An exploration of L2 motivation and identity in the Japanese high school context.

Author: Andrew McCarthy

Thesis presented to the University of Limerick for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Supervisors: Dr Liam Murray and Professor Fiona Farr

Submitted to the University of Limerick, May 2019.
# Table of Contents

Abstract ........................................................................................................................................... i  
Declaration ...................................................................................................................................... ii  
Acknowledgements ...................................................................................................................... iii  
List of Figures .................................................................................................................................. iv  
List of Tables .................................................................................................................................... v  
List of Abbreviated Terms ................................................................................................................ vi  
PART 1 – THEORY AND METHOD ...................................................................................................... 1  
Chapter 1 – Background and SLA ...................................................................................................... 1  
  
1.1 - Introduction and Rationale ........................................................................................................ 1  
1.2 - Research Questions .................................................................................................................... 4  
1.3 - Key Concepts in SLA ................................................................................................................... 5  
  
1.3.1 - Interlanguage and Language Transfer ................................................................................. 5  
1.3.2 - Socio–Cultural Factors ......................................................................................................... 8  
1.4 - Early Pedagogic Approaches in SLA .......................................................................................... 9  
  
1.4.1 - The Grammar Translation Method ....................................................................................... 10  
1.4.2 - The Direct Approach .......................................................................................................... 12  
1.4.3 - The Audio-Lingual Method .................................................................................................. 13  
1.5 The Communicative Approach ..................................................................................................... 13  
  
1.5.1 - Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding ................................................................. 15  
1.5.2 - Comprehensible Input versus Comprehensible Output ....................................................... 16  
1.5.3- Interaction as Modified Input ............................................................................................... 18  
1.5.4 - L1 and L2 Codeswitching .................................................................................................... 19  
1.6 - Identity in Language Learning ................................................................................................... 21  
  
1.6.1 - Investment and Language learning .................................................................................... 22  
1.6.2 - Intercultural Language Learning ......................................................................................... 23
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter 2 - Motivation in Second Language Learning</th>
<th>30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 - An Overview of L2 Motivation Theory</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 - The Socio-Psychological Period</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1 - The Orientation Index</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2 - The Socio-Educational Model</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3 - Integrative Orientation in Different Social Contexts</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 - The Cognitive-Situated Period</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1 - L2 Motivation and Learner Engagement</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2 - Linguistic Self-Confidence</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3 - Attribution Theory</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.4 - Self-Efficacy Theory</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.5 - Goal Theory</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.6 - Self-Determination Theory</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.7 - Possible Selves</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.8 - William and Burden’s Extended Framework</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 - Process-Oriented Period</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.1 - Dörnyei’s Extended Framework</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.2 - A Process Model of L2 Motivation</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 - The Socio-Dynamic Period</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.1 - The L2 Motivational Self-System and the Future-Self</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.2 - A Person-in-Context Relational Approach</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.3 - Complex Dynamic Systems Theory</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.4 - Vision and Imagery in L2 Motivation</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.5 - Self-Regulation and Autonomy in L2 Motivation</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# 2.6 - L2 Motivation Research in the Japanese Context

- 2.6.1 - International Posture
- 2.6.2 - L2 Motivation and the (Japanese) Secondary School Context

# 2.7 - Future Directions for L2 Motivation research

- 2.7.1 - Directed Motivational Currents
- 2.7.2 - New Contextual Approaches to L2 Motivation

# 2.8 - Summary of Chapter 2

- Chapter 3 - Methodology
- 3.1 - Introduction to Chapter 3
- 3.2 - The Present Research Context
- 3.3 - The Participants
- 3.4 - A Mixed Methods Approach
- 3.5 - Action Research Approach
- 3.6 - The AR Journal Process
- 3.7 - Ethical Issues
- 3.8 - Other Relevant Research Methods
- 3.9 - Summary of Chapter 3
PART 2 - RESEARCH AND FINDINGS .......................................................... 135

Chapter 4 - L2 Learning Experience and L2 Identity ...................................... 135

4.1 - Introduction to Chapter 4 ................................................................. 135

4.2 - Overview of Procedure for Scoring the Survey .................................... 135

4.3 - Findings from the L2 Learning Experience Category ............................. 136

4.3.1 - Overall Attitude Towards Studying English .................................... 138

4.3.2 - Attitudes Towards Speaking English .............................................. 139

4.3.3 - Attitudes Towards English Movies, Music and Books ....................... 141

4.3.4 - Encouragement of Parents and Classmates .................................... 142

4.3.5 - The Importance of Reading versus Speaking .................................... 143

4.3.6 - Importance of Reading versus Speaking for Entering University ........ 144

4.4 - Findings from the L2 Identity Category ............................................ 145

4.4.1 - L2 Future Speaking Desires and Feelings ....................................... 147

4.4.2 - The Living, Working, Travelling L2 Future-self ............................... 148

4.4.3 - The Desire to Learn about People and Cultures from English-speaking Countries ................................................................. 149

4.4.4 - Participant Images of Future L2 Speaking Self ................................ 151

4.5 - Comparison between L2 Learning Experience and L2 Identity .......... 152

4.5.1 - Category Correlation ...................................................................... 154

4.5.1.1 - Extensive Reading and the Ought-to Self ..................................... 155

4.5.1.2 - L2 Past Role Models and the L2 Future Speaking Self .................. 157

4.5.1.3 - L2 Public Speaking Experience and Living/Working L2 Future-selves ........ 159

4.5.1.4 - L2 Public Speaking Experience and L2 Famous Role Models ....... 164

4.6 - Summary of Chapter 4 ...................................................................... 165

Chapter 5 - The Thematic Analysis .......................................................... 167

5.1 - Introduction to Chapter 5 .................................................................. 167

5.2 - Theme 1: L2 Interpersonal Relationships ........................................ 167

5.2.1 - Parental Influence on L2 Motivation .............................................. 168

5.2.2 - Teachers as L2 Role Models ......................................................... 174
Appendix 2 – Consent Forms (English and Japanese)................................. 308
Appendix 3 – Assent Forms (English and Japanese)................................. 310
Appendix 4 – Principals letter and certification ...................................... 312
Appendix 5 – The Survey ....................................................................... 314
Appendix 6 – The Interview Guide ......................................................... 317
Appendix 7 – Journal Process Information Letter ................................... 319
Abstract

Title: An exploration of L2 motivation and identity in the Japanese high school context.

Author/ Researcher: Andrew McCarthy

English education in Japan has been undergoing a transformation, especially in the last decade, in order to improve on the statically low levels of communicative ability in English among Japanese high school graduates, compared to other Asian countries. One of the main areas under investigation in Japan in recent years has been the apparent lack of motivation among Japanese high school students to study English at school. Despite the current interest in motivation and learning in Japan, qualitative research into high school learner opinions and thoughts regarding their own individual experiences of learning English, is still limited.

This study: (1) explores the individual learner experiences of high school students in Japan, (2) determines whether future-self identities exist among these students, (3) examines if there is a relationship between these language learning experiences and future-self identities, and (4) investigates if and how future-self identities can be nurtured to improve motivation in the second language classroom.

Qualitative and quantitative research was carried out by the researcher in a Japanese high school in order to investigate the language learning experiences and identities of the students in the school. This included carrying out surveys, interviews and journal studies with the participants. One of the main findings of the study was that students who possessed positive experiences of using English in their class with their teachers also possessed strong images of themselves using English in their future.

Ultimately, this research makes an overall contribution to the development of L2 motivation studies in an attempt to upturn downward trends in English language learning in Japan.
Declaration

I declare that the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged in the text. The material has not been submitted for a degree at this or any other university.

Andrew McCarthy
Acknowledgements

I would like to use this opportunity to express my sincerest gratitude to everyone who has helped and supported me over the last four years. This includes my family, friends, co-workers and all those who have stood by me during the course of the study.

In particular, I would like to express my appreciation to my supervisors, Dr Liam Murray and Dr Fiona Farr, whose guidance through-out the last four years has helped and encouraged me a great deal. Your patience and kindness in mentoring me through all stages of the study has been of great assistance.

In addition, I would like to thank all those who played a part in the study, including the principals and teachers in the school in which the study took place. I would also like to express my gratitude to all the participants who gave their time and energy to take part. Without their participation, it simply wouldn’t have been possible to carry out the study.

Finally, I would like to give a special mention to my wife and son who have afforded me the time and space on numerous occasions to complete this thesis.
List of Figures

Figure 3.1 – AR Framework for the Present Study ........................................ 114
Figure 4.1 – Overall Attitude Towards Studying .......................................... 139
Figure 4.2 – Attitude Towards Speaking English ........................................ 139
Figure 4.3 – Attitudes Towards English Movies, Music and Books ................... 141
Figure 4.4 – Encouragement from Parents and Classmates ............................. 142
Figure 4.5 – Importance of Reading v Speaking ............................................ 143
Figure 4.6 – Importance of Reading v Speaking for Entering University .......... 144
Figure 4.7 – L2 Future Speaking Desires and Feelings .................................. 147
Figure 4.8 - The Living, Working, Travelling Future L2 Self ........................... 148
Figure 4.9 – Desire to Learn about People and Cultures from English-speaking Countries .......................................................... 150
Figure 4.10 – Participant Images of Future L2 Speaking Self .......................... 151
Figure 4.11 – Comparison between L2 Learning Experience & L2 Identity ........ 153
Figure 4.12 Relationship between Extensive Reading and the Ought-to Self ...... 156
Figure 4.13 – Possible Correlation between Willingness to Speak in the L2 to an English Teacher and Willingness to Start a Conversation with a Foreigner ........... 158
Figure 4.14 – Possible Correlation between Speaking English in Class and Willingness to Live/ Work Abroad .............................................................. 160
Figure 4.15 – L2 Public Speaking and L2 Famous Role Models ..................... 164
Figure 5.1 – Theme 1: Interpersonal Relationships ........................................ 168
Figure 5.2 – How Often Participants Think L2 Should be Used in the Classroom 186
Figure 5.3 – Past L2 Experiences .................................................................. 196
Figure 5.4 – Preferred Type of English University Entrance Exam ............... 209
Figure 6.1 – Imagined L2 Use in 10 Years ..................................................... 216
Figure 6.2 – L2 Future-Self Images and L2 Interpersonal Relationships .......... 227
Figure 6.3 – L2 Future-Self Images and L2 Use in the Classroom .................. 230
Figure 6.4 – L2 Future-Selves and L2 Learning Experiences .......................... 232
Figure 6.5 – L2 Future-Self and Willingness to Take a Speaking Exam ......... 234
List of Tables

Table 3.1 - Overview of implementation of methodology ........................................ 8 6
Table 3.2 – Participant Profiles .................................................................................. 9 0
Table 3.3 - Thematic analysis framework used in the present thesis ......................... 1 0 8
Table 3.4 – Themes and Sub-Themes for Thematic Interview Analysis ...................... 1 0 9
Table 3.5 – Time Frame for Journal Data Collection ................................................. 1 1 6
Table 4.1 – Description of Scoring Used in the Survey ............................................. 1 3 6
Table 4.2 – Survey Results for L2 Experience Category .............................................. 1 3 7
Table 4.3 – Survey Results for L2 Identity Category ................................................... 1 4 6
Table 4.4 - 2 X 2 Contingency Table for Fisher Exact Test – (Hypothetical) ............ 1 5 5
Table 7.1 – Lesson Plan 1 ......................................................................................... 2 4 2
Table 7.2 – Lesson Plan 2 ......................................................................................... 2 4 6
Table 7.3 – Lesson Plan 3 ......................................................................................... 2 5 0
Table 7.4 – Lesson Plan 4 ......................................................................................... 2 5 3
Table 7.5 – Lesson Plan 5 ......................................................................................... 2 5 7
Table 7.6 – Lesson Plan 6 ......................................................................................... 2 6 2
Table 8.1 – Integrated findings from different data sets ............................................. 2 6 5
Table 8.2 – Strategies for Increasing L2 use in the L2 Classroom ......................... 2 7 1
Table 8.3 – L2 Classroom Strategies for Communicative Exam Preparation ............ 2 7 3
List of Abbreviated Terms

AAA: Awareness, Autonomy, Authenticity
ALT: Assistant Language Teacher
AR: Action Research
CBI: Content Based Instruction
CDS: Complex Dynamic Systems
CET: Cognitive Evaluation Theory
CLL: Cooperative Language Learning
CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT: Communicative Language Teaching
EFL: English as a Foreign Language
EM: Extrinsic Motivation
ER: Ethnographic Research
ESL: English as a Second Language
FTP: Future Time Perspective
IM: Intrinsic Motivation
JET: Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme
JT: Japanese Translation
L1: First Language
L2: Second Language
L2MSS: L2 Motivational Self System
LP: Language Pedagogy
MEXT: Japanese Ministry of Education
OECD: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

P: Participant

PCOI: Present Communities of Imagining

PPP: Present, Practice, Production

R: Researcher

SA: Study Abroad

SCT: Sociocultural Theory

SDT: Self-Determination Theory

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TBI: Tasked Based Instruction

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

TOIEC: Test of English for International Communication

TPR: Total Physical Response

TT: Turn Taking

WTC: Willingness to Communicate Theory

ZDP: Zone of Proximal Development
PART 1 – THEORY AND METHOD

Chapter 1 – Background and SLA

1.1 - Introduction and Rationale

In a recent study carried out by the Japanese ministry of education, 58.4% of 3rd year high school students stated that they do not like studying English (Japan Today, 2015). The survey was conducted at 480 high schools nationwide, encompassing about 70,000 students (age 17 to 18). This statistic may not necessarily have been a surprise to English teachers and researchers in Japan and various reasons ranging from a lack of teacher training to the washback effect of the university entrance exams have been offered as an explanation (Underwood, 2012). MEXT (The Japanese Ministry of Education) has not been blind to the issue either, and they have been attempting to address the apparent crisis in English education in Japan for some time.

In 2013, MEXT, stated in a policy document that English classes in high school were to be conducted in English ‘in principle’ (cited in ajet.net) under a new course of study. This caused a ‘heated nationwide discussion’ (Tsukamoto & Tsujioka, 2013: 309), and put Japanese high school English teachers at the centre of the debate. This was not the first policy document to be released by MEXT concerning English education in Japan, however it was the first to broach the subject of the use of English in the L2 (second language) classroom. This has also forced researchers and English teachers in Japan to come up with new ways for Japanese English teachers to teach English as it seems they can no longer rely on simply translating English texts into Japanese and conducting their classes mostly in Japanese (Clark, 2009).
MEXT has been using the up and coming 2020 Tokyo Olympics as the driving force for this change of English language policy (Mainichi Japan, 2018), as a massive influx of English-speaking foreign visitors is expected for the games.

2020 is also the date when universities in Japan will introduce a new and more communicative English entrance exam that will focus less on multiple choice answers to reading and listening tasks and more on speaking and writing. They plan to use eight private English language testing companies to assess not only the reading and listening abilities of the examinees, but also their speaking and writing skills; using more communicate testing procedures, such as oral interviews and short essay style questions. The eight tests are the Cambridge English exam series, the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), the Global Test of English Communication (GTEC), the Test of English for Academic Purposes (TEAP), the Test of English for Academic Purposes Computer Based Test (TEAP CBT), Eiken, or the Test in Practical English Proficiency, and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Among school students, the most popular of these exams is Eiken, due to its low cost, number and convenience of testing locations, and the ability to take the test at 5 different levels, from beginner to advanced (level 3, pre-2, 2, pre-1, and 1).

However, certain realities look sure to obstruct their plans. MEXT has stated that by the time high school students have graduated from high school they should have obtained an Eiken level of grade pre-2 or higher (roughly equivalent to a low-mid intermediate level of communicative ability). This is in stark contrast with reality however, as in 2018, only 39.3% of high school 3rd year students (age 17 to 18) had obtained this level (Mainichi Japan, 2018). Since the 3rd year of high school is the final
year of 3 years of study before graduation, the obtainment level of 39.3% is a disappointment for MEXT. There is also another overriding factor that is causing headaches for MEXT. Their decision to increase the number of universities from about 500, in the early 1990s, to almost 800 today, has resulted in a massive over supply of universities (Brasor, 2017). This means that Japanese 18 year olds, whose numbers have been in steady decline due to a decreasing population, are in great demand by universities in Japan and universities are competing with each other to attract students (Brasor, 2017). This has led to a decline in standards and a steady decline in world university rankings for Japanese universities (McCrostie, 2017). If universities are so desperate to attract high school graduates it is hard to imagine how they are going to implement a more stringent admissions policy, based on students having to pass exams that expect a higher level of English ability.

MEXT’s overreliance on top down policy changes, such as attempting to enforce classes to be conducted through the medium of English in high school and introducing more communicative, yet stringent, university entrance exams, may not be enough then to improve the overall English fluency and communicative ability of Japanese high school students. It may be that a more bottom-up approach is needed, utilising research that focuses on the thoughts and opinions of the students themselves in relation to what they are experiencing in the English classroom and what exactly they want out of their English education. Researchers in the area of SLA (second language acquisition) would seem to agree that qualitative studies of individual learners’ experiences in different contexts and settings may be a more effective way to investigate what motivates them to learn a language (Ushioda, 2009; Block, 2014; Ellis, 2015). It is hoped, in the present study, that by focusing on the learners’ own language experiences
and their individual language learning goals, a clearer picture may emerge of how best teachers and learners can work together to create a language learning environment that fosters and nurtures learners’ motivations to study English.

1.2 - Research Questions

In order to investigate the English learning experiences of students in Japanese high school context and to explore if and how they see themselves using English in their futures, the present study asks the following research questions:

1. What are the language learning experiences of Japanese high school students?
   - In terms of their experiences of learning English at school, traveling or living abroad, with a private language teacher, or with the aid of books, music and media.

2. How do Japanese high school students see themselves using English in the future?
   - In terms of, and for example, whether they could imagine themselves studying abroad or using English in the workplace in Japan.

3. Is there a relationship between the language learning experiences of Japanese high school students and how they see themselves using English in the future?
   - In other words, does a learner with a positive English language learning experience also have a clear idea of how they will use English in their future?
   - Also, do learners with negative English language learning experiences lack a clear image of how they will use English in their future?

Before exploring the language learning experiences of high school students and
investigating how motivation to learn English has an effect on their acquisition of English, it is necessary to look at the various theories and frameworks in the area of second language acquisition (SLA).

1.3 - Key Concepts in SLA

In order to contextualise L2 motivation research within the wider field of SLA, Section 1.3 – 1.5 of Chapter 1 will provide for an overview of relevant theories in this area; such as, interlanguage, language transfer, socio-cultural factors and L2 identity. This includes theories and pedagogical practices specifically relevant to the Japanese context, such as the grammar translation method, which will be examined in Section 1.4.

1.3.1 - Interlanguage and Language Transfer

In the 1950s and 1960s, it was generally believed that L2 learner errors were mostly due to transfer from the L1, which interfered with the acquisition of the L2 and as such, translation of L2 texts into the L1 was considered to be the best way to limit these errors (Benson, 2002: 68). The 1970s however, saw a reaction against this view, and it was believed that the L2 could be acquired independently of and in the same way as the L1 is acquired by children (Benson, 2002: 68). However, since Corder (1967) suggested that learner errors give us an insight into the system that learners use to acquire a second language, linguists such as Selinker (1972), began to question the ‘new orthodoxy’ (Benson, 2002: 68) in the 1970s that L2 acquisition developed independently of the L1 (cited in Lavoie, 2003: 20). Selinker argued that utterances for most learners of a second language were not identical to that of the target language, and
as such a separate language existed, which he referred to as interlanguage (1972, cited in Lavoie, 2003: 21).


1. Language transfer
Language transfer is divided into positive and negative language transfer. The former relates to grammar and vocabulary that transfers easily from one language to another. An example would be between Spanish and English, which have similar rules relating to grammar and syntax. An example of negative transfer would be Japanese and English, where, for example, rules relating to sentence structure and the use of personal pronouns are often the direct opposite.

2. Strategies for communication
An example of a strategy that L2 learners often use when communicating in the L2 is circumlocution. This occurs when an L2 speaker does not know the appropriate word and therefore uses another word with a similar meaning. There are also other strategies that L2 users can use, such as topic avoidance and language switching.

3. Transfer of training
This refers to the way the L2 is taught to learners by L2 teachers and the pedagogy they use. In Japan the method of teaching used by the vast majority of Japanese English teachers is 訳読 (yakudoku – grammar translation). It is ‘a largely discredited teaching method’ (Lavoie, 2003: 25) which involves directly translating texts from English to Japanese. Common errors among Japanese English speakers such as, ‘I went to shopping’ and ‘I came back to home’ may be a direct result of this method. This method
will be discussed further later in this chapter.

4. Strategies of second language learning

One of the main ways or strategies that learners can use to test out some of the language they have been learning in the classroom is to try using it with a native or fluent speaker. This may allow for a negotiation of meaning to take place between the L2 learner and the native or fluent speaker, where L2 communication skills can be refined in a practical and possibly more authentic setting.

5. Over-generalisation

Over – generalisation is related to point 3 and 4, but also suggests that L2 learners often over – generalise or simplify complicated rules relating to grammar to make it easier for them to communicate in the L2, especially if the over-generalisation does not impede meaning. This is also something that children do, for example, when they are forming the past tense and using ‘ed’, even though they may not be certain whether it is the correct form, they are aware that it will have the same meaning or illocutionary effect.

These processes are what Lightbrown is referring to when she states that in order for second language acquisition to take place, the learner must ‘notice’ the difference between their interlanguage and the target language (2000: 439). She also suggests that this could mean a combination of learning by being exposed to a target language either inside or outside of the classroom and the conscious learning and ‘awareness’ that is necessary for L2 development. Schmidt (2010), coined the phrase ‘noticing the gap’, to refer to the process by which L2 speakers learn from the differences that they have noticed between the native speaker input they are exposed to and their own attempts to produce the L2.
Cook goes even further to suggest that interlanguage is not just a linguistic system comprising the L1 and L2 of each individual learner but rather ‘involves the whole mind of the speaker’, and refers to this as multi-competence (2012: 2). The concept of multi-competence puts a sense of greater importance on the multi-competent speaker, and allows us to view a multi-competent speaker as someone to be taken more seriously, with rights, and not a defective speaker, as the term L2 speaker may infer (Cook, 2012: 3). This, according to Cook, has important implications for language teachers, as the present native speaker model, which is dominant in many countries, including Japan, could give way to the multi-competent speaker who could be better placed to supplement use of the L2 with the L1 when necessary in the classroom. It is therefore important in the present study to investigate if multi competent Japanese L2 teachers can act as role models for encouraging the use of English in the L2 classroom (see Section 1.6.1).

1.3.2 - Socio – Cultural Factors

At the same time as SLA researchers began to view L2 learners as multi-competent speakers with an interlanguage, they began to see that ‘the social context in which learners live and work has an effect on how successful they are in learning an L2’ (Ellis, 2015: 206). In other words, the linguistic similarities and differences of a learner’s first language are not the only factor influencing their acquisition of an L2, and social factors, such as whether the L2 group is considered to be superior or inferior to the L1 group, could be just as important. SLA researchers (Block, 2014; Ellis, 2015) identify two main socio-cultural models that began the ‘social turn’ in SLA theory - Schumann’s acculturation model and Gardner’s
socio-educational model (Block, cited in Ellis, 2015: 205). Schumann’s acculturation model ‘aimed to account for the item success of immigrants in second language settings’ (Ellis, 2015: 206), and it included a number of social factors which aimed to identify the relationship between the L2 group and L1 group. However, according to Ellis, studies carried out to test this model had ‘mixed results’ and in contrast to the socio-educational model, ‘it was not applicable to classroom settings’ (2015: 208/209). Gardner’s social educational model therefore, is of more relevance to the present study, as it is applicable to SLA and pedagogy in the classroom, particularly in classrooms where the L2 is not the dominant language in the context in which the L2 learning in taking place. See Chapter 2 for a more detailed look at Gardner’s socio-educational model.

1.4 - Early Pedagogic Approaches in SLA

The relationship between SLA and LP (language pedagogy) ‘is a problematic one’ (Ellis, 1997: 69) and it is often said that there is ‘a lack of communication’ (Block, 2000: 130) between SLA researchers and language teachers. However, considering SLA theories and research are ‘one component of teachers’ knowledge base for teaching’ (Lightbrown, 2000: 453), it seems only natural to assume that there exists a relationship between the two. SLA theorists (Ellis, 1997; Block, 2000) argue that they are not under any obligation to provide a practical aspect to their research, although they do acknowledge that there is a need for researchers ‘to attend to the how of application as well as the what’ (Ellis, 1997: 88). In other words, there is a need for research to be carried out into how exactly practitioners ‘transform’ (Ellis, 1997: 88) SLA theory and research into practice in the L2 classroom. Before we look at ways in which this transformation takes place in the present context and setting, it is important to first of all
look at the dominant theories and frameworks in the area of second language pedagogy.

**1.4.1 - The Grammar Translation Method**

In Western countries in the 19th century, schools began teaching classical literature from foreign countries. However, there was a need to firstly translate these texts into the L1 and the method of doing so was called ‘grammar translation’ (Malone, 2012: 4). This method also focused on teaching the rules of grammar by focusing attention on single written sentences and was an efficient way to learn grammar and vocabulary (Gorsuch, 1998: 8). This method has largely fallen out of favour in Western countries, due to a lack of oral and aural proficiency, however it continues to be the main method of instruction in schools in Asian countries (Gorsuch, 1998: 7; Malone, 2012: 4). Mart (2013), in his study of the opinions of some teachers who advocate for the use of grammar translation, highlights a number of advantages of using this method. He states that it is a quick and meaningful way to help us ‘acquire a foreign language with ease’ and that teachers like using this method because they can ‘assume the intelligence of their students’ and ensure that they can understand what is being said in the classroom (2013: 103). It is difficult to argue with the opinion that the grammar translation method is a quick and efficient way to teach vocabulary and grammar, however as Mart does not elaborate on what he means by ‘acquire a foreign language with ease’, it is difficult to determine whether he is referring to communicative ability or the ability to read and decipher foreign texts.

In Japan, 訳読 (yakudoku – grammar translation) is the method of instruction that is still dominant in schools and although it bears many similarities to the grammar translation method it has some significant differences (Gorsuch, 1998: 8). Firstly, in
yakudoku, the focus is on translating a foreign language text into Japanese, and while grammar instruction may take place, it is secondary. Grammar translation, however, focuses on a few grammatical structures and a list of vocabulary. The second major difference, according to Gorsuch (1998), is that, in yakudoku, once the text has been translated into Japanese this translated version becomes the focus of further study. In grammar translation however, there is more of a two-way exchange between the L2 and L1 and vice versa. Gorsuch (1998), also highlights a number of drawbacks to yakudoku. She states that it promotes 受験 英語 (juken eigo - English for examination purposes). In other words, Japanese school teachers are using this approach as the best way to prepare students for university English entrance exams (see subsequent chapters for more on the washback effect of these exams). She also states that yakudoku means that teachers are mostly using Japanese in the L2 classroom and that yakudoku is all about ‘teacher control’ (1998: 27). Here she alludes to the possible real reason for the continued preference for the use of yakudoku and instruction in Japanese by Japanese teachers of English, and that it allows them to maintain control over a class, whereas, a more communicative approach using English as the main means of instruction, may result in a loss of control and discipline. Further study may be needed in this area to shed more light on whether there is a link between a lack of discipline in the L2 classroom at school and the use of the L2 as a means of instruction, however, Gorsuch’s study does highlight the importance of the perceived notion among Japanese teachers of English that use of the L2 as a means of instruction in the L2 classroom is linked to a loss of control and discipline. Despite the continued preference among Japanese teachers of English for the use of grammar translation and yakudoku, there are other methods that they use in the L2 classroom, such as the audio-lingual method and other
oral approaches, which will be looked at subsequently.

1.4.2 - The Direct Approach

By the late 19th century, linguists in Europe began to emphasise that ‘speech rather than the written word, was the primary form of language’ (Richards and Rodgers, 2014: 10), and linguists in countries such as Germany began to develop methods to teach foreign languages that emphasised the importance of speaking and listening skills, above the more academic study of written texts. Possibly the most widely used and well known of these approaches is the direct method, which was made famous by Maximilian Berlitz who went on to coin the term ‘the Berlitz method’ through its use in Berlitz schools around the world and even to this day – especially in Japan. The method incorporated a number of procedures which include, instruction being exclusively in the target language with a question and answer format based on graded vocabulary and grammar. It also highlighted the importance of the spoken word over the use of textbooks.

Out of a desire to find an approach that offered more attention to grammatical structure and form, the direct approach began to fall out of favour in the 1920s in Europe (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 13). In America, the direct approach, based on the British model, was also beginning to fall out of favour, and during the Second World War, the immediate need for fluency among government personnel in languages such as Chinese, Japanese and German, led to the need for a more oral-based approach to language teaching (Hanchey, 1974: 1). Leonard Bloomfield, the American linguist, had been gaining prominence for his work in documenting Native American languages through oral methods, as there was no written documentation of these languages.
At the same time, the behaviourist B.F. Skinner, argued that ‘children learn languages based on behaviourist reinforcement principles by associating words with meaning’ (Lemetyinen, 2012: 2). These theories and methods added weight to the argument for a more oral-based approach in mainstream language teaching at the time (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 65).

1.4.3 - The Audio-Lingual Method

Bloomfield and Skinner’s work influenced the linguist Charles Fries, who developed an oral approach to language teaching which would become known as the audio-lingual method (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 59). Similar to methods carried out by Bloomfield and Skinner, the audio-lingual approach emphasised the importance of the practice of grammatical structures with repetitive drills. It was believed that continuous repetition of commonly used structures over many hours of practice would lead to eventual fluency. Researchers, however, have pointed out that this approach cannot be implemented in contexts where it is ‘not well suited’ (Lightbrown, 2000: 436). Also, and most significantly, the emergence of Noam Chomsky and his theory of transformational grammar in the 1960s was to profoundly change the course of theory and research in applied linguistics and SLA as ‘the whole audiolingual paradigm was called into question’ (Richards and Rodgers, 2014: 72).

1.5 The Communicative Approach

At the same time that Chomsky’s theories began a move away from a more structured, formalised way of teaching and learning languages in America, there was an urgent need in Europe for pedagogy that allowed for speakers of different languages to
be able to communicate in the new economic market (Richards and Rodgers, 2014: 84). One of the earliest uses of the word communicative in relation to language learning theory, and in particular language competence, was the concept and term ‘communicative competence’ (Hymes, 1972). Hymes agreed with Chomsky’s theory of grammatical competence, however he also viewed that knowledge of language must include tacit knowledge and ability for use (1972). In other words, contextual and cultural knowledge could be just as important as linguistic knowledge for language acquisition. Chomsky had previously viewed these as separate and referred to them as competence and performance - the former referring to the ‘mental representation of the grammatical rules that comprise a speaker–hearer’s mental grammar, while performance involves the use of language for comprehension and production’ (Ellis, 2015: 6).

An often-quoted study of the communicative approach is that carried out by Canale and Swain (1980). In their research they assess the above and other theories of CLT and propose a three-part framework for communicative competence. This includes, grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. The first two follow closely the theories of Hymes and state that knowledge of grammatical structures and appropriate use in context are both necessary. Strategic competence, knowledge of coping strategies such as circumlocution, is something that Canale and Swain also view as an important component of communicative competence. It is less clear however, how such knowledge could be implemented in the classroom and as Canale and Swain point out it is ‘most likely to be acquired through experience in real-life communication situations but not through classroom practice’ (1980: 31). One concept which could be directly applied to language learning in the classroom, and which was to have an important influence on the development of the communicative approach to language teaching and
learning, was the zone of proximal development.

1.5.1 - Zone of Proximal Development and Scaffolding

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is a concept which was originally developed by the Soviet psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978). It was originally used as a collaborative learning technique among groups of children in Soviet schools, where higher level learners helped lower level learners find solutions to problems that were set by their teachers (McLeod: 2012). Vygotsky described the term as ‘the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers’ (Vygotsky, 1978: 86). Ellis states that ZPD is a ‘key construct in sociocultural theory’ and views it as ‘not so much a cognitive construct as a socially constructed activity’ (2015: 217).

ZPD is synonymous with the term ‘scaffolding’ (McLeod, 2012; Richards and Rodgers, 2014: 28) which was introduced by Wood et al. (1976; cited in McLeod, 2012). Scaffolding, as the name suggests, could be described as a metaphor for a collaborative learning technique whereby a teacher or peer, initially supports a learner and then slowly removes the support or scaffolding as the learner ‘masters the task’ (McLeod: 2012). Even though both of these concepts emerged in the late 1970s, Vygotsky never referred to the term scaffolding in his research (McLeod, 2012). This could have been due to the fact that Vygotsky considered himself to be a psychologist first and foremost, whereas, the theory of scaffolding was directed more towards teaching and learning practices in the classroom. A lot of current communicative approaches to language learning, such as CLIL and task-based learning (which will be
discussed later in this chapter), ‘attribute an important role to the process of scaffolding
learning’ (Richards and Rodgers, 2014: 28).

1.5.2 - Comprehensible Input versus Comprehensible Output

Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules and does
not require tedious drills.

Stephen Krashen (cited in Schutz: 2017: 1)

The above quote from Stephen Krashen, summarises his controversial views on
language acquisition, which are the basis for his natural approach to language teaching.
Krashen developed his theories in the late 1970s at the University of Southern
California along with Terrell, who developed similar views while teaching Spanish.
Together they argued for what they referred to as a natural approach to language
teaching and acquisition, and viewed ‘communication as the primary function of
language’ (Richards and Rodgers, 2014: 262). Krashen further developed this theory to
include a number of components which comprise five main hypotheses: 1. The
acquisition/learning hypothesis, 2. The monitor hypothesis, 3. The natural order
hypothesis, 4. The input hypothesis, and 5. The affective filter hypothesis (Richards and

The most relevant of these hypothesis for the present study, the affective filter
hypothesis, refers to the ‘emotional states or attitudes’ (Richards and Rodgers, 2014,
266) that affect or impede the language acquisition process. These include: 1.
Motivation, 2. Self-confidence and, 3. Anxiety. The effects of each of these attributes
have been researched and written about extensively, however as motivation is of
primary concern to the present study, only this attribute will be investigated further here.
– see Chapter 2 for a full investigation of theories relating to motivation in language learning.

One of the most outspoken critics of Krashen’s theory of comprehensible input, is Swain (1985), who coined the term comprehensible output, in direct reference and opposition to the former. Swain disagreed with Krashen’s insistence of putting more weight on the importance of input, rather than output for successful language acquisition and maintained that ‘the learner’s output has an independent and indispensable role to play’ (cited in Liming, 1990: 9). In her study into the role that output and in particular interaction plays in the process of L2 acquisition, Liming (1990) showed that her attempts to interact with native speakers and try out some of the language that she had learned in the classroom, led directly to successful acquisition of the L2. This, she states, was achieved by highlighting her own awareness of the gap between her utterances and those of native speakers, during interaction in the L2, and ‘reflecting upon them every day’ (1990: 11). This awareness of the importance of the role that output and interaction play in L2 acquisition was influential in the conception of the communicative approach, and it also shows the trickledown from SLA theory to pedagogy.

Nunan also highlights a significant weakness with the approach taken by Krashen, by stating that it does not take into account ‘social aspects of the learning environment’ (Nunan, 1988: 52). In other words, because each learning environment is different to the next, due to a number of social and cultural factors in different contexts, individuals and groups will react differently to different approaches and methods in the L2 classroom. Breen eloquently refers to this as ‘the day-to-day interpersonal rationalisations of what is to be done, why and how’ (1984: 149; cited in Nunan, 1988:
52). This adds weight to the present study’s emphasis on a more person-to-person interpersonal approach to investigating the individual, day-to-day, language learning experiences of learners, which will be investigated in Part 2 of the present thesis.

However controversial Krashen’s theories are, it is possible to say that they have had a significant impact on theory and practice in SLA, due at least in part to the amount of attention that is paid to debating his approach. In addition, and according to Hedge, although researchers in the field of SLA are still debating the relationship between acquisition and learning, there are a number of benefits to Krashen’s theory of comprehensible input (2000: 11). She highlights the fact that it confirms the need for learners to be exposed to a level of L2 input that is slightly above their level of learning. Also, and most significantly, it also confirms the need for teachers to not only provide their students with instruction in the L2 but to also tailor their teacher talk to make it comprehensible to the learner. This is also important to the present study in that it highlights the role of the L2 teacher in providing instruction mostly in the L2, and the subsequent effect it has on a learner’s L2 motivation. This will be investigated in Part 2 of the present thesis.

1.5.3- Interaction as Modified Input

The debate described in section 1.5.2 between whether input or output is more important for L2 acquisition, has also led to the debate about what kind of output is needed, and if indeed it is as important or even more important than input. Long (1980) argues that even though comprehensible input is important for L2 acquisition, ‘modified input’ is just as important (cited in Sarem and Shirzadi, 2014: 66). By modified input, he is referring to the interactions that take place either in the classroom or outside of the
classroom, between native speakers and non-native speakers, whereby native speakers modify their speech during interactions to make themselves understood by non-native speakers. Long (1996) expands his theory into an ‘interaction hypothesis’ and refers to the negotiation of meaning that takes place in different contexts that is ‘a crucial element of the language acquisition process’ (cited in Sarem and Shirzadi, 2014: 65).

In their detailed study of whether certain grammatical constructions could be acquired by merely input in the L2 or output in the form of L2 interaction, Spada and Lightbrown (1999) confirmed that input alone could not account for L2 acquisition. They state that ‘complex interactions’ in the L2 are necessary for successful acquisition of certain grammatical constructions and that ‘instructional input’ contributes further to the complexity of this interaction (1999: 17). Even though they fail to elaborate on what exactly they mean by ‘instructional input’, it is fair to presume that this may refer to teacher instruction in the L2 that resembles modified input, with a focus on form and negotiation of meaning. Gass and Varonis would seem to agree, and state that ‘interaction serves to focus learners’ attention on form’ (1993: 300).

Interaction as modified input demonstrates why using the L2 in the classroom, for at the very least part of the class, is entirely necessary. It also poses the question of when and how often teachers should use the L1 in conjunction with the L2. Section 1.5.6 below demonstrates how teachers and even students can switch between the L1 and the L2 in the classroom.

1.5.4 - L1 and L2 Codeswitching

The theory behind the role of the first language has, to a certain extent, already been explored earlier in this chapter with a discussion on interlanguage. Research in the
last decade however, has focused on the pedagogical implications of using the L1 in the L2 classroom with particular attention paid to when and how often to use it, along with the roles that students and teachers play in determining its use (Turnbull and Daily-O’Cain, 2009). The focus of much of this study has been on an exploration of codeswitching, which is a term used to describe how bilingual or multilingual speakers switch between languages when they are speaking, depending on who they are talking to and the context in which they are talking. In his study of teachers of a French immersion course in Canada, Turnbull reported that even though the administrators and teachers of the course had decided on a strict ‘French only’ policy at the outset of the course, English was used ‘to some extent’ during the first month of classes (2009; 32). Daily-O’Cain also found that codeswitching was beneficial for both learners and teachers during a study of a German language course in Canada, and as a result argued for the ‘reconceptualization’ of the foreign language classroom as a bilingual environment and language learners as ‘aspiring bilinguals’ (2009: 131). However, in the Japanese foreign language environment and in particular the high school context, advocating for codeswitching and referring to Japanese high school students as aspiring bilinguals, may prove more problematic. Hayashi states that learning English in the EFL context can be difficult as motivation may be low due to a lack of exposure to English, and for this reason he concludes that Japanese learners need to be ‘trained to engage in language studies that they don’t find enjoyable’ (2009: 11). This would seem to be a rather bleak assessment of the success of the use of the L2 in encouraging higher levels of motivation among EFL learners. Hayashi also fails to expand on what he means by ‘trained to engage in language studies’, but it could be interpreted as advocating for more L2 use by L2 teachers to promote L2 exposure regardless of whether this
encourages more extrinsic rather than intrinsic motivation (see Chapter 2 for a detailed description of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation). Nevertheless, the debate about the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom and whether codeswitching is a help or a hindrance to L2 acquisition, has yet to be settled (Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain, 2009: 2). The idea of reframing the language learner as an aspiring bilingual rather than ‘a poor imitator of the monolingual speaker’ (Turnbull and Daily-O’Cain, 2009: 1) does, however, raise the issue of identity and the role that this plays in language learning.

Therefore, interaction and communication in the L2 is considered not only important but necessary by SLA researchers in order for L2 acquisition to take place. In section 1.5.6 above, we have also looked at the role that codeswitching plays in allowing L2 teachers and learners to use both the L1 and L2 in the classroom. Interacting and codeswitching between the L1 and the L2 in a learning environment, may require both teachers and learners to look beyond traditional British or American L1 role models. It may require the assumption of an ‘other’ identity for the purposes of language acquisition. It is necessary therefore to investigate the role that identity plays in language learning.

1.6 - Identity in Language Learning

Identity is of course a very broad area that overlaps into fields as varied as sociology, psychology and even anthropology (Block, 2007: 4), and identity in relation to sociolinguistics is not a restricted field of study either. Identity in relation to second language learning is a more specific area of study that overlaps into sociolinguistics and focuses on issues such as race, gender and age and how these social factors can shape a learner's L2 identity. Theorists who have focused on the role that identity plays in
second and foreign language learning, have developed theories for understanding how identity can shape the way languages are learned and vice versa.

1.6.1 - Investment and Language learning

Norton (2013) has carried out extensive research into identity and language learning and her theory of investment builds on earlier work carried out on motivation and language learning in Canada (see Chapter 2). Her theory of investment states that language learners are invested in the language that they are learning and this refers to ‘the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language, and their often ambivalent desire to learn and practice it’ (Norton, 2013: 50). In other words, Norton is arguing that language learners’ past and present histories or life experiences tie them to the language that they are learning and the extent to which these factors tie them to the target language is the extent to which they are invested in this language. The higher the investment, the higher the return learners will expect on their investment. This theory of investment may fall under the umbrella of motivation and language learning, however, Norton argues that it is possible to be highly motivated to learn a language but not invested in it, on the other hand, she states that an invested learner would ‘most likely be’ a motivated learner (2013: 3). This is an interesting way to view how L2 identities can shape and be shaped by the target language, but it is by no means the only way to theorise this and the theory of instrumentalism in relation to L2 motivation has many similarities with the theory of investment - see Chapter 2 for a detailed explanation of instrumentalism.
1.6.2 - Intercultural Language Learning

Another area of identity and language learning that shows how learning a target language can influence identity, is intercultural language learning (Block, 2007: 141). Intercultural language learning is a term used to describe how the learning of languages and the learning of other cultures often go hand in hand. This also gives rise to the terms intercultural speaker and intercultural competence (Block, 2007: 142). The former refers to a learner who can operate, linguistically between two or more cultures, due to their knowledge of their own culture and their awareness of the culture of the language that they are learning. Intercultural competence refers to the ability to operate between cultures, and it draws obvious parallels with the term communicative competence which was discussed earlier in this chapter.

