policies on teachers' language attitudes and proficiency in two multilingual education settings", *Applied Linguistics Review*, Volume 16, Issue 4, pp. 1861-83, DOI: 10.1515/applirev-2024-0100.
- Black P. and Wiliam D. (2009), "Developing the theory of formative assessment", *Educational Assessment Evaluation and Accountability*, Volume 21, Issue 1, pp. 5-31.
- Black P. and Wiliam D. (2012), "Assessment for learning in the classroom", in Gardner J. (ed.), *Assessment and learning* (2nd edn), Sage, London, pp. 11-32.
- Blanchard S. and Muller C. (2015), "Gatekeepers of the American Dream: how teachers' perceptions shape the academic outcomes of immigrant and language minority students", *Social Science Research*, Volume 51, pp. 262-75, DOI: 10.1016/j.ssresearch.2014.10.003.
- Brevik L. M. (2019), "Gamers, surfers, social media users: unpacking the role of interest in English", *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, Volume 35, Issue 5, pp. 595-606.

Burns A. (2009), *Doing action research in English language teaching – A guide for practitioners*, Routledge, Abingdon.

Carless D. (2007), “Learning-oriented assessment: conceptual basis and practical implications”, *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, Volume 44, pp. 57-66.

Carrai D. (2025), “Hvordan bryte tausheten: Bruk av spill for å fasilitere elevenes deltakelse og muntlige produksjon i fremmedspråk”, *ELLA – utdanning, litteratur, språk*, Volume 3, available at: <https://doi.org/10.58215/ella.55>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Carrai D. and Hatlevik I. K. R. (2024), “Exploring coherence between teacher education and the competence required to facilitate students’ oral participation in foreign language classrooms”, in Doetjes G. et al. (eds), *Coherence in European teacher education*, Springer VS, Wiesbaden, pp. 135-52, available at: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-43721-3_8, accessed 21 August 2026.

Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe (2022), Recommendation CM/Rec(2022)1 on the importance of plurilingual and intercultural education for democratic culture and explanatory memorandum, available at: <https://search.coe.int/cm?i=0912594880267c32>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Council of Europe (2001), *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Council of Europe (2020), *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg.

Council of Europe (2024a), *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages – Collected texts (4th edition)*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, available at: www.coe.int/en/web/european-charter-regional-or-minority-languages/text-of-the-charter, accessed 21 August 2026.

Council of Europe (2024b), Council of Europe Framework Convention on Artificial Intelligence and Human Rights, Democracy and the Rule of Law, available at: <https://rm.coe.int/1680afae3c>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Csikzentmihalyi M. (1988), "The flow experience and its significance for human psychology", in Csikzentmihalyi M. and Csikzentmihalyi I. S. (eds), *Optimal experience: psychological studies of flow in consciousness*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 15-35.

Csikzentmihalyi M. (1997), "Intrinsic motivation and effective teaching: a flow analysis", in Bess J. L. (ed.), *Teaching well and liking it: motivating faculty to teach effectively*, Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore MD, pp. 72-89.

Dam L. and Legenhausen L. (2010), "Learners reflecting on learning: evaluation versus testing in autonomous language learning", in Paran A. and Sercu L. (eds), *Testing the untestable in language education*, Multilingual Matters Bristol, pp. 120-39.

Dam L. and Legenhausen L. (2011), "Explicit reflection, evaluation, and assessment in the autonomy classroom", *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, Volume 5, pp. 177-89.

Day C. (2004), *A passion for teaching*, Routledge, London.

Daza V., Guðmundsdóttir G. B. and Andreas L. (2021), "Partnerships as third spaces for professional practice in initial teacher education: a scoping review", *Teaching and Teacher Education*, Volume 102, DOI: 10.1016/j.tate.2021.103338.

De Angelis G. (2011), "Teachers' beliefs about the role of prior language knowledge in learning and how these influence teaching practices", *International Journal of Multilingualism*, Volume 8, Issue 3, pp. 216-34, DOI: 10.1080/14790718.2011.560669.

Deci E. L., Kasser T. and Ryan R. M. (1997), "Self-determined teachers: opportunities and obstacles", in Bess J. L. (ed.), *Teaching well and liking it: motivating faculty to teach effectively*, Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore MD, pp. 57-71.