Both the theories of investment and intercultural competence are directly related to not only L2 identity but also the broader field of L2 motivation. Ellis (2015) draws a direct comparison between the theory of investment and his theory of a learner’s commitment to learn a foreign language. Norton acknowledges this comparison and also highlights how in the field of motivation and language learning, ‘attempts have been made to quantify a learner’s commitment to learning the target language’ (Norton, 2013: 50). This connection between L2 identity and L2 motivation is explored further in Chapter 2 of this thesis, along with a detailed look at theories and research in the field of motivation in second language learning.
1.6.3 - Imagined Communities

The termed ‘imagined communities’ was first coined by Anderson (1991) who argued that nations were actually imagined communities of people who identify with one another as they have never actually met the vast majority of those people. Wenger (1998) also theorised that imagination was a form of engagement with ‘communities of practice’ (1998: 74). Research on imagined communities in relation to language learning (Norton, 2000; Kanno, 2003; Kanno and Norton, 2003; Pavlenko and Norton, 2007) has shown how imagined communities can assist in the construction of L2 identities in language learners. These studies have focused on the role that imagination can play in influencing motivation and forming L2 identities for groups or clusters in ‘postcolonial, global, ethnic, multilingual and gendered identities’ (Pavlenko and Norton, 2007: 589). This is relevant to the present study which investigated the role that imagination plays in forming L2 future-self identities among high school students - see Chapter 2 for more on L2 future-selves. For example, a high school student who has little or no opportunity to engage with the L2 target community, might imagine themselves engaging with an imagined community of L2 speakers. However, as L2 learners can find it difficult to ‘imagine themselves as someone using English’ (Kojima Takahashi, 2013: 6), they often look to L2 role models for inspiration.

1.6.4 - L2 Role Models

When discussing the influence that L2 role models have on L2 acquisition it is important to note that there is a distinction between L2 role models who encourage L2 learners in their L2 acquisition and those who the learner would like to emulate. It was
therefore necessary to take this into consideration when looking at the data gathered from participant responses – see Section 8.2.1.

Research in the area of L2 role models draws on earlier research which investigated the influence that role models have on learning in a broader sense (Bandura, 1965; Lewis and Williams, 1994). Bandura (1965) was concerned with vicarious learning, in other words learning that takes place through observational learning or copying. He states that vicarious learning takes place by ‘observing the behaviour of others and its reinforcing consequences, without the modelled responses being overtly performed by the viewer during the exposure period’ (1965: 3). Experiential learning has also influenced research in the area of L2 role models as it is concerned with ‘learning from experience or learning by doing’ (Lewis and Williams, 1994). Studies carried out on language learning in study abroad (Kinginger, 2011; Jackson, 2017) have shown how pre-sojourn ‘chats with other international students about identity issues’ (Jackson, 2017: 376) and ‘unbiased observation’ (Kinginger, 2011: 67) can better prepare students for daily life and engagement with the host community.

There is not a great body of research relating to L2 role models for young learners, however a number of studies have investigated teachers as L2 role models for adult learners. In a study of Hungarian teachers’ motivational classroom strategies Dörnyei and Csizér showed how role models in general were very influential on student motivation and that teachers were ‘the most prominent model in the classroom’ (1998: 215). Bicaji and Shada concluded quite definitively from their study that in relation to communicative language teaching ‘the teacher serves as a role model’ (2018: 285). Yu and Zhu (2011) investigated teaching styles and showed how different styles can have an effect on the teacher student relationship. Studies have also highlighted how teachers
can act as L2 role models by sharing their own experiences of learning a language with their students (Prescosky, 2011; Yu and Zhu, 2011).

Of course, it is not only teachers who can act as L2 role models. Research has shown the importance of near peer role models (NPRMs) for L2 language learners (Murphey, 1998; Muir 2018). A near peer role model is someone who is similar to ourselves in terms of ‘age, gender, ethnicity, or past experience’ (Muir, 2018: 2). NPRMs can act as language models, offer encouragement and reassurances, help inspire autonomous learning and provide feedback that teachers are not able to (Muir 2018). In the Japanese high school context, NPRMs could be recent graduates who have had a good L2 learning experience at school and are now studying English at university or using English for their jobs. They may also be students who have had a good experience while studying abroad and learning a language.

Apart from teachers and NPRMs, L2 learners can also be inspired by role models from popular culture. One interesting study looks at how using popular culture in language teaching ‘serves as a catalyst for increased motivation and language practice’ (Duff and Zappa-Hollman, 2013: 3). However, it is not clear from this study if the idols themselves from TV shows and music groups can act as L2 role models specifically, or if they are inspired in a broader sense. Duff and Zappa-Hollman call for more research to be carried out in this area and therefore the present study distinguishes between idols as L2 role models and idols as role models in general – see Section 3.2.2.

1.7 - The Importance of the Study

Tsukamoto and Tsujioka state that English teaching in Japan ‘has repeatedly been criticized as useless in terms of communication and fluency’ (2013: 310). This
may be an exaggerated criticism, however it does highlight the pressure that Japanese English teachers are under. In response to such criticism, MEXT’s recent policies (see Section 1.1) seem to be focusing the blame on English teachers and their teaching methods. In the last decade, researchers in Japan have begun to view these reasons for a lack of fluency among Japanese learners of English, as not separate issues, relating to teaching methods or the washback of university exams, but rather related issues that gather under the umbrella of motivation to learn the second language (Clark, 2009; Hamada, 2011).

In a previous study carried out by the researcher (McCarthy, 2012), Japanese junior high school teachers gave a number of reasons as to why they believed communication classes in English were not being implemented successfully in their schools. These included, a lack of time and teacher training, as well as the fact that they were already overburdened with work outside of the classroom. However, none of the teachers, in this previous study, mentioned what the researcher observed to be an apparent lack of motivation among their students to study English in the classroom. The researcher observed on a number of occasions, some students using the Japanese phrase ‘やる気ない’ (yarukinai – no motivation), to describe how they felt about their impending English class. The researcher noted that further research into motivation to study English in the Japanese secondary school classroom may be necessary to determine how the communicative approach could be implemented more successfully.

Recently, there has been a flurry of research in Japan on motivation to learn English, and many of these studies (Irie & Brewster, 2009; Yashima, 2009; Suzuki, 2011; Sampson, 2015; Sakeda & Kurata, 2016), have paid particular attention to not only learners’ experiences of learning English but also how they see themselves using
English in their futures (see Chapter 2). It is hoped, in the present study, that by focusing on the learners’ own language experiences and their individual language learning goals, a clearer picture may emerge of how best teachers and learners can work together to create a language learning environment that fosters and nurtures learners’ motivations to study English.

1.8 - The Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is made up of two parts; Part 1 includes the first three chapters and Part 2 comprises Chapters 4 through 8. Chapter 2 provides a detailed overview of L2 motivation in second language learning. This is divided into three periods: the socio-psychological period, the cognitive situated period and the process orientated period. A review of the literature concerning each of these periods is followed by a look at new ways of thinking in L2 motivation research as well as a review of existing studies of L2 motivation in the Japanese context. Chapter 2 concludes with an outline of future directions in the area of L2 motivation research.

The focus of Chapter 3 is a presentation of the methodology that is used in this thesis and the theory which grounds the research methods. Theories relating to action research, which is the main methodological approach used in the present study, are presented in this chapter along with an exploration of the theories related to other relevant methodological approaches. This is followed by a detailed look at how the survey, interview guide and journal study were created, as well as the piloting process and the decisions behind the inclusion and exclusion of categories and items in the design of the survey.

Chapter 4 of Part 2 is focused on the analysis of the results of the survey and an
exploration of the positive and negative correlations between the questions. Statistical analysis shows the significance of the correlations and the emergence of themes which are further investigated in the interview process. Chapter 5 is concerned with the interview process and the thematic analysis which was used to highlight key emerging themes from the data collected. The correlations between these emergent themes are then explored in Chapter 6 where visual mapping is used to show the significance of these correlations. The findings from the journals are investigated in Chapter 7 followed by a discussion of the main themes to arise from this part of the research process.

Chapter 8 allows for a summary of the main research findings to emerge from all sections of the research process, and concludes with the implications of these findings for present and future research in L2 motivation.
Chapter 2 - Motivation in Second Language Learning

2.1 - An Overview of L2 Motivation Theory

Before investigating the theory of L2 motivation, it may be interesting to first look at a definition of motivation itself.

Motivation may be considered as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal.

Williams and Burden (1997: 23)

Key words in the quote above, such as, cognitive, act, sustained, effort, and goal, are all of significant importance and highly relevant when discussing and exploring motivation in a broad sense as well as motivation in relation to second language learning. As such, these terms arise frequently in the chapters and sections in this thesis, as they make up the basis for the exploration of L2 motivation theory that follows.

Motivation in second language learning can be divided into three four periods: 1. The socio-psychological period, 2. The cognitive-situated period, 3. The process-oriented period, and 4. The socio-dynamic period. The first of these relates primarily to work carried out by Canadian social psychologists in the mid-nineteenth century in which they theorise that the attitudes of language learners towards the community of the target language effects their motivation. The second period, which could be viewed as a transition period between the first and third period, examines in more detail the cognitive factors that influence a learner’s internal or intrinsic desires to learn a second language. The third period emphasises a more process oriented or
action-oriented period, where strategies and frameworks for bridging the gap between theory and practice were introduced. Finally, current and emerging research relating to L2 motivation has become known as the socio-dynamic period, encompassing more complex and dynamic frameworks of L2 motivation. These periods will be discussed in greater detail below.

2.2 - The Socio-Psychological Period

The socio-psychological period of L2 motivation generally covers the period from 1959 to 1990. It was dominated by the work of Canadian social psychologists whose research in Anglophone and Francophone communities focused on the idea that language learners’ motivation to study an L2, in this context English or French, was determined by their attitudes to the language community and the target language.

2.2.1 - The Orientation Index

It was Gardner and Lambert’s seminal research in Canada in the late 1950s that put motivation and language learning in the spotlight and it has been an important area of study for many language theorists since then. Through their research, they proposed the concept of the orientation index (Gardner and Lambert, 1959), which classifies reasons for learning a second language in two ways: 1. Integrative, and 2. Instrumental. An integrative orientation is ‘where the aim of language study is to learn more about the language group, or to meet more and different people’ (1959: 267). In research they carried out later, Gardner and Lambert would go on to expand their theory from one that describes the relationship between an individual language learner and society in a broad or general sense, to one that describes that relationship in terms of
specific communities and their cultures. At this point they state that a language learner ‘must be willing to adopt appropriate features of behaviour which characterize members of another linguistic community’ (Gardner and Lambert, 1972: 14). As Noels et al. suggest, this would describe a learner who desires to ‘have contact with, and perhaps identify with an L2 community’ (2000: 59). Integrative orientation is in contrast to instrumental orientation, ‘which reflects the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement’ (1959: 267) and in other words describes a learner’s desire to learn an L2 in order to achieve some practical goals, such as getting a job or passing an exam.

It was integrative orientation however, that caused the most debate among linguists at the time (Noels et al, 2000). In contrast to instrumental orientation, where a learner’s commitment to the language being learned could wane or cease to exist as soon as a temporary aim had been achieved, the integratively orientated learner was viewed to be more committed to the learning process (Esser, 1996). Even though the concept of integrative orientation was and still is highly regarded as ground breaking research in the area of L2 motivation, the notion of a ‘target community is highly problematic in monolingual contexts such as Japan’ (Ellis, 2015: 48).

2.2.2 - The Socio-Educational Model

Motivation then it seems comprises more than just a learner’s orientation and that the social or educational environment in which the learning takes place, and a learner’s attitude towards that context, work together with factors of orientation such as integration and instrumentation to form a more complex social-psychological construct of L2 motivation. Gardner’s socio-educational model therefore, took into account the ‘social and cultural milieu’ (Ellis, 2015: 47) in which language learning takes place. The
The socio-educational model can be summarised in terms of five main hypotheses (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991: 473).

1. The integrative motive hypotheses: an integrative motive will be positively associated with SL achievement.

2. The cultural belief hypothesis: cultural beliefs influence the development of the integrative motive and the degree to which integrativeness and achievement are related.

3. The active learner hypothesis: integratively motivated learners are successful because they are active learners.

4. The causality hypothesis: integrative motivation is a cause; SL achievement is the effect.

5. The two-process hypothesis: aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in second language learning.

The above hypotheses proved controversial at the time however, especially the integrative and causality hypothesis (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991: 473). This was due to the fact that multiple studies carried out at the time in various contexts failed to show any correlation between positive attitudes towards a learning community and achievement in the language being learned. The socio-educational model was significant however due to the influence it had on future studies in the area of L2 motivation and Dörnyei believed that its strength lay in the fact that it originated from empirical research (1998: 122). Moreover, it introduced an instrument for testing and measuring motivation that encompassed a number of questions relating to integration, instrumentation and the social-educational context in which the language learning was taking place. This instrument was called the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB).
and it was important in that it brought together questions relating to ‘motivational orientation, attitudes, and effort’ (Ellis, 2015: 47). It was also significant in that it was the forerunner for further instruments to measure motivation in language learning that were all based on Gardner’s model (see Section 2.4).

2.2.3 - Integrative Orientation in Different Social Contexts

Gardner and Lambert’s seminal work was conducted first in the province of Québec, Canada in the 1950s. At the time, there was considerable interest in integrating the native French speaking community with the rest of Canada, which was predominantly made up of native English speakers. Much of the language learning at that time and place therefore, revolved around native French speakers’ attempts to allow their children the opportunity to learn English, in order to assimilate with the predominately English-speaking country in which they lived. Perhaps to compliment this, many native English-speaking Canadians saw the need for their children to study French at school. Gardner and Lambert’s (1959, 1972) work therefore, must be viewed in hindsight and interpreted in the context in which it took place. The desire for many Canadians at the time to assimilate the two language communities resulted in an integrative orientation to L2 motivation. When this concept is taken out of context however, the model does not seem to always apply.

Europe at the time, was itself beginning the process of unification after decades of conflict. European governments recognised the importance of language learning as an integral part of the process and therefore looked to linguists such as Halliday and Wilkins to guide them on the right path (Green, 2012). When Gardner and Lambert’s model was applied to the European context however, it did not seem to correlate in
English and French schools in the same way it did in their Canadian counterparts. Native English-speaking children who attended schools in Montreal had a very immediate need to learn French in order to integrate with native French speaking children in their class, and vice versa. This however is not the case in many countries in Europe, even to this day.

In response to the debate surrounding his research, Gardner (1968) responded by attempting to clarify his work with other researchers in Canada. Here he seemed to imply that the role of the parent is key in developing an integrative orientation among children learning an L2. Studies carried out at the time in other parts of the world by colleagues of Gardner implied that integrative orientation could be applied in many contexts. Children with parents who shared an ‘other language’ (Gardner, 1968: 143), tended to show a higher correlation between instrumental and integrative orientation. In other words, they had a higher aptitude for learning an L2 due to their desire to integrate with family members who spoke it. This has also been demonstrated in research carried out more recently on heritage language learners (Comanaru and Noels, 2009). Gardner (1968) also touches on the probability that teachers and peer groups can also have an influence on a young L2 learner’s attitude towards an L2 community, although he falls short of drawing any specific conclusions from his research in this area. He also fails to address the discrepancy in correlation between integrative orientation and instrumental orientation that results from communities of language learners with high instrumental orientation and low integrative orientation – presumably due to the lack of an L2 community in that learning context. This could however, be due to the complexity of Gardner’s interpretation of orientation.

In fact, Gardner (2001) alludes to this complexity in later research and re –
examines his socio-educational model of second language acquisition to include more recent research on motivation by for example, Dörnyei (1990, 1998) and Crookes and Schmidt (1991). Gardner acknowledges the importance of educational setting and cultural context (Gardner 2005) as key factors in any model of L2 motivation. It now seems that the initial debate surrounding Gardner’s integration model resulted from the complexity of the model itself and a lack of understanding among language researches at the time as to what integration actually means. It could be said that Gardner’s integrative orientation model relates more to the reasons for studying an L2, and integrative motivation is more concerned with the driving force that results in prolonged and sustained motivation. This ambiguity may be due to the fact that Gardner is a psychologist rather than a language teacher. Gardner acknowledges that ‘it seems very reasonable to hypothesize’ that teachers could motivate a student to learn through ‘exciting lesson plans’ (2005: 14). However, he emphasises the fact that his model of integration is more group related, therefore implying that the actions of teachers would be less influential on a learner’s L2 motivation.

The importance of Gardner’s contribution to the study of motivation and language learning should, however, not be underplayed. As Gardner (2001) himself states, when he and Wally Lambert began their research into motivation and language learning in 1956, it was believed that learning another language involved ‘intelligence and verbal ability’ (Gardner, 2001: 1). Therefore, it could be said that Gardner and his colleagues’ work opened up the prospect of second language acquisition to a new era of language learning that had been hitherto, confined to academic study.

Due however, to the ambiguity surrounding Gardner’s integrative orientation model and the importance he assigned to it as opposed to instrumental orientation, other
research carried out since then in the area of L2 motivation has focused on attempting to interpret Gardner’s model in different contexts and educational settings (Dörnyei 1990, 1998; Crookes and Schmidt 1991, Ushioda 2000). These studies will be looked at in the following sections.

2.3 - The Cognitive-Situated Period

Following Gardner and his associates’ research, there began a period of detachment from the psychological behavioural aspects of L2 motivation and a shift towards a more cognitive orientated theorising of motivation in language learning. A number of cognitive approaches began to emerge which placed ‘the focus on the individual’s thoughts and beliefs which are transformed into action’ (Dörnyei 1998: 118), such as Attribution Theory (see Section 2.3.3). Researchers studying the link between motivation and L2 acquisition also began to turn to more mainstream theories of motivation, such as Self-Efficacy, Goal Theory and Self-Determination, which will be discussed in Sections 2.3.4 – 2.3.6. Before we look at these theories however, it will be important to look at salient research which instigated this change away from the socio-psychological period, in particular Crookes and Schmidt’s work relating to L2 motivation and learner engagement, and Richard Clement’s concept of linguistic self-confidence.

2.3.1 - L2 Motivation and Learner Engagement

The cognitive-situated period, with regards to theories of motivation, is generally thought to have begun around 1990, and Crookes and Schmidt’s often quoted article (1991) is thought to have been one of the main instigators of this new period. In
their article Crookes and Schmidt (1991) state that motivation in a language learner is signalled by their observed engagement in classroom tasks and their sustained productive engagement in ongoing classroom activities. They also saw it as a teacher’s role to encourage this sustained engagement and their pioneering study caused a shift from the arena of social psychological motivation research to one with more of an educational focus. After reviewing motivational research at the time, they stated that there was a need to continue the link with attitudinal areas of motivation research, however, they highlighted the need for more of a connection to language-learning processes and language pedagogy.

2.3.2 - Linguistic Self-Confidence

Work carried out by Richard Clement and his colleagues in the 1980s and 1990s exploring the ‘interrelationship between social contextual items, attitudinal factors, self-confidence and L2 acquisition (Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1994) was also important in creating a link between mainstream theories of motivation and language learning, and therefore influencing the shift away from the socio-psychological period. Self-confidence in a general sense, refers to an individual learner’s belief in themselves and Clement saw a link between learners who had positive contact with a different linguistic community and their level of motivation to learn that other language (Ellis, 2015: 48). This view was later expanded to include learners in different contexts where there was no connection to the linguistic community but a strong connection to the linguistic culture of the language being learned. The theory of linguistic self-confidence is linked to more mainstream theories of motivation, in particular self-determination theory. These mainstream theories of motivation will be
explored subsequently.

2.3.3 - Attribution Theory

Attribution theory (Weiner, 1985) outlines the conceptualisation of expectation in humans with regard to their past experiences and how these influence their belief in their ability to complete a task in the present.

There are three main types of attributions; 1. Internal and external, 2. Stable or unstable, and 3. Controllable or uncontrollable (Ellis, 2015: 50). The first attribution is where a learner can explain their performance based on their own performance or lack of it (internal), or place blame on other factors such as a lack of time (external). Secondly, learners may view the fruits of their learning endeavours as stable or unstable. Viewing them as stable may result in less learning effort in the future, whereas unstable outcomes may result in a learner putting in more effort. The third attribution is arguably the most interesting of the three and states that if a learner believes that they can control or influence a successful learning outcome then they are more likely to put more effort into their learning in the future. This concept was an important guide for language teachers in the 1980s when dealing with, for example, perceived negative attitudes of language learners towards the learning process. Learner utterances such as, ‘I can’t do it’ or ‘I can’t speak English’ are examples of how past experience can have an immediate and negative effect on a learner’s belief in their ability to complete tasks in present and future learning environments. Of course, and on the other hand, a positive past learning experience could also result in positive attitudes to the present and future learning environment. The process of teaching a language therefore needed to encompass some form of process to restore a learner’s self-belief in their own ability to complete tasks at
hand, regardless of their past experiences. Parallels may be drawn here with language pedagogy at the time and the shift from a grammar and structure focused approach to a more learner focused and learner-centred approach.

2.3.4 - Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy theory first emerged in the 1970s (Burden 1977, cited in Dörnyei 1998; Ozturk 2012). It is defined as a person’s belief in their ‘capabilities to produce designated levels of performance’ (Bandura, 1994: 1) and ‘expresses one’s view as to whether one is capable of performing a given learning task’ (Kormos, Kiddle and Csizér, 2011: 4). It is, however, more of a measure of present perceived ability for reasons which may or may not be related to past experience. It is not however a measure of true ability but rather a measure of attributes relating to self-belief and confidence in one’s own ability. This may also go some way to explaining why language teaching became more concerned, at this time, with achieving communicative competence in an L2 rather than simply focusing on grammatical or structural competence, as learners with a strong grammatical foundation in an L2 may still struggle to complete a communicative task if they display low self-efficacy. Likewise, learners with high self-efficacy may achieve higher scores than those with low self-efficacy, even though they have low ability (Raoofi, Tan and Chan, 2012: 61).

Bandura (1994), stated four factors that influence the construction of an individual’s self-efficacy beliefs: 1. Mastery experience, 2. Vicarious experience, 3. Social persuasion, and 4. Physiological states. If an individual learner has experience of successfully completing a task then they will have higher self-efficacy and any positive experiences in relation to the learning environment can also lead to higher levels of
self-efficacy. Also, when learners observe others around them successfully completing tasks and achieving aims and targets, this can increase their self-efficacy. This point also relates to mentors and teachers who give feedback and praise to a learner that results in a positive effect on their self-efficacy. This point has specific ramifications for L2 motivation, as it highlights the important role that teachers play in helping and enabling learners to achieve their goals’ (Williams and Burden, 1997: 22). Lastly, physiological states relate to the effect that emotional states such as anxiety and fatigue can have on a learner’s performance. Factors relating to experience are likely to have the most relevance for L2 motivation and the present study, as we shall see in section 2.4 below, detailing the third period of L2 motivation theory. Social persuasion however, is also a significant factor as it highlights the importance of goal theory.

2.3.5 - Goal Theory

Goal theory (Latham 1990, cited in Dörnyei 1998; Ozturk 2012) played an important part in developing future theories of L2 motivation. Early research in this area developed from Maslow’s (1970, cited in Ozturk 2012) theory of the hierarchy of needs. Maslow’s often quoted work is based on human acquisition of needs from the most basic (i.e. food and sleep) to more complex desires (i.e. personal achievements). In broad terms, goal orientation, the extent to which an individual or learner is focused on making and achieving goals, can be further divided into: 1. Tasked-focused or intrinsic orientation and 2. Ability-focused or extrinsic orientation (Dweck, 1986), and these terms will be looked at in greater detail in Section 2.3.6 – concerning Self-Determination Theory. In terms of language learning, goal setting, ‘the process of establishing clear and usable targets, or objectives, for learning’, can lead to ‘higher
achievement, better performance, a higher level of self-efficacy, and self-regulation’ (Moller, Theiler and Wu, 2011: 154). Goal theory therefore asserts that humans need to set future goals for themselves in order to assert action in the present. Again, this perhaps explains why language pedagogy such as task-based learning (Willis and Willis 1997), emerged to encourage learners to work towards goals in the short term and long term. These goals may be as short term as completing a task such as a role play, or they may be more long term orientated, such as working towards developing enough communicative competence in order to travel or work using the L2.

For the purposes of historical sequencing, self-efficacy and goal theory have been introduced here in the second period of L2 motivation theory. In fact, both self-efficacy and goal theory could just as easily be placed in the 3rd period of motivation theory and when considering their relevance to motivation with regards to second language learning specifically, they could arguably, and possibly more accurately, belong in a period which may be referred to as post-periods. As such, goal theory and self-efficacy will also be discussed in Section 2.4 – concerning the third period of L2 motivation theory.

2.3.6 - Self-Determination Theory

One of the most often quoted and influential theories of motivation is SDT -Self-Determination Theory (Ryan and Deci, 1985). The most salient aspect of this theory was the emergence of two distinct constructs of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation relates to the behaviour resulting from feelings of pleasure or enjoyment derived from actions and interactions. This kind of behaviour may best be observed in the actions of children during play or interaction
with family members and other children. Children are innately endowed with intrinsic motivation to learn new things in order to interact with their surroundings and those who inhabit their immediate environment. The pleasure and enjoyment they experience from these actions are the building blocks of intrinsic motivation which they will continuously seek out later in life as their immediate environment broadens and interactions become more varied and complex. In order to attempt to explain this complexity within the construct of SDT, Deci and Ryan (1985) came up with Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) to explain the ‘social and environmental factors that facilitate versus undermine intrinsic motivation’ (Ryan and Deci, 2000: 72). CET focuses on the fundamental need for competence and autonomy, the latter of which will be looked at in Section 2.6 of the present thesis. There is a clear link here with attribution theory, self-efficacy and goal theory, as according to SDT and CET in particular, ‘people must not only experience competence or efficacy, they must also experience their behaviour as self-determined for intrinsic motivation to be in evidence’ (Ryan and Deci, 2000: 73).

Intrinsic motivation is only one half of the motivational construct referred to in SDT and the other is what Ryan and Deci refer to as extrinsic motivation. These are the behaviours that result from actions and interactions to achieve certain goals. The process of achieving these goals may not be enjoyable or pleasurable to carry out, however necessary they may be to achieve. Common examples of extrinsic motivation include the need to pass exams to enter a university or get a job. They may also be less tangible goals and may simply explain why children exhibit less intrinsic motivational behaviour as they grow older and seek out more social responsibility. Self-regulation is also a key component in Ryan and Deci’s theory of extrinsic motivation and it relates
to the degree to which a person takes in, integrates and internalises regulations from others and the internal transformation that takes place within an individual when they decide to what extent they comply with these regulations.

It is clear however that the intrinsic motivation that we are all innately born with remains with us throughout our lives, even as the pressures of social responsibility take hold and our outer behaviour begins to take on a more extrinsically motivated form. Ryan and Deci (2000) state that their definition of intrinsic motivation is not concerned with the psychological reasons that cause intrinsic motivation but rather how to ‘elicit and sustain, versus subdue and diminish, this innate propensity’ (Ryan and Deci 2000: 4). It is clear that Ryan and Deci’s distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is similar to the distinction drawn between integrative and instrumental motivation (Gardner and Lambert 1959, 1972). However, the ambiguity that resulted from the integrative/ instrumental construct seems to have been cleared up to a certain extent by Ryan and Deci. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation could now be used as more umbrella terms by L2 motivation researchers to refer to items that may exist in certain contexts and learning environments, but not in others. For example, if someone is learning an L2 to be able to speak to a certain language community, this would be classified as integrative motivation. However, if the specific individual’s motivations for learning the L2 were more closely examined, it might be ascertained that they do not actually enjoy studying the L2 and are simply doing so because they feel external pressure to learn the L2 from a parent, teacher or peer group. This would of course be classified as extrinsic motivation and therefore the applicability of using the intrinsic/ extrinsic distinction in a broader context becomes evident. Deci and Ryan’s intrinsic/ extrinsic model of motivation became an important guide for L2 motivation researchers in the 1990s for
developing more language learning specific theories of motivation.

The theory of SDT was applied to L2 motivation and language learning in general, by Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000). They were concerned with the strict definitions of IM (intrinsic motivation) and EM (extrinsic motivation) and in their research they investigated whether these definitions were applicable to language learning and if they had an influence on L2 motivation. They concluded that IM in particular was indeed applicable to language learning as they observed correlation between items in IM and EM consistent with research carried out using SDT frameworks in psychological studies. Vallerand and his colleagues developed a three-part taxonomy of IM: 1. IM-Knowledge, 2. IM-Accomplishment, and 3. IM-Simulation (Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand, 2000: 61). These parts relate to feelings associated with new knowledge exploration, the mastering of goals, and actual task performance, respectively. They did however notice in their research that it was not clear if an apparent distinction could be made between IM and EM in relation to language learning and L2 motivation in particular and they were especially concerned with certain items that they felt, depending on the individual learner, could be considered to be either categorised as IM or EM. According to SDT, the integrative orientation is similar to IM as it encompasses positive attitudes to the L2, however it is different from IM in that it also includes ‘intergroup issues’ in broader sociocultural contexts (Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand, 2000: 77). In other words, it was becoming apparent that frameworks of L2 motivation based on IM and EM constructs from social psychology, although they were applicable to language learning and L2 motivation, would also need to take into account different sociocultural contexts.
2.3.7 - Possible Selves

Another area of social psychology research that became an important guide for L2 motivation researchers is the notion of possible selves (Markus and Nurius 1986). In their seminal work Markus and Nurius outlined the importance of the self and especially the existence of possible selves in humans and how they relate to achievement and motivation in learning. Their work drew heavily on the work of other social psychologists such as Nuttin (1984), who described the relational link between motivation, planning and action and its effect on behaviour. Here Markus and Nurius point out that the main goal of all research into the self-concept ‘is to relate the self-concept to ongoing behaviour’ (Markus and Nurius 1986: 965). They highlight three main components of the possible self-concept, what an individual might become, what they would like to become and what they are afraid of becoming (Markus and Nurius 1986: 954).

The first of these ideas, what an individual might become, is possibly the broadest of the three concepts and could encompass a range of ideas that an individual may only have a very vague sense of. The possibilities of course are endless and would be unique to each individual when taken as a whole. They may include notions relating to work or relationships. What an individual would like to become could be more clearly defined in a person’s self-concept. For example, ‘I want to be a pilot’ or ‘I want to get married’. Of course, it may simply be broadly constructed as notions relating to success and achievement. The ‘feared self’ would obviously relate to what an individual would not like to become, for example, the poor self, the alone self or the homeless self. Of course, all three of these self-concepts may exist temporarily as part of their possible selves and therefore would change over time to form new overall constructs.
Possible selves are particularly important because they relate to the ‘now self’ (Markus and Nurius, 1986: 962). The behaviour exhibited by an individual in the present is a direct result of the makeup of their possible self. If a learner has a mostly positive possible self-concept then they are likely to display higher levels of self-efficacy when faced with short and long-term tasks and challenges. Therefore, a failure to secure a desired job, for example, may result in lower feelings of self-worth in an individual with a mostly negative possible self-concept. Markus and Nurius point out that many possible selves are achieved through ‘mental simulations’ in an individual but that the possibility of these simulations being realised is rarely equal to ‘the ease at which they can be formulated’ (1986: 963). In other words, the now self is made up of many simulations that are unlikely to be realised but encompass many possibilities that have at least a greater than zero chance of occurring in the future. Furthermore, these many simulated possibilities can be activated at any time as part of a temporary self-concept and that ‘can function as referents or standards by which the now self is evaluated and interpreted’ (Markus and Nurius, 1986: 963). Possible selves and the concept of the now-self play an important part in education and language learning among adolescents in particular. If young learners believe that possible selves may be realised in their futures, then ‘they will be more willing to work hard now to reach goals later in life’ (Seymour, 1995: 20). For more on the self-concept, and in particular future-selves and how images in the present can influence the development of the future-self construct, see Section 2.4.

There is evidently a clear link here between the social psychology of motivation and language learning motivation. Learners of the L2 would possibly benefit if their possible selves included ‘would like to self-concepts’ of them using the L2 in the
future. Consequently, the concept of possible selves was to have a major influence on L2 motivation research from the 1990s. Dörnyei highlights the importance of Markus and Nurius’s research (Dörnyei 2009: 11) on his own constructs of the self-concept, which will also be looked at in Section 2.4 of this chapter. However, he does point out the ambiguity of the ‘what we might become self’ and questions its generic relation to the overall possible self, ‘What exactly are the selves of the third type?’ (Dörnyei 2009: 12) – The third type here referring to the ‘might be self’.

2.3.8 - William and Burden’s Extended Framework

It is also worth noting another key L2 motivational framework during this period, which was William and Burden’s extended framework (1997). This framework listed components under two distinct headings, internal and external factors. As Dörnyei (1998) pointed out, this framework drew from mainstream theories of motivation rather than L2 motivation, which places it very much in line with the reform movement at the time in the cognitive situated period. This framework was of course directly related to the intrinsic and extrinsic model of motivation developed by Ryan and Deci (1985) and included factors such as: intrinsic interest in activity, sense of agency, mastery, self-concept and factors relating to the learning environment and the broader context, among others (cited in Dörnyei, 1998: 126). Dörnyei’s own early frameworks of L2 motivation in the mid-nineties were more closely linked to Gardner’s L2 model, probably due to the fact that Roger Clement, one of Gardner’s colleagues, was carrying out research with Dörnyei in Hungary at this time. Williams and Burden’s reference to self-concept under internal factors in their framework, highlighted the link between L2 motivation and the self-concept, which was to play a key role in L2 motivational
frameworks that were to follow in the process-oriented period.

The ‘new wave’ (Dörnyei 1998: 124) of L2 motivation research which began in the 1990s was a concerted effort by motivation researchers to begin to place more emphasis on the L2 motivation process as it plays out in the classroom. It was also becoming clear that there was an ‘inextricable link between language and identity’ (Taylor 2013: 26). However, language teachers were in need of more practical motivational tools at their disposal to assist language learners in struggles with L2 motivation and L2 motivation researchers were beginning to answer these calls.

2.4 - Process-Oriented Period

This ‘new wave’ of L2 motivational research therefore began an exciting time for L2 motivation researchers (Dörnyei 1998: 132). A number of frameworks were drawn up during this decade to allow L2 teachers to begin to understand how complex theories in the field of motivation as a whole could be applied in the classroom. Teachers could then attempt to actively motivate learners rather than simply allowing the motivation process to play out among groups of L2 learning communities. The most important of those frameworks and those which are of most relevance to the current study will be reviewed here.

2.4.1 - Dörnyei’s Extended Framework

Dörnyei’s extended framework is essentially a list of L2 motivational features, divided into three main categories, ‘language level, learner level, and learning situation level’ (Dörnyei 1998: 125). The elaborate and diverse list includes components such as the learning task, the curriculum, the learning goal and classroom setting etc. Dörnyei is
however quite honest in his critique of his own framework. He states that this ‘Extended Framework’ is a very general framework of L2 motivation, however it is arguably the first ‘real’ tool of L2 motivation that language teachers could refer to as a guide for motivating students. He rightly states that it lacks a relational aspect between each of the diverse components and therefore would not be easy to test in the classroom. He also admits that, as it is largely based on integrative/instrumental theory rather than more recent theories, such as self-determination theory, it may be ‘misleading’ (Dörnyei 1998: 126).

Due to the perceived need at this time to provide language teachers with a useful guide to L2 motivation, Dörnyei 1998: 131) drew up a ‘ten commandments’ of useful motivational strategies that teachers could apply in their classrooms. The list could be compared to a set of motivational rules for teachers to follow, such as ‘present the task properly’ and ‘make the language classes interesting’. It is obvious when reading these strategies in hindsight that they were an attempt to oversimplify the L2 motivational process and lack any specific strategies for L2 teachers to follow. In his ‘state of the art’ review of L2 motivation, Lamb (2017) highlights that although some of Dörnyei’s macro-strategies do seem to hold value among teachers and learners around the world, ‘it is simply not possible to reduce highly complex issues to pedagogical dos and don’ts’ (2017: 10). It was however, an important step in attempts to get L2 teachers involved in L2 motivation research, and an effort to bridge the gap between theory and pedagogy in this area.

2.4.2 – A Process Model of L2 Motivation

L2 motivation researchers became concerned with the over-emphasis of social
psychological theories of motivation on how and why people choose certain courses of action rather than focusing on the actual action that needs to take place to achieve set goals (Dörnyei and Otto, 1998). There was also a concern that theories of motivation at the time viewed motivation as static rather than dynamic. As a reaction to this, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) proposed a framework of a process model of L2 motivation that took into account the above failings of previous motivational frameworks. The process model contains two main dimensions: 1. Action sequences and 2. Motivational sequences. The first of these dimensions, contains three main phases: 1. The pre-actional phase, 2. The action phase, and 3. The post-actional phase. The first of these phases is related to goal setting, which was discussed previously in this chapter, and it describes the wishes, hopes and desires of an individual. The action phase is viewed in terms of implementation, appraisal and control mechanisms, related to the self-regulatory process that will be discussed in terms of autonomy in Section 2.6. The final phase is concerned with evaluation and contemplation of action implemented in the action phase and entails elements of attribution, which was explored in relation to attribution theory earlier in this chapter. Although the process of L2 motivation is a detailed and complex framework it is useful in that it serves ‘as a structured basis for designing motivational strategies to be used in the classroom’ (Dörnyei and Otto, 1998: 65).

Dörnyei’s initial attempt to create a useful L2 motivation framework and guide for L2 teachers to follow, led to a period of intense interest and study in this area. Frameworks which followed became even more complex, in an attempt to apply these models in international contexts (Ushioda 2013a) as the demand for English increased along with a rapidly globalised world and new period of L2 motivational research began to emerge which became known as the socio-dynamic period.
2.5 - The Socio-Dynamic Period

The socio-dynamic period of L2 motivation refers to current and emerging theory and research in the field, including but not limited to: the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei, 2009), a person-in-context relational approach (Ushioda, 2009), and complex dynamic systems theory in relation to L2 motivation (Larson-Freeman, 2015).

2.5.1 - The L2 Motivational Self-System and the Future-Self

The L2 motivational self-system (L2MSS; Dörnyei, 2009) was conceptualised to broaden the scope of L2 motivation research. It comprises three components of L2 motivation, the ideal self, the ought-to self and the L2 learning experience. It is based on possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986), which was discussed in Section 2.3.7, and more heavily influenced by Higgins’ (1987) self-discrepancy theory and the concept of the ideal self and ought self.

Higgins was a psychologist whose work developed on previous theories of the self in psychology and focused on the relationship between different self-states. Higgins explained that there are three domains to the self: 1. The actual self, 2. The ideal self, and 3. The ought self. The actual self would be the person that you or those who know you see yourself to be, while the ideal self relates to the person you would like to be. The ought self, which Dörnyei later termed the ought-to self, is ‘your representation of the attributes that someone (yourself or another) believes you should or ought to possess (Higgins, 1987: 321). In terms of language learning, Higgins’ self-discrepancy theory is
important due to the influence it had on L2 motivation researchers, like Dörnyei, whose frameworks of L2 motivation were firmly based on the above domains of the self.

Higgins (1998) went on to develop his theories in relation to self-regulatory systems of motivation in which he explained that there were two ways in which motivation operates – with a promotion focus and a prevention focus. In other words, an individual with a positive self-regulatory focus, would attempt to move a present actual self-state to a desired end-state – a promotion focus. In contrast, a negative self-regulatory focus would be an attempt to detach as far as possible from an undesired end-state – a prevention focus. In his research, Higgins (1998) also showed that there was a clear link between a promotion focus and the ideal self, and that this could also be said for the similarity between a prevention focus and the ought self.

The importance of the future on the self is what Dörnyei viewed as being the most salient component of self-guides for L2 motivation. The ideal self, or the ‘I want to study another language’ self, is distinct from the ought-to self, or the ‘my father says I should study another language’ self. The ideal self therefore relates to the attributes that an individual would hope and wish to possess, while the ought-to self refers to the attributes that an individual feels obliged to possess due to, for example, perceived parental or social obligations.

There is also an obvious link here between self-determination theory and in particular the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000). The ideal self is therefore more easily related to intrinsic or internal motives for learning an L2, while the ought-to self, as Dörnyei terms it, may be said to relate to the more external factors leading to L2 motivation. Dörnyei’s conceptualisation of these terms however was intended to be even broader than Higgins’ ideal and ought selves. Higgins
did allude to the fact that his theory, when applied to a motivational item, would depend on ‘people’s preferences and choices in life’ (1998: 32). This could also be said to be true when considering, for example, heritage language learners (Coamanaru and Noels 2009) who may possess either ideal or ought-to selves. A Japanese student may hope or wish to learn English if their father is American and they may ideally like to be able to speak with him fluently in English. They may also however, simply feel obliged to learn to speak English due to perceived social obligations to be able to speak English because they are seen to as ハーフ (half) by Japanese people. In other words, how the ideal self is distinct from the ought-to self, depends on the individual, as a motivational item that may seem to relate to an ideal-self for one learner, could more closely relate to the ought-to self for another. This is one of the reasons why the ideal-self and ought-to self are combined in the present study. Other reasons are looked at towards the end of this section.

What really set Dörnyei’s L2 motivational self-system apart from previous frameworks in the same field, however, is the third component, relating to the L2 learning experience. By this Dörnyei is referring to the prior experience a learner has in the L2 learning environment and how it affects their present L2 learning experience. This has been a neglected area of L2MSS and recent studies have shown how L2 learning experience is actually more important than the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2019). For example, until recently, Japanese young learners entering junior high school had little or no experience of studying English at school. In my experience of having taught in Japanese junior high schools, this wonder or positive impression that these students possessed in relation to learning and interacting with English led to high levels of L2 motivation. However, since English is now being taught in elementary schools in Japan,
this positive impression of English upon entering junior high school seems to be less evident. As these young learners now possess L2 learning experience, they may have already begun to attribute negative associations with formal L2 language study in Japan. This was a point made by Japanese junior high school teachers during a previous study carried out by the research (McCarthy, 2012).

Another important development arising from the L2 motivational self-system was Dörnyei’s renewed interest in integrative motivation (Gardner and Lambert 1959, 1972). The concept of integration has evolved somewhat from its earliest interpretation of learners being motivated to learn an L2 in order to integrate with an L2 community. Gardner (2001) himself pointed out that this was a misinterpretation of the term as they meant it, and that integration referred more broadly to a learner’s attitudes towards an L2 community. After continual research in the Hungarian school system, Dörnyei began to see this correlation when he tested his L2 motivational system. The reasons for this renewed integrational aspect of L2 motivation were investigated by L2 motivation researchers MacIntyre, MacKinnon and Clement (2009). They found that this was due primarily to the fact that English had spread rapidly throughout the world as a result of globalisation and had become ‘uncoupled from any particular culture’. L2 learners had therefore begun to view English as more of a world language that may possibly be learnt without having to adopt any particular culture. Through Dörnyei’s long term investigation into the L2 motivations of Hungarian school students, he came to view integrativeness as being a more salient feature of L2 motivation than instrumentality. He began to reinterpret integration in broader terms than Gardner had envisioned. His view of integration was now more closely related to the L2 self, as part of the overall L2 motivational system.
Therefore, the attitudes that learners attributed to the L2 community were directly linked to their ideal L2 self. If learners had a positive ideal L2 self-image then they would most likely possess positive attributes in relation to the L2 learning community. Dörnyei’s L2 self-system has been tested in many international contexts, (Taguchi, Magid and Papi 2009) such as Japan, China and Iran. A strong correlation between integrativeness and the ideal L2 self was demonstrated by their research in all of the above contexts.

After successfully testing the L2 motivational self-system in a number of different contexts, Dörnyei and Ushioda came up with a future-self-guide (Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011, cited in Dörnyei 2014: 9) which could be said to be an updated version of the ‘ten commandments’ of L2 motivation (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998). This guide refers to a number of prerequisites that must be in place in order for future-self-guides to have an impact on L2 motivation. They include the necessity for the L2 learner to have a desired future-self-image and one that is different from their current self-image. This difference is necessary in order to motivate learners to exert effort and action in order to improve from the current L2 self to the future-self state. One of the most interesting conditions included in their future-self-guide is that the future-self-image is in harmony with it. That is to say, the ideal self does not conflict with other categories in the L2 motivational self-system, such as, the ought-to self or the L2 learning experience. For example, a Japanese high school student who wishes to become a fluent speaker of English in an international setting, may also feel obliged to conform to societal norms due to peer pressure. It was therefore important in the present study to investigate the relationship between these different categories in Dörnyei’s framework and if this negatively affects L2 motivation because of a failure to construct a harmonious...
future-self-image. Dörnyei (2009: 351) also calls for more research to be carried out in order to investigate if a conflict does indeed occur and what effect it has on L2 motivation.

There is not a wealth of research available in terms of ideal L2 selves and Japanese secondary school students, however one study carried out by Owada (2014) tests the validity of the L2 motivational self system in the Japanese junior high school context. Owada’s study showed that it was difficult for Japanese junior high school students to imagine how they would use English in their future. This study included 14 year old final year junior high school students, who are similar in age to the first year high school participants in the present study – 15 years old. This was a conclusion also drawn by Kojima Takahashi (2013) in her study of the ideal selves of non-English major university students in rural Japan – referred to in Section 1.6.3. In particular there seemed to be an issue with wording questions relating to the ideal L2 self correctly, as participants who did show evidence of an ideal self, did so in a very unique and idiocentric way. For example, one participant envisioned himself as someone who ‘could sing well in English’ while another stated that he likes online games and ‘wanted to communicate well with his opponents’ (Kojima Takahashi, 2013: 6). Kojima Takahashi (2013) called for more qualitative studies to be carried out in the Japanese context in order to gather this unique and idiocentric data.

Also, even though Sampson (2016) states that the L2 Motivational Self System holds ‘a lot of promise’, he highlights the failure of the L2 motivational self system to address in any great detail the ‘interplay’ between learner internal and external influences (2016: 35). Considering this study was carried out in a similar setting to the present study with participants of the same age, it is certainly worth considering this
point when designing the survey for the present study – see Section 3.2.1 for more on the survey design.

2.5.2 - A Person-in-Context Relational Approach

The scale and complexity of many L2 motivational studies however have led some researchers (Reily 2006; Ushioda 2009) to question whether research has become detached from the learners and teachers that it had been designed for. It could therefore be said that the responses of these learners are being quantified and coded without any actual attention being paid to their individual and unique thoughts, opinions and emotions. As a result, calls have been made for L2 motivation research to return to a more qualitative and person-in-context relational approach to research in this area (Ushioda 2009). Ushioda acknowledges the importance of Dörnyei’s future-self guides and the L2 motivational self-system, however, she also believes that the results of these quantitative studies need to be used in conjunction with more qualitative studies. She refers to her own experience of interviewing her students in an attempt to ascertain their L2 motivations. She observed a number of unique and idiocentric characteristics that motivated students to learn English, such as wanting to be able to get to know a girlfriend’s parents better. These kinds of results can only be obtained from qualitative studies of individual L2 learners and how they engage, interact and form relationships within their L2 learning environment.

As research in the area of L2 motivation becomes more complex and varied in a globalised world, it is clear that language teachers need to become more engaged in the debate to provide a more context-sensitive and person-in-context approach to L2 motivation research. Qualitative research in the last decade has attempted to fill this gap
with new and fascinating approaches to investigating the self and L2 motivation. Section 2.5.4 looks at the emergence of some recent studies, which have focused on how vision and imagery can have a significant effect on the self-image construct and consequently L2 motivation.

2.5.3 - Complex Dynamic Systems Theory

L2 motivational models such as integrative/instrumental orientation and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation assume that a learner’s L2 motivation is fixed and does not alter over time. Even early research into possible and future selves failed to relate to any changes that occur in a learner’s identity as their L2 experience develops and evolves over time. Recent research in L2 motivation has highlighted the importance of the complex dynamic nature of identity and the L2 self. In other words, ‘an investment in the target language is also an investment in a learner’s own identity, an identity which is constantly changing across time and space’ (Norton, 2013: 50). In order to study the complex dynamic nature of L2 motivation, researchers realised that non-linear models were needed to focus more attention on the individual learners themselves in their unique settings, where attention could be paid to the ‘motivational phenomena observed in real-life situations’ (Dörnyei, MacIntyre, and Henry, 2015: 4).

Complex dynamic systems theories were not born out of language learning research but rather evolved from other fields such as ecology. Larsen-Freeman (2015) provides a good explanation of how they relate to language learning and states that ‘change and emergence are central to any understanding of complex dynamic systems’ (2015: 11). In her work on complex dynamic systems in L2 motivation, she highlights the importance of how changes in certain language learning factors, such as, the time of
the class, the teacher, the method or class members, can have a ‘salutary’ effect on L2 motivation (Larsen-Freeman 2015:15). It is also presumed, but not stated, that these changes could have negative as well as beneficial effects on a learner’s L2 motivation.

A number of studies initiated by Dörnyei, MacIntyre and Henry (2015) have very recently resulted in a rich body of knowledge into the complex dynamic nature of L2 motivation and how non-linear models can be used to identify these complex dynamic patterns of L2 motivation. Some of these studies have been more conceptual in nature (Henry 2015, Mercer 2015, Ushioda 2015) and have focused on the changes that occur to individual learners’ motivations over time. Context is no longer viewed as simply a fixed item that impacts on learners in various geographical and educational settings, but something that exists dynamically in individual learners. Learners therefore carry around tangible or intangible L2 learning experiences that can change and be changed by the present L2 learning context (Ushioda 2015). This change occurs when learners interact with each other in social networks that result in individual, idiocentric and dynamic L2 motivations (Mercer 2015). It may also explain why an individual’s future-self is dynamic and changes throughout the L2 learning experience. Henry (2015: 86) also highlights the dynamic nature in possible-selves as a learner experiences the widening of the gap between the actual and ideal self.

MacIntyre and Serroul (2015) state that ‘new understandings of motivation processes can be gained by examining real people interacting with language in real time’ (MacIntyre and Serroul 2015: 109). In their innovative study they recorded the ‘second-by-second’ fluctuations in learner behaviour as individuals as they completed L2 learning tasks in a classroom. Learner responses, such as the avoidance and acceptance of certain language presented and the time taken to respond and make
vocabulary choices, were recorded and coded by the researchers. Learners who took longer to respond or make vocabulary choices tended to exhibit anxiety and frustration, which had negative motivational consequences. On the other hand, learners who responded more quickly and made more rapid vocabulary choices seemed to exhibit pleasure and arousal, which resulted in higher levels of L2 motivation being observed. The researchers provided the participants with sets of vocabulary that they could choose to use or not when completing the task. Their study however, failed to consider how the results might influence actual classroom pedagogy and may tell us more about a learner’s psychological state of mind rather than their L2 motivations. The importance of this study is its focus on the second-by-second fluctuations in learner behaviour and how they can be traced over a certain timescale. Perhaps an interesting follow up study to investigate learner inter-relational dynamic motivational behaviour, would be to record a group of learners as they interact together to complete a task.

In another complex dynamic systems study of a group of Hungarian university academic writing students, Piniel and Csizér (2015) investigated the dynamic changes in L2 motivation over the period of the course. Their results demonstrated significant non-linear change in three of the seven items measured – language learner experience, the L2 ought-to self and writing anxiety. They found that the learners were generally motivated to study English and that they remained motivated throughout the duration of the course. They noted however statistically significant changes in their L2 learning anxiety as the course progressed. These were most probably due to the perceived difficulty of the tasks as the course progressed. They also noted that the gap between their ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self narrowed as the course came to a conclusion. This was a relatively small-scale study of advanced L2 learners in a particular context,
however it is significant in that it demonstrates non-linear inter-relationships between independent items over a certain timescale, which previous studies had failed to do (Piniel and Csizér 2015: 184).

A recent complex dynamic study by Sampson (2016), utilising action research, investigated the L2 motivations of young Japanese learners between the ages of fifteen and twenty. His study is particularly relevant to the current study as he is not only carrying out research on the same topic, L2 motivation, but the participants are also the same age and in a similar setting. It is also relevant in that it is an action research project with an emphasis on data collection using reflective journals in a narrative style. The participants in the present study also completed journals in a narrative style to describe their more day to day thoughts and opinions on their present learning experiences. The methodology of this journal process will be described in more detail in Chapter 3.

Sampson states that it is not only important to understand the complexity of what each individual learner already brings to the L2 classroom, but that it is also important to understand the complexity that is involved with each L2 learning context and he details a number of examples of the complexity in the context of his study, which are both relevant and important for the present study (Sampson, 2016: 84). These examples are many and various, and all have a bearing on the level of L2 motivation that may be expected in the current L2 learning context. They include, but are not limited to: the time of the lesson, the content of the previous lesson, the friendships that exist within the class and of course the level of the students. There are also diverse and external complexities to take into account, such as school events that may be taking place during or around the time of the lesson, and even the effect of the weather.

The importance of understanding these complexities not only from an
individual learner point of view but also from a group perspective, is also highlighted here by Sampson. Many task-based activities require a collective approach to complete the task at hand and this requires ‘multi-directional and multi-levelled interaction between these [complex] systems’ (Sampson, 2016: 84). He also refers to Dörnyei’s L2 motivational self-system (2009) as a key influence on his own study, and attempts to not only investigate the L2 learning experiences and L2 identities of his participants, but he also attempts to determine the relationships between these categories of the L2 motivational self-system and to view them in ‘co-adaption’, whereby the self and environment interact over time with ‘mutual causality’ (Sampson 2016: 104). This is a key point of his unique and novel study into L2 motivation, and the narratives collected from his participants led him to conceptualise the notion of ‘a motivational state space’ (2016: 123) whereby the L2 learning environment and the L2-self, interact in the L2 classroom. Previous L2 motivational researchers, from Gardner to Dörnyei, have largely focused on the environment or self as ‘distinct elements’ (2016: 123), whereas viewing L2 motivation in terms of co-adapting and co-forming allow us to perceive a more realistic vision of how these elements or categories can influence pedagogy in the classroom in a more pragmatic way.

Sampson also refers to the impact of ‘prosaic’ contextual influences on L2 motivation in the current context, such as university entrance exams. However, and possibly due to the fact that Sampson’s study was carried out in a technical college, where high school and third level study is combined in a five-year cycle, the washback effect of these exams was not investigated in any detail. This was an area where the current study needed to pay great attention to, as the washback of university entrance exams on the participants in the current study was perceived to be much larger. The
influence and co-adaption of the role of the teacher and the student in the L2 classroom is an area that is mentioned in Sampson’s study, but the researcher believes it warrants further investigation. Sampson himself also alludes to this as a ‘future direction’ (2016: 182) for future studies in complexity in foreign language learning motivation, and it was consequently included as a topic or theme of exploration in the current qualitative study.

2.5.4 - Vision and Imagery in L2 Motivation

‘Future-self-guides’ and ‘vision’ are interrelated concepts (Dörnyei 2014:7) and have developed from a constant stream of research in this area since 1959 (Gardner and Lambert). Most recently, Dörnyei’s L2 motivational self-system has placed great emphasis on the necessity for L2 learners to develop successful future selves in order to improve L2 motivation which would in turn, it is hoped, lead to higher levels of achievement. Attention has therefore focused on how to encourage and facilitate language learners in their development of successful future-self concepts. The role that vision and imagery play in conceptualising future selves has gained prominence in the last decade. This is not only limited to the field of language learning, and individuals working in many fields have used vision and imagery to enhance their performance. In the field of sports, it is now commonplace to expose athletes to images and visions to help them set concrete goals for themselves. In his research into L2 motivation, Magid (2014: 335) refers to the Olympic athlete Marilyn King, who stated that ‘it is not will power and determination that enables Olympic athletes to win – it’s the vision’. Yashima (2009) also refers to a sports analogy when discussing how to initially motivate a class of language learners. She points out that a baseball coach would probably take his new team to watch a baseball game so that they can experience the
cheers and roars of the audience and have those sounds and images implanted in their brains.

Whether it is proper or fair to draw comparisons between the field of sports and language learning is debatable, however, if visions and images can stimulate motivation which leads to higher levels of achievement in sport, than it is certainly worth investigating if the same can occur in language learning. One such recent study (Mercer 2014) investigated creating an imagined self as a network of relations. In her study, Mercer asked her students to create a collage of interrelated key words, pictures and photographs which described their language learning experiences to date. The posters often included various people, contexts, places, experiences and artefacts as well as notions and concepts. Follow up interviews were conducted with the students to discuss the posters. Mercer concluded that her research enabled her to gain a greater understanding of her students by discussing their past and present experiences and interactions with language learning, with the aid of a network of relational images. She was able to assist them in creating future selves by helping them to interact with the semantics of the L2 along with films, music and literature etc., as well as less tangible things such as helping them to reconnect with positive language learning experience from their past. She also noted the dynamic nature of their future selves as the collages created by the students showed various movements from different but related visions of language learning from their past. This study is important in that it demonstrates a unique way to investigate the idiocentric L2 motivations of language learners and at the same time allow learners and teachers to interact in a more communicative way that helps to develop the relationship and understanding between the two.

Another important study in the area of vision and imagery in L2 motivation
was conducted by Chan (2014). She used image training intervention to assess the
success of future-self constructs among her students in a 12-week course involving
advanced Chinese university students of English. Her students were schooled on the
theories of future selves and vision and image constructs and their positive effects on L2
motivation. The students were required to think of and construct their own L2 future
selves. Each student created a language tree (similar to a family tree) with branches
detailing their past and present experiences and interactions with the L2. The students
were also exposed to imagery training techniques such as imagery scripts where an
example of a positive and negative future-self image was read to them. The students
also took individual counselling sessions with teachers to assist them in their own
individual future-self-concept constructions. The students were then interviewed at the
end of the 12-week course to assess their attitudes as to whether their
future-self-constructs had improved their L2 motivation. The results showed that the
majority of the students found the imagery training useful and that the follow up
counselling sessions improved their L2 speaking self. It is important to note however
that all of the students who took part in the study were already advanced speakers of
English and as such it is likely to assume that they already possessed high levels of L2
motivation. The effect of such imagery training on the speaking-selves of beginner level
learners would make an interesting follow up study.

The link between the ideal L2 self and vision and imagination was investigated
by Al-Shehri (2009) in his recent study of Saudi Arabian university students. The
emphasis in this study was on learner styles, in particular learners with a preference for
a visual style of learning and whether these learners possessed a stronger sense of their
ideal-self. This was a relatively small-scale quantitative snowball study, however the
results proved to be somewhat intriguing. A significant correlation existed between learners who had a preference for a visual style of learning and who also possessed a strong ideal self. Participants in the study who answered in the affirmative to items such as, ‘when I listen I visualize pictures’ and ‘I am better at remembering faces rather than names’ also did likewise for ideal self-items such as ‘I like to think of myself as someone who will be able to speak English’.

It would appear that the use of visual aids and imagery training in one form or another could have a positive impact on a learner’s ability to construct a successful future-self. This in turn could positively impact L2 motivation as Dörnyei’s L2 motivational framework has demonstrated in many different contexts in different parts of the world. It is also important to note that in order for innovative learning strategies such as imagery training to be successfully implemented in the classroom, certain conditions such as those stated in Dörnyei and Ushioda’s future-self-guide (2005, cited in Dörnyei 2014: 9) need to be met. A notable condition in this future-self-guide is the need for certain procedural strategies to be in place in order to complete tasks that lead to future goals. In other words, it is one thing to have a strong ideal self, however it must be complemented with a ‘road map’ of how to achieve these goals. In order to develop this ‘road map’ it is fair to assume that learners must ‘take control of their own learning’ (Benson 2011, cited in Noels et al, 2014: 133).

2.5.5 - Self-Regulation and Autonomy in L2 Motivation

Benson provides probably the best definition of autonomy in language learning as the ‘capacity to take control of one’s own learning’ (Benson 1997, cited in Noels et al, 2014: 133). It is not the intention of the researcher to provide a detailed outline of
autonomy in language learning. Such an investigation would be beyond the scope and relevance of this present study. There is a clear and ‘self-evident’ (Benson 2007: 29) link however between autonomy and L2 motivation research and as such any investigation into L2 motivation needs to look at its relation and interaction with autonomy. Some L2 motivation researchers believe that motivation and autonomy are in fact ‘twin areas’ (Ushioda 2011: 11) that interact with each other in a practical and conceptual sense and that ‘both are centrally concerned with learners’ active involvement in learning’ (Benson 2007: 29). Practical in the sense of how motivation and autonomy interact with one another, as demonstrated in pedagogy and the language practices of teachers and learners in the classroom (Holliday, cited in Yu 2010, Nunan 1988, Van Lier 1996). On the other hand, conceptual interaction refers to the various theoretical notions and concepts such as self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan 1985, cited in Deci, Koestner and Ryan 2001) and metacognitive strategies (Gao and Zhang 2011: 36) that require learners to develop self-regulation and agency, or the ability to act out these learning strategies as ‘learner agency entails action’ (Huang 2011: 230).

A number of studies have been carried out in recent years to determine how motivation and autonomy interact in different L2 learning contexts and settings (Lamb 2011, Murray 2011, Noels et al, 2014, Ryan and Mercer 2011). Noels and her colleagues (2014) found that even though there was a strong correlation between autonomy and motivation among L2 language learners, there was an important difference in the form of autonomy between different communities of L2 learners. Euro-Canadian L2 learners, were found to show a strong proactive approach to autonomy, where they demonstrated strong agency and self-regulation in developing their own personalised learning motivational strategies. In contrast, Asian-Canadians tended to believe in a more
reactive approach to autonomy. They believed in the importance of developing self-regulation motivational strategies, however they wanted more structured tasks and guidance from their teachers as to how to go about doing this. Interestingly however, there was a strong correlation between the two ethnic groups in how they viewed classroom autonomy. Noels et al. fail to elaborate as to what this classroom autonomy actually looks like, however it is fair to assume that they were referring to more learner-focused practices, such as group and pair work, and less teacher-fronted work.

The link between L2 motivation, in particular future-selves, and autonomy was explored by Lamb (2011) in his intriguing qualitative study of young Indonesian learners of English. After interviewing four junior high school students over a period of six years he found significant evidence to show a correlation between high levels of L2 motivation, achievement and self-regulated autonomous learning. Most of the students that he interviewed stated that they had learned to speak English by studying English movies and books, outside of school time, as their teachers only viewed English as a school subject and not to be actually ‘used’. Those students also demonstrated strong future-self-images. They saw themselves as using the language in the future in their jobs and personal lives. This correlation between their self-regulated L2 learning and a strong sense of future-self was demonstrated in their L2 learning achievement. Interestingly, when Lamb met these students again in follow up interviews, they each demonstrated a frustration with the lack of agency in their present learning environment. They were now in their final year of study and had only managed to keep up their English-speaking ability through after school study and their own determined efforts. Lamb acknowledges that these Indonesian learners who demonstrated a strong sense of future-self and self-regulation in the present, were mostly from middle-class families.
and as such may have had more opportunities than most to explore the L2 outside of class. It is also significant that the parents of most of these students had experience of either work or study in English-speaking countries and that the ‘integrative’ aspect of L2 motivation could have been a factor in their self-regulation and strong future-selves.

In an interesting study into the link between natural acquisitions, studying abroad and agency in language learning (Ryan and Mercer 2011), the link between autonomy and L2 motivation is also investigated. Here they acknowledge the importance of study abroad programmes but they argue that educators should not merely promote these as the only way or the most effective way to acquire an L2 but should put more emphasis on ‘the role of autonomous, strategic learning behaviour rather than passive acquisition’ (Ryan and Mercer 2011: 174). In my own experience of working in a private high school in Tokyo, where study abroad programmes are a large part of the curriculum, I have witnessed the misconceptions and misunderstandings surrounding these programmes. There is a belief among some teachers, parents and students that immersion in an L2 environment will lead to natural language acquisition. This is a misconception, as without agency and self-regulation the majority of L2 learners will be ‘disempowered’ (Lamb 2011: 166) and simply resort to the passivity that they may have become used to. It is the duty of educators therefore to do away with these misconceptions and realise that passive learning at school may simply lead to passivity during a study abroad programme, which can lead to ‘critical experiences’ (Block 2007:222) and ones that only strengthen national identity and lessen intercultural awareness.

The link between L2 motivation and autonomy could therefore be viewed as a prerequisite to L2 learning. Whether it is in the classroom among peers, in a foreign
country among other L2 users or during everyday life, it seems that having a strong future-self-image and the ability to be an agent of self-regulation can result in higher L2 achievement. There, however, seem to remain discrepancies in the beliefs of teachers, parents and educators in the roles that they need to play in guiding L2 learners on suitable paths of self-regulation and autonomy in different L2 contexts around the world.

2.6 - L2 Motivation Research in the Japanese Context

Ushioda (2013b) refers to a number of issues which have made L2 motivation ‘a major research topic’ in Japan in the last decade. She highlights the fact that English is becoming a ‘must have’ educational skill in Japan in order to be able to compete with its Asian neighbours, especially Korea and China, who score significantly higher than Japan in international rankings of English-speaking ability (TOEFL ETS Data 2009) - even though Japan ranks higher in overall English literacy (OECD educational rankings 2014). A number of factors, which are mentioned earlier in the present study, have been put forward to excuse Japan from these results. These include, 鎖国 (sakoku - Japan’s self-imposed historical isolation), 日本人論 (nihonjinron – the theory of the uniqueness of the Japanese identity) and 受験英語 (jukeneigo – examination English).

It is clear however that there is a determination to improve on these results, and a recent push by Prime Minister Abe for 国際化 (kokusaika – internationalisation), has led to increased efforts to improve Japanese communicative competence in English. This has encouraged L2 researchers in Japan to try to get to the root of this lack of communicative competence in English, and as such, a flurry of studies on L2 motivation have recently come to the fore in Japan. Due to the vast number of these studies, only
the most salient and relevant will be reviewed and critiqued here.

2.6.1 - International Posture

In her research into the L2 motivations of Japanese students, Yashima (2002, cited in Yashima 2013) introduced the concept of ‘international posture’ to describe the attitudes of L2 learners to different others and a willingness to communicate with them. This concept is based on MacIntyre and his associates’ (1998, cited in Yashima 2013: 38) ‘willingness to communicate’ theory (WTC), which relates to an individual’s ‘readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2’. Yashima however, expands on this concept and states that international posture includes the attitudes of L2 learners towards global affairs (Yashima 2013: 39). There is evidently a similarity here to Gardner’s integrative orientation theory, although Yashima’s concept is broader in its conception. Her studies included a group of Japanese high school students (2004, cited in Yashima 2013: 40) who were investigated to demonstrate a link between motivation, self-confidence, international posture, L2 WTC and frequency of communication in the classroom. Results showed that students who demonstrated a high level of international posture also demonstrated a high level of L2 WTC and frequency of communication in the classroom.

In conjunction with this study Yashima (2004: cited in Yashima 2013: 42) also investigated the link between international posture, L2 WTC and frequency of communication in the L2 among students taking part in an international volunteer group. The results show a significantly lower level of anxiety when communicating in the L2, among students who have previous international volunteer experience. She also carried out a control group of two sets of students and investigated their L2 WTC during
intercultural contact. The group which already had previous international experience demonstrated a higher level of L2 WTC and international posture than the second group, which had little or no previous international experience. It is quite reasonable to assume that individuals who have had international experience may also have a higher level of international posture than those who have not been abroad. Since Yashima’s concept of international posture includes attitudes to global affairs however, it is also reasonable to assume that someone with a keen interest in the outside world may exhibit a high level of international posture – they simply may not have had the opportunity to have international experience.

Yashima’s concept of international posture is very relevant in the Japanese context, when you consider the increasingly inward-looking nature of young Japanese students. 内向き(uchimuki), is the term the Japanese use to refer to this phenomenon, as opposed to the relatively outward looking nature of their parent’s generation in post war, baby boomer Japan. Yashima’s research therefore demonstrates what Prime Minster Abe and his generation are attempting to implement in their policy of Kokusaika, or internationalisation. If they can foster an interest in global affairs among young Japanese people, they may be able to improve their international posture and willingness to communicative with different others.

There are also important pedagogical implications of Yashima’s research. She refers to ‘imagined communities’ (2013: 47; see Chapter 1) when referring to a classroom pedagogy with an international focus as opposed to one which focuses solely on grammar and semantics. If learners are not in an immediate position to travel abroad and have face-to-face experiences with L2 communities, then an attempt should be made to bring the L2 community into the classroom. Yashima believes that this can be
done through presentations and debates etc., on topics relating to global affairs, such as the environment and human rights. Therefore, higher levels of international posture may lead to higher levels of motivation to communicate in English with different others and Yashima suggests that ‘if this cycle is created, motivation to learn English to communicate will be sustained’ (Yashima 2013: 51).

2.6.2 - L2 Motivation and the (Japanese) Secondary School Context

A study carried out among Japanese university students (Lockley 2011) to investigate their motivations for studying English at high school, provides an interesting insight into the L2 learning experiences of Japanese students. The participants of the study were asked to submit an essay on ‘what motivated them to study English at high school’. The results were many and varied and in general students referred to ‘stimulating, student interest orientated language learning activities’, such as ‘acting in class’ and ‘global issues in English’ (2011: 10). This seems to correlate with Yashima’s (2013) suggestions for implementing pedagogy with a focus on global affairs in order to foster international posture in students in an imagined community. Many of the students also stated the importance of learning in the L2 as opposed to the L1. However, as these students were English majors this opinion may not represent the majority of Japanese students. Interestingly some students stated that even though it was important to have lessons in the L2, it also inhibited their ‘full understanding’ of the target language or topic of the lesson. This was also the view of many Japanese junior high school teachers that the researcher interviewed for a small-scale study on the attitudes of Japanese junior high school teachers to communicative language teaching (McCarthy, 2012). They believed that in order to fully prepare students for high school and university
entrance exams they needed to focus on grammar and reading in particular, and as such conducting classes in the L1 was considered necessary due to time constraints and the overall level of the students.

Most of the students in Lockley’s study (2011) did not make reference to the role of their Japanese English teachers in motivating them to study English. However, as Hamada notes ‘teachers can be a weaker demotivator and are not always a strong source of demotivation in Japan’ (Hamada 2011: 17). This is not to say however that teachers are strong motivators, and it is likely that what Hamada is alluding to is that the role of Japanese English teachers in Japan is neither to be a strong motivator or demotivator, but possibly one which is more concerned with and focused on providing clear, concise and easy to understand lessons of complicated grammar translations.

Sawada (2004) however suggests that (Japanese secondary school) ‘teachers can play an important role in enhancing learners’ motivation’ (2004: 35), he falls short however, of providing any evidence or detail as to how Japanese English teachers can be motivators. He also goes on to say that ‘the fact that many successful students learn because they feel a sense of happiness suggests the classroom situation can play a key role in enhancing motivation’ (2011: 35). Of course, the classroom situation could refer to a number of features that may or may not be out of the teacher’s control, such as: the other students in the class, the overall curriculum or the teaching ethos of the school in general. Norris-Holt (2001) in her research in Japan, suggests that, at the university level, instructors need to put ‘a great deal of thought’ into developing interesting programmes that maintain and sustain a student’s motivation. She notes however that at the high school level, ‘this task may prove more difficult’ (Norris-Holt 2001: 6). She goes on to explain that because of university entrance exams, there is little desire to
improve L2 communicative competence. Ushioda (2013b: 5) agrees, and refers to the 試験地獄 (shiken jigoku - exam hell) that high school students face in Japan as opposed to the ‘leisure land’ existence they have in university.

Rubrecht (2005) tested the relevance of language learning motivation (LLM) models in the Japanese high school context and found that due to the students’ short-term goals of passing university entrance exams, ‘the current method of LLM orientation classification was found to be insufficient to simultaneously capture the broader temporal perspective of students’ (2005: 170). He calls for a more accurate description of motivation orientation to be developed and used other than the current models, such as the integrative / instrumental model. He then goes on to refer to Nuttin’s (1985, cited in Rubrecht 2005: 170) concept of ‘future time perspective’ (FTP) and how a temporal description of a language learner’s goals as opposed to their long-term aims might be more appropriate in the Japanese high school context.

One such study, that seems to focus more on temporal timeframes of L2 motivation, is an investigation carried out on Japanese university students to ascertain ‘what went wrong?’ with their prior L2 experiences in the Japanese educational system (Falout et al, 2013). They rightly pointed out that primary education seems to be working well in Japan and that elementary students seem to be intrinsically motivated to learn in a holistic way. However, when they enter junior high school something ‘goes wrong’ and their level of L2 motivation gradually decreases throughout secondary school. Falout and his associates reiterate the views expressed above by other researchers when they point the finger at high school and university entrance exams for this lack of L2 motivation in secondary school. They go on to explain how students entering university in Japan seem lost, from an L2 point of view, due to their language
learning experiences. They suggest an interesting method to assist these students in reconnecting with their past L2 learning experiences and connecting them with their present experiences and future L2 expectations. They refer to this as present communities of imagining (PCOI), (Falout et al., 2013: 248). They tested their framework on 1st year university students in Japan and found that reconnecting students with positive past L2 experiences and the future L2 expectations they have for themselves, resulted in higher levels of L2 motivation in their present learning experience. As these students were recent high school graduates, it is not unfounded to assume that this use of imagined communities of past and future ideal-selves could also have a positive effect on L2 motivation on Japanese high school students. Falout and his associates’ research also highlights the importance of viewing L2 motivation as a phenomenon that is not fixed and undeviating but rather dynamic and changeable over what can be a long course of study (see Section 2.5.1). They rightly state that providing learners with a link to past positive L2 learning experiences can have a favourable effect on L2 motivation. Consequently, it could be said that providing students with this link at an earlier stage of their studies might provide them with goals and aims to target in an attempt to provide more direction to their L2 motivation.

2.7 - Future Directions for L2 Motivation research

As the current action research project was completed over the course of four years, including a year-long reflective journal study, it could be important to briefly look at current thinking in relation to how motivation is triggered and sustained over long periods of time. Recently, L2 motivational researchers (Dörnyei, Henry, Muir, 2016) have been investigating in greater detail, the longitudinal process of motivation in
language learning. As language acquisition requires a long term commitment to engaging with the L2 both inside and outside the classroom for what is often years for most language learners, L2 motivational theorists have been placing more emphasis on developing frameworks that can aid L2 teachers and learners in not only triggering and sustaining L2 motivation, but also in how to deal with the ‘aftermath’ of a long term language learning project. Theorists have termed these frameworks ‘motivational currents’, or more precisely, ‘directed motivational currents’ (Dörnyei, Henry and Muir, 2016).

2.7.1 - Directed Motivational Currents

Dörnyei, Henry and Muir, compare directed motivational currents (DMCs) to ‘the thrill of the long distance runner’ (2016: x) and explain that the word ‘current’ is used to compare the kind of directed flow and pull that fish may experience, for example, when riding currents such as the gulf stream, with the kind of directed flow and pull that L2 researchers and learners have experienced when they are immersed in a project. In their exploration they highlight examples of people they interviewed in fields as varied as language teaching and engineering who admitted to experiencing periods of performance, while immersed in a project, at levels ‘over and above’ they thought themselves capable of. They also state that ‘directed’ is especially salient, in terms of L2 acquisition, as learners need to have a target or a goal to work towards, just as a current in the sea is pulled in, or more accurately to, a certain direction.

Of course, L2 acquisition is arguably a more complicated and dynamic phenomenon than a sea current, and even though both have a directed end goal, it may be harder for many L2 learners to sustain a high level of motivation over a very long
period of time. Certainly, the dynamic nature of L2 motivational currents could see L2 learners experience periods of low motivation while carrying out a long-term project. For this reason, Dörnyei et al. suggest that long term projects should be divided up into a number of shorter ones with each of these having their own goals, in what is termed ‘proximal subgoals’ (Bandura and Schunk, 1981). In this way L2 motivation can be directed in much the same way as a long-distance runner might divide a 42 km marathon into, for example, 6 stretches of 7 km each.

The long-distance runner will undoubtedly have an image of themselves crossing the finishing line and it is fair to presume that this image will propel them on their journey and help to sustain the energy levels needed to reach that goal. An important recurring theme in Dörnyei’s work on L2 motivation is the notion of vision and how images play an important part in determining aims and goals for language learners. Vision is also an important component of directed motivational currents, in particular in setting the end goal. But how can vision play a role in the development of proximal subgoals? Is it possible for learners to have separate images of themselves reaching each sub goal or does the vision or image simply become clearer or more detailed as the project nears an end?

Dörnyei et al. attempt to address these questions by coming up with a list framework, under the umbrella of directed motivational currents that are more practical and directly related to classroom pedagogy. These are: 1. All eyes on the final product, 2. Step by step, 3. The big issue, 4. That’s me, 5. Detective work, 6. Story sequels and, 7. Study abroad (2016: 177). All of these are potentially relevant to the current study, however ‘step by step’ and ‘that’s me’ seem to have the most relevance as the former easily relates to the short projects that are currently part of the syllabus in the school in
which the current study is being implemented. ‘That’s me’ is also relevant as the researcher is currently attempting to make and use materials that are as authentic and relevant to the students’ lives as possible.

The concepts in these frameworks played an important part in the design of the current study, and the data gathered from the participants gave important insights into how exactly images are visualized, not only as end goals but also as proximal subgoals - as can be seen from the results in Chapter 4 and 5. It was also interesting to see how these insights were harnessed and used to improve pedagogy in the L2 classroom in the school in which the present study took place – see Chapter 7. The following quote highlights the importance of directed motivational currents for pedagogy.

If we can harness this capacity to good effect – that is, if we can set the direction of a DMC toward beneficial learning outcome targets within classroom settings – we may be able to facilitate a smooth and far-reaching learning pathway.

(Dörnyei et al, 2016: xiii).

2.7.2 - New Contextual Approaches to L2 Motivation

Recent research into L2 motivation in Asian contexts has resulted in a move towards a more contextual approach to L2 motivation and learning that puts the learner at the heart of the approach. Gobel, Thang and Mori (2017) in their overview of research being carried out in East Asian contexts such as Japan and South Korea, state that there is general acceptance in these societies of the view that teachers play a much more important role in motivating learners than they do in western contexts. Learners in these contexts are seen as ‘interdependent’ learners who rely heavily on their teachers.
for support and guidance as opposed to more independent learners in Western societies. They also state however that recent research in Asian contexts has shown this to be only partially the case and that learners in East Asian contexts are able to learn independently in addition to the interdependent learning that they are more used to. They argue that Japanese and Korean teachers who play an important motivational role in their students’ lives, should use this power relationship to encourage their students to carry out more independent learning away from their direction and guidance.

What Gobel, Thang and Mori (2017) are proposing here of course is a kind of scaffolding where the supports can be taken down and put back up again, possibly in different ways and over a long period of time until the learner is ready to at least move on to the next stage. In the context of the current study, this could indeed be a useful tool for teachers who are attempting, under the instruction of the Japanese ministry of education (MEXT), to introduce more critical thinking among their high school students.

Another interesting study carried out in Korea by Kim (2017) revealed that complex dynamic systems (CDS) and sociocultural theory (SCT) in L2 motivation can be complementary to one another in highlighting different aspects of L2 motivation (2017: 47). In his research he identifies two aspects of CDS that have a strong influence on L2 motivation, parental involvement and societal pressure. He explains that SCT accounts for the agency or involvement of the student in the classroom, and views it as the moment of realisation that CDS motives are aligned with the objective learning that occurs in the L2 classroom. He further relates the term ‘sense’ with the coming together of CDS and SCT in the classroom, as L2 learners begin to make sense of their initial motivations upon entering the classroom and the aims and goals of L2 learning that
emerge. This is a notable concept and it has particular relevance to the present study as it was carried out in a similar context. Of Kim’s nine participants however, only three were high school students and the remaining six were elementary or junior high school students. Kim’s participants are therefore somewhat younger than the participants in the present study, who are all high school students, and this could explain why they demonstrated more parental involvement in particular.

Due to the perceived heavy involvement of the teacher in Asian contexts, it would be prudent to also look at how teachers can motivate their students directly in the classroom. One such study into how teachers can directly motivate their students in the classroom was carried out in an Indian context. Padwad and Dixit (2017), were teaching in an institution in India that required them to strictly adhere to government educational material and pedagogy and they acknowledged their apathy along with their students. During the course of an informal discussion outside the confines of the classroom Dexit managed to ascertain from his students the reasons why they were not interested in their English classes. The subsequent list created by Padwad and Dixit as a result of this discussion is long but there are a number of key points made about the style of teaching. Their students wanted them to use more supplementary materials, be friendlier and allow for more student participation.

Even though the focus of the current study is L2 motivation from a learner perspective it was relevant in terms of the researcher’s own journal to consider whether certain aspects of pedagogy had a negative effect on the fostering and nurturing of motivation in the classroom. The researcher also encouraged the participants to express their views about their teachers in their journal as they felt less willing to do so in the face to face interview. It was also important for the researcher to record feelings and
thoughts in a journal after completing lessons periodically, in order to reflect on
self-performance in the L2 classroom – see Chapter 7.

In an attempt to provide direction and guidance for further research in the area
of L2 motivation in Asian contexts, Apple and DaSilva (2017) point to a number of
realisations that current research has uncovered. These include the continual movement
away from a split intrinsic / extrinsic model of L2 motivation in the Asian context,
where learners in countries like Japan, China and Korea have difficulty demonstrating
L2 selves – see Owada’s (2014) study in Section 2.5.1. This shows that even the ideal
and ought-to self may be difficult to view as independent elements in Asian contexts.
The current study therefore determined the individual and person in context L2
motivations of the students under a broader framework of L2 identity that comprised
both elements and items of the L2 ideal and ought-to self – see Chapter 3.

Apple and DaSilva (2017) further argue that the lack of any significant native
speakers of the L2 in the East Asian context is one reason why the ideal L2 self is less
prevalent in this context. This is further complicated by the fact that in countries like
Japan and Korea, English is still a foreign language rather than an official language, as
it is in Hong Kong for example, and this means that L2 learners in these contexts do not
have as clear a model to act as an ideal for them. More importantly and as a result, this
has led to a lack of L2 role models to act as an ideal for young learners. This is one way
of course where L2 teachers can fill the void left by the legacy of history and cultural
monolinguism, by acting as role models for their students and providing an ideal for
them to base their ideal L2 self-identity on. A key component of the present study was
therefore an exploration into the participants’ attitudes and feelings towards their
teachers and whether or not they viewed them as ideal L2 role models – see Chapters 4
2.8 - Summary of Chapter 2

In this chapter, the four periods of L2 motivation research: 1. The social psychological period, 2. The cognitive-oriented period, and 3. The process-oriented period, and 4. The socio-dynamic period, were explored and critiqued. L2 motivation research from a Japanese perspective was also investigated, with particular attention being paid to existing research in the Japanese high school context, in order to set the scene from a research perspective, for the present study. This chapter also presented new ways of thinking and future directions in L2 motivation research, so as to provide a thorough theoretical grounding for the present study. The next chapter will allow for a presentation and discussion of the methodological approaches that were used in the current study.
Chapter 3 - Methodology

3.1 - Introduction to Chapter 3

Chapter 3 describes the methodology used in the present study, which is a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. We begin with a detailed outline of the context and participants of the present study followed by a close look at the key methods, approaches and processes that were utilised. These include: a mixed methods action research approach combining, 1. quantitative analysis, 2. qualitative thematic analysis and 3. action research. Finally, we look at other research methods that influenced the study and the ethical issues involved in carrying out research in a high school, which required the participants of the study and the researchers’ students to be discrete populations. Table 3.1 provides an overview of the procedure and timeline of the methodology used in the present study.
### Mixed Methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
<th>Action Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surveys</td>
<td>To gather data relating to the participants L2 identities and L2 learning experiences.</td>
<td>To gather more detailed quality data relating to the participants L2 identities and L2 learning experiences.</td>
<td>To gather more specific data relating to the participants L2 classroom experiences in a more dynamic way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Journals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Analysis Tools

- **Descriptive statistics**
- **Fishers Exact Test**
- **Thematic analysis**
- **Colour coding**

### Language Medium

- **English**
- **Japanese** (choice)

### Number of Participants

- **12**

### Profile of Participants

- **Participants A – L**
  - B & D - 1st year students
  - E & J - 2nd year students
  - A, C, F, G, H, I, K, L - 3rd year students

### Timeline

- **May - June 2017**
- **April 2017 – March 2018**

Table 3.1 - Overview of implementation of methodology

### 3.2 - The Present Research Context

The school in which the present study takes place is a private (fee paying) high school in Japan where students are between the ages of 15 and 18. Private high schools are very common and numerous in Japan, and although the school in which the present
study takes place is fee paying, it would be considered to be a mid-level school in terms of academic achievement. This reduces the likelihood of a sampling bias. The high school is located within a university campus which also includes a kindergarten and a junior high school (where students are between 12 and 15 years old). The overall academy follows a Christian doctrine even though many of the teachers and the vast majority of the students are not Christian. Its overall aim is to foster an international global outlook among its students and to promote the acquisition of foreign languages as a means to achieve this aim. English is therefore one of the most important core subjects taken by all students attending both the junior high school and high school. In the high school, as is the case with all high schools in Japan, 国語 (kokugo - Japanese), 数学 (Suugaku - maths), and 英語 (Eigo - English) make up a trio of core subjects that all students must take and pass in order to enter a university. Students also study as many as ten other elective subjects in the fields of science, social science, arts and music, etc.