Deci E. L. and Ryan R. M. (1985), *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*, Plenum Press, New York and London.

Deci E. L. and Ryan R. M. (2000), "The 'what' and 'why' of goal pursuits: human needs and the self-determination of behavior", *Psychological Inquiry*, Volume 11, Issue 4, pp. 227-68, DOI: 10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01.

Dendrinos B. and Gotsoulia V. (2015), “Setting standards for multilingual curricula to teach and test foreign languages”, in Spolsky B., O. Inbar-Lourie O. and Tannenbaum M. (eds), *Challenges for language education and policy: making space for people*, Routledge, New York.

De Wilde V., Brysbaert M. and Eyckmans J. (2021), “Young learners’ L2 English after the onset of instruction: longitudinal development of L2 proficiency and the role of individual differences”, *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, Volume 24, Issue 3, pp. 439-53, DOI: 10.1017/S1366728920000747.

Dörnyei Z. (2001), *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Dörnyei Z. and Al-Hoorie A. H. (2017), “The motivational foundation of learning languages other than global English: theoretical issues and research directions”, *The Modern Language Journal*, Volume 101, Issue 3, pp. 455-68, DOI: 10.1111/modl.12408.

Dörnyei Z. and Kubanyiova M. (2014), *Motivating learners, motivating teachers: building vision in the language classroom*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Dörnyei Z. and Ushioda E. (2011), *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd edn), Pearson Education, London.

Doetjes G., Domović V., Mikkilä-Erdmann M. and Zaki K. (2024), “Introduction: teacher education in Europe – Coherence through collaboration?”, in Doetjes et al. (eds), *Coherence in European teacher education*, Springer, Cham, pp. 135-52, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-658-43721-3_1.

Drackert A., Horbach A. and Peters A. (2025), “How good are LLMs in generating input texts for reading tasks in German as a foreign language?”, *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, Volume 45, pp. 222-52, DOI: 10.1017/S0267190525000066.

Ek J.A. (van) (1975), *The threshold level*, Council of Europe, Pergamon Press.

European Commission: Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture (2012), *First European survey on language competences – Final report*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, available at: <https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2766/34160>, accessed 21 August 2026.

European Commission: Directorate-General for Education and Culture (2015), *Shaping career-long perspectives on teaching – A guide on policies to improve initial teacher education*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

European Commission (2024), *Europeans and their languages*, Special Eurobarometer 540, European Union, Brussels, available at: <https://europa.eu/eurobarometer/surveys/detail/2979>, accessed 21 August 2026.

European Commission (European Education and Culture Executive Agency) (2023), *Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe*, Eurydice report, 2023 edition, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, available at: <https://eurydice.eacea.ec.europa.eu/publications/key-data-teaching-languages-school-europe-2023-edition>, accessed 21 August 2026.

European Union (2019), Council Recommendation of 22 May 2019 on a comprehensive approach to the teaching and learning of languages (2019/C 189/03), Official Journal of the European Union, Brussels.

Golombek P. and Doran M. (2014), “Unifying cognition, emotion, and activity in language teacher professional development”, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, Volume 39, pp. 102-11, DOI: 10.1016/j.tate.2014.01.002.

Hanks J. (2017), *Exploratory practice in language teaching: puzzling about principles and practices*, Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Hargreaves A. (2003), *Teaching in the knowledge society*, Teachers College Press, New York.

Hellekjær G. O. and Hellekjær A.-I. (2015), “Is anglophone complacency a virtue of necessity?: The gap between the need for and supply of occupational second foreign language skills in Norwegian business and government”, *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, Volume 59, Issue 2, pp. 143-61, DOI: 10.1080/00313831.2014.904412.

Homann H.-S., Beckmann T. and Ehmke T. (2025), “Enhancing pre-service teachers’ well-being during long-term internships: the roles of self-efficacy, mentoring, and task-related sense of coherence”, *International Journal of Education and Practice*, Volume 13, Issue 2, pp. 566-86, DOI: 10.18488/61.v13i2.4080.

Hord S. (1997), *Professional learning communities: communities of continuous learning and improvement*, Southwest Education Development Laboratory, Austin TX.

Jones N. and Saville N. (2016), *Learning oriented assessment: a systemic approach*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Kubanyiova M. (2014), “Motivating language teachers: Inspiring vision”, in Lasagabaster D., Doiz A. and Sierra J. M. (eds), *Motivation and foreign language learning*, John Benjamins, Amsterdam, pp. 71-89.

Kubanyiova M. (2020), “Language teacher motivation research: Its ends, means and future commitments”, in Lamb M., Csizér K., Henry A. and Ryan S. (eds), *The Palgrave handbook of motivation for language learning*, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, pp. 389-408.

Lamb M. and Sahakyan T. (2025), “Language teacher motivation: A systematic review”, in Tajeddin Z. and Farrell T. S. (eds), *Handbook of language teacher motivation*, Springer, Cham, pp. 159-80.

Lasagabaster D. and Bier A. (2024), “Introducción: El reto del multilingüismo”, in Bier A. and Lasagabaster D. (eds), *El fomento del multilingüismo en contextos con lenguas minorizadas*, Universidad del País Vasco / Euskal Herriko Unibertsitatea, Argitalpen Zerbitzua / Servicio Editorial, pp. 5-9, available at: <https://web-argitalpena.adm.ehu.es/listaproductos.asp?IdProducts=UFGPD246546>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Leona N. L., van Koert M. J. H., van den Molen M. W., Rispens J. E., Tijms J. and Snellings P. (2021), “Explaining individual differences in young English language learners’ vocabulary knowledge: the role of extramural English exposure and motivation”, *System*, Volume 96, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102402>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Li X., Han G., Fang B. and He J. (2024), “Advancing the in-class dialogic quality: developing an artificial intelligence-supported framework for classroom dialogue analysis”, *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, Volume 34, Issue 1, pp. 1-15, DOI: 10.1007/s40299-024-00872-z.

Li Y., Zhou X., Yin H. and Chiu T. (2025), “Design language learning with artificial intelligence (AI) chatbots based on activity theory from a systematic review”, *Smart Learning Environments*, Volume 12, Issue 24, available at: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/s40561-025-00379-0>, accessed 21 August 2026.

- Ligozat F., Klette K. and Almqvist J. (2023), *Didactics in a changing world – European perspectives on teaching, learning and the curriculum*, Springer, Cham, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-031-20810-2.
- Little D. (2025), *The role of the Romani language in the educational inclusion of Roma: a pedagogical guide*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg.
- Little D. (2026a), *Language learner autonomy: a practical guide*, Candlin and Mynard, Hong Kong.
- Little D. (2026b), “Learner autonomy, plurilingual education and the learner’s voice: the example of Romani”, in Little D., Dam L. and Burkert A. (eds), *Language learner autonomy in action*, Candlin and Mynard, Hong Kong.
- Little D., Dam L. and Legenhausen L. (2017), *Language learner autonomy: theory, practice and research*, Multilingual Matters, Bristol.
- Little D. and Erickson G. (2015), “Learner identity, learner agency, and the assessment of language proficiency: some reflections prompted by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*”, *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, Volume 35, pp. 120-39.
- Little D. and Kirwan D. (2017), *Engaging with linguistic diversity: a study of educational inclusion in an Irish primary school*, Bloomsbury Academic, London.
- Long J. F. and Woolfolk Hoy A. (2006), “Interested instructors: a composite portrait of individual differences and effectiveness”, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, Volume 22, Issue 3, pp. 303-14, DOI: 10.1016/j.tate.2005.11.001.
- McNiff J. (2013), *Action research: principles and practice* (3rd edn), Routledge, London and New York.
- Mahmoodi M. H. and Yousefi M. (2022), “Second language motivation research 2010–2019: a synthetic exploration”, *Language Learning Journal*, Volume 50, Issue 3, pp. 273-96, DOI: 10.1080/09571736.2020.1869809.
- Malmberg L.-E. (2008), “Student teachers' achievement goal orientations during teacher studies: antecedents, correlates and outcomes”, *Learning and Instruction*, Volume 18, Issue 5, pp. 438-52, DOI: 10.1016/j.learninstruc.2008.06.003.

Mercer S. (2018), “Psychology for language learning: spare a thought for the teacher”, *Language Teaching*, Volume 51, Issue 4, pp. 504-25, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000258>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Michaels S. and Connor C. (2012), *Talk science primer*, TERC, Cambridge MA, available at: https://inquiryproject.terc.edu/shared/pd/TalkScience_Primer.pdf, accessed 21 August 2026.