Even though the school promotes a holistic approach to the overall aim of acquiring the skills necessary for global communication, the students are required to prepare for and take four term exams in each of as many as twelve subjects every year. They also take short class exams, known as contests, once every term in each of the three core subjects. These contests are highly competitive, and the names of students who achieve top scores are announced at school assemblies. In addition to these in-house exams, all students are required to sit a tri-annual external exam in the three core subjects that are produced and graded by private companies. The results of these exams are used to compare the overall academic level of students from other private high schools in Japan who compete for students as well as government funding. In their
final year of study, students must also prepare for university entrance exams. All students must sit a national university entrance exam, known as the ‘Centre Test’. In addition, many students take entrance exams from public or private universities that are many and varied depending on the academic level and focus of the university.

The sheer number of exams that high school students in Japan must prepare for and take is often met with astonishment by outsiders. One of the key questions in this thesis is directly related to how students cope with this dual focus of seemingly never-ending prosaic examination and the overall nurturing and fostering of global communication skills. It is an important part of this thesis to determine if and how this dual focus shapes their L2 future selves. As Ushioda points out, ‘future-self-representations that are highly desirable are likely to shape motivation, effort, persistence and growth, in contrast with future-self-images that are less attractive or less personally valued or internalized’ (2013: 10).

3.3 - The Participants

Once ethical approval had been secured, the task of recruiting participants began. This was done with the help of a gatekeeper, who acted as an intermediary between the researcher and prospective participants. For ethical reasons, it was decided that students who attended classes taught by the researcher at the time the research was being carried out, should not be invited to take part in the study. It was felt that students attending classes by the researcher may feel obliged to participate even though they would rather not, due to the fact that the researcher grades their regular class assignments and exams. Instead, an information letter was drafted and distributed to classes taught by other teachers – see Appendix 1. The letter and all other documentation relating to the
recruitment process was translated by the researcher into Japanese with the assistance of a bilingual colleague. In total, approximately 320 students received the information letter inviting them to take part in the study. The letter stated that if they were interested then they should contact the gatekeeper if they had any further questions. The gatekeeper then introduced the prospective participants to the researcher, who, as stated in the information letter, would be carrying out the interviews in Japanese and English.

In total, 12 students agreed to take part in the study as participants – see Table 3.2 for participant profiles. They ranged in age from 15 to 18 at the time the research was being carried out. 2 of them are male and the remaining 10 are female. While all 12 agreed to take part in the interview and complete the survey, only 4 of them agreed to keep a journal over the course of one academic year. This was largely due to the concerns of some of the participants relating to time constraints and an uncertainty as to whether or not they could commit to keeping the journal over a long time period.
### Table 3.2 – Participant Profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Word Count (Interview)</th>
<th>Word Count (Journal)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>1,896</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1st Year</td>
<td>1,614</td>
<td>278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>1,467</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1st Year</td>
<td>1,514</td>
<td>1,140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2nd Year</td>
<td>1,888</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>903</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>1,134</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>1,166</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2nd Year</td>
<td>1,929</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>2,047</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3rd Year</td>
<td>1,473</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>1,168</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 19,031  Total: 3,087

#### 3.4 - A Mixed Methods Approach

Due to the increasingly complex and dynamic nature of research in applied linguistics and especially L2 motivation, it has become apparent to many researchers (Hashemi and Babaii, 2013; Brown, 2014; Ivankova and Greer, 2015) that mixed
methods research may be more appropriate and informative in this field. Mixed methods of course refers to the combination of both qualitative and quantitative studies – for example, a study combining both surveys and interviews would be classed as mixed methods. However, in attempting to define the genre of research, Hashemi and Babaii (2013) state that a mixed methods study is not merely a combination of both interviews and surveys under the umbrella of one area of study. ‘High-quality mixed methods research requires mixing throughout an entire study: from forming research questions, to sampling, to data collection, to analysis, and finally, to interpretation’ (Yin 2006, cited in Hashemi and Babaii 2013: 829).

In their own study, Hashemi and Babaii (2013), looked at a number of mixed methods studies and determined whether in fact they could be truly classed as such. They determined that even though the studies they investigated made little reference to the integration of their qualitative and quantitative research, they did develop their conclusions based on these approaches. Hashemi and Babaii highlight the need for considerable attention to be focused on the integration of these two approaches in any mixed methods study. They however, fall short of offering a concrete example of what this integration would look like. It is therefore presumed that a properly integrated mixed methods approach would not only need to be answering the same questions but would, for example, need to have items of criteria in a quantitative survey matching or at least being similar in meaning to the questions asked in a qualitative interview.

Ivankova and Greer (2015) appear to be more accepting in their classification of research into different kinds of mixed methods studies. They acknowledge that some studies will be more heavily weighted either quantitatively or qualitatively - for example, a quantitative project involving follow up qualitative interviews with the same
participants may be classed as a mixed methods approach. Therefore, it was important to decide whether the current research project was more heavily weighted on the qualitative or quantitative side. Or if indeed equal weighting was applied to both. Ivankova and Greer (2015) also highlight the importance of deciding the sequence of a mixed approach. In other words, do interviews follow surveys or are they conducted at the same time? They also make reference to the need for a focus on integration, but unlike Hashemi and Babaii (2013), they state that this integration does not need to be applied throughout the research project and may only need to be at certain stages - for example, integration at the interpretation, data collection or data analysis stages.

It may be fair to presume therefore that a mixed methods approach, even though it may be carefully thought out, evolves and takes shape over the course of the research project. Even though a study may begin as a mixed methods approach it may become evident to the researcher that certain parts of the data need to be more heavily weighted, either qualitatively or quantitatively. Further, the extent to which the methods employed are integrated, may only become evident during the interpretation of the data after it is gathered and analysed.

As the researcher was carrying out research in a setting and context in which the participants are high school students and the researcher is a teacher in the same school, it was deemed to be necessary to look at a more hands on and qualitative approach to researching motivation. It became clearer then that due to the present study’s complex nature a combination of research methods was more beneficial; utilising elements of qualitative and quantitative research.
3.4.1 - The Survey

Although the present study mainly focuses on the qualitative aspect of the study, including the interviews and the journals, elements of a more quantitative nature were also utilised; in particular, the quantitative survey. The survey was used to triangulate the interview data and to provide a basis for the interview guide – see Section 3.4.2.1. The methodology behind the design of the survey was grounded in theory and the categories and items in the survey were taken and adapted from previous studies carried out by researchers in motivation and learning (Dörnyei, 2009; Ushioda 2009).

Apart from decisions made as to which items to include, it was decided that the Likert scale would be used as a scale from one to five to record the responses of the participants. The Likert scale was chosen for its ability to assess the attitudes of the respondents without having to resort to open-ended response type questions that can result in large amounts of unusable data. According to Wray and Bloomer, the Likert scale is a good way to ‘elicit informants' subjective responses’ (2006: 156). They add a note of caution though as it has the disadvantage of ‘forcing’ respondents to choose from a range of responses that may not exactly fit their preferred response. Of course, one way to limit the probability of this disadvantage is to ensure that the choice of responses allotted to each question try to represent and predict, in as much as possible, the range and scope of attitudes and opinions that respondents are likely to have.

Dörnyei and Csizér (2011) also provide a useful guide on how to design a survey involving second language acquisition. They advise that a multi-item scale should include between 10 and 20 items, involve circling the most appropriate option among closed ended rather than open ended questions. Dörnyei and Csizér (2011) also recommend the Likert scale with either five or six options from strongly agree to
strongly disagree with the middle option being neither agree nor disagree. All of the above was adhered to in the design of the survey in the present study. However, due to the fact that the Japanese are often likely to give 建前 (tatemae), socially acceptable responses to answers in formal situations, the researcher decided to use the term ‘a little’ to refer to the middle option. The Japanese translation of ‘a little’ is 少し (sukoshi) orちょっと (chotto) which is a polite way of saying ‘no’ in Japan. The Likert design in the present study therefore included 5 options with the middle option, ‘a little’, interpreted as a negative response. Also, the researcher offered translations for parts of the surveys which Japanese colleagues believed some participants may not be able to understand or may find ambiguous. However, simple English words or phrases in the survey such as, ‘I like English’, were not translated into Japanese. Japanese colleagues and the gatekeeper in particular, who acted as a liaison between the participants and the researcher (see Section 3.7 for more on the gatekeeper), believed that leaving certain simple words and phrases in English allowed prospective participants to view it as part of their English class, rather than, for example, a top down survey from Japanese educators. The researcher, however, was careful to ensure that translations were written on the survey in cases where it was thought any difficulty or ambiguity may arise.

It is not the intention of the present study to draw complicated and inferential conclusions from the use of quantitative statistics but rather to use basic statistics to aid in the design and implementation of the qualitative study. Therefore, descriptive rather than inferential statistics were of more use and benefit to the researcher during this project. That is, the use of ‘averages, percentages and graphs’ (Larson, 2006; Wray and Bloomer 2006; Resendes, 2013) rather than any complex statistical modelling of quantitative data. As the purpose of the surveys is to simply aid the overall qualitative
project and provide a surface level view of the overall thoughts and opinions of the participants to the issues in question, the focus will remain on the more in-depth, exploratory and ‘person in context’ (Ushioda, 2009: 215) action research project. It was important, however to consider carefully the design and layout of the surveys and to avoid ‘loaded’ or ‘leading’ questions (Wray and Bloomer (2006: 159) that may skew the data. It was also necessary to relate the questions or items to the L2 motivational frameworks that were looked at in Chapter 2 of this thesis (see Section 2.4). Selecting and sorting these items into categories that are relevant to the context of the present study was of the utmost importance. The responses of the participants in the surveys formed the basis for the design and implementation of further and more in-depth investigations, such as the interviews.

After hypothesising about the data collected, these hypotheses needed to be tested for statistical significance. This was done by carrying out a Fisher Test to reject the null hypothesis where $P < .05$ - see Chapter 4 for the results of the Fisher Tests and an explanation of how they were carried out. A Fisher Test is also the best fit for the data in the present study as the sample size is relatively small. Statistical significance in the relationships between certain items that the researcher is hypothesising about, adds weight to the argument being made in the qualitative study.

Even though the survey is supplementing the interview and it is not the main focus of the study, it plays an important part in the overall action research project and as such it was necessary to pilot it carefully. Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System (2009) was a significant influence on the design of the questionnaire and in particular the decision to divide the categories into L2 learning experience and L2 identity - see Appendix 5 for the survey used in the present study. It was decided to combine both
‘ought-to self’ and ‘ideal self’ into one category due to the participants being adolescents, and taking into account the context in which the research takes place, the boundaries between ought-to and ideal L2 self may not be as clear and easy to predetermine – see Section 2.5.1. Rather, a certain amount of crossover is expected to occur between the two categories depending on and due to the complex nature of each student’s L2 learning experience. Items were chosen for each of the two main categories based on their contextual relevance to the present study – the items in Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System framework often relate more closely to adult learners, especially university students. In any case, utilising Dörnyei’s categories while coming up with unique items allows the present study to more closely relate to other current L2 motivational studies while at the same time maintaining a fresh and unique perspective.

Dörnyei’s framework and other L2 motivational frameworks have already been examined in Chapter 2 of the present thesis and it is not the intention of the researcher to repeat an overview at this stage. However, it is necessary to look at why the unique items in the present questionnaire were considered. A number of frameworks played a part in the researcher’s thinking when choosing to include the items and many of these have already been examined. The most salient of the L2 motivational frameworks that were directly referred to in the wording of the present questionnaires’ items were also used to design the interview guide (Dörnyei 2009; Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009; Yashima 2009) – see Section 3.4.2.1. The items in the present questionnaire were often worded more simply however to aid understanding, due to the participants being high school students. A good example of how the items in the present questionnaire were closely related in meaning but not wording to previous questionnaires, can be seen by looking at the following: ‘Studying English is important for me because I am planning
to study abroad’ (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009: 94), ‘I would like to live and work in an English-speaking country’. Also, as the questionnaire was being used in conjunction with an interview and other features of an action research project, items from previous studies that were similar in meaning were combined into one item, in order to reduce the time needed to complete the questionnaire.

It was decided to pilot the survey on bilingual colleagues and the gatekeeper of the present study in order to more accurately assess reliability. The gatekeeper of the present study is a Japanese English teacher in the school in which the study takes place – for more on the gatekeeper see Section 3.7. Piloting on colleagues was deemed to be necessary as due to the age of the participants and the context in which the study is being implemented, Japanese colleagues may be able to add a perspective that is contextually relevant. As these bilingual Japanese teachers used to be students themselves, many of them in the same educational setting as their current students, they have a unique understanding of how Japanese high school students might react to the wording of certain questions. Also, as the survey needed to be in Japanese and English, it was important to choose a translation that was as similar in meaning as possible to the English equivalent without being too complicated or unnatural. Some questions that may seem perfectly plausible in English may seem unnatural, dubious or simply difficult to answer when translated into Japanese.

After piloting the survey with Japanese colleagues, it was noted that a few of the items would need to be edited or removed altogether. Items 11 and 12 from the L2 learning experience category, ‘I am worried that being able to speak English will make me feel less Japanese’ and ‘I am worried that speaking English will distance me from my classmates’, raised a few eyebrows among my colleagues and in hindsight might
have been best suited to another study. Therefore, these items were removed from the actual participant questionnaire. Also, Item 8 from the L2 identity category, ‘I try to be like famous people from English-speaking countries’ caused some debate among Japanese colleagues who took part in the pilot. Whether this question just does not translate very well or whether it is dubious is unclear. However, even though Japanese colleagues noted that they were confused by the question, after choosing a suitable Japanese translation, it was decided to keep the question in the survey.

It was also decided to include more items relating to university entrance exams and the L2 ought-to self. As was mentioned in Chapter 1 of the present thesis, university entrance exams in Japan have a notable influence on high school curricula and pedagogy. As a result, it was deemed to be prudent to include questions relating to students’ motivation to study English in order to pass these entrance exams. These exams are notoriously grammar-based and are almost exclusively made up of multiple-choice responses to grammar-based questions. As a consequence, school pedagogy tends to focus a lot of time and attention on preparing students for these exams. The washback effect of these exams on high school curricula in Japan has been well documented and their effect on L2 motivation is currently a hot topic in the Japanese media.

Even though this is probably an entire thesis in itself it certainly has a bearing, at least in part, on the present study. Therefore, item(s) relating to university entrance exams and their effect on L2 motivation needed to be included in the actual study. This was also a salient feature of one of the key questions that was mentioned in Chapter 1 of this thesis. This relates to the relationship between the L2 learning experience and the L2 self. In other words, a student who is studying English in order to pass a
grammar-based university entrance exam may find little time or capacity to foster their intrinsic L2 motivation. See Sections 3.2 and 3.3 for more on the ‘dual focus’ of the school that provided the setting for the present study and the students who took part as participants.

3.4.2 - The Interview

Qualitative researchers in applied linguistics (Kim, 2006; Mann, 2011; Shimamura, 2015) refer to the interview process as being a three-pronged tool comprising of either open-ended, semi-structured or structured formats. Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005) seem to favour the semi-structured approach to interviewing as it allows the interviewee freedom to elaborate on their responses but also ensures that the interviewer can extract rich and relevant data. Kim (2006) appears to agree, and in his detailed study of how best to go about qualitative research into L2 motivation, he reasoned that a fully structured interview would be too similar to a simple questionnaire which would ‘prevent the interviewer from soliciting related in-depth information from the interviewee’ (2006: 234).

Kim (2006) also concludes that there are a number of other factors that need to be considered when carrying out an interview process. These factors include the extent to which the identities of the participants of an interview affect the outcome of the process. This could be anything from the age gap between the interviewer and interviewee, and the differences in race, gender, religion or background. All of these factors can have an effect on, for example, turn-taking and posturing during the interview. In Kim’s (2006) study of Canadians of East Asian origin and their experiences of learning English, he noted that the age gap and gender difference
between him and some of his participants resulted in older interviewees taking greater control of the direction the interview was taking. He also noted that participants who shared a common ethnicity with the interviewer, tended to show more interest in the interviewer’s own experiences of the L2. He sounded a note of caution here for interviewers to limit the amount of rapport-building between the interviewee and interviewer, so as to have as little an influence as possible on the data being gathered. This sounds a little overly cautious, however, it is important for the interviewer to be mindful when rapport-building and talking about their own experiences as they may sway the interviewees’ answers in one way or another. Mann seems to concur, and views this as interactional context ‘where each turn is shaped by the previous turns, and roles and membership categories are invoked and evoked’ (2011: 17).

Qualitative researchers (Mann, 2011; Holliday, 2015) also point out that regardless of the discipline, the same rules apply for carrying out interviews. They refer to the discourse in anthropology, psychology and sociology as having the same ethical considerations as that of applied linguistics, even though the context of the research will have a bearing on ‘behavioural rules and modes of organization’ (Holliday 2015: 50). Holliday identifies three basic ‘principles’ for applied linguists to adhere to when conducting interviews; transparency, submission and making appropriate claims (2015: 52). In other words, there is an onus on a qualitative researcher to provide an open and accurate account of their interview process. They need to accurately relate to the participants the reason for and application of the research data. They also need to be able to be flexible as the direction of the research may be altered depending on the interviewee’s responses. This means that they need to be able to submit to an interviewee when necessary. Finally, when reporting the findings of the research, the

1 0 0
interviewer needs to make appropriate claims. For example, if the researcher is still unclear as to whether his or her research has definitively answered their original research questions, then they need to state this in their conclusions.

Due to the ‘subjective nature of qualitative research, the views and opinions of the participants form the backbone of the research’ (Holliday, 2015: 49). This is opposed to the more objective nature of quantitative surveys that will put less of a burden of disclosure on the participants. This however leads to a number of ethical concerns that a qualitative researcher needs to be aware of, especially when conducting interviews. Holliday (2015) states a number of ethical considerations that need to be taken into consideration when doing qualitative interviews or indeed any qualitative research. These include, issues regarding privacy, time constraints, work-load and the level of interest the participants may or may not have in the research topic (2015: 56).

Interviewers therefore have to be mindful of factors such as the age of the participants. If interviews are being conducted with students who are not yet adults, then the need for appropriate consent forms and whether or not they are needed should be investigated. This will vary depending on the context and setting of the research. Participants may also be busy with work or study, so researchers need to be mindful of time constraints and the burden that taking part in an interview will put on the interviewee. The time and place of an interview will therefore need to be negotiated between the interviewer and interviewee.

In research carried out by the author (McCarthy, 2012) certain ethical considerations were learnt during the course of a series of interviews with junior high school teachers. As the teachers were very busy at certain times of the day, week or month, I allowed the participating teachers a certain amount of time to decide when
would be best for them to take part in an interview. This flexibility also allowed them time to think about what they might talk about. The interview process has also been referred to by qualitative researchers as a ‘social encounter’ (Mann, 2011: 8) and as such interviewees need to feel relaxed and comfortable during the interview as they would expect and want to feel in any social encounter.

The interviewer also needs to be mindful about the level of interest the participants may have in the research topic. It will be important to not only choose participants that fit the general criteria of an interviewee, that is, student or teacher, but also to select interviewees that you may think would be interested in the research topic or be more willing to devote their time and energy to the interview. Of course, this will need to be balanced with an unbiased sample of interviewees. For example, if a researcher wants to determine attitudes towards speaking English and only selects participants that like English or have a seemingly positive attitude towards English, then the data may be unbalanced. It is prudent then for a researcher to be aware of possible pre-existing opinions of interviewees and to select participants who as much as possible represent a larger population. Of course, this may not always be possible, due to the context and situation of each individual research project. Therefore, researchers need to factor this into their findings and conclusions need to be drawn taking these ethical issues into consideration.

The researcher also noted in previous research (McCarthy, 2012) that factors such as the presence of a digital recorder, need to be taken into account. Interviewees will be aware that their responses are being recorded and as such it is possible this may inhibit their freedom to express their true opinions. The Japanese are notorious for giving 建前 (tatemae - socially acceptable) responses to questions. The presence of a
recorder may only exaggerate this social responsibility. It is important then to build sufficient rapport with interviewees at the beginning of the interview. A relaxed and comfortable interviewee is more likely to express their opinions freely and respond with 本音 (honne - their true feelings).

3.4.2.1 - The Interview Process

Interviews were carried out on an individual basis between the researcher and each participant using an interview guide which was made up of a list of questions relating to items and categories in the survey – see Appendix 6. More specifically the questions for the interview guide were constructed by collapsing items together that were of a similar theme and had similar results after analysis of the surveys. More general questions were placed at the beginning of the guide, with more specific questions at the end. The guide also included areas where the researcher could probe for further information and it allowed scope for spontaneity during the course of the interview. This allowed the participants to speak more freely about topics that they considered important and relevant and it also allowed the researcher the freedom to alter the line of questioning, based on the direction and flow of the conversation.

The interview guide was piloted on two bilingual colleagues, who are teachers of English in the school where the study is being carried out. It was felt that as these teachers used to be students themselves (one was recently a student in the school in which the present study is being carried out), they could not only imagine themselves answering as students but they could also provide the researcher with valuable feedback on how to improve the questions or make them more suitable for Japanese high school
students. It was hoped that this would result in the collection of better quality data. It was especially useful when designing the bilingual interview guide as they recommended certain alterations to the translations in order to improve the accuracy and reliability of the responses.

Once the participants had agreed to take part and all the necessary ethical forms were signed by them and their parents, a time and place to conduct the interview was set. Interviews were then conducted over a period of 8 weeks, in May and June 2017, with each interview taking between 15 and 20 minutes approximately. The interviews were conducted in both Japanese and English, depending on the L2 communicative ability of the participant. They were recorded with a digital audio recorder and the data files were stored on a USB and the hard drive of a password protected PC for transcription.

In an information letter (see Appendix 1) received by the participants and their parents, prior to agreeing to take part in the study, they were assured that they would be able to use Japanese or English or both to complete the survey, interview and journal. As a result, the full transcripts, including the extracts which appear in Chapter 5, were translated by the researcher from Japanese into English. Of course, if the participant completed the interview and journal in English, then the extracts will appear exactly as they were uttered or written. Therefore, even though the original audio recording of the interview and the written journal may have been completed in Japanese, all extracts in Chapter 5 and 7 are in English.

After recording the interviews with the twelve participants, the data was transcribed, coded and analysed using a thematic analysis framework (Kvale 2007; Richards, 2003) - see Section 3.4.2.1. The word count of the total corpus of transcribed interviews is 19,031 words and individual interview transcription word counts were
between about 1000 and 2000 words – see Table 3.2. The questions and responses from the interviews were grouped into themes, relating to the categories in the quantitative survey – see Table 3.4. The themes are: 1. Interpersonal relationships, 2. Use of the L2 in the classroom, 3. Past L2 learning experiences, 4. Influence of university entrance exams, and 5. Future Selves. A colour code system was used to identify the parts of the data that related to each theme. Each theme included up to five sub themes. For example, Theme 1, Interpersonal Relationships, was further sub-divided into responses relating to parents, classmates, friends, teachers and famous people. Each sub theme was given a number from 1 to 5 to allow for a more efficient and easily identifiable coding system. The main themes were assigned a colour code. As themes emerged from the data during analysis, the part of the data which matched a theme was highlighted in that theme’s colour. This made it easy to identify the themes when referring back to the data at a later date – See Table 3.4.

3.4.2.2 - Thematic Analysis

Richards (2003) warns that written documents of research that include large amounts of irrelevant data with little or no reference to analysis, will often result in a fail grade. It was important for the researcher therefore to include only the most salient features of the data in the actual written research and to ensure that the data was analysed with reference to its relevance to the issues being questioned and how and to what extent the selected data allowed for conclusions to be drawn.

The main bulk of the data collected was the data from the participant interviews. It was therefore important to develop a transcription and coding system that
was easy to use and allowed for a readily available reference system. This included gathering the data under certain categories, based on the evidence gathered from the quantitative surveys. For example, talk or data relating to the ‘language learning experience’ of the participants was listed numerically under that heading, making reference to the number that the line of talk was given during the transcription stage. The comments column in the transcription data sheet further enhanced the richness of the data and allowed for inferences to be made with other similar data and arguments to be made and hypothesis to be further explored based on these original comments.

It was also important to not only create these arguments at the beginning of the research but also to allow themes to develop as the research went along. Holliday states that ‘taking a purely thematic approach, in which all the data is taken holistically and rearranged under themes which emerge as running through its totality, is the classic way to maintain these principles’ (2007: 94). The principles that Holliday is referring to here are those of ‘emergence’ and ‘submission’. In other words, a researcher must not simply preselect themes at the beginning of their research but rather should select emerging themes throughout their research and allow themselves to submit to these themes. The data collected from talk during the participant interviews, therefore, not only formed a large amount of the discourse of the research section of the present thesis, but it was also invaluable in deciding on and narrowing the focus of the themes of the overall thesis.

Thematic analysis, or template analysis as it is sometimes referred to, is not a clearly defined method, but rather a ‘varied but related group of techniques for thematically organising and analysing textual data’ (King, 2004: 256). Thus, by nature it is experimental, flexible and adaptable and as such it can be applied in a variety of
contextual situations when a researcher may be looking to extract not only meaning from data, but also identify a recurring pattern of meaning across what might be a range of related data sets. In the present study, the researcher also looked for a relationship between these recurring patterns and thematic analysis allowed for an approach whereby unexpected and unplanned relationships were identified and noted as they began to emerge during data collection and analysis.

Coding is also an important part of thematic analysis and the researcher used this tool when deciding on a number of codes which related to the themes and subthemes. These codes may be in word, letter or pictorial form. However, in the present study the researcher decided to assign colours to each theme for easy cross reference with the corresponding data at a later date. Braun and Clarke recommend ‘using highlighters or coloured pens to indicate potential patterns’ (2006: 19) as a useful form of manual thematic analysis. Identifying, labelling and drawing inference from emerging themes in the data required the researcher to draw on a skill set that is similar to that of a social, anthropological or more precisely, ethnographic researcher – see Section 3.8.2. Braun and Clarke (2006) provide a useful guide for a 6-phase thematic analysis and Table 3.3 maps each stage of the current study’s thematic analysis onto each of the 6 phases. See Chapter 5 and 6 for the results of the thematic analysis of the interviews.
| Phase 1 | **Familiarising yourself with the data**  
The data gathered from the interview transcripts was read a number of times in order to gain familiarity and immersion in the texts. |
| --- | --- |
| Phase 2 | **Generating initial codes**  
Key words or phrases relating to the interview guide were highlighted. These formed the initial codes and each code was assigned a colour – see Table 3.4 for themes and corresponding codes. A file was created numbering the amount of extracts that were highlighted for each code. |
| Phase 3 | **Searching for themes**  
Codes were narrowed down and sorted into broader potential themes. The key codes then formed sub-themes under each of 5 main themes – see Table 3.4. |
| Phase 4 | **Reviewing themes**  
Themes and sub themes were refined and some collapsed into each other. The surviving sub-themes were assigned a number from 1 to 5. |
| Phase 5 | **Defining and naming themes**  
The main themes are then cross checked with the overall research questions and consideration is given to how they fit in with the ‘overall story that each theme tells’ (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 22). |
| Phase 6 | **Producing the report**  
This involves the final analysis and write-up of the report. |

Table 3.3 - Thematic analysis framework used in the present thesis
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>L2 Interpersonal Relationships</th>
<th>L2 Use in Class (Ideal)</th>
<th>Past L2 Experiences</th>
<th>University Exams (Preferred type)</th>
<th>Future-Selves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Theme 1</td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Once a week</td>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>work in Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Theme 2</td>
<td>Classmates</td>
<td>More than once a week</td>
<td>Junior high school</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>work in international company in Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Theme 3</td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>Half of the time</td>
<td>Outside of school</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>living/working studying abroad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Theme 4</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>More than half of the time</td>
<td>Abroad</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Talking to foreigners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Theme 5</td>
<td>Famous People</td>
<td>All the time</td>
<td>English movies/TV/media</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Travelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colour Code</td>
<td>Red</td>
<td>Blue</td>
<td>Orange</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>Green</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thematic analysts (Javadi and Zarea, 2011) state that one of the main aspects of thematic analysis is that it is centred on an undetermined number of themes - that are further divided into subthemes. These themes are not finalised until the data has been gathered and analysed, even though the researcher may begin with a number of themes that may act as a guide for what is expected to emerge from the data collected. In the current study, the expected and preliminary themes were based on the research questions but they also evolved and changed over the course of the various stages of data collection and analysis.

3.5 - Action Research Approach

In action research a teacher becomes an ‘investigator’ or ‘explorer’ of his or her personal teaching context, while at the same time being one of the participants in it.

(Burns: 2010: 2)

As the author of the present study was immersed in the research setting as a researcher-teacher, it was thought that a hands-on approach to research methodology would be more appropriate. Action research (Burns, 2010) provides probably the best and most flexible approach to researching a class over a period of time where the teacher is also the author of the research. As action research can encompass other elements of qualitative research such as interviews, observations and even components of ethnography, it allows us to explore the issues in question with less of a narrow framework.

As the name suggests, action research (AR) involves an active and hands on approach to research. It may be possible to conduct an exclusively quantitative study from information gathered from a library or data gathered from participants who may be
distanced from the research. AR on the other hand, and in this context, involves the participation of a researcher who is a teacher and participants in his or her environment, who are usually their students or co-workers (Ferrance 2000:1). Action research theorists and advocates identify four key stages of an AR project; planning, action, observation, and reflection (Kemmis & McTaggart (1988); Farrell, 2007; Burns, 2010; McNiff, 2013; Gray, 2014). Ferrance (2000: 9) goes further to define an action research cycle including five steps; identification of the problem, collection of the data, interpretation of the data, action based on the data and finally reflection.

Upon reviewing literature on AR, it is evident that it is a very broad area that may encompass a number of key related concepts. Key concepts repeatedly mentioned by AR researchers are; teacher development, improvement, growth and reflection (Ferrance 2000; Sowa, 2009; Cooke, 2013; Cirocki, Tennekoon, and Penna Calvo, 2014; Burns, 2015). It begins with a teacher or a group of teachers identifying a problem with class pedagogy. There needs to be a desire among a teacher or teachers to want to improve on an area of their teaching or develop skills that they possess but want to fine tune. It may be for a certain set period or it may be ‘lifelong’ (Sowa, 2009). It encourages teachers to become involved with the process of teaching and to assist in bridging the gap between teaching and pedagogy. It may begin with a teacher becoming disillusioned with a textbook or syllabus that has been designed by education boards or publishing companies that may be distanced from the teaching context that the teacher is faced with. Perhaps the desire to improve pedagogy may be born out of a frustration with unsuitable teaching materials or a curriculum rather than a lack of confidence in individual teaching skills.

Another salient feature of most AR is the need to ask questions - questions, for
example, relating to teacher practice and student participation. They may be very personal questions, perhaps doubting individual teaching styles, such as; *Am I speaking clearly or slowly enough? How much of what I am saying are the student’s understanding? Is my teacher talk time appropriate?* The questions may also be directed at higher ups on the school board or education department, for example, *Is the textbook I am using appropriate? Is the amount of time allocated for my class enough?* Or they may be questions that require the participation of everyone concerned, such as, *what motivates my students to speak English?*

At the heart of AR of course, are the teachers themselves. This dates back to the origins of AR and the ‘Teacher as Researcher’ movement in the 1970s (Griffie 2012: 110). Some researchers (Cirocki, Tennekoon & Pena Calvo, 2014) point to Stenhouse (1976), as one of the first to theorise on the importance and need for teachers to be more involved in education research. However, Lewin and Dewey (cited in Adelman, 1993) were probably the first psychologists in the early twentieth century to propose educational reforms based on the idea that education and learning were interactive processes. Lewin is even accredited with coining the term *Action Research* (Ferrance 2000: 7). However, it was not until around 2000 that AR began to take shape as a research method developed and implemented by practitioners (Cirocki, Tennekoon & Pena Calvo, 2014: 25). Anne Burns is arguably one of the leading practitioners in the field of AR today, and her work (2010) provides one of the most thorough and in-depth accounts of AR to date. In her research she concurs that AR can be divided into four main stages; *planning, action, observation, and reflection* (2010). She also states that these stages are not fixed and in reality, they “dynamically interact” (Burns, 2010) with one another as a researcher’s investigation deepens. Even though these four stages are
not fixed and are clearly adaptable to the context and research questions at hand, they do provide a working template for researchers to design their own investigations around.

3.6 - The AR Journal Process

Section 3.6.1 outlines the 4 stages of action research and how they were utilised for the present study. Section 3.6.2 describes in more detail the data collection procedure from the journal process, as the journal was the instrument used to gather data from the participants for the action research approach. It may be a misrepresentation of the present study to separate each stage of the action research process into separate stages, as the stages often interacted with each other. However, it is possible to show how the AR stages interacted and flowed together – as illustrated in Figure 3.1. Figure 3.1 also outlines the AR framework used in the present study. For more on the theory that grounds diary studies in general see Section 3.8.3.
This section explores the four stages of the AR cycle from planning to reflection. The current study’s AR journal approach is mapped onto each stage of this AR cycle. Before each stage is outlined in terms of how it was implemented in the present study, a brief overview of what each stage typically entails is provided for.
3.6.1.1 - Planning

As with each stage of AR the researcher (teacher) needs to ask questions. At the planning stage we need to ask questions such as, *what do I want to change in my class?* Or, *what are the problematic areas that need to be investigated?* At this stage we also need to decide who the interlocutors are and when and how they are to be made aware of the research proposal - for example, do we first approach the board of education, colleagues or teaching professionals? It is also necessary to consider and possibly identify any social or political constraints to carrying out the proposed research. We also need to take into account the time frame, scope and general feasibility of the research. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, the actual action stage of the research needs to be planned out, even though it may adapt as the investigation progresses. In the present study, the planning stage involved a number of, what may be termed, ‘sub-stages’. These included: 1. deciding on the journal questions, 2. discussing questions with participants, 3. analysing the data thematically, 4. drawing pedagogical inferences, and 5. designing pedagogy based on the findings.

The researcher and some of the participants in the present study (4 in total) kept journals in order to provide a more qualitative dynamic day to day record of how they felt about what was happening in the L2 classroom and a critical analysis of their own performance and how they thought they could improve it. As some of the 3rd year participants felt that they would be too busy studying for their university exams, as they were in their final year of high school, the researcher in consultation with the gatekeeper (see Section 3.7) agreed that the 3rd year students would not be recruited for the journal process – see Table 3.2 for participant profiles. The remaining 4 journal participants therefore included participants B and D (1st year students) and E and J (2nd year students).
students). The journals were given to them at the beginning of the study and again after they had completed the survey and interview – see Table 3.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Journal Timeline &amp; Due Dates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>(Academic Year April 2017 – March 2018)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 24th (start term 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 7th (end term 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct 20th (mid-term 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 20th (end term-2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 20th (end term 3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5 – Time Frame for Journal Data Collection

At first, they were asked by the researcher to write about some of their English classes, whether they were with a Japanese English teacher or a foreign (native English-speaking) English teacher. They were then asked to return the journals by a certain date – see Table 3.5. No further instructions about what to write about or how much to write were given. It was hoped that by giving the participants more freedom to write about whatever they wanted, the opportunities for more authentic entries would be increased. Of course, as stipulated in the information letter received by them and their parents prior to securing their consent to participate, they were allowed to write in English or in Japanese or both. It soon became apparent, however, after reading the participants’ first few entries for the first term that they were going to need more guidance and scaffolding with their writing - especially, as they seemed to be far too
descriptive of the lesson content and far less critical of this content, with almost no reference made to reflection.

Even though expectations for participant reflection in the journals were not very high, as they were not the main focus of the study, it was hoped that the participants would make reference to areas where they thought they could have done better or ways in which they could improve, and even ‘unpredictable or unwelcome outcomes’ (Burns, 2015: 190). In order for the participants to keep journals focusing on reflection, a more detailed study would need to be implemented with more time and emphasis placed on the journals themselves. Rather, it was hoped that the participants’ journals would focus more on ‘positive or negative evaluations of lessons, students or teachers’ problems and problems within the school context’ (Insuasty and Castillo, 2010: 93). The researcher, however, was more reflective in nature when keeping a critical journal of events during English lessons with students in similar classes to the participants of the present study – which will be explored in Chapter 7.

According to Lee (2013), who carried out a study of journal writing with students studying English in Japan, the most frequent types of journal entries related to 1) classroom events, 2) challenges, 3) strategies. She also noted that keeping journals added to the students’ understanding of their own learning conditions, creating new strategies for learning and motivating themselves. Even though the journals being kept by the participants in the present study are only meant to be supplementing the interviews and surveys that they had already completed, and which were the main focus of the present study, the researcher realised that if their writing was going to contribute in any real way to the overall project, then they were going to need more guidance and instruction in order to be more critical and less descriptive, without taking away their
freedom to express themselves openly and without constraint.

As such it was decided by the researcher to give the participants a short guide on how to write an effective journal and how often to write it. This was an A4 sheet of paper distributed to the participants after they had returned their journals at the end of the first term - see Appendix 7. In order to avoid over-complicating, the journal writing process for the participants, the guide included only the most salient points on how to write an effective journal. It covered how often to write, how much to write and what to write about. The emphasis was placed on evaluating the good points and bad points of the lesson content and their opinions on how to improve the lesson as well as an evaluation of their own performance during the lesson and how they could improve on that performance. It was also decided to give them a number of questions to answer in their journal, rather than allow them the complete freedom to write whatever they wanted. The researcher was careful to include questions that were not too specific and yet goal oriented enough, in order to collect better quality and usable data. Examples of questions added to the participant’s journals in the 2nd term include:

1) Compared to the 1st term, do you think your English is improving? Why?
2) Compared to the 1st term, do you think you are studying (trying) less or more? Why?
3) Compared to the 1st term, do you think lessons are more or less interesting? Why?

The participants’ journals were then collected at the end of each term (or mid-term) in order to assess the progress of their writing, probe for a deeper understanding of points made and guide them in new directions. At the end of term 3, the participants returned their journals for the final time. The total word count for the journals was 3,087 words and this ranged from an individual word count of between about 200 and 1000 words – see Table 3.2. At this point, and with the aid of the
gatekeeper in the present study, final translations were checked for word appropriacy and the process of coding of the journals began. This was done by firstly making a list of the main points made by each of the 4 participants. The researcher then utilised the thematic analysis framework shown in Table 3.3 to explore the data for recurring themes within the list of main points. Colour codes were assigned to recurring key words and phrases to make it easier to arrange these lexical units under thematic headings. The themes that emerged from the data are listed in Section 3.6.1.2.

3.6.1.2 - Action

The action stage of the AR journal process included implementing classroom pedagogy and setting class dynamics based on the emerging findings from the participant journals. For ethical reasons pedagogy based on the findings from the participant journals was implemented by the researcher on classes that did not include participants in the present study, but rather classes that were using the same pedagogy and in the same course as the participants – see Section 3.5 for more on ethical issues.

Subsequently, 5 main themes were extracted from the qualitative data: 1) The desire to listen to more English in the L2 classroom, 2) The desire to speak more English in the classroom, 3) Descriptions of L2 future selves, 4) The desire to improve pedagogy, 5) Points made on reflection. The results of the thematic analysis of the participants’ journals will be explored in Chapter 7. These themes were then cross referenced with themes that emerged from the mixed methods study, including the surveys and the interviews. The results of which are shown in Chapter 8. This cross referencing was done manually, matching colour codes, in the same way as the thematic
analysis was carried out – see Section 3.4.2.2 on the thematic analysis.

The themes that emerged from the journals and the overall themes to emerge after cross reference with the mixed methods approach, provided useful inferences for designing classroom materials. For example, Theme 1 from the journal study ‘the desire to listen to more English in the L2 classroom’, resulted in classroom materials and plans that included more authentic listening practice where the students listen to narratives provided by their teacher and then take a quiz based on that narrative. Another example is how class dynamics were changed by Theme 2 from the journal study ‘The desire to speak more English in the classroom’, by taking the students out of the classroom and carrying out short individual interviews in order to increase their speaking time – see Chapter 8 for a detailed look at pedagogical implications.

3.6.1.3 - Observation

As Burns (2015) states, the four stages are often interrelated, and especially during the Act and Observe stages. Once the action has been carried out or more specifically, once the time frame allotted to the action stage has lapsed, it is important to observe all of the changes that have taken place as a result of the action implemented. This includes evaluating all of the action that has taken place and indeed if further action needs to be implemented. As already stated, the researcher needs to observe during the action stage, and observation may well be a part of the action process itself. Observation at this stage however may be distinct from the action stage in that it may more closely resemble a birds-eye view of the progress of the research project now that the action has been implemented. This includes attention as to whether all elements of
the action implemented are integrated and if they are all related to and answering the same research questions that were posed during the planning stage.

It is difficult to pinpoint exactly when the observation stage of the present study began and ended due to it being interrelated to other stages, especially the action stage. However, the researcher needed to observe how the implementation of specific phases of action were progressing. For example, it was important and useful to observe how students in the researcher’s own classes were reacting to pedagogy that was implemented based on the findings of the study. A large part of the observation stage was jotting down observations in the researchers own journal. This was kept after the researcher had implemented materials and classroom pedagogy, which led to action and change in further lessons – see Chapter 7 and 8. This stage also involved observation, not only by the researcher, but by a colleague of the researcher, who observed 2 classes and provided feedback on pedagogy and classroom dynamics. This colleague also acted as the gatekeeper in the study, and as such had a certain degree of knowledge in terms of research questions and the overall theme of L2 motivation. The feedback from these colleague observations will be looked at in more detail in Chapter 8 with a discussion on pedagogical implications.

3.6.1.4 - Reflection

Reflection is often referred to as the final stage of AR but it is probably the most integrated of the four. It is a point at which the researcher must step back and decide if the project is working or more precisely, if the action taken has resulted in sufficient or appropriate change. Of course, this is something that needs to be
considered throughout the research process, however it could be said that reflection refers to deductions that are made after a certain time lapse rather than a spur of the moment conclusion during observation.

Reflection in the present study occurred when lessons were implemented by the researcher based on the findings that were emerging from the data being collected from the participants. This then led to the researcher considering further change, which resulted in alterations and adaptions for subsequent or future lessons – see Chapter 8.

3.7 - Ethical Issues

Ethical approval for carrying out interviews, completing surveys and keeping reflective journals was secured from the school in which the research takes place in Japan and the University of Limerick (reference: 2016-12-12-AHSS). In line with the university’s ethics committee requirements, all necessary forms were completed and signed by the participants, relevant notaries and institutions - see Appendix 1 - 5. These included letters and documents relating to approval from the high school in Japan where the study took place. They also included the ethical approval forms from the University of Limerick’s Ethics Committee.

Due to the fact that the participants are high school students and therefore not yet at the age of consent, approval and consent was also secured from their parents. As mentioned in Section 3.3, the participants ranged in age from 15 to 18 at the time of the research being carried out, and as such not only did their parents need to give consent to their participation but the participants themselves also needed to give their assent - once consent was first given by their parents or legal guardians - see Appendix 2 and 3.

As stated in the information letter (see Appendix 1), the participants were
ensured that they would be given full anonymity and that they would be able to cease participating in the research at any time, before or during the term of the study. They were also ensured that they would be able to participate in Japanese or English and that their interviews would be recorded with the use of a digital recorder. Participation in the journal was also voluntary, and they were informed that they would be able to cease keeping a journal at any point during the study.