Moundridou M., Matzakos N. and Doukakis S. (2024), “Generative AI tools as educators’ assistants: designing and implementing inquiry-based lesson plans”, *Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence*, Volume 7, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2024.100277>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Ongaro E. and van Thiel S. (2018), “Languages and public administration in Europe”, in Ongaro E. and van Thiel S. (eds), *The Palgrave handbook of public administration and management in Europe*, pp. 61-98, DOI: 10.1057/97,8-1-137-55269-3.

Project Muse (2014), “Lost for words: the need for languages in security and diplomacy”, *European Journal of Language Policy*, Volume 6, Issue 2, pp. 244-49, available at: www.muse.jhu.edu/article/565549, accessed 21 August 2026.

Rosenthal R. and Jacobson L. (1968), *Pygmalion in the classroom: teacher expectation and pupils’ intellectual development*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

Ryan R. M. and Deci E. L. (2017), *Self-determination theory: basic psychological needs in motivation, development, and wellness*, Guilford Press, New York.

Ryan R. M. and Deci E. L. (2020), “Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from a self-determination theory perspective: definitions, theory, practices, and future directions”, *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, Volume 61, pp. 1-11, DOI: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2020.101860.

Schlemminger G. (2024), “L’intelligence artificielle générative au service du FLES, à l’exemple de ChatGPT”, *Didactique du FLES*, Volume 4, Issue 1, pp. 11-25, available at: <https://doi.org/10.57086/dfles.1573>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Sundqvist P. (2024), “Extramural English as an individual difference variable in L2 research: methodology matters”, *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, Volume 44, pp. 79-91, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190524000072>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Sylvén L. K. and Sundqvist P. (2012), “Gaming as extramural English L2 learning and L2 proficiency among young learners”, *ReCALL*, Volume 24, Issue 3, pp. 302-21, DOI: 10.1017/S095834401200016X.

Tobias S. (1994), “Interest, prior knowledge, and learning”, *Review of Educational Research*, Volume 64, Issue 1, pp. 37-54, DOI: 10.3102/00346543064001037.

Tschannen-Moran M., Woolfolk Hoy A. and Hoy W.K. (1998), “Teacher efficacy: its meaning and measure”, *Review of Educational Research*, Volume 68, Issue 2, pp. 202-48, DOI: 10.2307/1170754.

Urdan T. (2014), “Concluding commentary: understanding teacher motivation”, in Richardson P., W. Karabenick S.A. and Watt H. M. (eds), *Teacher motivation: theory and practice*, Routledge, New York and London, pp. 227-46.

Ushioda E. (2017), “The impact of global English on motivation to learn other languages: toward an ideal multilingual self”, *The Modern Language Journal*, Volume 101, Issue 3, pp. 469-82, DOI: 10.1111/modl.12413.

Vold E. T. and Brkan A. (2020), “Classroom discourse in lower secondary French-as-a-foreign-language classes in Norway: amounts and contexts of first and target language use”, *System*, Volume 93, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102309>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Xiao F., Zhao P., Sha H., Yang D. and Warschauer M. (2024), “Conversational agents in language learning”, *Journal of China Computer-Assisted Language Learning*, Volume 4, Issue 2, pp. 300-25, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1515/jccall-2022-0032>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Zhou D. (2026), “When AI speaks too loudly: rethinking English learning in China’s English language centre”, *Language Teaching*, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444826101293>, accessed 21 August 2026.

Appendix:

Council of Europe resources related to language teacher motivation and motivation in language teaching

This Appendix lists selected Council of Europe resources from the [Education Programme](#) and the [European Centre for Modern Languages \(ECML\)](#) that language teacher educators may find helpful in addressing the issues raised in this call to action.

1. Motivation in relation to language teachers and language teacher education

i. Language teachers

CEFR Companion volume

The CEFR Companion volume advocates an action-oriented approach to language teaching and learning that assigns a central role to learner agency, mediation and the development of plurilingual competence. Viewed from the perspective of Self-Determination Theory (SDT), it supports teachers' motivation by encouraging autonomy-supportive and learner-centred pedagogies that strengthen teachers' own sense of competence and professional agency.

Recommendation CM/Rec(2022)1 on the importance of plurilingual and intercultural education for democratic culture

The Recommendation recognises teachers as central actors in democratic and inclusive education. It can support intrinsic motivation by reinforcing the meaningful social purpose of language teaching and by validating multilingual and intercultural approaches.

Action research communities for language teachers (ARC)

The ECML's ARC website supports teachers and teacher educators in developing reflective classroom practice through action research, linking professional networks, academic expertise and classroom experience. By strengthening teacher confidence, professionalism and agency, it also contributes to sustaining teacher motivation and the quality of language education.

PALINGUI – Young children's language learning pathways – Making early language learning visible

This ECML resource website supports teachers working with children aged 3 to 12 in observing, documenting and assessing language learning pathways in multilingual contexts, making all language learning more visible within the education system. By providing practical tools and insights into early language learning, it can strengthen teachers' motivation and confidence to recognise, support and celebrate young learners' diverse linguistic repertoires.

CLIL in languages other than English – Successful transitions across educational stages

This ECML resource provides guiding principles, recommendations and examples of practice to support CLIL, particularly in languages other than English, across educational levels. By offering clear orientation and fostering collaboration among educators, it can strengthen teachers' motivation and confidence to implement CLIL in a coherent and sustainable way.

European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL)

The EPOSTL encourages self-reflection, self-assessment and autonomy. These dimensions strongly align with SDT concepts of autonomy, relatedness and competence, which are essential for sustaining teacher motivation over time.

ii. Language teacher educators

CEFR Companion volume implementation toolbox

This ECML resource supports institutions and teacher educators in implementing key concepts of the CEFR Companion volume to foster innovation in teaching and assessment and better prepare learners for real-life communication. By providing practical guidance, it can also strengthen teachers' motivation and confidence to adopt new approaches that enhance learners' communicative competences.

Building blocks for planning language-sensitive teacher education

This ECML resource helps teacher educators and curriculum planners embed language-sensitive education into teacher education curricula and courses across all subjects and languages. By offering practical guidance and planning tools, it enables them to create teacher education programmes that foster teachers' confidence, competence and motivation to integrate language-sensitive approaches into their teaching.

Pluriliteracies Teaching for Learning

Pluriliteracies encourage teacher educators to connect subject learning, language learning and subject literacy development. It may strengthen professional motivation by promoting intellectually stimulating and interdisciplinary approaches to teacher education.

Learning environments where foreign languages flourish (EOL)

This ECML resource supports motivation by promoting whole-school language-friendly environments that strengthen learners' and teachers' sense of purpose, belonging, and engagement with languages. It enhances motivation by improving the interaction between culture, structure and people, and by creating the conditions under which teachers feel more supported, competent, and able to innovate in language education.

2. Motivational challenges posed by plurilingual and intercultural education

i. Language teachers

FREPA/CARAP – A Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches

This ECML publication promotes pluralistic approaches in language teaching, which involve learning activities drawing on more than one language or culture, in contrast to singular approaches that focus on a single language in isolation. By valuing learners' diverse linguistic and cultural repertoires, it can also strengthen teachers' motivation to create more inclusive, relevant and engaging learning experiences.

RECOLANG – Resources for assessing the home language competences of migrant pupils

This ECML resource supports the social and institutional recognition of home languages and the development of learners' plurilingual repertoires. By providing concrete assessment approaches and examples of practice, it can also increase teachers' motivation and confidence to value and build on learners' linguistic resources.

METLA – Mediation in teaching, learning and assessment

The ECML's METLA resources propose innovative and engaging ways for teachers to include cross-linguistic mediation in their everyday classroom practice. Their practical and accessible nature can enhance teachers' motivation to integrate mediation activities and support learners' plurilingual development.

Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

This guide encourages teachers to rethink curriculum and pedagogy in multilingual settings. The resulting changes can create uncertainty and increase workload but also enhance motivation through closer alignment with inclusive and democratic values.

Supporting multilingual classrooms

This initiative which is part of the ECML's Training and consultancy offer and is co-funded through the European Commission directly addresses the challenges teachers face in linguistically diverse classrooms. It can help to reduce stress and motivational fatigue by providing practical pedagogical support and examples of successful practice.

PluriMobil – Plurilingual and intercultural learning through mobility

PluriMobil supports intercultural and plurilingual learning in contexts of mobility and thus helps teachers to manage motivational challenges associated with intercultural communication and unfamiliar educational environments.