Due to the age of the participants a bilingual Japanese English teacher agreed to be the gatekeeper between the researcher and the participants. The gatekeeper acted as someone the participants could talk to at any point during the study if they felt they had questions about their involvement or if they wished to cease participating.

3.8 - Other Relevant Research Methods

This section looks at other research methods that were relevant to the present study. These include discourse in interviews, ethnographic research and introspective techniques. These methods were not central to the present study however they added value to the overall mixed methods action research approach. Introspective techniques is particularly relevant in terms of its applicability to the pedagogical implication of the present study – see Chapter 8. The following is therefore a look at these research methods and how they added value to the present study.

3.8.1 - Discourse in Interviews

It is not the intention of the researcher to delve into the broader area of corpus studies, which involves the ‘collection of machine-readable authentic text which is sampled to be representative of particular language or language variety’ (McEnery, Xiao
and Tono, 2006: 5). That would in fact be more indicative of a semantic study of the lexical components of the language itself, rather than a pragmatic, meaning oriented and thematic analysis of the talk in the exchanges between the participants and the researcher.

However, once the data was collected it was necessary to transcribe and translate (where necessary) the responses of the interviewees. Recording responses, as opposed to observing or reading responses from a diary, allowed for pauses and utterances to be taken into account that also reflected an interviewee’s opinions. Laughs and sighs, for example, may provide rich data that would otherwise be lost in interpretation. It is up to the researcher to interpret the meaning of these utterances based on the context, the question being answered and the participants’ own experiences. For example, nervous speech may be interpreted as an interviewee who is uncomfortable with answering a certain question, or it may be someone who lacks confidence in their English ability.

Turn-taking (TT) is recognised by leading discourse analysts (Cook, 1989; McCarthy, 1991) as one of the most salient components of spoken discourse and conversation analysis. The mechanism of turn-taking dictates that during conversation, speakers latch onto each other’s speech with precision timing and that an overlap only occurs in about 5% of conversation or less (Cook, 1989: 52). McCarthy also states that in turn-taking convention, only ‘brief silences’ (1991: 127) should exist between turns that do not overlap and that speakers often look away when they are speaking and then return to eye contact when looking to give a turn at talking to the other speaker(s). Both Cook (1989) and McCarthy (1991) admit that these conventions may differ in different societies, however they fail to provide any examples of what these differences might look like. In Japan, turn-taking, in the researcher’s experience, exemplifies a society
with different TT conventions from those described by researchers in other countries, such as in the UK and the USA. This is due to cultural differences in Japan regarding social hierarchies and expected social normal behaviour. Japanese generally avoid eye contact as it is often considered invasive or even rude. That being said, the turn-taking convention of restoring eye contact can still usually be observed between two speakers engaged in conversation. It was important for the researcher to take this slight difference into consideration while carrying out interviews with the participants, as smooth exchanges between speakers can lead to more relaxed participants and therefore more fluid responses.

Overlaps are another area of turn-taking convention that may appear different in Japanese conversation. In general, Japanese engaged in conversation, do not speak until another person has finished and longer gaps and even uncomfortable silences are all considered more desirable than an overlap in conversation, particularly when there is a 先輩 (senpai - senior)/ 後輩 (kohai - junior) relationship between the speakers. As Japanese society is based on complex and context dependent hierarchal structures between individuals and in groups, senior - junior relationships often exist between speakers based on age, gender, role, expertise, etc. The researcher needed to be aware of this when carrying out interviews with ‘shy’ Japanese high school students who often take the junior role in a conversation with someone older than they are. In the same way, overlaps, on their part, may be considered rude and gaps and silences can be more frequent. It was important to make the interviewee at ease by treating these deviations from normal turn-taking convention as unsurprising and non-offensive. As the participants were allowed to speak in the L2 or the L1, it was important to allow them the time to gather their thoughts and therefore gaps and silences were not always an
indication of an end of turn but rather a pause for further thought.

It is also important to note that laughter, denoted in transcription, may have a different implication in the Japanese context. Laughter is often observed between Japanese speakers, especially when conversation is spontaneous and less formulaic or objective. It is used to preserve face in unscripted exchanges that may otherwise appear awkward or embarrassing. Politeness phenomena and the ‘Brown and Levinson theory’ (cited in Grundy, 2008: 187), explain how societies rely on numerous set formulaic exchanges in conversation where words and phrases are often responded to with other words and phrases that are expected and normal and vary depending on the context of the discourse. This may be easily and most commonly observed in greetings, for example, or exchanges between a customer and a clerk in a shop. However, when conversation becomes less expected and scripted and more subjective and dependent on the relationship between the speakers, conventions of turn-taking may ‘break down’. In such instances, gaps, overlaps and repairs may be more frequent. In the Japanese context, laughter is often used to respond to overlaps and repairs, and it is often used as an indication by one speaker to the other that they wish to end their turn or take a brief pause to allow the other speaker to return laughter or a verbal acknowledgement of understanding or encouragement.

An understanding of these aspects of conversation convention in Japanese society may go a long way in gathering more quality and usable data and the researcher needed to be prepared to participate in this convention when necessary while at the same time being careful not to influence the participant responses. Conventional transcription methods were therefore used to transcribe the data (Richards, 2003; Wray and Bloomer, 2006; Lazaraton, 2009). A system of codes was also decided upon to
make note of non-verbal utterances in the audio recording of the interview. For example, (3) indicated a 3 second pause during speech, (laugh) indicated laughter, (J) indicated that that line was translated into English from the original Japanese, and (JT) indicated that the researcher repeated the question or utterance in Japanese – see Extracts 5.1 to 5.4 in Section 5.2.1 and Section 5.2.2 for examples of this transcription convention.

3.8.2 - Ethnographic Research

Creese and Copland (2015) state that language and culture are inextricably linked. They use the term linguistic ethnography for a study of how the interactions of actors are ‘embedded in wider social contexts and structures’ (2015: 13). Bensaid argues however, that ‘the individual remains the recipient of the end goal’ (2015: 1). In other words, even though social and cultural behaviour formed a part of the study, the findings of the research itself came from data collected from the participants who took part in the present study, and are for the benefit of the wider population of students they represent. Although ethnography has a long history in research involving anthropology and sociology it also has salient features for applied linguists. In fact, it has a lot in common with AR in that it employs a variety of methods including interviews, surveys, observations and fieldwork (Sangasubana, 2009; Bensaid, 2015; Starfield, 2015).

In the present study the researcher kept a written journal of reflections and observations of classes that used pedagogy based on the emerging findings from the present study – see Chapter 8 for the pedagogical implications of the present study. Attention needed to be given to how these observations were to be recorded. Sangasubana (2009) gives us a number of ways to record these informal observations; running descriptions, forgotten episodes, ideas and notes for further information use,
personal impressions and feelings and methodological notes. Of course, during informal observations the researcher may not have enough time to write down their observations using accurate field notes. Researchers of ER need to be careful therefore to set aside time to record their field notes at a time that is not too distant from when the observations occurred, as details may be forgotten.

It is important therefore for an ethnographic researcher to carry a notebook during formal and informal observations to accurately record field notes for future interpretation. Recording observations between participants and researchers during class and outside of class provides a rich body of data. Deciding what to do with all of this data can also pose a significant challenge (Sangasubana 2009: 211). Researchers have suggested a number of ways to analyse all of this rich data (Roper and Shapira, 2000; cited in Sangasubana 2009: 211). These include coding the data and sorting it under labels and into patterns. Outliers, data that does not fit with the rest of the data, also need to be identified and separated from the relevant data. Once the coding process is complete, theories need to be constructed to concur with or reshape the original research questions. Also, as in AR, a researcher needs to reflect on their fieldwork at certain stages of the research, in order to clarify if any changes need to be made or if fine-tuning of their research questions is needed.

In their detailed ‘how to’ guide on writing ethnographic field notes, Emerson, et al. (2011) provide us with a number of useful tips on how to go about the task. They note that the style of note-taking varies from researcher to researcher and even though some will favour a more formal style of note-taking and coding, such as shorthand, many others will simply develop their own style. This may be simple short sentences that are easy to read at a later date or it may be an abbreviation system that the
individual researcher may have developed themselves. Emerson, et al. (2011) also refer to these field notes as *jottings*. In fact, they state that jotting down notes is an essential part of fieldwork and that experienced researchers in the field heavily rely on them. They state that many novice researchers may feel anxious about jotting down notes while immersed with their participants. As such, they recommend informing their participants fully about the method and purpose of their research during the consent stage. In this way participants will not feel that their trust has been betrayed if the researcher begins jotting down notes in their presence.

### 3.8.3 - Introspective Techniques

In order to avoid the use of *tatemae* (socially acceptable) responses by the participants of the present study, it was prudent to investigate the use of research methods that elicit *honne* (true feelings and opinions). Introspective techniques, such as verbal reports and diary studies, are research methods that offer the opportunity to record rich data that attempt to dig deep into the heart of the issues in question. ‘Introspection is the process of observing and reflecting on one’s thoughts, feelings, motives, reasoning processes, and mental states with a view to determining the ways in which these processes and states determine our behaviour’ (Nunan, cited in McKay, 2009: 220).

**Verbal Reports**

Verbal reports are ‘oral records of an individual’s thought processes’ (McKay, 2009: 222). In action research, verbal records could be either records of a teacher’s or a learner’s thought processes. McKay (2009) provides us with a detailed account of what these oral records look like in a practical sense. She states that they are more commonly
records of learners thinking out aloud while attempting to complete a classroom task, or a record of their opinions directly after completing the task. There are some obvious drawbacks to this kind of research method, however, relating to the obtrusiveness of the process on the learning task itself. There is also the real possibility that respondents may produce unreliable or unusable data.

One way to reduce the obtrusiveness and unreliability of the data, may be to observe the oral presentations that learners produce as part of a task. Rather than asking learners to verbalise their thought processes during a task, giving the learners a period of time to gather their thoughts and present them in an oral report to the teacher or the class, could result in more quality data. For example, students could read a narrative of an L2 learning experience and then produce a verbal report on their thoughts and opinions of the narrative. In a previous study the researcher (McCarthy, 2012) conducted with junior high school English teachers in Japan, one of the English teachers stated that Japanese learners prefer to gather and organise their thoughts before they offer a response. This was also observed after the researcher studied a video recording of an oral communication lesson conducted in the school where the present study is being implemented. It was noted in the recording that students were slow to offer responses to even the most basic of questions. The answers were often short one-word responses. The researcher concluded that this was not due to a lack of L2 ability, due to the known L2 ability of the students, but rather a typical display of tatemae. The students did not wish to lose face among their peers by openly displaying their honne in front of the class. It was observed however, that when offered the opportunity to gather their thoughts and present them to the class in an oral presentation, the students were more willing to open up and expose their honne. This may be due to the fear of making a
mistake. In Japanese society, mistakes are frowned upon and therefore, a non-response may be considered favourable over a response that may be incorrect or unacceptable.

This introspective technique was used as a follow up to the research being carried out by using the findings of the present study to develop classroom pedagogy that allows students to prepare and gather information before giving oral presentations on various topics. Students were gradually exposed to topics that have been shown to relate more closely to the language learning experiences of the participants in the present study – see Chapter 8.

Diary Studies

Using diaries as a method of research in language learning and acquisition is a relatively new practice. McKay (2009) states that one of the first mentions of it is by Bailey and Ochsner (1983). ‘A diary in second language learning, acquisition, or teaching is an account of a second language experience as recorded in a first-person journal.’ (Bailey and Ochsner, 1983, cited in McKay, 2009: 228). Of course, there is nothing new about keeping a diary or even having a teacher read your diary as a method of language learning and acquisition. However, as an introspective qualitative research method, the thought process behind the journal record must be centred on the learning and acquisition of the L2. In other words, simply writing about one’s daily comings and goings will result in very little useable data related to language learning and acquisition.

The researcher then needed to guide the participants of the research in the right direction while being careful at the same time to maintain an unbiased opinion and keeping an appropriate distance from the process itself – see Section 3.6. McKay (2009), however, highlights a number of doubts about using diaries as a method of research. She states that it is difficult to get learners to write about their own language learning
experiences. They simply may not possess the analytical ability to analyse their own learning methods and report on them in any meaningful way.

As a part of action research however, diary studies offered the researcher an insight into the thought processes and opinions of the participants. This was beneficial when developing and improving on lesson plans and tasks that are more context appropriate and tailor made for the students/participants of the research. After all, the main objective of any component of action research should be the instigation of positive action or change to the learning process itself which can only be beneficial to students. Farrell concurs and suggests that one of the main purposes of action research, such as writing journals, is ‘to bring about changes in classroom teaching and learning’ (Farrell, 2007: 2).

Due to these concerns regarding the relevance and usefulness of diary studies, it was necessary for the participants of the present study to be coached in the process of writing diaries for the process and benefit of L2 learning research – see Section 3.6.1.1. Allowing students to gradually ease into the process of keeping a diary in the L2 makes it easier for them to make their entries more relevant to L2 learning at a later date. It was decided therefore that the participants of the present study should simply write about what they feel is important to them for their initial entries. This acted as a pilot study of sorts for the learners themselves. Then after the initial few entries the researcher guided the students and their thought processes in the direction of the L2 learning process itself. This was done by exploring the students’ past L2 learning experiences at first before they considered their present L2 environment and how to gather and analyse their thoughts and opinions on it in a relevant and useful way. These early entries provided greater insights into the students’ experiences, even if they are
merely insights into their own selves and private worlds. ‘Diaries are another way of assessing participants’ inner worlds’ (Croker, 2009: 18).

Of course, it was also necessary for the researcher to keep a written account of the research process as it played out. This was less of a diary as such and more of a field journal. As previously stated, keeping field notes in a journal is primarily an ethnographic method of research that is more common in social and anthropological research. However, as a component of action research and under the broader umbrella of applied linguistic research, keeping a field journal was a necessary and useful account of the present study for the researcher. It not only contained the jottings of observations of students and the learning environment both in and outside the classroom, but also the thoughts and opinions of the researcher as a method of reflection. These were detailed at any time; however, it was most beneficial to record these reflections as soon as possible after lessons. This allowed for a more accurate account of what had occurred in the classroom and how students had reacted to the materials used and interactions that had taken place.

**Samples of Student Work**

As stated by Ferrance (2000: 11) another ‘vehicle’ for data collection in action research is to collect and record samples of student work, such as, projects and performances. This area is included here under the heading of introspective techniques, as it is directly related to and yet distinct from other introspective techniques, such as verbal records or diary studies. How the students interact with the pedagogy used in the classroom was be one way in which the researcher was able to interact as teacher - researcher. Completed worksheets and especially projects offered further valuable insights into the thoughts and opinions of the students. By doing so, it was hoped that
the cycle of action research from planning to reflection, would resemble an interaction of lesson pedagogy and research methodology that would be beneficial to the students and the overall process of L2 learning and acquisition.

3.9 - Summary of Chapter 3

In this chapter, the methodology used in the present study was presented and critiqued in order to show why it was necessary and relevant. It was established that even though mixed methods were used, including quantitative surveys and qualitative interviews, the present study can also be termed an action research project, due to the context in which the researcher and participants carried out the study and the length of time over which the study took place. Also, the use of journals, by both participants and the researcher, added an element of linguistic ethnography to the study, which fits within the definition of action research. It was also noted in this chapter, that as class materials were implemented by the researcher based on the research findings, a link is established again with the action research element of the study. Finally, this chapter outlined the ethical issues that were faced at the beginning of the study and how these issues were overcome. From this we proceed to Part 2 of the thesis - the research and findings.
Chapter 4 - L2 Learning Experience and L2 Identity

4.1 - Introduction to Chapter 4

In this chapter, the data collected from the participants’ surveys is presented. The results from the items in the L2 learning experience category are explored first, followed by the results from the L2 identity category. Following this, and with the aid of statistical analysis, correlations are explored between the items in both categories and any inferences drawn from these are highlighted for future discussion and collaboration with the qualitative findings from the interviews and journals in Chapters 5, 6 and 7. Due to the number of cross tabulations that were carried out (221) only the most relevant to the present study will be explored in detail in Section 4.5.

4.2 - Overview of Procedure for Scoring the Survey

The survey, which was completed by all twelve participants, consisted of two main categories – see Appendix 5. These were the L2 learning experience of the participants, both past and present, and their L2 identity. The L2 identity category was made up of items that related to the L2 ideal self or the L2 ought-to self. This was done to address concerns highlighted by L2 motivation researchers (see Section Participants responded to items in each of the two categories by choosing a score from 1 to 5 based on the Likert scale, 5 being the strongest and 1 being the weakest. At the top of the survey participants were able to view a brief description of the meaning of the scores from 1 to 5 - see Table 4.1. A score of 4 or 5 would indicate either a positive or strong
response, based on the descriptions, ‘Yes’ and ‘very much/ I really think so’. A score of 3 or less would indicate a negative or weak response, based on the descriptions, ‘a little, not so such, not at all’ – see Section 3.4.1 for more on the survey design.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not so much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Very much/ I really think so</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 – Description of Scoring Used in the Survey

4.3 - Findings from the L2 Learning Experience Category

The majority of the participants indicated in the L2 learning experience category of the survey that they liked English, and were generally positive about their overall experiences of studying English at school – see participant scores for questions 1 to 4 in Table 4.2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L2 Learning Experience Category</th>
<th>Participant Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questions 1 - 17</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I like English.</td>
<td>0  0  0  3  9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I like studying English at school.</td>
<td>0  0  1  5  6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I like English lessons at school.</td>
<td>0  1  1  5  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I like studying English in my free time.</td>
<td>0  0  1  5  6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I like speaking English with other students.</td>
<td>0  1  2  5  3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I like speaking English with my English teacher</td>
<td>0  1  2  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I like speaking English in front of my class.</td>
<td>1  1  4  3  3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I like watching movies in English.</td>
<td>0  0  2  4  6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I like listening to music in English.</td>
<td>0  0  1  1  10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I like reading books in English.</td>
<td>0  2  3  6  1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I like speaking English outside of school.</td>
<td>0  2  4  4  2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. My parents encourage me to study English.</td>
<td>0  1  1  1  9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. My classmates encourage me to speak English.</td>
<td>1  0  1  5  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. It is important to learn to <strong>read</strong> English at school.</td>
<td>0  1  1  2  8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. It is important to learn to <strong>speak</strong> English at school.</td>
<td>0  0  0  0  12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. It is important to learn to <strong>read</strong> English well in order to enter a university.</td>
<td>0  0  0  1  11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. It is important to learn to <strong>speak</strong> English well in order to enter a university.</td>
<td>0  0  1  0  11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 – Survey Results for L2 Experience Category.
In relation to question 1, all of the participants stated that they liked English. This is a very general question that was purposely placed at the beginning of the survey in order to ease the participants into the questionnaire. It also shows of course, that none of the participants have an overall dislike for English. However, from question 2 in the L2 learning experience category, the results show more variation. In the following sections, a more detailed analysis of the participants’ scores from Questions 1 – 17 is provided.

4.3.1 - Overall Attitude Towards Studying English

Based on the descriptions given in Section 4.2, participants who scored a 4 or a 5 for Questions 1 to 4 were deemed to indicate a positive attitude towards studying English. Those scoring a 1, 2 or 3, were deemed to indicate a negative attitude towards studying English. As was mentioned in Chapter 3, option 3 in the Likert scale would represent a negative attitude. As can be seen from Figure 4.1, the majority of the participants indicated a positive attitude for questions 1 to 4 – refer to Table 4.2 for the actual questions. In all figures in Section 4.3, the vertical axis on the left indicates the number of participants.
4.3.2 - Attitudes Towards Speaking English

Questions 5, 6, 7 and 11, are all related to speaking English. Question 5, refers to speaking English with other students; Question 6, refers to speaking English with an English teacher; Question 7, refers to speaking English in front of the class; and Question 11, refers to speaking English outside of school. Figure 4.2, displays the results for these questions.
Students often engage in pair and group work activities with other students in their English classes in which the aim of these activities is to speak in English. The results from Question 5 show that 8 of the 12 participants indicated a positive attitude towards speaking English with other students during these pair and group work activities (1 participant did not respond to this question).

The results for Question 7 show that 9 of the 12 participants have a positive attitude towards speaking English with their English teacher. ‘My English teacher’ may refer to either their Japanese English teacher or their ‘native’ English-speaking English teacher. ‘Speaking English to my English teacher’ may also refer to exchanges that occur during class or outside of class, and may be part of the lesson pedagogy or unscripted informal conversations between students and teachers.

Significantly, the results from Questions 7 and 11 show that exactly half of the participants have a negative attitude towards speaking English in front of their class and outside of school. ‘In front of their class’ of course refers to the speeches and presentations that students make in English to present class work or homework. ‘Outside of school’, is a more broad term that could refer to speaking English with foreigners they may encounter in Japan or while on holiday, or indeed while studying English at a cram school.

These attitudes indicate that half of the participants are unwilling to speak English in front of their class and outside of school, while 25% show an unwillingness to speak English to other students and to their English teachers. Further analysis of similar findings in the qualitative interviews highlights some of the participants’ reasons for their willingness or unwillingness to speak in English – see Chapter 5.
4.3.3 - Attitudes Towards English Movies, Music and Books

Figure 4.3 presents the results for Question 8: ‘I Like watching movies in English’; Question 9, ‘I like listening to music in English’; and Question 10, ‘I like reading books in English’.

The results show that 10 of the participants like watching movies in English (Q8) and 11 like listening to music in English (Q9). However, 5 of the participants indicated that they do not like reading books in English (Q10). Even though reading books in English is not directly related to the themes that emerged from the qualitative interviews, see Chapter 5, it is a significant finding as it relates to their experience of learning English. As mentioned in chapter 1, the grammar translation method is the preferred method of instruction among Japanese English teachers. The overall aim of this method is to teach Japanese students how to read and understand English texts. It is interesting to note therefore, that the results from Question 10 indicate that 5 out of 12
participants do not like reading books in English. Extracts from the interviews in Chapter 5 and the journals in Chapter 7, provide more insights into the participants’ opinions of the grammar translation method and how they learn to read in English.

4.3.4 - Encouragement of Parents and Classmates

Question 12, ‘my parents encourage me to study English’, refers to the level of encouragement that the participants feel their parents give them to study English. Question 13, ‘my classmates encourage me to study English’, is also displayed in Figure 4.4.

![Encouragement from Parents and Classmates](image)

**Figure 4.4 – Encouragement from Parents and Classmates**

The results displayed in Figure 4.4 show that 10 out of the 12 participants stated that both their parents and their classmates encourage them to study English. Interestingly, 9 of the 12 participants indicated a score of 5 for parental encouragement
(Q12), whereas only 5 out of the 12 participants indicated a score of 5 for encouragement from classmates (Q13). This shows that even though both parents and classmates encourage the participants to study English, the participants agree more strongly that their parents encourage them. This parental involvement is related to L2 role models which is one of the main themes from the interview and journal analysis – see Chapter 5, 6 and 7, where the theme of L2 role models will be explored in more detail.

4.3.5 - The Importance of Reading versus Speaking

The opinions of the participants in relation to the level of importance that should be placed on learning speaking and reading in school are displayed in Figure 4.5.

![Importance of Reading v Speaking](image)

Figure 4.5 – Importance of Reading v Speaking

As can be seen from Figure 4.5, all 12 of the participants feel strongly that it is important to learn to speak English at school (Q15). This is in contrast to the 8
participants who feel strongly about learning to read English in school (Q14). This is interesting given the amount of time that is afforded to learning to read English in Japanese schools as opposed to the time that is set aside for speaking. In the school in which the current study takes place, high school first year students have 5 classes every week that focus on reading and understanding English texts, while only 1 class is concerned with learning to speak English. For second and third year students, there are no compulsory classes for learning to speak English. The results indicate that students wish to spend more time learning to speak English. These findings are significant in that they show that students’ needs, in terms of learning to speak English, are not being met. They also highlight the overreliance of Japanese English teachers on the grammar translation method which is not a suitable method for teaching speaking – as noted in Chapter 1. Section 4.3.6 looks at some of the reasons for this overreliance on outdated teaching methods that favour the acquisition of reading over speaking.

4.3.6 - Importance of Reading versus Speaking for Entering University

![Figure 4.6 – Importance of Reading v Speaking for Entering University](image-url)
Figure 4.6 shows that the participants feel it is as equally important to learn to read English to enter university as it is to learn to speak English. This is interesting, as we previously learned in Section 4.3.5, that the participants believe it is more important to learn to speak English in school than it is to learn to read English. These results show that when the university entrance exams are taken into consideration, the participants do not place speaking before reading, even though they believe it should take precedence over reading during class time. This important finding reveals the washback effect that the university entrance exams have on school pedagogy, which is one of the main themes that is further explored in Chapter 5 and 6.

4.4 - Findings from the L2 Identity Category

The L2 identity category is mainly based on Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self-System Framework – see Section 2.4.3 of Chapter 2. The items in this category were designed to determine the strength or weakness of the participants’ L2 future-self-images based on how they imagined themselves interacting with English in their futures. The results from the items in this L2 identity category are shown in Table 4.3.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L2 Identity Category</th>
<th>Participant Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questions 1 - 13</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I would like to speak English in the future.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I would like to use English in the future for my job.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I would like to work for an international company.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I would like to live/ work in an English-speaking country.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I would like to travel to English-speaking countries in the future.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I am interested in learning about cultures from English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I am interested in famous people from English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I try to be like famous people from English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I like/ would like to make friends from English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Speaking English makes me feel good about myself.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I imagine myself as someone who will be able to speak English well in the future.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I imagine myself as someone who will use English in the future.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I am the type of person who would start an English conversation with a foreigner.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 – Survey Results for L2 Identity Category.
Although the items are all related to the future-self-images that the participants have of themselves using English, it was possible to show how some of the items implied further meaning when viewed together. These include: Question 1 and Question 10, general questions about the participants’ L2 future speaking desires and feelings; Question 2 to Question 5, questions relating to how they see themselves using English in the future; Question 6 to Question 9, which show the participants level of desire to learn about people and cultures from English-speaking countries; and Question 11 to Question 13, which relate directly to the participants’ images of their future L2 speaking selves. The following four sections provide further in-depth analysis of the relationships between these items in this L2 identity category.

4.4.1 - L2 Future Speaking Desires and Feelings

Figure 4.7 shows the results for question 1, ‘I would like to speak English in the future’, and question 2, ‘Speaking English makes me feel good about myself’. These questions were grouped together as they are more general questions that show the participants’ overall desires and feelings towards speaking English.

![Figure 4.7 – L2 Future Speaking Desires and Feelings](image_url)
It is clear from the results that all but 1 participant for Question 1 and 2 participants for Question 10, feel strongly that speaking English makes them feel good about themselves and that they would like to speak English in their future. This closely resembles the general attitudes expressed by the participants towards English and studying English at school in the L2 learning experience category. The other items in this category delved more deeply into how exactly they saw themselves using the L2 in the future, as can be seen subsequently in Section 4.4.2.

4.4.2 - The Living, Working, Travelling L2 Future-self

Figure 4.8 shows the results for questions 2 to 5 from the L2 Identity Category which are all related to how the participants see themselves using English in the future – in terms of living, working and travelling. For ease of reference these questions are displayed below Figure 4.8.

![The Living, Working, Travelling Future L2 Self](image)

**Q2** - I would like to use English in the future for my job.
Q3 - I would like to work for an international company.

Q4 - I would like to live and work in an English-speaking country.

Q5 - I would like to travel to English-speaking countries in the future.

As can be seen in Figure 4.8, the desire to use English in the future for travel is greater than the desire to use English for work. Looking at the numbers more closely, we can see that all 12 of the participants indicated that they would very much like to use English in the future for the purposes of travel. Also, even though all but 1 of the participants could see themselves using English for their job in the future, only 3 had a similarly strong desire to live and work in an English-speaking country. This was also the case for question 3, with only 3 participants indicating that they would very much like to work for an international company. Therefore, even though there is clearly a strong desire among the participants to use English for their jobs in the future, it is less clear how exactly they see themselves doing that. The results for the interviews explore this issue further – see Chapter 5 and 6.

4.4.3 - The Desire to Learn about People and Cultures from English-speaking Countries

The results from the participants’ responses to Questions 6 to 9 are shown in Figure 4.8. For ease of reference the questions are displayed below Figure 4.8.
Figure 4.9 – Desire to Learn about People and Cultures from English-speaking Countries

Q6 - I am interested in learning about cultures from English-speaking countries.
Q7 - I am interested in famous people from English-speaking countries.
Q8 - I try to be like famous people from English-speaking countries.
Q9 - I like/ would like to make friends from English-speaking countries.

The results show that all but 1 participant for question 6 stated that they would very much like to learn about cultures from English-speaking countries. Similarly, for Question 9, 11 out of the 12 participants would very much like to make friends from English-speaking countries. Also, in Question 7, 10 participants stated that they were interested in famous people from English-speaking countries. However, in Question 8, only 4 of the participants indicated that they try to be like famous people from English-speaking countries, while 4 participants specified either ‘not so much’ or ‘not at all’ for this question.
This is an interesting finding, as it shows that even though the participants are interested in famous people from English-speaking countries, they are much less interested in trying to be like them. L2 role models are a main theme of the interview study in Chapter 5 and 6, and the data from this question in the survey, allowed the researcher to explore this theme more deeply during the interviews.

4.4.4 - Participant Images of Future L2 Speaking Self

The images that the participants have of themselves using English in the future can be seen from looking at the results from Questions 11 to 13. Figure 4.10 displays these results with the questions directly below for ease of reference.

Q11 - I imagine myself as someone who will be able to speak English well in the future.
Q12 - I imagine myself as someone who will use English in the future.
Q13 - I am the type of person who would start an English conversation with a foreigner.

Figure 4.10 – Participant Images of Future L2 Speaking Self
As Questions 11 to 13 are directly related to the images that the participants have of themselves using the L2 in the future, it is interesting in particular to note that only half of them consider themselves as someone who would start a conversation with a foreigner (Q13). This is in spite of the fact that 10 of the participants indicated in Question 11 that they imagine themselves being able to speak English well in the future and the same number stating in Question 12 that they imagine themselves as someone who will use English in the future. Half of the participants therefore displayed weak images of themselves instigating conversations with foreigners and it would be easy to relate this to the ‘shyness’ of the Japanese or to not wanting to lose face– which was discussed in Chapter 1 and 3. However, as was shown in Section 4.3.2, half of the participants displayed a negative attitude towards speaking English in front of their class and outside of school. Section 4.5.1 and 4.5.2 explore the possibility of a relationship between these future L2 self-images and the L2 learning experience.

Therefore, half of the participants displayed weak images of themselves speaking English, either in their present learning environment or in their future. Chapter 6 also sheds more light on this finding, as it explores more deeply the correlation between the L2 future selves of the participants and themes such as the use of English in the classroom and L2 positive learning experiences.

4.5 - Comparison between L2 Learning Experience and L2 Identity

The data from the completed surveys was inputted into a table which displayed the mean scores given by each of the 12 participants for all of the items in both categories. Interestingly, the overall mean scores of all twelve participants for L2
learning experience was exactly equal to that of the L2 self, 4.3. Therefore, in general the participants showed an equally positive attitude in terms of L2 learning experience and the L2 self. Furthermore, participants who displayed a strong L2 self were more likely to have had a positive L2 learning experience. It can also be said that participants who displayed a weaker L2 self were more likely to have had less positive L2 learning experiences that those participants who displayed strong L2 selves and positive L2 learning experiences - see Figure 4.11.

![Comparison between L2 learning experience and L2 identity.](image)

**Figure 4.11 – Comparison between L2 Learning Experience & L2 Identity**

As both categories (L2 Identity and L2 learning experience) are part of an overall L2 motivational framework, we can say that there does seem to be a relative and yet significant gap between the overall L2 motivation of participant I and participant A - see Figure 4.11. Even though it seems than none of the participants displayed what may be called low L2 motivation, there were clearly those who were relatively lower based
on the mean score of 4.3 out of 5. Looking at the data more closely however we can see that not all of the participants’ L2 learning experiences and L2 selves were at the same level. In particular, there did not seem to be any close comparison between the two categories in responses from participants D and B. A closer look at the individual responses for the items themselves and any correlation that may exist between them may allow us to infer more about what, if anything, this says about the participants’ L2 motivations.

4.5.1 - Category Correlation

As Figure 4.11 shows, those who displayed very strong L2 selves also seemed to have had very positive L2 past learning experiences, as is evident from participant A. Likewise, participant I, who displayed relatively the weakest L2 self-image, would seem to have had an equally weak L2 learning experience. Each item in the category L2 learning experience was cross tabulated with each item from the category L2 identity. Data was inputted into a 2 X 2 contingency table with Fisher’s Exact Test formula preinstalled (socscistatistics.com). Fisher’s Exact Test was chosen as it is the best fit for statistical analysis on data with small sample sizes. A statistical significance between 2 items at a level of significance of 0.05 (p-value < 0.05) would mean that the null hypothesis would be rejected. The null hypothesis in the present thesis would be where the items in question are not dependent on each other.

Data was inputted in the row cells, one for the number of participants who displayed strong L2 identity and one for a weak L2 identity. Likewise, data was inputted in the column cells for the L2 learning experience category, one for a strong L2 learning experience and one for a weak L2 learning experience. Participants scoring 4 or above
for an item were deemed to be strong. Likewise scoring 3 or less was deemed to be weak. In the hypothetical example shown in Table 4.4, data was inputted into the Fisher’s Exact Test formula template to test for a statistically significant relationship between 2 items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L2 Iden. (strong)</th>
<th>L2 Iden. (weak)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L2 L. Ex. (strong)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 L. Ex. (weak)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 - 2 X 2 Contingency Table for Fisher Exact Test – (Hypothetical)

In this example, 9 participants displayed a strong L2 identity as well as a strong L2 learning experience. 2 displayed a weak L2 identity as well as a strong L2 learning experience with 1 participant showing a strong L2 identity and a weak L2 learning experience. This example would show no statistical significance and therefore the null hypothesis would not be rejected. Multi cross tabulations (221 in total) were carried out between all the items in each of the two categories using Fisher’s Exact Test. The following is a detailed look at the relevant findings from these cross tabulations.

4.5.1.1 - Extensive Reading and the Ought-to Self

After multi cross tabulations (221 in total) were carried out between all the items in each of the two categories using Fisher’s Exact Test, only one would prove to be statistically significant at a level of 0.05 (p< 0.05). This was between Question 10 in the L2 experience category (I like reading books in English) and question 3 in the L2
identity category (I would like to work for an international company) – see Figure 4.12

Figure 4.12 Relationship between Extensive Reading and the Ought-to Self

Q10- I like reading books in English
Q3 – I would like to work for an international company

This is an important finding, not least because it was the only correlation to be statistically significant, but also because it shows a possible link between extensive reading and the ought-to self. The link between extensive reading and L2 motivation has been investigated recently by researchers (Lake, 2014; Pirih, 2017) who established a positive relationship between students who read English books in their free time and intrinsic motivation. The findings from the current study seem to indicate a relationship between extensive reading and extrinsic motivation or the ought-to self as it related to their desires for their future careers. This could be a fruitful area for future research in this area with more participants. In Japan, working for an international company is
associated with speaking English for work. This is also a theme that arises in the data from the AR journal study in Chapter 7, and a discussion of this theme and its pedagogical implications will be provided for in Chapter 8.

**4.5.1.2 - L2 Past Role Models and the L2 Future Speaking Self**

An important part of the researcher’s hypothesis is that there is a relationship between L2 teachers as L2 role models (see Section 1.6.4) and a student’s L2 speaking ability. On further inspection of the data from the participant responses for the items in both categories, there does seem to be a relationship between two items related to this hypothesis. This occurs between Question 6 in the L2 learning experience category ‘I like speaking English with my English teacher’ and Question 13 in the L2 identity category ‘I am the type of person who would start a conversation with a foreigner’.

Both of these questions are related in that they refer to participant communicative ability, in particular their willingness to speak English. The former is, of course, related to their L2 learning experience and whether or not they like speaking in English to their English teacher in class or outside of class. The later relates to their L2 identity, in particular, their future possible self, and to whether or not they can imagine themselves speaking English to a foreigner in the future. The term foreigner here translates directly from the Japanese (外国人 − gaikokujin) which refers to a person in Japan who is not Japanese and thus may include, people from countries other than Japan that they may encounter through work, study or travel, etc.

Figure 4.13 illustrates how these items correlated for each of the 12 participants (A – L). Seven of the participants scored within a range of one for both questions, while
four participants choose the same score for each of the questions. In fact, only participant B chose a significantly different score for both questions.

Q6 – I like speaking with my English teacher.

Q13 - I am the type of person who would start a conversation with a foreigner.

Figure 4.13 – Possible Correlation between Willingness to Speak in the L2 to an English Teacher and Willingness to Start a Conversation with a Foreigner.

A Fisher Test was carried out to test for statistical significance between these two items. The result was a level of 0.06 (p < 0.06). However, in order to have statistical significance there must be a level of 0.05 or below (p < 0.05). Therefore, even though the level of statistical significance between these 2 items is not equal to or less than 0.05, it is possible to say that at 0.06 it is a fruitful area to further explore in the qualitative study.

Upon further inspection of the scores in Figure 4.13, we can see that 8 of the participants scored 4 or 5 in relation to their experience of speaking English to their
English teacher. Only 6 however, had similarly strong images of themselves speaking English with a foreigner in the future. This would seem to indicate that even though there does seem to be a correlation between the two items, participants with positive experiences of speaking English to their English teachers were slightly less positive about the prospect of speaking English to foreigners in the future. Themes relating to willingness to speak to English teachers in the L2 will be explored further in the thematic analysis of the interviews in the qualitative study – see Chapter 5.

It is also interesting to note that there did also seem to be another correlation between Question 7 from the L2 learning experience category ‘I like speaking English in front of my class’ and Question 8 from the L2 identity category ‘I try to be like famous people from English-speaking countries’. This is also related to the researcher’s hypothesis that there is a relationship between L2 role models and L2 future speaking self. A Fisher Test carried out between these 2 items also resulted in a level of 0.06 (p < 0.06) which does not show statistical significance; however, it again shows that it is an area that warrants further exploration in the qualitative study.

4.5.1.3 - L2 Public Speaking Experience and Living/Working L2 Future-selves

The results for Question 7 in the L2 learning experience category ‘I like speaking English in front of my classmates’, show a significant number of low scores. Interestingly, there seems to be a relatively close correlation between these scores and the scores given for Question 4 of the L2 identity category ‘I would like to live and work in an English-speaking country’, as can be seen in Figure 4.14.
Q7- I like speaking English in front of my classmates.

Q4- I would like to live and work in an English-speaking country.

Figure 4.14 – Possible Correlation between Speaking English in Class and Willingness to Live/Work Abroad.

10 of the participants recorded either the same scores or within a range of 1 for both questions. In addition, participant I’s scores for these two questions do seem to correlate even though they are within a range of 2, as they are both at the lower end of the scale (1 and 3).

A Fisher Test was also carried out to test for statistical significance between these two items. Again, the result was a level of 0.06 (p < 0.06). However, in order to have statistical significance there must be a level of 0.05 or below (p < 0.05). It is also interesting to look more closely at the individual participant responses to these 2 questions (items), and to explore what we can infer from these results.

Again, participant A displays the most positive experience of speaking English in front of her classmates and the strongest self-image of herself living and working in
an English-speaking country. By contrast, participant I again displays the least positive experience of speaking English in front of her classmates and the relatively weakest self-image of living and working in an English-speaking country. Question 7 of the L2 learning experience category ‘I like speaking English in front of my classmates’ refers to the experience the participants have of speaking English in public - or to use another term, public speaking. The overall goal of the English language program, in the school in which the current study is being implemented, is to enable students to ‘Express themselves in English’ – as is stated in the school syllabus and promotional brochures. Therefore, pedagogy is designed around enabling the students to make in class speeches, presentations and debates in English. This is also in line with many other high schools in Japan and directives from MEXT. It is often said however, and the researcher has personally heard it said many times by colleagues and students that Japanese people are ‘shy’ and don’t like speaking out or expressing their opinion for fear of being socially ostracised - see Section 2.7.2. In the present context, being socially ostracised would mean being looked upon differently or excluded by classmates.

Several colleagues of the researcher who have taught English in other Asian countries, such as South Korea, have noted that Japanese students are much more reluctant to speak out in class, especially when the teacher is eliciting responses from the class as a whole. In fact, teachers in Japan often have to resort to asking students directly and individually for a response which is often brief and without elaboration. The responses from the participants in the current study have shown that only half of them have a positive experience of speaking English in front of their classmates. The stated aim of the school syllabus is to enable students to express themselves in English however the above results show that only half of the students are achieving this goal.
The results show that those who have a positive learning experience of expressing themselves in English are more likely to have a strong image of themselves living and working in an English-speaking country. A recent survey has shown that there has been a decline in Japanese post-secondary overseas enrolments over the last decade from a historic high of about 83,000 students in 2004 to about 53,000 in 2013 (MEXT, 2013). There is little information given as to why the numbers may be declining but it may be possible to assume that it is due to the perceived growing danger of terrorism in America and Europe and the economic recession of 2008. MEXT did note that the number of Japanese high school students choosing to study overseas for stays of 3 months or less is increasing but for longer stays and particularly for post-secondary work placements, the numbers would seem to be in steady decline. It is interesting to note then that Japanese parents are increasingly willing to send their children overseas to study even though these children are less likely than before to choose to live and work overseas when they become adults. It is not clear then that the increasing threat of terrorism in overseas countries is influencing their decisions to stay in Japan to live and work and as economic conditions began to improve some time ago we cannot state with any certainty that this is influencing that decision either.

A recent survey of new hires at Japanese companies showed that 58% (the highest number on record) choose ‘no’ when asked if they wished to someday work, study or live overseas (Baseel, 2014). When probed as to why, 52% stated worries about language and communication difficulties. The results from the present quantitative study did not show a significantly weak future-self-image of living and working overseas, however, 4 of the participants choose ‘a little’ when responding to Question 4 of the L2 identity category, ‘I would like to live and work in an English-speaking country’.
Traditionally, Japanese companies have favoured hiring new recruits straight out of university and have offered them life employment. However, with increasing competition in an increasingly globalised world, many companies are now favouring recruits with language skills, especially English. Therefore, the need for Japanese graduates who have at least a willingness to live and work overseas is rising, even though it would seem that this willingness among young Japanese to move abroad is in decline.

There is an increasing onus then on English teachers in Japan to foster and improve the willingness among young Japanese people to live and work overseas. As the current quantitative study shows, fostering this willingness in the classroom could start with nurturing the skills necessary for effective expression in English in an environment that encourages the development of student’s L2 speaking ability. These results also seem to show that a greater emphasis on developing L2 relationships and fostering L2 communicative confidence in the classroom may have a positive effect on the development of stronger future-self-images of working and living abroad. The qualitative interviews will allow us to explore these results in more detail and hopefully provide us with greater insights into the thought processes behind the participants’ choice of scores in relation to speaking English with English teachers and in front of their classmates. The qualitative responses from the participant interviews may also allow us to draw greater inference in relation to how and in what way these L2 classroom experiences shape their future L2 using selves.
4.5.1.4 - L2 Public Speaking Experience and L2 Famous Role Models

The results from the cross tabulation between Q 7 in the L2 learning experience category and Q8 in the L2 identity category can be seen in Figure 4.15. A Fisher Test was also carried out to test for statistical significance between these two items. Again, the result was a level of 0.06 (p < 0.06). However, in order to have statistical significance there must be a level of 0.05 or below (p < 0.05).

![L2 Public Speaking and Famous L2 Role Models](image)

Q7 – I like speaking English in front of my class

Q8 – I try to be like famous people from English speaking countries

Figure 4.15 – L2 Public Speaking and L2 Famous Role Models

When the individual responses are looked at we can see that 10 out of the 12 participants showed either a positive attitude towards L2 public speaking along with strong L2 famous role models or else a negative attitude towards L2 public speaking along with weak L2 famous role models. L2 public speaking has been looked at in
Section 4.6.1.3, and L2 famous role models has also been explored in Section 1.6.4 and 3.2.2. In the present study a distinction is made between L2 famous role models and the influence of the media in general on an L2 learner’s future self-image. This is explored in more depth in the interview stage in Chapter 5 and 6. The findings from the survey indicate a relationship between public speaking and the desire to be like famous role models, and the findings from the interview data will shed more light on how exactly (if at all) these famous L2 role models are helping the majority of the participants acquire the L2.

4.6 - Summary of Chapter 4

In this chapter the results from the items in both the L2 learning experience category and the L2 identity category were presented and analysed. The results showed that even though the participants displayed an overall positive attitude towards English and studying English at school, half of them displayed a negative attitude towards speaking English in front of their class and outside of school. It was also interesting to discover that the university entrance exams have a washback effect on pedagogy which results in English-speaking lessons being subordinate to English reading lessons, in spite of the students’ desires. The results from the L2 identity category established that all of the participants strongly felt that they will use English for travel in the future, however only 25% of them felt strongly that they would work overseas or in an international company in Japan. In terms of L2 role models, parents were shown to provide strong encouragement, while only 2 participants felt that they wanted to be like famous English-speaking people. In addition, and maybe most significantly, half of the participants showed weak images of themselves speaking with foreigners in the future.
Finally, an exploration of correlation between items in both categories highlighted areas for further investigation in terms of relationships between the specific L2 learning experiences of the participants and their L2 future selves. Chapter 4 has therefore revealed some important findings that provide the basis for the qualitative and thematic study in the following chapter.
Chapter 5 - The Thematic Analysis

5.1 - Introduction to Chapter 5

In this chapter the qualitative data from the interviews is presented and the results from the analysis are investigated by theme – see Table 3.4. These themes are: 1. Interpersonal Relationships, 2. L2 use in the classroom, 3. Past L2 Experiences, and 4. University Entrance Exams. Theme 5, Future Selves, is explored at the beginning of Chapter 6, as Chapter 6 also looks at the correlations between Theme 5 and the other main themes, and as such it may be viewed as an overall theme. Each of the 4 themes presented in this chapter include sub-themes and extracts from the participants’ interview transcripts that support the sub-themes.

5.2 - Theme 1: L2 Interpersonal Relationships

The theme of interpersonal relationships looks at the influence that people have on the participants in terms of how they have encouraged them to learn English. Researchers define interpersonal relationships as shared real life interactions between groups of people, such as friends, peers, teachers and parents (Chang, 1998; Huang, Liu and Yu, 2016). The theme of interpersonal relationships in the present study also includes famous people, due to this sub-theme having emerged from the data collected from the participants – see Section 5.2.3. In total there are 4 sub-themes: parents, teachers, famous people, and friends and classmates. The sub-themes of friends and classmates are explored together in Section 5.2.4, as the participants referred to encouragement from friends who were also their classmates. Figure 5.1 shows the results from this thematic analysis.
In Figure 5.1, and in all subsequent figures in this chapter, the participants are mapped onto the bar for which the sub-themes correspond with the individual responses extracted from the transcripts. Sections 5.2.1 to 5.2.4 provide for a further exploration of these sub-themes and an investigation of the results from the thematic analysis of the data from the participants’ transcripts. Figure 5.1 shows that parents have emerged as the strongest influence on the participants to learn English. In the next chapter this finding will be explored in more depth when we explore the actual strength of the influence – see Section 6.3.

5.2.1 - Parental Influence on L2 Motivation

Researchers have been investigating the role that parents play in their children’s L2 learning for decades. Gardner (1960, cited in Fewell, 2009: 6) in his research in Canada with Anglophone students learning French, found that parental
attitudes towards French Canadians were identical to their children. More recently Csizér and Dörnyei adapted Gardner’s integration orientation model into the L2 ideal self-construct and highlighted ‘the influence of significant others, such as parents’, on L2 motivation (2005: 22). Fewell (2009), in his comprehensive study of the attitudes and motivations of university EFL students in Japan, acknowledged that he failed to include a parental item in his research and called on researchers to further investigate this area.

In the present study, the participants were asked a variant of the question, ‘Do your parents, classmates, friends or teachers encourage you to speak English?’ They were also asked if they have any interest in famous people from foreign countries and if that interest encourages or helps them to learn English. They were also probed for responses in relation to the above. The results can be seen in Figure 5.1. The findings show that ten of the students mentioned their parents, their father or their mother or both, as having encouraged them to speak English. It is by far the most frequently mentioned item in the study.

MacWhinnie and Mitchell, in their recent study into the link between EFL student anxiety and motivation among Japanese students, also found that parents ‘may be a substantial predictor of motivation’ (2017: 11). They suggest that in the context of Japan where the family plays an important role in society, the role that parents play as providers of encouragement is ‘by far the strongest predictor of motivation’, especially in relation to the L2 self. Calvo agrees and goes further to suggest that parents should show a ‘solid self-image and transmit a positive attitude towards the L2 community’ (2015: 10), as this will have a positive influence on the L2 motivation of their children. Indeed, it is hard to argue with such a viewpoint, particularly when the participants in
the present study also mention their parents having encouraged them in their L2 learning. However, as Dailey (2009) points out, many parents are not able to speak the L2 and as such cannot help them with their homework. He argues that this ‘lack of involvement in the language by the parent, may lead to low motivation from the student’ (2009: 16).

Looking at the responses in more detail we get a clearer picture of what kind of encouragement their parents offer them and to what extent they encourage them. The following exchange in Extract 5.1, between the researcher (R) and participant (P), I, aids us in our understanding of this encouragement.

036 R: That's great. It’s nice to have friends who encourage you isn’t it. (1) How about 037 your teachers or your parents, do they encourage you? 038 P: My parents can’t speak English but they encourage me to study English. 039 R: Especially English or all subjects? (JT) 040 P: (3) English and all subjects. English is important for my (3) for going to university 041 and also for when I graduate from university and become an adult. (J)

Extract 5.1 – Parental influence on L2 Motivation (Participant I)

In Extract 5.1, participant I clearly states that her parents encourage her to study English. However, when probed as to whether her parents are especially interested in her studying English she simply states that they encourage her to study all subjects as they want her to go to university and they believe English is important to enter a university. Interestingly, she also states that her parents don’t speak English, as is shown
above. Recent research in Pakistan (Wadho, 2016) also investigated the roles that parents play in motivating their children to study English. The study showed that parents were heavily involved in the children’s education. However, there were differences between whether parents were involved actively or passively. In Extract 5.1, participant I would seem to suggest that her parents are only passively involved, as she stated that they do not speak English. It would be difficult to imagine how parents could be actively involved in their children’s L2 learning at the high school level if they do not speak the L2 themselves. Wadho (2016: 257) refers to active involvement as a situation where the parents monitor and support their children directly. However, as it is unclear whether this requires the parents to speak the L2 we must look to further evidence in the present study.

The following exchange in Extract 5.2 with participant K gives us further insight.

052 R: [Right I see]. Do your parents encourage you to speak English, too? Do they speak
any English?
053 P: Ah, no.
054 R: They don't [at all]
055 P: [Yes. ]
056 R: So why do you think your parents sent you to a kindergarten with special English
training or they…
058 P: So my parents like rock so English is very cool and (1) so maybe my parents
060 wanted me to speak English very (inaudible)

Extract 5.2 – Parental influence on L2 Motivation (Participant K)
Participant K also states that her parents don’t speak any English but interestingly they like rock music and they have exposed her to rock music, presumably to encourage her to learn to speak English. She also alludes to this at the end of Extract 5.2, which is a good example of how parents who do not speak the L2 can still have a positive effect on their children’s L2 learning, by exposing them to foreign culture - in this case English music. Therefore, parents can ‘instill in their children a positive future-self-image’ and set an example for them with regards to having a positive attitude towards the L2 community (Dailey, 2009: 16).

The data from the present study also provides us with another example of parental encouragement by way of exposure to foreign media. In Extract 5.3, participant H has a similar experience of parental involvement in L2 exposure from an early age. As is evident in the following exchange, she also states that even though her mother speaks only a little English, she exposed her to American TV shows and movies from an early age.

042 R: So, ah let’s see, so how about other people around you, so do your friends or your
043 teachers or your parents encourage you to speak English?
044 P: Yes, my Mum did but like I’m not sure why she did it but she just let me watch
045 lots of TV and movies from America so that's why I got interested in foreign
046 countries’ English.
047 R: So how old were you when you first started watching movies in English?
048 P: I think 6, Full House, Full House was [the first time I, yeah]
In fact, of the twelve participants who took part in the present study, only two of them stated that their parents speak English. All of the others clearly stated that their parents speak little or no English. In many cases the question was met with laughter from the participants. Participant A and D both admit that their parents engage in the L2 at home, albeit in very different ways. Participant A, revealed that her mother lived and worked in India for six months when she was younger and that she believes that this is why she encourages her to learn English. She admits that her parents only speak a little English; however, she states that they both read the Japan Times (an English daily newspaper in Japan) every day. Participant D also has a similar experience as he reveals that his mother did a homestay in England to study English when she was young and that she encourages him to speak English. He also mentions quite significantly that his parents speak English at home and that he finds the exposure a good way to study.

Olusiji (2016) states that there are a number of factors that come into play when considering a parent’s likelihood to be active in their children’s L2 learning. These include their background, educational attainment, financial status and occupation. Significantly for the present study and in particular participants A and D, he states that, ‘Parents who have benefited from the value and advantage of being able to communicate in English would want exactly the same for their children’ (Olusiji, 2016: 64).

By listening to the participant voices we begin to get a clearer picture of how
parents can act as role models for their children with regards to encouraging them in their L2 learning, which can only have a positive effect on their L2 motivation. It may also be said that parents who have L2 speaking ability have a significant advantage in this area. However, it is also evident that even though the vast majority affirm that their parents encourage them in their L2 learning, the majority of the participants are unable to provide any examples of how this encouragement is demonstrated. Therefore, in the perceived absence of any salient parental involvement in L2 learning, the onus would seem to fall on another possible L2 role model – the teacher.

5.2.2 - Teachers as L2 Role Models

When we look at the qualitative data from the present study, it would seem to concur with the assertion that ‘Teachers invoke and orient to students’ transportable identities in the classroom and engage with them as people rather than as simply language learners’ Ushioda (2011: 17). Half of the participants mentioned a teacher as having encouraged them to study English. This is significantly less than the number of participants who mentioned their parents as having had an influence on their L2 learning. However, when we look more closely at the qualitative data, a clearer picture emerges of the kind of influence and encouragement this teacher student relationship has given them.

099 R: How about any of your teachers here in school do they [really….      ]
100 P: [Suzuki sensei.]
101 R: Suzuki sensei encouraged you [did she?]
102 P: [Yeah.  ]
103 R: Good, do you think she has been a big encouragement for you?
P: Yeah cause well my elementary school I learned English a little bit but I was not interested in learning English, I was just interested in foreign cultures but ah well I think it was the first year of Oberlin when I was 12 she was my teacher for English class and her explanation was really good, and I was like wait I can do this.

R: Wow I’m sure she'd be very happy to hear this (laughs).

P: Yeah (laughs).

R: She’s been a big encouragement because she’s still your teacher [right? ]

P: [Emhmm.]

Extract 5.4 – Teachers as L2 Role Models (Participant H)

In Extract 5.4, participant H has clearly had and continues to get a lot of encouragement from Suzuki sensei (not her real name). She highlights in particular the fact that her explanations are very good and that she seems to give her confidence in the belief that she too can learn to speak English like her teacher. She also mentions that she is still her teacher and has been all the way through secondary school, which highlights the importance of not only the quality of the teacher student relationship but also the longevity of it.

Researchers highlight ‘the broad range of features that characterise the ability of teachers to influence student motivation including varying combinations of personality, enthusiasm, professional knowledge/ skills, and classroom management style’ (Fewell 2009: 8). Participant G seems to agree, as she also names the same
teacher as participant H. Even though she does not specifically state that this teacher has encouraged her, she does state that she is the only Japanese English teacher who speaks English in class. This highlights of course the significant advantage teachers have over parents in being an L2 role model. In the absence of a parental figure who can be an L2 role model, teachers ‘must do this instead’ as they are best suited to identify ‘integrative and instrumental reasons’ as motivators for students (Dailey 2009: 16). Here, of course he is referring to the need for teachers to develop L2 identity goals for their students by getting to know each individual student and also teaching them how to set these goals for themselves. In addition, Dailey goes even further to provide us with a number of ways in which teachers, in particular non-native teachers, can be an L2 role model for their students. These include; setting a good example by sharing positive personal experiences about the L2 community, promoting general cross-cultural awareness, exposing students to authentic and relevant L2 materials and encouraging learner autonomy (2009: 18).

For the ‘native speaking teacher’ (a term used in Japan to refer to a teacher from a country where English is spoken as a first language), a more ‘friendly, helpful and encouraging’ approach may be possible (Dailey, 2009: 18). In Extract 5.5(A), Participant E mentions that a native English-speaking teacher he talked with in elementary school encouraged him to try to speak English.

006 R: Great. Can you tell me, why do you like English? (JT)
007 P: Ah, when I was an elementary school student I was able to talk with my English teacher and
008 since then I’ve liked English.
009 R: English teacher? (J) So was it a Japanese English teacher?
010 P: No native.

Extract 5.5(A) – Teachers as L2 Role Models (Participant E)

He continues to seemingly heap praise on native English-speaking teachers and actually notes how one in particular seems to employ his teaching skills more effectively than the Japanese English teachers.

112 P: Japanese teachers’ lessons are fast (J)
113 R: Fast? (J)
114 P: I ask them to wait but they don’t wait. But native English teachers wait for me. If I ask Tom (not real name)
115 he waits for me. (J) (Laugh)
116 R: I see. Ok, OK.
117 P: They are sometimes surprised when I ask them to wait but if they wait then it’s OK I think. (J)

Extract 5.5(B) – Teachers as L2 Role Models (Participant E)

In Japan, as Joe (2010) also acknowledges, North-American and British-English have long been held up as the gold standard of a model of how to speak English and many textbooks and university exams are based on American linguistic norms. There are however, a growing number of theorists who argue that the native speaker is not always the best role-model for the second language learner (Raine, 2011). Considering the number of non-native speakers of English now outnumber native
speakers three to one, and as Japanese L2 learners are more likely to meet non-native speakers of English through business, education and travel, it is difficult to see why the Japanese continue to be so fixated on the North-American model in particular (Joe. 2010).

Despite these attitudes to a preference over a native speaker model as opposed to a non-native model, successful efforts are being made to demonstrate that non-native speakers can be just as effective a model if not even more effective. Joe (2010) notes the growing number of English language teachers from India who are working in private English language schools in Tokyo and the number of Filipino teachers who now work as ALT’s (assistant language teachers) in elementary schools in Japan.

The effectiveness of non-native L2 role models is highlighted by participant K who revealed that she has had a private English teacher since she was a kindergarten student, whom she meets once a week for a ‘man to man’ (a common term in Japan to refer to a private lesson between a teacher and one student) lesson. She states that she is a Japanese teacher but that she has good pronunciation and that she focuses on phonics. As she has been her teacher for a long time it is also significant in that it highlights the importance of non-native English-speaking Japanese teachers being able to possibly provide a longer teacher student relationship than a native speaking teacher, who may only be in Japan for a short time.

As participants in the present study have shown, native and non-native teachers can act as L2 role models albeit in different ways. The key point here is possibly the teacher’s role in the ‘mediation of the growth of motivation in a student’ (Fen Ng and Kiat Ng, 2015: 100). As researchers (Gobel, Thang and Mori, 2017) have pointed out, Asian students tend to have a very dependent relationship with a teacher or teachers and
therefore students may have difficulty exerting more autonomy on their learning - see Section 2.6 in Chapter 2. However, it is possible that teachers could use this kind of power relationship to encourage their students to become more independent, autonomous and self-motivated learners. In this way and ‘by using their position of respect, teachers in Asian contexts can act as a catalyst to bring about such a change’ (Gobel, Thang and Mori, 2017: 23).

5.2.3 - The Influence of Famous People on L2 Motivation

There seems to be a lack of research carried out on the impact of famous role models on L2 motivation – see Section 1.6.4. However, in Pekkarinen’s (2010) unique and insightful study on the linguistic role models of Finnish youngsters, he noted that many of his young participants identified certain famous people with the L2 and that many of the textbooks they used also contained famous people for that very purpose. Pekkarinen stated that ‘whom a learner looks up to or looks down on as a model of using the second language has a great impact on his or her learning’, and that ‘second language acquisition may get a great boost when a learner finds an idol’ (2010: 5).

The present study would seem to concur with Pekkarinen’s research, as half of the participants mentioned idols that they identify with the L2. Participant G mentioned that she likes the Beatles and in particular Ringo Star. She said she started listening to their music two years ago although she fell short of elaborating on any specific L2 learning influence. The influence of Justin Beiber and Taylor Swift was mentioned by three of the participants. It is also significant in that they specifically stated that these role models assist them in their L2 learning. Looking more closely at the actual data we can see their unique and almost idiocentric methods of using their linguistic role models
to further their L2 learning.

056 P: Taylor Swift.

057 R: Taylor Swift. Oh do you have some of her CD’s or?

058 P: Ah on YouTube [(laugh) ]

059 R: [On YouTube], oh I see I see. Do you like to watch her YouTube in

060 English?

061 P: Yes.

062 R: Ok, can you understand some of her English when she’s singing?

063 P: I check the meaning of the lyrics on Google. (J)

064 R: Oh you check the meaning on Google do you, oh that’s a good idea. That’s a good way

065 to study isn’t it?

066 P: Yes.

Extract 5.6 – The Influence of Famous People on L2 Motivation

(Participant B)

In Extract 5.6, participant B states that she actually checks the meaning of the lyrics of her favourite songs on Google. This can only be seen as a direct link between linguistic role models and L2 motivation. Participant J also mentions Taylor Swift along with Justin Beiber and uses YouTube like participant B to access their music. She agrees with the researcher that these role models have had an impact on her L2 learning. Also, participant D states clearly that listening to Justin Beiber is like an English lesson for
Likewise, participant K, mentioned that the American TV actress and singer Rachel Berry is someone that she looks up to and she likes to listen to her singing in English. These findings suggest the influence of famous L2 role models on L2 learning and how their English-speaking idols feed into their intrinsic and integrative characterisations of motivation and the formation of the ideal L2 self – see Chapter 2 for more on intrinsic motivation, integrative orientation and the ideal L2 self. This is of course separate to the motivational effects that, for example, the content or message of a movie will have on ones L2 motivation – see Section 5.4.4.

Similarly, one of the most interesting comments came from participant A, who mentioned a famous role model from the world of politics. She mentions that she learnt about Malala Yousafzai, the Pakistani activist, in school and that she has inspired her to study hard in English so that one day she too could work for the United Nations. She has obviously had a significant impact on her. She says that she was ‘impressed’ by her speech in English and that this has inspired her to further her goals and work towards an L2 speaking future-self.

Another salient feature of the above data relating to L2 role models is that unlike in Pekkarinen’s study (2010) the participants were not prompted by showing them pictures of famous people or mentioning famous names. The participants in the present study seem to have been genuinely responding with examples from their own lives. As Pekkarinen realised at the end of his research this is something that adds significantly to the validity of the study. Therefore, the participants in the present study would seem to be genuinely admitting that certain famous idols are not only assisting them with their L2 learning and acquisition but that they are also significant L2 motivators. Singers like Taylor Swift and Justin Beiber are very popular in Japan and
are clearly providing young L2 learners with authentic material with which they feel they can relate to on a personal level. The students themselves would seem to be autonomously seeking out these English music videos and lyrics online. Here again it is possible that teachers could be the ones to harness this material as an L2 motivational strategy in the classroom. By finding out about their students’ preferences regarding famous idols, L2 teachers could develop authentic materials based on this knowledge that could stimulate and encourage more awareness, interaction and use of the L2 in the classroom.

As these L2 role models are seemingly encouraging more authentic autonomous L2 learning outside the classroom, it is possible then that this could have a positive effect on the development of the students’ own L2 future-selves. This seems to demonstrate a link between the themes of L2 interpersonal relationships and the L2 future-self and this link is explored further in Section 6.1 of Chapter 6.

5.2.4 - The Influence of Friends and Classmates on L2 Motivation

Looking at Figure 5.1, we can see that none of the participants mentioned that their classmates encourage them to speak English. Even though this apparent lack of data is in itself a salient feature of the present study and worthy of further investigation, it was decided by the researcher to deal with classmate or peer influence together with the influence of friends. This is also due to the fact that there would seem to be a lack of research carried out on the influence of friends on L2 motivation, whereas a significant amount of studies have been carried out relating to the influence of peers. In addition, as high school students, and in particular Japanese high school students, spend the vast majority of their teenage years at school, it is entirely possible to presume that they
would view classmates and friends as one and the same.

Participant A and I both stated that their friend encourages them to speak English. In fact, participant I specially stated that participant A encourages her to speak English. It should be also noted that both of these participants approached the researcher together to inquire about the study, having read the information letter. This would allude to the fact that they are indeed friends who encourage each other with their L2 learning. In Extract 5.7 we can see that participant I mentions that her friend, participant A, actually teachers her English.

033 R: Ok, I see, I see, right, so now you are studying English at school do your friends classmates or teachers encourage you to speak English? (JT)

034 P: Yes, my friend Yumi (not real name), she likes English very much. She (2) teaches me English.

036 R: That's great. It’s nice to have friends who encourage you isn’t it. (1) How about your

Extract 5.7- The Influence of Friends and Classmates on L2 Motivation

(Participant I)

A clearer definition of the term friend in this context comes from participant H and participant E, who both speak about friends they made while doing homestays abroad. Participant H in particular speaks at length about the influence her host family in America have had on her L2 learning. She states that the friendships she made while in America ‘really motivated’ her to speak English and that she keeps up contact with them through Skype and chatting online. She also attributes her improved speaking
ability to being immersed in the language and stating that the ‘environmen
speak’, and that she was surrounded by ‘lots of nice people’.

Her telling and insightful comments allow us to understand more clearly the
importance of the building and maintenance of friendships between L2 learners and
speakers of the L2, and how this interpersonal relationship can have a deep and
long-lasting influence on the young learner’s L2 motivation. Huang, Liu and Yu would
seem to agree and refer to their L2 relationship as an interpersonal, relational multilevel
of need that ‘contains three different levels of needs, namely affection, inclusion and
control’ (Huang, Liu and Yu, 2016: 136). Affection refers to ‘the desire of expressing
emotions and gaining affection from others; inclusion refers to the hope of an individual
of being accepted and recognized; control refers to the desire of an individual to
influence people, things and objectives in certain aspects’ (Huang, Liu and Yu, 2016:
136).

Participant H’s comments about having to speak English in order to fit in and
get along with everyone in her American host family and then feeling the need to
educate them about Japanese culture directly relate to the three levels of need, affection,
inclusion and control, stated above by Huang, Liu and Yu. This is emphasised by
participant E, who reveals that he still exchanges emails in English with his host family
in Australia, even though it has been two years since he stayed with them. He uses the
emails to aid his studies by translating them into Japanese and then writing back in
English. He also stated that he enjoys the opportunity to teach them a little Japanese, too.
As a clearer picture begins to emerge of the difference in this discourse and context
between friends and classmates, it is interesting to look at a comment made by
participant L relating to her opinion of why her Japanese friends do not encourage her to
speak the L2.

046 P: And my friends, ah, if I speak English they will be very surprised and speaking 047 English in daily life, ah, we only usually use Japanese so they don’t encourage me. 048 R: They don’t encourage you to speak English, I see. Would it feel strange.. 049 P: Yes.

Extract 5.8- Influence of Friends/ Classmates on L2 Motivation (Participant L)

In Extract 5.8, participant L refers to her Japanese friends and how they usually only speak Japanese in their daily life. She also agrees that speaking English with them may feel strange. As mentioned previously, Japanese students, especially high school students, spend the vast majority of their life at school interacting with the same peer group every day. So, when participant L refers in Extract 5.8 to her friends, it is presumed that she is referring to her classmates. Her insightful comments give us a possible explanation as to why none of the participants in the present study mentioned classmates as having encouraged them to speak the L2. This is important as we know that ‘peers and classmates play a huge role in motivating each other’ (Olusiji, 2016: 67).

This lack of peer acknowledgement in L2 learning in the present study could have potentially significant consequences for classroom pedagogy, particularly in classes involving native English-speaking teachers. As a large part of these classes are based on L2 communicative language teaching, involving task-based approaches that include pair and group work, effective peer interaction would appear to be necessary for successful L2 acquisition in this context. However, as we can see from participants’ responses in the present study, they, for the majority, do not regard their peers as a
source of L2 encouragement.

To promote and foster better L2 interpersonal peer relationships in the classroom, the onus once again would seem to be on the L2 teacher. As Japanese students and the present participants seem to look to their L2 teachers as a model of how to learn and interact with the L2, teachers could use this ‘power relationship’ to encourage and guide L2 peer relationships in the classroom. An environment where students feel comfortable and encouraged by the teacher as an L2 role model to develop their own L2 relationships with their peers could only have a positive effect on L2 motivation.

5.3 - Theme 2: L2 Use in the Classroom

Section 5.3 explores the opinions of the students in relation to how often they think English should be used in the L2 classroom – see Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 – How Often Participants Think L2 Should be Used in the Classroom
The fact that English is not used very often in an English class in Japanese high schools may seem rather baffling to readers who are unfamiliar with the Japanese high school system. However, as was detailed in Section 3.5 of Chapter 3, the L1 (Japanese) is widely used by Japanese English teachers in Japan as the main method of instruction and as such they rely heavily on 訳読 (yakudoku - the grammar translation method) to carry out their classes.

In public high schools in Japan, students generally take 5 English classes every week. These are with a Japanese English teacher. One of these classes however is conducted with the presence and assistance of a native speaking English teacher. MEXT (the Japanese ministry of education) have issued a strongly-worded recommendation that one hour of English instruction every week be conducted in English. They later updated this instruction to include all of the classes every week but changed the wording to state that English should be used as the main language of instruction ‘in principle’. This has led to much confusion and uncertainty among secondary level Japanese English teachers in Japan with regard to how often they should be speaking English in the L2 classroom and when they should use the L1. Therefore, despite MEXT’s efforts, the L1 remains the main method of instruction in high schools in Japan.

As Lee notices, this is seemingly in defiance of the MEXT’s guidelines, which recommend an English-only policy in Japanese high schools. He also notes that this has had an impact on the students themselves ‘regarding their attitude to the teaching and learning of English’ (Lee, 2013: 1). The findings of the current thesis would seem to suggest that this attitude favours a change of approach in the method of instruction in
the English language class. Ten of the twelve participants suggested that using the L2 half of the time or more would be favourable. Significantly, this included four of the participants who favoured using the L2 all of the time. Looking more closely at the data, we can see that some of the participant responses were heavily critical of the current reliance on the L1 and the grammar translation method and were advocating for more use of the L2.

115 R: Oh sorry I noticed on your survey that you said you didn’t like your English lessons so much in [school. ]
116 P: [Emhmm.]
117 R: Why do you think you don't like your high school lessons so much?
118 P: Because..
119 R: Apart from your teacher you like but (laughs)
120 P: (laughs)Yeah Because it is not really practical cause I wanna learn more practical like
121 how to communicate cause when I was in America I really didn’t know like what they were
122 talking about because they speak so fast and they speak lots of slang words also they don’t
123 really care about grammatical things [right? ]
124 R: [right. ]
125 P: Of course grammar is really important and I totally get it but in addition to that It’d be

188
127 great if yeah if they taught me more practical words and yeah.
128 R: Would you like to listen to more English during [class time?]
129 P: [Yeah. ] also speaking yeah.
130 R: Do you think there is too much Japanese spoken during [English class? ]
131 P: [Yeah, Yeah, Yeah.]
132 R: Would you like it all in English only
133 P: uh huh.

Extract 5.9 – L2 Use in the Classroom (Participant H)

In Extract 5.9, participant H advocates for an English-only approach. As does participant L in Extract 5.10, who holds similar opinions to participant H.

084 P: Ah we have too many reading passages and most important thing is speaking English and to communicate with many people. But education in English is, 086 recommend reading. I don’t think it is very good.

Extract 5.10 – L2 Use in the Classroom (Participant L)

They are clearly advocating for more emphasis to be put on speaking English in the classroom rather than the current approach of placing the emphasis on reading and teaching students how to understand complicated passages. Lee (2013) would seem to agree and goes as far as to state that without significant exposure, ‘acquisition of the L2 is unlikely’ (2013: 8). He believes that there are three necessary elements to an L2
classroom; L2 input, L2 output and L2 interaction (2013: 8). Of course, this stems from often-quoted theorists Stephen Krashen (see chapter 1) and Michael Swain (1985), who advocated quite strongly and controversially for input and output respectively as being the key to L2 language acquisition.

It is interesting to note however, that not all of the participants advocated strongly for the use of the L2 in the English classroom, even if they were ideally for it. Looking more closely at the data we can see that a number of participants provided us with insightful comments on how exactly the L2 could be implemented in the classroom. Participant K in particular has a unique perspective.

Through Participant K in Extract 5.11, we get a deeper understanding of how students might really feel about having English-only lessons. Participant K states that it would be
good but it might be hard if they do not use English at all. Participant E would seem to agree that ‘English only’ is probably the better approach but he also admitted that that might be hard, even for half of the class.

The argument for using the L1 in the L2 classroom has been gaining some support from researchers in Japan in recent years (Cook, 2008; Meyer, 2008; Carson and Kashihara, 2012). Their argument for the use of the L1 centres on the idea that teachers who are able to use the L1 in conjunction with the L2 in the classroom are more likely to set the students at ease and to develop better relationships with them. They believe that students would have more respect for bilingual teachers and look up to them as role models and examples of how they might see themselves using the L2 in the future. Some of the participants in the present study would seem to agree. Both participant C and F stated that they did not want their classes to be conducted in English and preferred the current status quo of five classes every week of English class in the L1 and then one class using the L2.

However, compelling the argument for using the L1 as a means of instruction in the English classroom, there is still significant debate about exactly when and how often to use it. In Extract 5.12, participant D revealed that he would like to try the all English-only approach; however, he suggested that this would not work for everyone and recommended a level-based approach.

110 R: Right. And one class English. So would you like more all 7 classes English-speaking
111 only or..
112 P: Ah
R: Would that be hard?

P: Ah, I think ah and in addition I think it depends on the level of the students, level based lessons.

R: Right, so some students taking all English only and some students taking Japanese

P: Yes.

R: Which one would you like to take?

P: I want to take all English classes.

Extract 5.12 – L2 Use in the Classroom (Participant D)

Participant A was very clear that she thinks Japanese English teachers speak too much Japanese in the English classroom and that they should use more English. Recent studies carried out in Japan would seem to agree with the majority of the participants in the present study (Matsubara, 2003; Miles, 2004; Ford, 2009; Barbee, 2013). However, instead of advocating for an English-only policy, they seem to favour an approach that uses the L1 for certain parts of the lesson, with the L2 being the main method of instruction. Significantly, Ford concludes that when and how to use the L1 in the classroom tends to be ‘determined by pragmatism, individual beliefs and personality’ (2009: 63). Berger (2011), in her study, investigated whether her belief that using the L1 in her English lessons was what the students wanted. At the beginning of the study she was very much against her institution’s demand that the L1 not be used in the classroom. However, the findings of her research showed that it was indeed a good policy as even though the students liked having a bilingual teacher, they wanted teachers to use English
only in the classroom.

Researchers arrived at a similar conclusion from a study carried out in Puerto Rico on the use of the L1 (Spanish) with students there studying English (Schweers, 1999; cited in Carson and Kashihara, 2012). Schweers found that the majority of the student respondents wanted the teachers to use English only in the classroom. However, the majority of participants also stated that Spanish should be used to explain difficult concepts, grammar and vocabulary. This is a key point that seems to be on a parallel with research being carried out in Japan and with some of the present studies’ findings, as demonstrated above. Many researchers in Japan now believe that even though students favour an English-only approach, they would still like to have Japanese used to explain difficult concepts.

Berger’s (2011) findings included four key points. These are that students do not mind if the teacher uses Japanese occasionally, students like the teacher to use English, understanding the message is important for students, and when and how to switch languages needs to be considered. Perhaps the most salient of these is her final point about the need for consideration with regard to when and how to switch languages. This is surely something that is dependent on a number of factors, not least of which would be the level of the students. As Carson and Kashihara point out, ‘regarding instructive use of the L1, beginner students hope to rely on L1 support in class more than advanced students’ (2012: 46). Researchers (Cook, 2008; Morahan, 2010), agree that when the L1 is used in the classroom it should be used for negotiating meaning, explaining difficult grammar and for class management. However as English classes in Japan are generally focused on explaining difficult grammar and the meaning of difficult concepts, this could leave very little room for use of the L2. There therefore
seemingly remains a great deal of uncertainty surrounding when and how often to use the L2 in the English classroom.

Perhaps it is best to let the voices of the students speak for themselves. In the present study the vast majority of the participants advocate for increased use of the L2 in the English classroom. Even though they admit that they may find this hard they also seem to have a strong will to do their best in such a situation as they realise it may be for the best. The attitudes of participant I and J in Extracts 5.13 and 5.14 respectively seem to best sum up this attitude.

052 R: Does your Japanese teacher speak mostly Japanese in your class? (JT)
053 P: Yeah (laughs)
054 R: If your English teacher would (1) would you like your English teacher to speak
055 English only during the lesson (JT)
056 P: (1) I haven't experienced that much but I would like to join a class like that and see
057 what it's like. (J)
058 R: Emmm, so you would like to practice more speaking in class, would you?
059 P: Yes

Extract 5.13 – L2 Use in the Classroom (Participant I)

In Extract 5.13, participant I expresses a strong desire to take part in English-only class. This would seem to show a direct link between the use of the L2 in the English classroom and L2 motivation. Participant J’s comments in Extract 4.14 would also seem to suggest that there is a definite link between the idea, at least, of an English-only
classroom and motivation to learn the L2.

150 R: Am does your Japanese teacher usually speak Japanese in your class? (J)
151 P: Am yes.
152 R: And ah, if you had a choice would you like your Japanese teachers to speak in
153 Japanese only or English only?
154 P: Ah, I want English only.
155 R: Do you? Right OK. And would you like all 6 lessons English only? How would you
156 feel about that?
157 P: I think it’s so difficult.
158 R: [Right.]
159 P: [But ] I can get a lot of power.
160 R: You can get a lot of power from it Ok.
161 P: Listening power (J)

Extract 5.14 – L2 Use in the Classroom (Participant J)

Researchers would seem to agree that the disadvantages of using the L1 in the
classroom were that the students ‘could become lazy and try not to learn the L2, and
lose the chance to hear the L2 used by the English teacher’ (Norman, 2008; cited in
Carson and Kashihara, 2012: 43)

5.4 - Theme 3: Past L2 Experience

This theme looks at the past L2 learning experiences of the participants. These
Include the following 5 sub-themes: 1. Elementary School, 2. Junior High School, 3. Outside of School, 4. Abroad, and 5. Movies/ TV & Media. Figure 5.3 shows how each participant responded to questions relating to these themes in the interviews.

![Past L2 Experience Chart]

Figure 5.3 – Past L2 Experiences

The responses to each of these sub-themes will be investigated in Sections 5.4.1 - 5.4.4 - with the sub-themes of Elementary School and Junior High School being looked at together, due to their similarity.

5.4.1 - Elementary and Junior High School Experience

Conversation English classes only became a compulsory subject in the 5th and 6th grades of elementary school in 2011 and many schools have yet to implement them fully due to a lack of qualified Japanese English teachers and teaching resources. This may explain why only three participants mentioned their English L2 experience from elementary school - as seen in Figure 5.3. Even though English is taught as a compulsory subject in Japanese junior high schools, only two of the participants made
reference to it as part of their past L2 learning experience. Participant C simply mentioned that formal English instruction started when she entered junior high school but failed to elaborate on this experience. Significantly, in Extract 5.15, participant L seemed to be the only participant that had a positive junior high school L2 learning experience.

066 P: Am, yes. We had English expression class in junior high school. It taught me English is really interesting.

067 R: Ok, good, good. Glad to hear it. So when you were younger like when you were in elementary school, did you have any interest in English, then?

070 P: Ah, I had a few English classes in elementary school so maybe I wasn’t interested in it because I thought English is quite difficult.

Extract 5.15 – L2 Learning Experiences (Participant L)

Many junior high schools in Japan have a native English teacher to assist the Japanese English teachers and provide much-needed exposure to the L2, however, the degree to which students have access and exposure to these native speakers varies widely depending on the school. Participant E seems to have had the opposite experience to participant L and he had a positive and memorable experience of his native English teacher from elementary school and he details how the school went to the trouble of dividing the classes up to presumably allow for maximum exposure to the
native speaker and the L2. However, the experiences of participants L and E would seem to be in the minority as the majority of students did not mention any significant L2 learning experiences from elementary or junior high school.

This lack of any significant L2 positive learning experiences during their early school years could be delaying students’ formations of L2 future-self-images and therefore having an impact on their L2 motivation. As many elementary school teachers have little or no English language skills, junior high school teachers continue to begin English instruction from the basics, such as learning the alphabet, from the 1st year of junior high school. As can be seen from the participant responses, this has left some participants’ parents resorting to exposing their children to English movies and music or even paying for private instruction. For those who cannot afford private tuition however, they just have to hope that secondary school exposure to the L2 will be sufficient.

MEXT is seemingly aware of the problems that exist with implementing their goals and in a newly-worded policy document they state that they plan to begin English instruction in elementary school by the age of 8 in the next 3 to 5 years. It remains to be seen however if this will have any significant effect on students’ L2 acquisition and secondary school Japanese English teachers remain skeptical. In a study carried out by the researcher (McCarthyA, 2012) many junior high school teachers in the school in which the study took place, stated that they worried that the wonder and enthusiasm that 1st year junior high school students have when they first start learning English will be eroded by the introduction of formal English instruction in elementary school. Here of course they are referring to the seemingly high level of L2 motivation 1st year junior high school students display, which is much less evident by the time they graduate from junior high school. Their opinions however are not supported by research as the impact
of the introduction of formal English instruction at an earlier age on junior high school L2 motivation is, to the best of my knowledge, yet to be explored by L2 motivation researchers.

5.4.2 - Outside of School L2 Experience

Outside of school L2 experiences refers only to the experience the participants have had with the L2 in schools in Japan outside of elementary or junior high school. It also refers to the self-study that participants have chosen to engage in outside of school but related to school work. It does not however include any media related L2 past experience, such as movies or songs, which is discussed in Section 5.3.4. Only a third of the participants had outside of school L2 experience, however, unlike their experiences of the L2 at school, these participants seemed to want to elaborate more on their outside of school experiences. Participant E, referred to the practice of going to *juku* (cram school) which as many as 90% of students in Japan attend in their final years of junior high and high school (O’Donoughue, 2014). These cram schools are attended by students after school and are intended to prepare them for up and coming state and school exams, as participant E notes in Extract 5.16. More significantly however, he is the only participant to admit to self-studying by writing English sentences in order to increase his vocabulary knowledge.

104 P: Apart from school maybe just cram school, but that was English grammar. (J)
105 R: I see. (J)
106 P: I sometimes wrote English sentences and short essays by myself but I used words
Participant B and K both reveal that they have attended outside of school (cram school or conversation school), albeit in slightly different circumstances. Participant B stated that she did attend an outside school for two years when she was an elementary school student. She does not elaborate on the experience; however it is most likely that she attended an Eikaiwa school (conversation English school) which is popular in Japan, especially for children who attend group classes that are taught by a native English speaker for an hour or two every week. However as Arnold attests, ‘their Eikaiwa interests lie in commercial ends, rather than in the quality of L2 instruction or learning’ (Arnold, 2006: 95). This may explain why participant B does admit to not having learned much during her two year experience.

Participant K would seem to have had a much more positive ‘outside of school’ L2 learning experience; so much so that she has continued to study privately with the same English teacher since they first met when she was in Kindergarten. Participant L reveals a different kind of outside of school L2 experience which has become increasingly popular in Japan. She stated that she first got interested in English because she got a good score on her Eiken exam. Eiken is a private organisation in Japan that creates and administers English proficiency tests. Along with reading, writing and listening, Eiken also encompasses a substantial speaking component. It is voluntary and especially popular among junior high school and high school students who show an
aptitude for English. Unlike other English proficiency tests in Japan such as TOIEC and TOEFL, which are more business and academically oriented, Eiken has gained a reputation for being geared more towards general purposes use and especially speaking. The influence of exams, especially university exams, on L2 motivation will be dealt with more thoroughly in Section 5.4 of this chapter, however since the Eiken exam is more of a non-pressurized, voluntary English proficiency test, it would seem to be more relevant to outside school learning. In Extract 5.17, participant L specifically mentions that it was the reason she got interested in English and as such we might be able to view it as an extrinsic or ought-to L2 motivator.

054 R: So you think you first got interested in English through your teachers or through anything else?
055 P: Ah, also with teachers but I got a good score in Eiken so ah it encouraged me to study
056 English. And after that English teachers encouraged me to study English or how to speak English more fluently. So ah, first encouragement was Eiken.
059 R: Right. How old were you when you first took your Eiken exam?
060 P: First?
061 R: Your first Eiken exam. Was it junior high school?
062 P: Yes. Ah, maybe 7th grade.
063 R: 7th grade. So that’s like maybe when you were 13?
064 P: Yes.