Autobiography of intercultural encounters (AIE)

This Council of Europe resource supports motivation by encouraging reflection on intercultural encounters, helping learners and teachers to develop awareness of attitudes, emotions and behaviours in intercultural situations. The AIE also strengthens motivation by linking learning to personal experience, autonomy and the development of intercultural competence.

ii. Language teacher educators

Explanatory memorandum attached to Recommendation CM/Rec(2022)1

The memorandum highlights the systemic changes needed to implement plurilingual and intercultural education. Teacher educators may experience tensions arising from institutional resistance and curriculum reform but also increased motivation thanks to the legitimacy granted by a policy that is aligned with their beliefs and practice.

Policy toolbox for plurilingual and intercultural education

Designed for both policy makers and teacher educators, the policy toolbox focuses on the key concepts addressed in [Recommendation CM/Rec \(2022\)1](#). Providing tailored advice on the use of selected Council of Europe resources, it aims at providing assistance with the successful implementation of the Recommendation.

Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture (RFCDC)

The RFCDC positions language teachers as supporters of democratic participation and intercultural dialogue. This broader social mission can strengthen motivation through a heightened sense of professional purpose and societal relevance.

Language(s) of schooling platform

This platform encourages teacher educators to integrate language awareness across the curriculum. While this broadens professional responsibilities, it also reinforces the central role of language education in educational equity and learner success.

Romani-Plurilingual Policy Experimentation (2022-2025)

This Council of Europe project explored some of the ways in which Romani language and culture can support the educational inclusion of Roma children. The project's [pedagogical guide](#) describes a large number of learning activities and classroom projects that can also be used with linguistically diverse learner populations.

Pluralistic teacher competences

This ECML resource supports teacher motivation by strengthening teachers' sense of competence, autonomy and confidence in multilingual and intercultural classrooms. It also helps teacher educators to foster reflective practice, collaboration and positive engagement with linguistic diversity.

3. Artificial intelligence, digitalisation and implications for motivation

i. Language teachers

Digital citizenship education

This Council of Europe resource helps teachers to come to terms with ethical and democratic dimensions of digital technologies. Teachers' motivation is likely to be boosted if they feel competent and confident in digitally mediated educational contexts.

E-LANG – Digital literacy for the teaching and learning of languages

The ECML's website for E-lang provides teachers with resources for designing authentic, socially embedded language-learning tasks that help learners become competent, autonomous language users and responsible digital citizens. By connecting language

learning with meaningful real-world communication, the approach can enhance learner motivation, engagement and sense of purpose.

E-LANG CITIZEN – Digital citizenship through language education

The E-lang citizen resources of the ECML provide a pedagogical framework for developing digital citizenship through authentic “real-life tasks” that combine language learning with active participation in society. By engaging learners in meaningful, reflective action, these activities enhance motivation while fostering both language skills and critical citizenship competences.

E-LANG highlights inclusive and participatory language practices that remain highly relevant in technology-rich classrooms. This resource helps teachers to maintain a human-centred perspective amid digital transformation.

ICT-REV inventory of ICT tools for language education

This ECML resource supports motivation by offering teachers a wide range of freely available digital tools that reduce preparation load, increase classroom creativity, and support learner engagement. It enhances teacher autonomy and competence by providing practical, ready-to-use ICT solutions for language teaching and learning, while also helping teacher educators to integrate digital pedagogy into training programmes.

ii. Language teacher educators

Council of Europe work on artificial intelligence and education

The Council of Europe promotes ethical and human-centred approaches to AI in education. These resources support teacher educators in their efforts to help future teachers to engage critically with AI while preserving professional autonomy and democratic values.

ECML Training and Consultancy resources

The ECML offers professional development opportunities related to digitally mediated language education. The support thus provided can strengthen teacher educator motivation by building competence and reducing uncertainty around technological change.

AI for language education (AI Lang)

This ECML project supports motivation by helping teachers and teacher educators to develop confidence, autonomy and pedagogical control in the use of AI tools. It frames

AI as a tool for reducing workload (planning, materials, assessment) while reinforcing teachers' sense of professional agency and ethical responsibility.

E-LANG and E-LANG CITIZEN target both teachers and teacher educators.

edl.ecml.at/motivation