Extract 5.17 – Outside of School L2 Experience (Participant L)
5.4.3 - Overseas Exposure to the L2

Overseas exposure to the L2 refers to specific references made by participants to time spent studying or travelling abroad in English-speaking countries. We can see from Figure 5.3 that six participants made specific reference to this, and four of these were trips where the students were studying abroad with their classmates in Australia. The school in which the present study is taking place offers its students a number of opportunities to travel abroad. In junior high school, all of the students take a compulsory ten-day study abroad trip to Australia, where they do a farm stay. The purpose of the farm stay is to provide the students with exposure to a native speaking L2 environment. It is also hoped that the students will be motivated to learn to speak the L2 in the months leading up to the trip so that they will be able to communicate more freely with their home stay families. The researcher has experienced this first-hand having taught a group of students who were preparing to go on the trip and also accompanying them on this trip.

The researcher’s experience of SA (study abroad) seems to be in line with research carried out in this area (Ueki and Takeuchi, 2015; Moritani, Manning and Henneberry, 2016). These theorists point out the link between SA and the development of stronger L2 future selves. They also highlight a link between SA and increased short-term L2 anxiety. However, they show in their research that SA eventually leads to more long-term reduction in overall L2 anxiety. Moritani, et al. (2016) also call for qualitative studies to be carried out in order to provide a deeper understanding of this anxiety.

It is not the intention of the researcher to carry out any detailed study in relation to L2 anxiety and SA, however since 5 of the participants referred to seemingly
positive SA experiences, their responses may also give us insights into this phenomenon. In Extract 5.18, participant H in particular details in some length the experiences she had with the L2 during her year-long home stay in America.

082 R: And what do you think is the main reason why your English has improved so much?
083 P: Well the environment made me speak, honestly, you know because they just speak
084 English and my host family was not interested in Japanese culture, so like they didn’t know
085 about anything, so I thought, I have to tell about my country and in order to tell my opinion
086 I had to use English as a tool so yeah.
087 R: Interesting, ok so you found that your environment really helped, forced you to study.
088 P: Emhmm.

**************************************************

062 P: Well when I was in America at first I couldn’t speak English as much as I
063 would like to right there were just lots of nice people around me so I started to come to
064 think that I have to learn English and communicate with them to have a conversation with
065 them and have a fun time with them so yeah they did.
In her insightful comments, participant H would seem to imply that she had higher levels of anxiety when she first met her home stay family as she found it hard to communicate with them. However, over time she learnt to communicate with them in the L2 as they did not speak any Japanese or know anything about Japanese culture. It would therefore seem that being thrown in the L2 deep end, as it were, was stressful for her at first, but it allowed her to quickly develop the L2 communicative skills that she needed to communicate in the L2 environment. At a later point of the interview she also made reference to the fact that she found it more useful to focus on developing her communicative ability rather than her grammatical accuracy. This would seem to support studies carried out in this area by researchers who found that SA leads to improvements in fluency rather than grammatical accuracy, and in particular ‘oral fluency sounds out as the clear winner abroad in comparison with the complexity and accuracy domains’ (Juan-Garau, 2015: 48).

Apart from the school trip to Australia, one participant, participant D, spoke briefly about his family trip to San Francisco which seems to have had a positive impact on him. At the end of the exchange participant D would seem to suggest that he believes a future return to San Francisco by himself would give him strength. He may be referring here to the benefits a trip abroad would have on overall character development; however, it could also be presumed that he is referring to the benefits time spent travelling or working abroad in the future would have on his L2 communicative ability. This apparent L2 future-self-image could conceivably demonstrate a link between a desire to travel abroad and L2 motivation. Theorists would seem to agree, as
the results of a similar study showed that the participants ‘had more vivid ideal L2 selves than before’ (Moritani, et al. 2016: 51).

5.4.4 - Influence of Films/ TV/ Media and Music on L2 Motivation

As can be seen from the data in Figure 5.3, half of the participants made specific reference to the influence of film/ TV / media or music as part of their L2 learning. This is significant as it is, together with ‘abroad’, the sub-theme of L2 past learning experiences referred to most by the participants. Of these references, half are related to TV and film and the other half concern specific music references with one participant mentioning newspapers as well as film.

The researcher is aware of an overlap that may exist here between this sub-theme and the sub-theme relating to the influence of interpersonal relationships, and in particular the influence of famous people on L2 motivation. In both of these sub-themes, famous people such as Taylor Swift are mentioned however, they will be treated separately here to highlight the difference between the influence of the person as a pragmatic role model and their music/ TV or films as a separate and possibly more semantic influence on their actual language learning. There is also a difference between the more general motivational effects of, for example, the story of a movie and the actual impact it has on SLA - The latter has been looked at in Section 5.2.3. The present sub-theme (5.4.4) is more related to the former as can be seen from the following extracts.

A number of the participants mentioned the music of Taylor Swift and Justin Bieber. or both, as having played an important part on their L2 motivation. The music of the Beatles was also mentioned by one participant as having influenced her in her L2
learning. Recent research (Israel, 2013; Kulharia, 2016) into the effects of music on L2 learning has demonstrated that music does indeed inspire and motivate people to learn a language. This suggests that there is a link between being inspired or influenced to learn an L2 by music and media in general and L2 motivation and that ‘music actively motivates students to believe in themselves, to take on seemingly difficult learning tasks and to gain confidence’ (Israel, 2013: 1365).

It may however be misrepresenting the issue to a certain extent to say that motivational effects and impact on SLA are entirely separate issues. They may in fact be circular as it is possible that learners see benefits of these media for their learning and are attracted to them. It is important than to look at how exactly these media aid SLA. Kulharia provides us with a more detailed description of how exactly researches believe music can aid us in learning an L2. She states that listening to songs aids in language acquisition through providing enhanced memory and recall abilities, especially when listening to songs with repeated patterns of melody and rhythm (2016: 3). Kao et al. (2014) claim that learners can ‘build motivation through music’ (cited in Kulharia, 2016: 5). They also state that it is important to have a good relationship to material and that the material should be readily available to language learners. This has important implications for language teachers and pedagogy as it shows that teachers should choose music that is not only relevant to a lesson’s grammatical point or function but relevant to the students.

A number of the participants also mentioned TV and film as having had an important influence on their L2 learning. Participant H mentioned that she watched the American TV show Full House when she was a child. Participant K said she watches the TV drama Glee. She admits that she watches the drama dubbed in Japanese,
however, when the characters sing songs she listens in English. This may go further to support the above claim that music is not only a strong L2 motivator but a good way to learn the semantics of the language. Participants A and C seem to prefer the medium of film when it comes to language learning. Participant C, in particular, detailed how she enjoyed the experience of watching the movie Frozen in English when she was on a homestay in Australia. Participant A also stated that she was inspired when she watched a movie about poor and disadvantaged children in Africa and that it encouraged her to pursue her dream of working for an organisation such as the United Nations or UNICEF and to continue her language studies to that end. She also states that she reads English newspapers every day to further her goal and that she learns a lot from them.

Researchers also highlight the importance of film as not only a good way to learn the lexicology of an L2 but also as a good L2 motivator, and that ‘film as a motivator, also makes the language learning process more entertaining and enjoyable’ (Donaghy 2014: 1). Film assists the language learning process by providing the learner with visual aids such as expressions and gestures (Donaghy, 2014). There are benefits to using the authentic language exchanges in films, as L2 learners may be able to relate more easily to these authentic exchanges than to the grammar in a book; as they may have just seen these exchanges in a film (Urisman, 2014).

Opportunities for L2 learning experiences then are various, and can be born out of anything from interaction with the L2 at school, to exposure to music or films in the L2 at home. As leading L2 motivation researchers such as Dörnyei (2009) have shown, these L2 learning experiences are part of an umbrella system or framework that ultimately shape and influence a learner’s L2 motivation.
5.5 - Theme 4: University Entrance Exams’ Effect on L2 Motivation

Section 5.5 will explore the opinions of the participants in terms of whether or not they feel that a speaking test should be included in the university entrance exams. Similar to Section 5.3, this Section will not be divided into separate sub-themes but will explore them together. These sub-themes include: 1. Reading, 2. Writing, 3. Listening, and 4. Speaking.

‘The effect on Japanese family life and, in particular, the effect on high school students caught in ‘exam hell’ can be and often is devastating’.


Since this quote from research carried out on the university exam system in Japan in the 1990s, MEXT have made a number of changes to the exam, including a listening component and less orientation towards grammar translation of complicated texts. However, university entrance exams remain the focus of high school pedagogy and research carried out more recently reminds MEXT that the exam is still far from perfect. A study of the English-speaking proficiency of Japanese high school students carried out by MEXT in 2014, placed 87.2% of students at the A1 level (the lowest tier in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages classification system). It was a similar result for the writing section (Osaki, 2017).

Therefore, it is clear that despite the efforts of MEXT, little has changed. Researchers claim that this is due to the washback effect that this ‘exam hell’ has on high school teaching and pedagogy, and the fact that it also creates opportunities for large private cram schools known as ‘juku’ or ‘yobiko’ in Japan (Brown, 2002) – see page 194. So, what then do the students, who have to deal with this anxiety, think of the
university exams that they are preparing for and in what way do they affect their L2 motivation? In the present qualitative study, the participants were asked questions relating to the exam. When asked which area (reading, writing, listening or speaking) they would like to be tested on, the results, seen below in Figure 5.4, were somewhat surprising.

![Preferred Type of English University Entrance Exam](image)

To the researcher’s surprise, the majority of the students (ten out of twelve) indicated that they would like speaking to be either a main component of, or the only component of the university entrance exam. Of the two participants who stated that they did not want a speaking test (F & I), only participant I cited anxiety as the reason. Participant F simply agreed that it would be too difficult for her.

086 R: Which one would you like to do? (J)
087 P: like to do? I’d like to do the reading and listening test (laugh)(J).
It is interesting to note that three of the participants who stated that they would like to take a university English-speaking test, also admitted that they would feel nervous about taking such a test. However, they seemed to think that it was important that they should take such a test, despite their perceived anxiety. This would seem to indicate that the introduction of a university entrance exam with an L2 speaking component would extrinsically motivate them to focus more on learning how to speak the L2. Participant D also admits that he thinks a speaking test would be hard even though it is necessary. Significantly, he seems to strongly agree that having a speaking test would have a positive effect on high school pedagogy. Shea would seem to agree and claims that ‘there is widespread feeling that improving pedagogy in the Japanese EFL classroom is contingent upon changing the entrance exam’ (Shea, 2009: 103). Participant K also admits that a speaking test would make her nervous but interestingly she believes that reading tests are more difficult.

A number of the students reacted positively to having speaking tests on their entrance exams and without much probing they were often keen to highlight the benefit it would have on their short and long-term futures. Participant E in particular was very positive towards the idea and spoke at some length in Extract 5.20, in Japanese, about why he thought it would be good.
162 R: [(laugh) I see ] OK. So am, now there is no speaking test in the
163 university entrance exam, if there was a speaking test, how would you feel about
164 that?
165 P: Oh, I wouldn’t mind. I think it would be good. We can’t go outside Japan if we
166 don’t. It’s important to make contact with foreigners. It’s Ok to listen to English
167 spoken during lessons in Japan but in foreign countries they speak English very fast
168 and fluently so we can’t go outside of Japan if we can’t speak to them. So that’s
169 why
170 Japanese teachers should make English lessons that teach us about this. (J)
171 R: So, if you had a choice to do a speaking test or a writing test for university,
172 one would you choose? (JT)
173 P: The speaking test.
174 R: The speaking test? Why?
175 P: I like speaking English, very, very, very much.
176 R: Very much. I see. Which do you think would be more difficult? (JT)
177 P: Ah, reading.
178 R: The reading one.
179 P: Ah, Long sentences are... I like the short essay composition, if it was only that
180 then it’d be Ok but, reading, reading, reading is impossible.

Extract 5.20 – University Entrance Exams (Participant E)

Participant C agreed with participant E and stated directly that having to study for a
university speaking test would be advantageous for her future. Presumably here she is
referring to her future career or travel prospects. She also admits, like others, that she thinks a reading/writing test would be more difficult than a speaking test. This may offset the anxiety that is associated with speaking tests, since there is already a certain amount of anxiety associated with the reading test due to its perceived difficulty. In Extract 5.21, participant H also agrees that the reading test is harder and she advocates strongly for changing the university entrance exams to include more speaking due to the possible positive washback effect on high school pedagogy.

152 R: So do you think that you spend a lot of time studying for the entrance exams, like would
153 you prefer to spend more time studying for what you say communication in English?
154 P: Yeah I’d prefer that one, well so honestly, I think we should change the style of entrance
155 exams so that they will learn well, I don’t know yeah, I don’t know. (laughs)
156 R: (laughs) Do you think they should make them more speaking orientated or am?
157 P: Yeah I think so cause for them now English is just studying and grammatical stuff and
158 just reading and it’s pretty boring right? But English is really fun I think.

Extract 5.21 – University Entrance Exams (Participant H)

One of the most salient comments regarding the washback of university speaking tests on high school pedagogy came from participant B. She stated that if they were to introduce speaking tests she would like the number of lessons that teach her
about speaking to increase. This would seem to indicate that the introduction of a 
university entrance exam with an L2 speaking component would extrinsically motivate 
them to focus more on learning how to speak the L2. It would also force Japanese 
English teachers, who view the exam as the ultimate goal of high school L2 instruction, 
to focus more on teaching L2 speaking in the classroom. Researchers agree that putting 
speaking tests on university entrance exams in Japan would mean that students would 
be forced to study speaking (Aspinall, cited in McCrostie, 2017).

It is never an ideal situation, however, when teachers are possibly being ‘forced’ 
to change their teaching methods against their pedagogical beliefs. Also, as this might 
only lead to an increase in extrinsic motivation, it is unlikely to have any real impact on 
these L2 learners’ imagined L2 future-selves. If the proposed speaking exams are to 
have any impact on L2 motivation it could possibly manifest itself in the students 
growing stronger short-term L2 ought-to selves as the result of having to prepare for 
passing a university speaking exam.

5.6 - Summary of Chapter 5

In this Chapter, 4 main themes were explored: 1. Interpersonal 
relationships, 2. L2 use in the classroom, 3. L2 learning experiences, and 4. University 
entrance exams. The findings showed that L2 teachers emerged as the most salient L2 
role models for the participants and the majority of participants advocated for the L2 to 
be used more often in the L2 classroom. It was also established that half of the 
participants possessed positive L2 learning experiences from time spent abroad and 
from English movies, music and TV shows. Significantly it was shown that all but two 
of the participants advocated for there to be a speaking test in the university entrance
exam. From here, Chapter 6 begins with an exploration of theme 5 - Future Selves. As theme 5 is more directly related to the overall research questions, concerning L2 identity, it was decided by the researcher to include this theme in Chapter 6 rather than Chapter 5. Chapter 6 also shows the results from correlating the findings of Theme 5 with each of the other 4 themes which were presented in this chapter.
Chapter 6 - L2 Future Selves and Thematic Correlations

6.1 - Introduction to Chapter 6

The focus of this Chapter is an exploration of the overall L2 future-self identities of the participants based on the results of a thematic analysis for Theme 5 in the interview data. These findings are then correlated with the results from the thematic analysis of Themes 1 – 4 that were presented in Chapter 5.

6.2 - Theme 5: Future Selves

This particular theme of the present qualitative study is specifically related to participant responses in connection with how exactly, if at all, they can imagine themselves using the L2 in the future. It is therefore, together with the other themes stated in Chapter 5, meant to represent one component that presumably shapes the overall L2-self and in turn L2 motivation. This theme is further divided into 5 sub-themes which will be explored in Section 6.2.1 to 6.2.5. These sub-themes are: 1. Working in Japan, 2. Working in an International Company in Japan, 3. Living/Working/Studying Abroad, 4. Talking to Foreigners, and 5. Travelling. Figure 6.1 shows how each participant responded to questions relating to how they imagine themselves using the L2 in ten years. If a participant (represented horizontally in Figure 6.1) made reference to a particular sub-theme then this reference is represented by one rectangular bar in Figure 6.1. Each sub-theme corresponds with a colour – see below Figure 6.1 for the sub-themes and their corresponding colours.
As can be seen in Figure 6.1, over half of the participants mentioned that they can imagine themselves using English for travel in the future. There was also a significant number who stated that they could see themselves using English for their jobs in Japan. Interestingly, only three of the participants saw themselves using the L2 while working, living or studying abroad. It is also interesting to note that only 3 of the participants saw themselves using the L2 for travelling. Looking at the responses more closely however, in Sections 6.2.1 to 6.2.5, we can see that some participants have clearer and more detailed L2 future-self images, while others are vaguer and often indistinct.
6.2.1 - Travel and Intrinsic versus Extrinsic L2 Motivation

The high numbers of participants mentioning travel as an L2 future-self image could lead us to believe that these participants are displaying ideal L2-selves and are therefore intrinsically motivated to learn the L2, at least to some extent. However, when we look at the actual data, we can see that many of the responses relating to travel are vague, brief and indistinct. In Extract 6.1, participant B, agrees that she would like to use English in foreign countries in the future, but only a little, and in countries where there are a lot of Japanese people.

027 R: Ok, let’s keep going so can you imagine yourself using English in your daily life in the future? (JT)
028 P: Just a little (J)
029 R: Just a little bit (J). I see, OK so, and how often, a little bit Ok I see Ok let’s keep going then. Can you imagine yourself using English in foreign countries in the future (JT)?
032 P: A little bit (J)
033 R: A little bit. Ok so what country would you like to go to? 
034 P: I’d like to go and see Hawaii. (J)
035 R: Ok, why would you like to go to Hawaii?
036 P: Am, Hawaii is very close to Japan and a lot of Japanese people go there so I think I’d like to go and have a look. (J)

217
Lamb (2011) in his longitudinal study of learners’ L2 motivation noted how many participants were vague about their futures at the beginning of his research but over time many of them became ‘much sharper’ (2011: 187). He states that this ‘possibly signals a diminution of the ought-to-self and a strengthening of the ideal L2 self’ (2011: 187). In other words, participants who display a vague notion of how they will use the L2 in the future would seem to be motivated by external forces that make them believe they ought to learn the L2. On the other hand, those who have more distinct and definite images of how they see themselves using the L2 in the future are likely to possess stronger ideal L2 selves.

In fact, only two of the participants offered distinct and clear images of themselves using the L2 while travelling in foreign countries. Participant H seemed quite passionate about her desire to travel and use the L2. She also realises that English is a ‘common language in the world’ and that if she wants to travel ‘all over the world’, being able to speak English may make that dream a reality. Participant K would also seem to have a clearer image of herself travelling and using the L2 in the future as she wants to visit art museums in foreign countries. She could possibly be displaying more of an intrinsic L2 ideal self-image of herself using the L2 in the future, travelling and visiting art museums. In fact, the majority of the participants (Participants B, C, D, E, F, G, I, J), who mentioned or agreed that they would like to use the L2 in the future while travelling, failed to elaborate on their future travel desires. They may then be displaying more of an ought-to rather than an ideal L2 future-self. As Chen reminds us, ‘the ought-to self reflects the social pressure to accept other people’s views’ (2012: 52).
They may be simply reacting to perceived societal obligations whereby they feel that they ought to travel to foreign countries and use the L2. Therefore, even though 10 of the 12 participants indicated that they want to use in English for travel in the future, on two of them possess a strong future-self-image of themselves travelling and using English.

6.2.2 - L2 for Work – Ideal versus Ought-To Self

Upon analysing the data of the participant’s ideas of what they will do for work in the future, it becomes evident that some of them have clearer career paths laid out in front of them. Some of them even include L2 future-self-images. Lamb (2011) in his study of the future-selves of young Sumatran learners asked his teenage participants where they thought they would be in 10 years. Considering the participants in the present study are the same age as in Lamb’s study, and that Lamb’s research was also investigating future-selves in relation to L2 motivation and learning, it was decided by the researcher to ask a similar question in the present study.

Only one of the participants mentioned that they would like to work for an international company in Japan. An international company is generally understood by Japanese people to mean a company that is based in Japan but its parent company is overseas. Citibank or BMW would be examples. There are also a number of Japanese companies that have decided to adopt English as their operating language, such as Rakuten and Uniclo, and as such they may also be categorised as international companies. It is generally understood that to work for an international company you must speak English. Participant C has not only decided what kind of company she would like to work for, she also hopes that it will be an international company. Here, she
would seem to show a strong ideal L2 self-image, as she has chosen to follow her passion for books and try to work for a book company. Since she would like to work for an international company it is presumed that she likes English books, too.

In Japan, a 名刺 (meishi - business card) will always display the name of the company first. When asked what one’s job is, most people will also tell you what company they work for rather than what their actual job is. This is possibly due to the group work ethic that exists in Japan, where people not only dedicate themselves to their company but their work group within that company. Therefore, in relation to work, traditionally they do not see themselves as individuals with job titles. As such, when designing the interview guide for the present study, the researcher attempted to take this contextual issue into account. Instead of expecting the participants to talk about their dreams of being a pilot or an actress, which is often the focus of western ELT textbooks and pedagogy, it was decided to ask them probing questions relating to what kind of company they would like to work for. It was hoped that this would result in more quality data.

This was indeed the case with participant F and G, who both stated that they would like to work in Japan, but that they could possibly see themselves using English for their work. Participant F’s responses were indistinct however and she failed to elaborate when probed. She simply stated in Japanese that in the future when she talks with foreigners for work she might use it. Participant G was also quite vague, but interestingly she did admit that due to the perceived threat of terror overseas, she would rather work in Japan. This is a revealing comment and she is expressing the commonly held view in Japanese society and especially Japanese media that overseas is 危ない (abunai – dangerous).
Three of the participants however, did not conform to the expected Japanese norm when talking about their hopes and desires for work. In fact, they were quite distinct and clear about their futures in relation to their work goals. In fact, all three of them stated that they wanted to be teachers and that they saw themselves using the L2 for their jobs. Participant H was generous in aiding our understanding of how exactly she envisioned herself using the L2 in her ideal job. She stated that she wants to be an elementary English school teacher and that she hopes to be able to use English in her job. She does also admit however that she may have little opportunity to use English in reality as her work place will be in Japan and her colleagues will likely be Japanese. Participant E also stated that he would like to be a teacher, not an English teacher but rather a social studies teacher in Japan. He expressed a desire to use the L2 for his job but also admitted that opportunities might be limited.

Probably the clearest and most considered comments relating to future work goals, came from participant L, who seemed to have a well thought-out career plan and had also envisioned how she would use it to improve her L2 for her ultimate goal of becoming an English teacher. She would therefore seem to have the strongest ideal L2 self-image in relation to work goals at least.

6.2.3 - Integration with Foreigners and L2 Motivation

As was mentioned in Chapter 2 of the present thesis, integration with native speakers of an L2 has been considered an important L2 motivator since Gardner and Lambert’s (1959) ground-breaking study in Canada. In the present study two of the participants specifically mentioned that they like to study English because they want to and enjoy speaking to people from other countries. Of course, it could be presumed that
participants who mentioned travel or living abroad would also want to speak to native speakers of the L2. However, it was decided by the researcher to treat this as a separate but related area, to refer to those who wish to learn an L2 in order to speak to foreigners in Japan. With the up and coming Tokyo Olympics in 2020, a large increase in speakers of other languages, especially English, is expected. Therefore, the government would be especially welcoming of comments made by participant H and L, who both hope to meet and speak English with foreigners in Japan.

In Extract 6.2, participant L was particularly positive about the prospect of speaking English to foreigners and she seemed to be referring specifically to those she might meet in Japan, rather than those she would meet while travelling.

009 P: I think English is a big door for me. And English makes me really confident and I want to try and talk to a lot of people who come from abroad and I want to know many people who have a different culture. So English is important for me.

Extract 6.2 – Future Selves (Participant L)

This could be regarded as what Gardner and Lambert (1959) refer to as integrative L2 motivation. In other words, they want to learn the L2 because they want to integrate with native speakers of the L2. Of course, those native speakers could also be family members, such as grandparents or even parents, for whom English is their L1. In the present study, none of the participants referred to a family member as a native speaker of English, however their perceived enthusiasm for learning the L2 in order to speak to
foreigners in Japan, could just as easily be interpreted as integrative motivation. Participant H would seem to be similarly enthused in Extract 6.3.

007 R: Great so why do you want to study and learn English?
008 P: Because if I can speak English, I’ll be able to speak with lots of people from a variety of countries (inaudible) broaden my world so, yeah.
010 R: So you like meeting people from different countries.
011 P: Emhmm!

Extract 6.3 – Future Selves (Participant H)

JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme) is one way MEXT has been attempting to increase the opportunities for Japanese people, to integrate with native speakers of English. JETs are assistant English language teachers brought to Japan from native English-speaking countries, especially America, to offer Japanese people the opportunities to speak to native speakers of English. The programme has its flaws, however it has resulted in thousands of mostly young graduates from English-speaking countries coming to Japan and allowing them the opportunity to immerse themselves in the language and culture of Japan. Its ability to allow Japanese young learners of English to immerse themselves in the language and culture of the JETs is debatable; however, for students such as participant H and L, it is surely a necessity, due to the homogeneous nature of Japanese society.
6.2.4 - Desire to Live, Work or Study Abroad

Three of the participants mentioned that they would like to live, work or study abroad. They would also seem to demonstrate a unique and somewhat idiocentric explanation for wanting to do so, and as such this kind of L2 motivation would seem to align more closely with an ideal L2 self image. These participants are not under any societal, parental or peer pressure to do so and as such it could be interpreted as their true desire, wish or 本音 (honne - true feeling/ motive).

Participant A has evidently thought about her wish to study and work abroad to some degree as she details at length her reason behind her future study goals. She says that she wants to work for the United Nations and to achieve this goal she wants to study peace studies in the University of Bradford in England. Even though this does seem to be quiet a lofty goal it is clear that she has researched this and thought about it a lot and she says that she is looking forward to talking to and debating with English professors in English. This would seem to indicate that she has L2 future-self-images of herself speaking English with English professors and it may also demonstrate further evidence of the link between L2 future-self-images and L2 motivation. Not only does she seem to have a very unique reason behind her L2 motivation but the detail in which she demonstrates this motivation would again seem to point to a more ideal rather than ought-to L2 self-image. This unique and seemingly idiocentric L2 motivation is what Ushioda (2009) refers to in her ‘Person in Context Relational View’ of L2 motivation, where she calls for more focus on understanding an individual’s own very personal reasons for wanting to learn an L2.

Participant L is similar in that she seems to have a well thought-out plan for her use of the L2 in the future, however she envisions a slightly different long-term future.
Like participant A, she seems to have clear images of her future, not only mentioning where she would like to live but also describing her image of her life there in a rather humorous way, envisioning ‘a lot of sheep’. She details how one of her reasons for studying English is that she would like to live in New Zealand when she retires. This is obviously a very long-term goal, and based on her recent good experience of a homestay that she did in New Zealand. It was obviously a good experience for her and even though retirement is far off we cannot dismiss it. It is also an L2 future-self-image that Ushioda (2009) might be referring to in her ‘Person in Context Relational View’ of L2 motivation. Participant D also mentions that he would like to work in a foreign country in the future. He mentioned that he had been to San Francisco when he was a child, and would like to return there in the future for work and for his own ‘strength’. He also goes on to detail how exactly he would use the L2 in San Francisco.

A distinction would therefore seem to be emerging from the data between those who have clear and detailed visions of themselves using the L2 in the future and those who have vaguer, indistinct or less well thought-out plans. A key question in this present study is how the present and past L2 learning experiences of the participants are shaping their L2 future-self images. By exploring links between these future-self goals and the other themes from the qualitative data, such as, L2 interpersonal relationships, their exposure to the L2, the washback effect of the university entrance exams and their overall L2 past learning experiences, we may gain a clearer insight into how to harness and nurture stronger L2 motivation in the classroom. The following 4 sections therefore explore correlations between Theme 5, Future Selves, and each of the other 4 themes from Chapter 5.
6.3 - L2 Future-Self Images and L2 Interpersonal Relationships

In this section the L2 future-self images of the participants are mapped together with their L2 interpersonal relationship. This is done to allow for a clearer picture to emerge of how people, such as L2 teachers, have an influence on whether the participants possess strong or weak L2 future-self images. In figure 6.2 and in subsequent figures in this Chapter the participants L2 future-self images were mapped onto the circles in the Venn diagrams based on the strength of their responses. In other words, if a participant provided detail (however much) in response to their L2 future-self images then they were placed within the circle. If they responded clearly, and not vaguely, in the affirmative without giving any detail then they were placed on the rim of the circle. If they responded negatively or not at all they were placed outside of the circle. Participants who responded in detail in terms of their L2 future-self image and in detail to one of the other themes, were placed in the intersection between both circles representing both themes.
In Figure 6.2, Participants A, C, D, H, K, L, displayed evidence of strong interpersonal relationships along with clear L2 future-self-images. As a result, all 6 of these participants, were placed in the overlap (known as the intersection) of the 2-circle set in Figure 6.2. A detailed picture of the participant’s L2 future-self, represents a strong L2 future-self-image (placed inside the circle). A lack of detail resulting in only a vague image would be deemed weak (placed on the rim of the circle), whereas no detail at all would of course be viewed as a non-formed L2 future-self-image (placed outside of the circle). This criterion was also followed for the relationships between all other themes explored subsequently.

An example of a strong L2 future-self image is provided by Participant H who details how she would like to be teaching English in an elementary school in Japan in
10 years. An example of a weak L2 future-self image would be a participant who was able to answer in the affirmative to a question such as ‘would you like to use English in your future?’, but not be able to elaborate in any way without being vague. Interestingly, none of the participants displayed weak L2 future-self images. An example of a non-formed L2 future-self image would be a participant who responded that they did not have any idea of how they saw themselves using English in 10 years or that they were unclear or vague about it. Non-formed responses were provided by half of the participants (B, E, F, G, I and J).

Participants B, E, G, J, displayed strong L2 interpersonal relationships but no clear L2 future-self-images, and as such were placed in the circle representing L2 interpersonal relationships only. Finally, participants F and I displayed no evidence of an L2 future-self-image and their L2 interpersonal relationships were not deemed to be strong enough to be placed fully in that circle. Therefore, participants, F and I, were placed on the outer rim or circumference of the circle representing L2 interpersonal relationships. Participants who displaced no evidence of any of the themes being represented by a circle set were placed outside of the circle set. None of the participants were placed completely outside the circle set in the above in Figure 6.2, however this will be evident in subsequent diagrams when we explore the relationship between other themes.

It is clear from the participant responses that parents, teachers, famous people, and less significantly, friends, are having varying degrees of influence on the participant’s L2 motivation. Parents, on the surface, would seem to be mentioned most as providers of L2 encouragement. This was also evident from the findings of the survey – see Section 4.3.4. However, when the responses were looked at more deeply
(see Chapter 5) many of the participants were unable to provide any specific detail on how exactly their parents encourage them with most participants admitting that their parents do not speak English. A link does seem to emerge however between participants who are able to detail the influence of L2 role models and at the same time provide a clear L2 future-self-image. This is demonstrated by four participants (A, D, H, and K) who mention that they have been influenced by famous L2 role models and they also provide relatively clear L2 future-self descriptions. Two further participants (B and G) however, are unable to provide any evidence of a future L2 self-image, even though they mentioned how famous people encourage them to learn the L2. It could be said then that although there is evidence of a link here between the influence of L2 famous role models and strong L2 future-self-images, there is also evidence to the contrary.

Looking more closely at the individual participant responses, a possible link seems to emerge between participants who possess both detailed, stronger L2 future-self-images and experiences of positive L2 teacher role models. A significant number of participants (half) mentioned that teachers encouraged them to study the L2 – including four, who detailed how specific teachers had encouraged them. All four of these participants (C, H, K and L) also demonstrated clear descriptions and often images of how they saw themselves using the L2 in the future. It is interesting to note that both participants who mentioned teachers only vaguely as having encouraged them (E and G), without going into any detail, also failed to demonstrate any idea of how they would use the L2 in the future. This would seem to add weight to the argument that an absence of any significant teacher role model can negate the influence on the development of a learner’s L2 future-self.

In contrast, the teacher-influenced participants were able to provide examples
of how exactly their teachers encouraged or helped them. They mentioned that their
teacher spoke to them in English and/or focused on speaking skills in their lessons. This
is significant as it may suggest that by using the L2 more often in the classroom,
teachers can help to shape the individual future-self images of their students, and in turn
have a positive effect on their L2 motivation. An exploration of a link here with another
theme in this thesis, L2 use in the classroom, may provide us with further insights into
how teachers can shape the L2 future-selves of their students.

6.4 - L2 Future-Selves and L2 Use in the Classroom

The L2 future-selves of the participants are correlated with the theme of L2 use
in the classroom, in this section, in order to gain an understanding of whether
participants who would like more English used in the classroom also possess strong
future-self-images.

Figure 6.3 – L2 Future-Self Images and L2 Use in the Classroom
Upon further inspection of the themes in the qualitative data, L2 future-selves and L2 use in the classroom, we can see that all of the four participants (A, D, H, and L) who advocated for the L2 to be used all of the time in the classroom also displayed strong L2 future-self-images. They were therefore placed in the intersection of the circle set in Figure 6.3. Also, five of the participants who advocated for the L2 to be used in the classroom only half of the time or less (B, E, F, G, I), displayed extremely weak or non-formed L2 future-self-images, with some of them even stating that they ‘don’t have a dream’ or they ‘can’t imagine’ their L2 future-self. They were therefore placed outside of the circle set. In fact, only two of the twelve participants failed to show any positive correlation between these two themes (C and K), who displayed evidence of a L2 future-self image even though they did not think the L2 should be used in the L2 classroom most of the time. They were therefore placed in the circle representing L2 future-selves. One participant (J) displayed what might be termed borderline positive correlation. Participant J’s L2 future-self was deemed to be almost strong enough to be placed in the intersection and was therefore placed on the rim of the intersection on the right side, to indicate the insufficient strength of their L2 future-self image. It could be inferred from the majority of the participant responses that there is a credible link between having strong future L2 using images and goals and the desire for the L2 to be used predominantly in the language classroom.

This would then seem to add weight to the argument, not only for the predominant use of the L2 in the classroom, but also that this would have a positive impact on the development of students’ L2 future-self images and in turn their L2 motivation. It could be said that by exposing students to the L2 in the classroom,
teachers would seem to be actively engaging students in the process of their L2 future-self development and that this could be manifesting itself in the classroom as positive L2 motivation. As it is also evident, from the participant responses, that the L2 classroom is not the only way students are gaining exposure to the L2, it will also be necessary to look at the influence of the participants’ L2 learning experiences as a whole, on the development of their L2 future-selves.

6.5 - L2 Future-Selves and L2 Learning Experiences

This Section gives us a greater insight into the influence that positive past L2 learning experiences have on the participants’ future-self images.

![Figure 6.4 – L2 Future-Selves and L2 Learning Experiences](image)

Considering there does seem to be an even split between participants with strong L2 future-self images and those with weaker or unformed ones, it is reassuringly telling to discover that those who possess strong L2 future-self images (A,C, D, H, K...
and L) are also able to describe positive past L2 learning experiences - see Figure 6.4. In addition, almost all of the participants (B, F, G and J) who would seem to possess weak or unformed future-self images also fail to mention any notable L2 past learning experiences. In Figure 6.4, participants E, J, and G were placed within the circle, as they were able to provide positive L2 learning experiences. Participants B and F did make reference to L2 learning experiences, however they were not deemed to be sufficiently positive enough to be fully placed in the circle, and so they were placed half outside of the circle. Interestingly, Participant E was able to detail a strong future-self image, albeit not one using the L2, which could augment the notion of positive past learning experiences in general having a positive effect on future identity goals.

The results displayed in Figure 6.4, allow us to get a clearer picture of the importance of the relationship between the participants’ L2 future-selves and their L2 learning experiences. The majority of the participant responses would seem to indicate that there is a positive correlation between these themes. Students therefore with positive L2 past experiences are more likely to have strong L2 future-self goals. The qualitative data would also seem to show that students who are unable to recall any significant L2 past learning experiences also possess weak or unformed L2 future-selves.

Therefore, the participant responses seem to demonstrate that positive L2 past learning experiences are, for the most part, necessary for the development of strong L2 future-selves, and that teachers who mostly speak the L2 in the classroom are viewed as a salient part of these experiences. However, the participant responses also show that the L1 continues to be the dominant language of instruction by Japanese English teachers in the L2 classroom in the present context, and that in spite of, or possibly due to, a dual
focus, the conditions necessary for the successful development of student L2 motivation are not being met. It will be important therefore to investigate further the participants’ attitudes towards this dual focus and in particular their opinions towards one of its main objectives – the university entrance exams.

6.6 - L2 Future-Self Images and Willingness to Take a Speaking Exam

This final section of Chapter 6 looks at the possibility that participants who have a strong future-self image also have a willingness to take an English-speaking test in a university entrance examination.

Figure 6.5 – L2 Future-Self and Willingness to Take a Speaking Exam

An analysis of the participant responses in relation to a possible correlation between the themes of L2 future selves and their opinions towards the university entrance exams
seems to reveal three potentially noteworthy relations. Firstly, the 6 participants who displayed relatively the strongest L2 future-self images in their responses, all argued that the university entrance exam should include a speaking component - see Figure 6.5 – three of whom advocated for the exam to test speaking exclusively. Secondly, the remaining four participants who advocated for a speaking exam, including two exclusively, displayed either a weak L2 future-self or none at all. Finally, both participants who advocated relatively strongly against the introduction of a university speaking test in the entrance exam demonstrated non formed L2 future-self images.

One possible inference that may be drawn from these results is that having strong L2 future-self goals is likely to lead to a willingness to take a speaking exam. In addition, we also know that both of the participants who advocated against the introduction of speaking tests also demonstrated little or no evidence of an L2 future-self image. Therefore, we can say that eight out of the twelve participants, in other words the majority, demonstrated a positive correlation between these two themes.

6.7 - Summary of Chapter 6

In this Chapter it was established that participants with strong future-self images also have positive attitudes towards their English teachers; especially those who use English in the L2 classroom. The correlations also allowed us to gain an understanding of how positive past L2 learning experience can often result in the development of strong future-self images and positive views towards L2 pedagogy, such as a willingness to take English-speaking tests.

These findings could have an impact on L2 pedagogy and in particular how L2 teachers, as significant L2 role models, harness and foster student attitudes to themes
such as L2 use in the classroom and more emphasis on teaching speaking skills.
Together with the findings from the quantitative surveys we can also draw further
inference with regards to the nurturing of these themes in the classroom in order to
foster a higher level of L2 motivation in students.

In order to explore in more detail how these themes may play out in the
classroom and whether they can have a pragmatic and positive effect on L2 pedagogy, it
is important to explore the more ‘day-to-day’ L2 learning experiences of the participants,
as well as the L2 classroom experiences of the researcher. The responses from the
narratives in the journals will therefore aid us in possibly gaining a deeper
understanding of the pedagogical implications of these findings. Together with the
interview and survey data, the journals will be a key component of the present overall
action research project. Therefore, before we make any further inferences with regards
to the present research findings thus far, it is important to look at the narratives from
these journals and whether they will support the findings hitherto, or shed light on new
ones.
Chapter 7 - Journal Records and Action in the L2 Classroom

7.1 - Introduction to Chapter 7

The focus of Chapter 7 is the findings from the participants’ journals and the subsequent pedagogical action that was implemented in the L2 classroom in the present context. This is part of the overarching Action Research framework of the present study, in other words, the ‘Action’ stage of the action research element of the study. A thematic analysis of the journals resulted in the re-emergence of themes such as future selves and the emergence of similar but more pedagogic specific themes such as the desire to speak and listen to more English in the L2 classroom. Section 7.2 will be a presentation of these themes together with the participants’ references to their own L2 classroom performances. This is followed by a look at how the findings from the participant journals influenced lesson pedagogy implemented by the researcher with the researcher’s own students, who are a discrete population – see Section 3.1. This chapter will close with a look at the findings from the researcher’s own journal and how these findings influenced lesson pedagogy in the present context.

7.2 - Journal Findings

The findings from the participants’ journals were gathered into 5 main themes as described in Section 3.6.1.2. These are: 1. The desire to listen to more English in the L2 classroom, 2. The desire to speak more English in the L2 classroom, 3. L2 future-self images, 4. Participant opinions on L2 classroom pedagogy, and 5. Participant thoughts on their own L2 performance.
7.2.1 - Theme 1: Desire to Listen to More English in the L2 Classroom

3 of the 4 participants made specific reference in their journals to the fact that their Japanese English teachers were using too much Japanese in their English lessons and that they would like to listen to them speaking more English. Participant J, in particular, was very specific with her comment in Extract 7.1.

Our Japanese teachers don’t use English.
They must speak English in the class.
Because listening is very important to study English.

Extract 7.1 – Desire to listen to more English in the L2 classroom (Participant J)

In the school in which the present study is taking place, the majority of students have 6 hours (lessons) of English every week - spread out over a 6-day week. One of these lessons is conducted by a native English-speaking teacher. The other 5 lessons are conducted by Japanese English teachers who have varying degrees of fluency, based on their own experiences of studying and living abroad and their years of teaching experience. As mentioned in Section 1.4 of Chapter 1, Japanese English teachers rely on the 訳読 (yakudoku – grammar translation) method of teaching English. This is where the students are exposed to large amounts of written texts on various topics, which are then dissected into lexical units and meticulously translated into Japanese, with particular attention paid to grammar translation. By the time the students reach their senior year in high school, this kind of study becomes more academic in nature with reading and comprehension levels surpassing and far exceeding that of their communicative ability. As a result of this, and as the participants in the present study
have pointed out, English is rarely spoken in the English classroom. This has not gone unnoticed by MEXT and as was mentioned in Chapter 1, attempts are being made to encourage Japanese English teachers to use more English in the L2 classroom; such as strongly-worded policy documents which state that English should be the primary method of instruction, ‘in principle’, in the English classroom in Japanese high schools. This point is explored further, together with similar findings from the surveys and interviews, in the overall summary of research findings from the present study in Chapter 8.

Other references to a desire to listen to more English in the L2 classroom, come from participants B and D. Participant B makes specific reference to a technique called shadow reading, which some Japanese and native English-speaking English teachers use in their classrooms. She stated that she enjoyed this activity and found that her listening ability has improved since she was first exposed to this strategy. Of course, by shadowing, she is referring to the teaching method of having students read along with the teacher at almost the same time, repeating what the teacher is saying almost simultaneously. It has the benefit of allowing the students to almost mimic the pronunciation and intonation that the teacher is using, even if they do not fully understand what they are reading. Participant B suggests that this could be a good strategy for Japanese English teachers to use in the L2 classroom to increase their L2 speaking time. This method also allows for opportunities for students to listen to more English being spoken in ‘real time’ in the L2 classroom. Although more research would need to be carried out on the benefits of shadow reading in the L2 classroom, it is not hard to imagine how this could be of benefit to the students as long as authentic texts were used that were relevant and interesting for the students. This could also be a
strategy that Japanese English teachers might be able to adapt to without much additional training, where follow-up activities could focus on the meaning of the texts that the students have just being reading.

Another interesting comment was made by participant D, who stated that one of the activities he enjoyed the most in his English class was when they watched the movie ‘High School Musical’ in English. This was a class instructed by a Japanese English teacher and the movie was watched over a number of lessons, with follow-up activities focusing on the meaning and application of grammar and vocabulary used in the movie. They watched the movie in English with English subtitles – in order to aid comprehension. In Extract 7.2, participant D stated that he usually does not like English lessons because they only sit at desks and do what the teacher tells them to do. However, he stated that when he watched the movie he concentrated very hard in order to hear what they were saying and that it also motivated him to listen to more English music such as One Direction, as he feels it is a good way to study English.

I think listening to music (in) English is a good way to improve English activities.
I went to American school and I knew that active learning is so fun.

Extract 7.2 – Desire to listen to more English in the L2 classroom (Participant D)

Duff and Zappa-Hollman (2013; see Chapter 1) mention a number of ways in which using popular culture, such as music and movies, in the L2 classroom can be advantageous for SLA. These include being a catalyst for increased motivation, further developing autonomy and fostering creativity and critical thinking (2013: 3).

Interestingly, participant D took part in an exchange programme with a high
school in New York, where he attended lessons for 2 weeks. He seems to have found the experience enlightening and he preferred the more active style of learning in the American classroom rather than the more passive style of the Japanese classroom. Kinginger (2011; see Chapter 1) states that study abroad experiences are more likely to be positive if the student who takes part in the programme is given the opportunity to participate in ‘informal dialogs with the host community’ (2011: 67) before their sojourn. An active learning classroom is of course not limited to providing more opportunities for listening to the L2 being spoken in the classroom. This leads us to another related and important point made by a number of the participants, which is that they would like more opportunities to speak English in the L2 classroom – see Section 7.2.2.

7.2.1.1 – AR Action: Pedagogy Implemented (Lesson Plan 1)

Based on these findings relating to the participants desires to listen to more English in the English classroom and related research discussed in 7.2.1, the researcher designed and implemented a lesson plan to address these desires. This lesson plan in detailed in Table 7.1.
Lesson Objectives
To increase the amount of authentic English used for listening purposes in the L2 classroom.

Tasks/ Activities
- Students watched and listened to a video by a famous English rock band.
- This video was chosen for the suitability of the language and content for high school students.
- Students were given a sheet of paper with the lyrics printed. Some of the words were removed and the students were instructed to fill in the blanks as they listened to the lyrics and watched the video.
- Students watched the video 3 times in total.

Materials/ Equipment
- Worksheet with lyrics printed (information gaps)
- iPhone with video downloaded
- Projector/ screen/ HDMI cable/ adapter

Table 7.1 – Lesson Plan 1

Observations and Reflections on AR Action

The researcher observed high levels of student attention and focus while the video was playing, and they were listening attentively to the music and checking their worksheets at the appropriate times in order to try to fill in the missing words. It was also noted, however, that some of the students found it difficult to fill in the blanks, even after the third time of watching and listening to the lyrics. Upon reflection, changes were made to the level of difficulty of the fill in the blanks task for subsequent classes which resulted in higher levels of student task completion.
7.2.2 - Theme 2: Desire to Speak More English in the L2 Classroom

Teachers of ESL, where English may be the only language that all of the students can communicate in, will rightly view every opportunity to allow students to communicate in the classroom as an opportunity to build students communicative competence in English. As discussed in Chapter 1, theory, such as; ZPD (Vogotsky, 1978), Interaction as modified input (Long, 1996), and L1 and L2 codeswitching (Daily-O’Cain), shows how speaking and in particular interaction in the language being learned is important for acquisition to occur. In particular, interaction as modified input (Daily-O’Cain, 1996), shows how negotiation of meaning between native or fluent speakers of the L2 and learners of the L2 is necessary for L2 acquisition to take place both inside and outside the classroom.

In EFL contexts, however, where the students share a common L1, students will naturally gravitate towards their L1 when opportunities for communication arise, particularly when discussing unfamiliar topics. It is an added challenge for EFL teachers, therefore, to encourage and promote the use of the L2 when students are communicating and discussing in pairs and in groups, particularly in large classroom settings, such as a high school classroom. These challenges are all the more evident in the Japanese high school context, where students also have to attend a number of other classes every week on a range of disciplines that are all conducted in the L1, Japanese. How then do Japanese English teachers surmount these challenges? They may even be forgiven for thinking that their students have no desire to speak English in the L2 classroom if they naturally gravitate to their L1 whenever there are communication activities in the L2 classroom. Data gathered from the participants’ journals in the present study would,
however, suggest that there is in fact a strong desire among Japanese high school students to speak English in the L2 classroom.

Participant B stated that she would like to speak more in class, in English, about things that she is interested in. She detailed how, in one of her English classes, she learned about Alan Turing, Steve Jobs and Bill Gates. She said that she thought the lesson was interesting and that it made her think that she would like to become better at using technology, especially her smartphone. Here, she seems to be alluding to the idea for an adaption of the text, and that this could have been a good opportunity to express her opinion about what she had learnt, possibly in English. Participant D, seems to agree, and calls for more discussion time in English in class. He also notes that, even though English-speaking opportunities are given in the L2 classroom, especially by native English-speaking teachers, students are given too much time to prepare and memorise what they want to say first. He states that on a number of occasions he has attempted to purposely not prepare or memorise before he speaks in English in front of a class, to try to challenge himself. This, he adds, is in spite of him making mistakes and long pauses during his speech. Participant D’s efforts are commendable, if not a little extreme. It is possible that maybe a balance between the two approaches could produce better results. During a previous study carried out by the researcher in a similar context (McCarthy, 2012), one of the participants in the study, a junior high school Japanese English teacher, stated that Japanese students prefer to think carefully and make preparations, preferably in pairs or groups, before they speak in front of a class. This, she believed, is due to a cultural and deep-rooted fear of making mistakes and therefore losing face – see Chapter 1. In Extract 7.3, participant J also stated that she would like to have more opportunities to speak English in class.
We can’t talk in English in the class. I think we should speak more. Speaking is (a) good way to learn English.

Extract 7.3 – Desire to speak more English in the L2 classroom (Participant J)

She went further to suggest that introducing speaking tests, for university entrance exams, would be one way to encourage students to practice speaking more English in the L2 classroom. Of course, this is an area that is central to the present study, especially the qualitative interview and participant J is adding weight here to the argument for speaking tests to be introduced on English university entrance exams.

7.2.2.1 - AR Action: Pedagogy Implemented (Lesson Plan 2)

Table 7.2 shows how changes to classroom dynamics during one lesson greatly increased the amount of time each student spent speaking in English with the teacher.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson Objectives</th>
<th>To increase the amount of time each student has to interact with the teacher in English.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tasks/ Activities</td>
<td>• Students were given a topic card with 5 topics written on them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• They had 10 minutes to prepare to talk for up to 1 minute on each topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Topics were based on previous class lessons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students then went one by one to the teacher who sat at a desk just outside the classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Teacher asked each student to talk for one minute on one of the topics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials/ Equipment</td>
<td>• Topic cards (one for each student)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Change of class dynamics to outside the classroom and one to one between teacher and student.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.2 – Lesson Plan 2

Observations and Reflections on AR Action

Some students found it difficult to talk for one minute and keep it relevant to the topic. Upon reflection students in subsequent classes were given more time to prepare and practice before the task. The researcher also gave spoken examples for each topic at the beginning of class. In subsequent lessons more students were able to talk for longer on a topic.
7.2.3 - Theme 3: L2 Future-Self Images

The notion of L2 future-self images is central to the questions being asked in the present study, and it also emerged as a theme from the qualitative interviews. The majority of participants who agreed to keep journals, also made reference to L2 future-self images in their writing. The following is an account of these references.

In her journal, participant B writes that she could see herself using English for work in the future. The other participants do not refer to images of themselves using English for work in the future, however, 3 of the 4 journal participants mention in their journals that they would like to learn how to speak English because they would like to travel in the future and speak with foreigners. Participant D and J go even further and say that they want to be able to speak with their foreign friends. This would indicate that they have already made foreign friends, either in Japan or overseas, and that they would like to keep up this friendship. In Extract 7.4, participant D was very clear when detailing his reasons for trying hard to learn to communicate in English.

I have two good friends, W* and J*. I really want to talk with them fluently. Now, they speak Japanese to communicate (with) me, but someday I want to speak English when I talk with them.

Extract 7.5 – L2 future-self images (Participant D)

In Extract 7.6, participant J mentions her trip to Australia and the friends she made there. She also makes several references to her desire to travel to Australia again in the future to meet the friends she made there. She also states that the experience has made her want to study harder and that she would like to travel to other places in the
future and see beautiful sites.

I went to Australia this month. That experience was very nice for me. When I talk with (my) host family, I feel how I can’t use English. I want to speak English well. That experience is very important for my future.

I have a dream. I would like to travel abroad and make friends and see nice views. So it’s important to learn English.

Extract 7.6 – L2 future-self-images (Participant J)

Here, participant J makes specific references to future L2-self images by using words like, ‘dream’ and ‘future’ and the phrase ‘see nice views’. In the qualitative interviews, some of the participants also used these and other words and phrases that make reference to them having images of themselves using the L2 in the future. This is an important point, as it not only adds weight to an important theme in this thesis, but it also highlights a link between the responses in other parts of the study, in particular the interviews.

Chapter 2 detailed the theory in terms of L2 future-selves, in particular the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2009) and Ushioda’s Person-in-context relational view (2009). We therefore know that finding out about an L2 learner’s past and present L2 learning environment, and hopes and dreams for their L2 future using selves, and even their more prosaic reasons for learning and L2, allows pedagogy to be shaped in such a way to compliment the fostering and nurturing of those particular and often idiocentric L2 identities and that this can lead to enhanced L2 motivation. The researcher therefore took the L2 future-self identities of the participants, as they
emerged from their journals, and used them to develop classroom materials to improve L2 motivation with the researchers own students, who were using the same classroom pedagogy as the participants – with another teacher in another classroom.

7.2.3.1 - AR Action: Pedagogy Implemented (Lesson 3)

As can be seen from Section 7.2.3, some of the participants wrote in their journals about how their experiences of speaking with friends they made overseas really encouraged them in the L2 studies. This highlights the importance of interacting and speaking while abroad which is also linked to theme 1 and 2 from the journals. As mentioned in Section 7.2.1, Kinginger (2011) states that it is important to prepare students properly before they go on study abroad programmes and this includes giving them opportunities to speak to peers who have already been on such sojourns overseas. As mentioned in Chapter 1, near peers may act as perfect role models for language learners (Muir, 2018). Table 7.3 outlines how the researcher used near peer role models to encourage students in their L2 acquisition and in the development of their L2 future-selves.
Lesson Objectives
To encourage students in their L2 acquisition studies and in the development of their L2 future-selves.

Tasks/ Activities
• A senior student who had just returned from a year studying abroad in America gave a talk to the researcher’s class. This was followed by a question and answer session.
• The study abroad student spoke in English to the students and the students were encouraged to ask questions in English.

Materials (People)
• A senior student (*senpai*) had just returned from a study abroad programme.
• The student spoke in both English and Japanese.
• Students were encouraged to ask question in English if possible.

Table 7.3 – Lesson Plan 3

Observations and Reflections on AR Action
The students appeared very excited to be spoken to by a *senpai* and they listened very attentively to his experiences and advice as he spoke to them in English. However, it was noted by the researcher that the students found it difficult to ask questions (even in Japanese). Therefore, and upon reflection, in subsequent lessons the students were given time to prepare questions in English first to increase the level of interaction in English. This resulted in more interaction between the students and the study abroad student.
7.2.4 - Theme 4: Participant Opinions on L2 Classroom Pedagogy

As was mentioned previously in this thesis, Japanese English teachers rely heavily on grammar translation as a method of pedagogy in the L2 classroom in Japanese high schools. In their journals, the participants in the present study were often quite clear about what kind of L2 classroom activities and learner strategies they found beneficial and which ones they did not. Participant E, in particular, wrote often about what he thought about what was happening in his L2 classroom and how he felt about it. One of the more relevant and salient points that he mentioned was that he would like to spend more time writing short essays. Due to the lack of essay composition on many university entrance exams in Japan, high school teachers will very rarely practice this with their students, unless the students wish to attend a university where short essay composition is required. Participant E, however, mentioned in his interview that he likes to practice writing sentences in English as it helps him learn new vocabulary. Here, of course, he is rightly pointing to the fact that what might be termed ‘creative writing’ is a good way to acquire English skills, regardless of whether it is on an exam or not. He also states that he would like to spend less time preparing for exams, and spend more time composing sentences in class. Participant B also stated that she found the related activity of ordering sentences in paragraphs to be beneficial and that she felt her English had improved since she began to use this learning strategy.

This is a point that is reinforced by Participant D, who states that he would like to practice speaking English more because it is related to writing. In one journal entry he wrote that he found one L2 class with a native English-speaking teacher beneficial because they firstly wrote about a topic that was presented for discussion in class. Once they had written about the topic he found it easier to speak about it, even if he did not
memorise all of what he had written.

Participant D also wrote about another interesting and important learning strategy at the end of his journal. He states that he really enjoyed reading the English comic ‘Peanuts’ in English class, and that he also did a similar activity in class when he briefly attended high school in America. He feels that his English and especially his interest in English really improved from this activity because he enjoyed the themes in this comic. He compared this to the way young Japanese people learn Japanese by reading ‘anime’ (Japanese comic books). Interestingly, in data collected from the participants’ surveys, a strong correlation was discovered between question 10 in the L2 experience category (I like reading books in English) and question 3 in the L2 identity category (I would like to work for an international company). Due to the fact that there is a link between this theme in the journals and the surveys and that reading in English was shown to be the most important skill for passing the university entrance exams (see Section 4.3.6), the researcher implemented activities that promoted and focused on reading in English.

7.2.4.1 - AR Action: Pedagogy Implemented (Lesson Plan 4)

One way in which the researcher introduced more reading activities was to introduce a 10-minute reading time during home room before the students start their lessons. Home room is the equivalent of form class in the UK or Ireland and the home room teacher is the equivalent of a form teacher. The researcher substitutes 3 different home room classes each week when home room teachers have their day off. Home room time is from 8:30 to 8:45 each day and it is used to check attendance, relay
messages and announcements and any other activities which the home room teacher decides appropriate or necessary. Once roll has been taken and announcements are passed onto the students there is usually 10 minutes extra. This was the time the researcher used to encourage students to read in English. Table 7.4 outlines this procedure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>To give students more opportunities to read in English.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task/ Activity</td>
<td>- Graded readers were given out to students who volunteered to take part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Those students were encouraged to choose a grade that best suited their level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- They were encouraged to read them during home room even with their regular home room teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The students then returned the books to the researcher when they had finished them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The students were encouraged by the researcher to talk about the book they had read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials/ dynamics</td>
<td>- Graded readers selected from the library based on themes that may be of interest to the students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Read during Home Room (8:35 – 8:45)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.4 – Lesson Plan 4

Observations and Reflection on AR Action

It was felt by the researcher that this activity could be expanded to include a
book report. At the time of writing the researcher is in negotiation with the English department in the school in which the present study takes place to adopt this as part of the curriculum.

### 7.2.5 - Theme 5: Participant Thoughts on their own L2 Performance

The themes from the journals were related to how the participants felt about their classes and their opinions about how to improve class pedagogy and learning strategies. The journal participants also made some references to their thoughts on their own L2 performance. The following is a look at these references in extracts from the participants’ journals.

In Extract 7.7, participant J’s journal shows how an exchange programme between our school and a school in Australia, that she took part in, allowed her to reflect on her English skills. She wrote that she feels she needs to study harder.

Recently my test scores have not been good. The Australian exchange students are coming today, so I want to study English harder.

When I talk(ed) with my host family I (felt) how I can’t use English. I want to speak English well. That experience is very important for my future.

Extract 7.7 – Participant thoughts on their own L2 performance  (Participant J)

Extract 7.8 from participant B, shows a references to thoughts on reflection in her journal. She said she felt her English was getting better since she first started to write in her journal.
I changed my way of studying from my previous reflection.

Extract 7.8 - Participant thoughts on their own L2 performance

(Participant B)

In Extract 7.9, participant D’s style of writing was more reflective in nature, as he was quite critical of his English skills and his learning environment on a number of occasions.

I didn’t study at all. So I couldn’t keep up with (the) class. Recently my writing ability is down because I didn’t study.

Most of my friends remember their sentences. But I think it’s not good. So I made a speech without thinking.

Extract 7.9 - Participant thoughts on their own L2 performance

(Participant D)

In fact, it is interesting to note that each of the participants wrote in a different way. Participants B’s entries were short and to the point and she needed more guidance with her writing than the other participants. Participant J seemed to focus on her experience with the exchange programme, and most of her entries made reference to this. Participant E, on the other hand, rarely if ever wrote about his thoughts on his own performance, preferring to focus on classroom pedagogy and the teacher’s performance, making a number of suggestions on how teachers should improve the class – including, teaching more vocabulary, introducing lesson points more slowly and spending more time on English composition. This was useful too, in terms of supporting some of the
themes from the interview stage of the current study; such as Theme 2. L2 use in the classroom and Theme 4. Preferred type of university entrance exam – see Table 3.4. Participant D seemed to be very interested in the whole idea of keeping a journal. He was the only participant who wrote all in English and at length. In fact, he completely filled his journal, from cover to cover. His writing was also more reflective in nature, being critical of his own performance and assessing which of his English skills he felt were improving and which ones were getting worse.

One link between the participants thoughts about their own classroom performances is how they saw their L2 learning in relation to their peers or their teachers. L2 role models such as peers and teachers are seen by researchers as important L2 motivators (see Section 1.6.4) and as such the researcher felt it necessary to involve these L2 role models in lesson pedagogy. A near peer lesson plan was shown in Section 7.2.3.1 above and therefore a lesson plan which highlights the teacher as an L2 role model is provided for in Section 7.2.5.1.

7.2.5.1 - AR Action: Pedagogy Implemented (Lesson Plan 5)

L2 teachers, whether they are native speakers or whether they share the same L1 as their students, often have language learning experiences that can act as a role model for students in developing their own L2 identities, whether present or future. The following example shows how a native English-speaking teacher (the researcher) can act as an L2 role model for students who, unlike in the near peer example shown in Section 7.2.3.1, do not share the same L1 as the teacher.
Lesson Objectives

- To allow for the teacher to act as an L2 role model for students.
- To encourage the development of the students own L2 identities (present and future).

Tasks/ Activities

- Introduction of background information on the teacher’s life and experiences.
- In this example the researcher spoke about his experience of learning Irish at school.
- Also spoke about numerous travel experiences and how speaking English allowed for ease of movement and the ability to make friends from many different countries.

Materials/ Equipment

- PowerPoint Presentation
- Students worksheet for follow up quiz

Table 7.5 – Lesson Plan 5

Observations and Reflections

The students particularly enjoyed looking at pictures of the researcher’s travel experiences, including friends made while travelling. They also enjoyed trying to speak a little Irish and learning about the researcher’s experience of learning Irish at school. Subsequent lessons focused on the students experiences and they were encouraged to present about aspects of their lives – see Section 7.3.
7.3 - The Researcher’s Journal

In parallel with the overall participant research project, thoughts on the researcher’s teaching practices were also noted in a journal by the researcher - (see Tables 3.1 and 3.4). Although an entry was not made after each class, an entry was made each time a new lesson plan was implemented for the first time or again when this plan had been edited somewhat upon reflection for a later class. The researcher did not write about one class only but choose to write about a number of classes (with different students), as this allowed for new ideas for the same lesson to be tested on another class. The researcher also tried to follow a framework or cycle of reflective journal keeping proposed by Bartlett (cited in Insuasty and Castillo, 2010: 90) in order to fit with the AR cycle of the present study. The cycle consists of 5 components: 1. Mapping, 2. Informing, 3. Contesting, 4. Appraisal, and 5. Acting. The cycle involves researchers asking themselves key questions, such as;

- What do I do as a teacher?
- How might I teach differently?
- What and how shall I now teach?

The researcher found it useful to keep these questions in mind when observing classes and later writing about them.

The researcher’s journal was then explored for existing and emerging themes. A lot of the data seemed to be related to one overall theme – L2 future-selves. There were also 2 other sub themes that emerged that were related to the main theme of L2 future-selves. These were the importance of: 1. L2 speaking and 2. L2 listening, in the L2 classroom. Of course, the theme of L2 future-selves has been explored in great detail already, and throughout the present thesis. However, it is interesting to view it from the
researcher’s point of view and to explore if the nurturing and fostering of L2 future-selves through the use of appropriate L2 classroom pedagogy can have a positive effect on classroom L2 motivation and learning. Therefore, observations regarding L2 speaking and L2 listening were noted in the researcher’s journal and the following narrative explores how these L2 learning experiences may be related to the overall theme of L2 future-selves.

7.3.1 - L2 Future-Selves and L2 Learning Experiences in the Classroom

In Section 2.5.4 of Chapter 2 it was noted that using authentic materials, such as visual aids, in the L2 classroom can encourage students to develop their own L2 future-self image, and that this can have a positive effect on L2 motivation and learning. A number of references were made in the researcher’s journal regarding the use of visual aids by the students and how this improved not only students’ interest and awareness of the topic they were presenting about, but it also seemed to motivate them to speak more fluently during the presentation. Extract 7.10 is an example of this.

Many of (the students) had prepared pictures and some even had PowerPoint presentations. They spoke about what they like and their interests and I think this motivated them, more than usual.

Extract 7.10 – The Researcher’s Journal

However, it was also noted in the journal that the improper use of visual aids and some poor classroom management had negated their effect. For example, in one class the researcher noted that even though the students seemed to enjoy making visual
aids (posters), they spent too much time on them and thus were not prepared for the speaking part of the presentation. After reflecting, the researcher made a number of small but significant changes to the lesson plan for a subsequent class, and this led to the students in that class making better use of their visual aids and speaking as if ‘from the top of their heads’, rather than simply reading from a speech, during the presentation. They mostly did this by adding key words and phrases to the posters in order to help to prompt them during their presentation and spending more time discussing what they were going to say and who was going to say what. This would seem to show a link between the fostering of L2 future-self images and L2 speaking in the classroom. In other words, encouraging students to create images of things that they want to talk about, seems to have a positive effect on their ability to speak English.

It was also noted in one entry that only some of the students in one class had brought visual aids, while others had not. This made the ones who had brought visual aids feel embarrassed and it seemed like they felt they were やりすぎ (Yarisugi – looking like you’re trying too hard). This seemed to negate the effect of the use of visual aids on the students’ motivation to speak and make good presentations. Again, once this lesson was tried out on subsequent classes, it was made clear that points would be awarded for proper use of visual aids and this led to all of the students using visual aids and much improved overall presentations. Chapter 8 discusses how future studies could investigate the link between the use of visual aids in the L2 classroom and the development of future-self images.

Another entry in the researcher’s journal focused on a class activity that seemed to increase student’s motivation to speak about the class topic. The class topic was ‘social problems’ and the researcher first talked about the topic for a few minutes,
providing examples that were relevant to the students’ lives in Japan – in particular to their future lives in Japan. The students then researched about a social problem that they thought was important. They then brought in pictures (some made power point presentations) about their researched topic. This led to what the researcher observed to be increased levels of L2 motivation to not only speak about a topic that was relevant to them but also to concentrate on listening to the researcher talk about the topic. This adds weight to what many researchers, such as Leo Van Lier (1996), advocate for, which is using relevant and authentic content in the L2 classroom and how it can have a positive effect on L2 motivation.

7.3.2 - The AR Cycle and the Researcher’s Journal

The researcher also found this stage of the project to be closely linked with an ‘action stage’ of action research methodology. This was due to the fact that, as the project progressed, and the findings began to be implemented in actual lesson pedagogy, the researcher’s journal acted as a good way to record observations and reflections on the pedagogy implemented. Even though the participants were not students from the researcher’s own classes (for ethical reasons mentioned in Chapter 3), ideas resulting from the emerging data could be subsequently implemented in the researcher’s own classes – see Section 7.2 for example lesson plans.

The researcher also found the process of keeping a journal to be a useful and informing way to attempt to link the overall theme of L2 future-selves to observations during actual classroom pedagogy. It was useful to reflect on these observations and see how adapted future lesson plans (taking into account these reflections) can have a positive effect on L2 motivation in the classroom. The following is an example of how
the researcher's journal influenced lesson pedagogy and in particular how reflection in the journal allowed for change and subsequent action in the L2 classroom. This lesson was also chosen as it was observed by a colleague (who was also the gatekeeper in the present study) who provided valuable feedback after the lesson – see Table 7.6.

| Lesson Objective | • To enable the student to talk about a part of Japanese culture that they are interested in.  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>• To begin to develop student narratives on their own experiences of being Japanese and growing up in Japan.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Tasks/ Activities| • 2 lesson project. Part 1 was a preparation lesson where students listened to examples and began to outline their own ideas for their presentation. Students then did further prep. And research for homework.  
|                  | • Part 2 involved the student presentations either with the aid of pictures or pictures and headings on a PowerPoint slideshow. |
| Materials/ Equipment | • PowerPoint / Pictures/ Examples from textbook and supplementary materials/ worksheets |

Table 7.6 – Lesson Plan 6

Observations and Reflections

Feedback provided by the colleague who observed the lesson stated that the
students appeared to be very interested in the topic of their presentation – likely due to the fact that the topics were self-selected. The researcher’s colleague also noted that more time could have been spent on a language focus activity in Part 1 to improve the level of grammar and vocabulary used during the presentations. These observations were taken into consideration when implementing subsequent lessons.

7.4 - Summary of Chapter 7

Chapter 7 looked at the presence of existing and new themes from the participants’ journals. Existing themes related to future-self images and the desire to listen to and speak more English in the L2 classroom. New themes which emerged from the journals included opinions on L2 classroom pedagogy and the participants’ thoughts on their own L2 performances, which were adopted for use when designing and implementing lesson plans – that were shown in this chapter. Observations on classroom pedagogy from the researcher’s own journal established a link between the use of authentic classroom materials, which assisted in the development of student future-self images, and resulted in observed higher levels of L2 motivation in the classroom. From this, the findings from the journals together with the findings from the participants’ interviews and surveys are combined and presented in Chapter 8, in order to give us a deeper understanding of the research questions; in particular, whether the L2 learning experiences of the students have an influence on the development of their L2 future selves and subsequently on their overall L2 motivation. A discussion of the limitations of this study, the inferences of the findings, recommendations for future studies, and finally, a word of reflection on the overall present study from the researcher is provided for at the end of Chapter 8.
Chapter 8 - Discussion and Conclusion

8.1 - Introduction to Chapter 8

In this final Chapter of the thesis the results from the surveys, interviews and journals are combined and overlapping and salient emergent themes are highlighted. This allows us to gain a clearer picture of how the findings from the present study have answered the research questions being asked. For this purpose, the research questions from Chapter 1 are reviewed in Section 8.2 of this chapter. From this, the limitations of the study and the inferences of the findings are discussed, followed by recommendations for future studies in the area of L2 motivation. Finally, this chapter allows for a word on reflection on the present study from the researcher.

8.2 - Main Findings from the Study

After completing the analysis of the participant data from all stages of the research project, a number of insightful findings emerged. These findings are integrated between the different data sets and shown by theme in Table 8.1. After an overview of the integrated findings, Section 8.3.1 restates the overall research question from the present study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Integrated Data Sets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. L2 Role Models</td>
<td>A recurring theme from the survey, interview and journal data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Preferred use of English in the L2 Classroom</td>
<td>A recurring theme from the interview and journal data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Positive L2 Learning Experiences</td>
<td>A recurring theme from the survey, interview and journal data.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.1 – Integrated findings from different data sets

All 3 of these themes were shown to have a relationship with the presence and development of L2 future selves in the participants, and Section 8.3 allows for an exploration of these relationships and an attempt to determine whether, and to what extent, they answer the overall research questions being hypothesised about in the present study.

8.2.1 - L2 Role Models and the L2 Future-Self

The theme of L2 role models was a recurring theme in all stages of the present study – the survey, the interview and the AR journal study. L2 teachers and famous L2 idols emerged as dominant over parents or friends, when looking at the data as a whole.

8.2.1.1 - Teachers as L2 Role Models and the L2 Future-Self

Possibly the strongest theme to emerge from the participant data from the survey and interview stages, was that teachers emerged as having had a strong influence
on participants L2 acquisition. This was detailed in Section 5.2.2 of the interview study and the survey findings also showed that the majority of the participants liked speaking English with their English teacher – see Table 4.2. Section 6.3 also showed that participants who detailed how their L2 teachers had influenced and encouraged them also had a clear picture of their L2 future-speaking selves. In other words, those participants who were able to detail how they imagined themselves using English in the future also detailed how one of their English teachers had encouraged or influenced them in their past learning experience. It also became evident that those participants who were unable to provide any clue as to how they would use English in their future also failed to make any mention of their English teachers. As was discussed previously (Section 2.7.2), teachers in Asian contexts play an especially dominant role in learning contexts, whether it is learning martial arts, flower arranging, or in this case, an L2. This is not to suggest that teachers in other geographical contexts do not play an important part in their students learning, however, the teacher-centred approach is still favoured in Asian contexts, as opposed to the more learner-centred and teacher as facilitator approach favoured in western teaching contexts. It is possible then that English teachers in Japan could harness this dominance and influence they have over their students to nurture and foster the development of their students’ English future-speaking selves. This of course leads us to the next dominant theme to emerge from the participant data, which is that the majority of the participants favoured their English teachers using more English in the classroom. However, before we look at the summary of this theme, it is important to look at other L2 role models that emerged from the participant data.
8.2.1.2 - L2 Famous Role Models and the L2 Future-Self

The second most important L2 role models that emerged from the data from the survey and the interview, were famous English-speaking idols. Stars like Justin Bieber and Taylor Swift were mentioned in more than one instance and by more than one of the participants as having had a direct influence on the English learning experience. It is interesting to note that these participants discovered these artists on their own from watching YouTube or seeing them on TV and that they also had a clear picture of how they were going to use English in their future. Due to the salient influence these stars have had on these participants, it is possible to presume that if their classmates were exposed to music and videos from famous English-speaking idols that they too may find that it has a positive effect on their English future-speaking selves and consequently their communicative ability in English. Research carried out into imagined communities (Norton, 2000; see Section 1.6.3) and L2 role models in popular culture (see Section 1.6.4) show the benefits of using imagination in the L2 classroom to interact with and feel a part of the L2 speaking community. Here again, teachers could harness the influence that these English-speaking idols have, by exposing their students to English music and music videos in the classroom. As teachers get to know their students and their individual preferences with regards to musical tastes, for example, they could tailor exercises and set assignments based on what these preferences are – see Section 7.2.1 for an example of pedagogy implemented based on the importance of L2 famous role models. This is just one way in which L2 teachers can work towards helping students develop their future English-speaking selves and of course depending on the context and each student’s individual preferences, teachers could adapt their lesson plans and materials to provide the best possible exposure in order to encourage the development
of their student’s L2 future-selves.

8.2.1.3 - English-Speaking Friends and L2 Future-Selves

In addition to the participant interviews (see Section 5.2.4), some of the participants who kept a journal also mentioned how the desire to speak to their English-speaking friends again, sometime in the future, was encouraging them to study English harder. This was not mentioned by a majority of the participants and it was not a recurring theme throughout the present study, however, it is an important point and one that requires mentioning. It is entirely possible to presume that having English-speaking friends would influence your English studies in a positive way. In Section 1.6.4 we saw how near peer L2 role models (Murphey, 1998; Muir 2013) can have an important effect on the development of L2 future-self identities and in Section 7.2.3 an example of how a near peer L2 role model can be utilised in the L2 classroom was provided for. Some of the participants in the present study have been fortunate enough to attend study abroad programs that allowed them the opportunity to make English-speaking friends which, as they attest to, has had a positive effect on their desire to study harder. In Section 1.6.4 we learned how researchers (Kinginger, 2011; Jackson, 2017) argue that study abroad programmes can only be of benefit if pre-sojourn opportunities to interact with the L2 host community are provided for. However, due to monetary and time constraints, it is simply not possible to adopt study abroad as a dominant method of second language acquisition that would work for all students. We can say, to a certain degree of certainty, that studying abroad and making English-speaking friends does seem to be a good way to develop a future
English-speaking self. However, more research needs to be carried out to explore more ways in which opportunities to interact and feel a part of the L2 community can be provided for in the L2 classroom.

8.2.2 - Preferred Use of English in the L2 Classroom and the L2 Future-Self

The theme of L2 use in the classroom is directly related to the theme of teachers as L2 role models. The participant data from the survey and the interview stages showed that a significant number of the participants wanted their English teachers to use more English in the L2 classroom. MEXT have stated that they want English to be used more by Japanese English teachers as a method of instruction in high schools – see Chapter 1 and elsewhere. Japanese English teachers rely heavily on the use of Japanese in the English classroom in order to explain difficult concepts and grammatical structures to their students – see Section 1.4.1. The level of English fluency of Japanese English teachers will also determine to what extend they use English in the L2 classroom. Moreover, as one of the main goals of high schools is to prepare students for university entrance exams, English teachers’ focus has been on the university English entrance exams, which are based on multiple choice answers to large amounts of English texts – see Section 2.6.2. From 2020 however, as these exams become more of a test of communicative ability in both written and spoken English, Japanese English teachers may be forced to adopt a more communicative approach in the classroom – see Section 1.1. The participants in the present study have shown that they are, for the majority, willing to take speaking tests for university entrance exams – see Section 6.6.

As the data from the present thesis has shown, students who prefer English to be used predominately in the classroom are more likely to possess an English
future-speaking self. Therefore, it is possible to say that there are benefits to English teachers using less of the L1 and more of the L2 in the classroom and Section 7.2 has shown examples of lesson pedagogy that allows L2 teachers to do that. The following section provides for further pedagogical implications of this particular theme to be explored.

8.2.2.1 - Pedagogical Implications of Preferred English use in the L2 Class

Looking at the literature in the area of L1 and L2 codeswitching and interaction as modified input (see Sections 1.5.3 and 1.5.4) we can see that research supports the use of combining the majority use of the L2 with additional use of the L1 in the L2 classroom. Exactly how much of the L1 should be used in conjunction with the L2 however may depend on a number of complex dynamic factors, such as the context, level of the students and level of teacher fluency. The researcher would therefore like to suggest a number of strategies for L2 teachers to use in order to increase the use of the L2 in the L2 classroom. Table 8.2 shows an outline of these strategies, which is divided into 3 parts, 1. L2 strategies, 2. L1 strategies and 3. L1 and L2 codeswitching strategies.
L2 Strategies
1. Introductions and warm up activities
2. Reporting on tasks carried out in pair/group work
3. For teacher narratives and authentic listening practice
4. For student presentations/project work
5. For controlled activities, such as information gap, quizzes, student and teacher Q & A

L1 Strategies
6. For explaining complex grammar points
7. Giving complicated task instructions
8. Disciplining students (if necessary)

L1 and L2 Codeswitching Strategies
9. Checking understanding/negotiation of meaning
10. During complex pair/group work, such as discussions

Table 8.2 – Strategies for Increasing L2 use in the L2 Classroom

The strategies in Table 8.2 show how opportunities for use of the L2 are potentially greater than the number of strategies for using the L1. This is by no means an exhaustive list and future practical studies on L2 use in the classroom might shed further light on this area. The following section provides for a discussion of the overall L2 learning experience of the participants in the present study and in particular the impact of university entrance exams and their washback effect on high school English pedagogy and the L2 future-selves of the students.
8.2.3 - Positive L2 Learning Experiences and the L2 Future-Self

It became clear from the data collected from the participants from the survey (see Section 4.3) and in particular the interview stage (Section 6.5) of the present study, that a majority of the participants who had positive past learning experiences also had strong L2 future-self images. Past learning experiences in this context were related to experiences they have had with learning English in the classroom from elementary to high school. It also includes experiences they have had studying abroad and experiences they have had outside of school. In other words, self-study which includes but is not limited to writing a diary in English or watching movies in English. There is also a link here to their experience of preparing for and indeed thinking about the university entrance exams. The participant data would appear to highlight a relationship between a willingness to take university entrance exams that are more oriented towards speaking and the presence of a clear future English-speaking self (see Section 6.6). This would again point towards English teachers and English teaching pedagogy moving away from simply preparing students for these prosaic exams and allowing for a more communicative and holistic approach that enables English teachers to use English more as a method of instruction in the English classroom.

8.2.3.1 - Pedagogical Implications of L2 Positive Learning Experiences

As university entrance exams are becoming more communicative and moving away from the multiple-choice format that only tests reading and listening (see Section 1.1), L2 teachers may still need to focus on preparing their students for these tests – albeit with a new focus on writing and speaking. The researcher would like to suggest a
number of L2 classroom strategies that can better prepare their students for these more communicative entrance exams, that were listed in Section 1.1, and at the same time focus on a more holistic English education. Table 8.3 outlines a list of these strategies.

| Speaking Strategies | 1. Short topic-based teacher to student talks, where each student must talk for a short time on a set topic. |
|                     | 2. Short topic-based discussions between teacher and class where teachers and students engage in Q & A. |
|                     | 3. More opportunities to engage with native L2 speakers in class or out of class. |
| Listening Strategies | 4. Opportunities to listen to narratives from near peers who have had study abroad experience. |
|                     | 5. Use of more authentic visuals in class while listening to narratives or dialogues. |
|                     | 7. Keeping journals in English on a regular basis as part of the curriculum. |
|                     | 8. Use of book reports to follow up on extensive reading tasks. |
| Reading Strategies  | 9. Introduction of extensive reading at a lower age to be followed up with written or oral book reports/ discussions. |

Table 8.3 – L2 Classroom Strategies for Communicative Exam Preparation
8.3 - Overall Inferences from the Present Study

All of the above findings show the benefits of marrying the current dual focus of high schools in Japan into one approach that prepares students for university entrance exams and at the same time fosters more of the holistic skills necessary for their futures. This current study also shows that higher levels of L2 motivation in the Japanese high school L2 classroom may be attainable by encouraging Japanese English teachers to use more English in the classroom and by exposing students to more authentic and relevant materials that assist in the development of their students’ future English-speaking selves. Finally, this highlights some interesting issues that may be of interest to researchers in future studies in L2 motivation which will be discussed in Section 8.5.

Before we look at future recommendations, however, it is important, at this last stage of the research project, to take stock as it were, and attempt to write about the overall inferences of the findings in the present study. The project itself began with one overall idea, which was to investigate the language learning motivations of students in the school in which the researcher works, in order to gain a deeper insight into their hopes and wishes in terms of speaking English. It was hoped that these insights would lead to a greater understanding of how to motivate students in the L2 classroom by implementing lesson plans based on the research findings. At this final stage of the project, it is possible to say that to at least a certain degree, this has been achieved. We can say this due to the knowledge that the researcher has observed higher levels of motivation when implementing lesson plans based on the research findings, by paying more attention to visual aids, authentic materials and by putting a greater emphasis on speaking and listening to English in the L2 classroom as well as developing ways to
increase students extensive reading and writing output.

8.3.1 - A Return to the Research Questions

It is important at this stage to return to the research questions, which were introduced in Section 1.2, to summarise how the above findings have answered these questions. This section lists each question again, for ease of reference, and then provides a summary of how the integrated themes form the findings, discussed earlier in this Chapter, have answered these questions.

**Question 1** - What are the language learning experiences of Japanese high school students? - In terms of their experiences of learning English at school, traveling or living abroad, with a private language teacher, or with the aid of books, music and media.

This question is more of a broad opening question to the present study and it can be answered by looking at the often unique and individual responses from the participants in the interview and journal data in particular which were detailed in Chapter 5, 6 and 7. We know that for many of the participants these L2 learning experiences are positive ones including strong L2 role models in the form of teachers, near peers and famous idols. We also know that some of the participants have had positive experiences during study abroad programme where they met their near peer L2 role models. It is also clear that some of the participants were not able to show if they have had positive L2 learning experiences and had little to say either in terms of
negative L2 experiences. Questions 2 and 3 provide for a deeper understanding of how these L2 experiences are linked to the L2 motivation and in particular the L2 future-self.

**Question 2** - How do Japanese high school students see themselves using English in the future? In terms of, and for example, whether they can imagine themselves using English while studying abroad or working for an international company.

Looking at the findings from the data in the survey and interview stages of the present study we can see the majority of the participants have strong images of themselves using English in their future for work in Japan, for work in an international company and for travel. On the other hand, we can also see that some participants have no image of themselves using English in their future.

**Question 3** - Is there a relationship between the language learning experiences of Japanese high school students and how they see themselves using English in their future? In other words, does a learner with a positive English language learning experience also have a clear idea of how they will use English in their future? Also, do learners with negative English language learning experiences lack a clear image of how they will use English in their future?

The findings from the present study have shown that half of the participants have both positive L2 learning experiences and strong future-self images of themselves using English. We also know, from the interview data in particular, that only 2 of the participants have both negative L2 learning experiences and weak or non-formed L2 future self images of themselves using English the future. As research
questions 1 and 2 are a lead up to research question 3, the inferences from the answers to research question 3 allow us to draw inferences from the present study as a whole. The answers to research question 3, allow us to infer that positive L2 language learning experiences can lead to stronger future-self images and negative L2 language learning experiences can lead to weaker future-self images. This is important for L2 pedagogy, and as was detailed in Chapter 7 and in the earlier part of this chapter, adapting pedagogy based on the results of the present study can have a positive effect on L2 motivation. It is also important for language educators in Japan, as with the changes to the university entrance exams from 2020 onwards, this study shows how more emphasis on implementing L2 classroom pedagogy that fosters and nurtures the development of L2 learners’ L2 future-selves, can also assist in preparing high school students for these exams.

8.4 - Limitations of the Study

There are of course certain areas of the current study that may have been done differently in hindsight. This section therefore looks at the limitations of the study, which are; 1. The size of the sample, 2. The self-selected nature of the participants, 3. The very specific population overall, and 4. The limitations of the design of the methodology.

A larger sample size would have been preferable in order to add more weight to the results of the quantitative survey in particular. In order to have achieved this, some changes would have needed to have been made to the recruitment process. Encouraging high school students to take part in an academic study into motivation and language learning is not an easy task for anyone. It was hoped that assurances of a bilingual
process with the aid of a gate keeper and carefully worded information letters would lead to an ample number of interested students coming forward. In the end, the researcher was confident that an ample number did eventually agree to participate, due to the amount and quality of the data collected. However, it is possible that for a complex and qualitative research project such as the present study to attract a larger sample size, a deeper pool of potential participants may need to have been sourced. This could possibly have been done by attempting to recruit students from a number of Japanese high schools, rather than just one. Of course, this would have led to a number of other issues that could have complicated the study even further, in terms of the logistics and feasibility of the recruitment and interviewing of students in many different schools, as well local ethical considerations in all of these schools. The researcher also noted that there seemed to have been reluctance by many of the participants to keep a regular journal. Even some of the participants who agreed to keep a journal seemed to have become reluctant to keep it regularly. In the end, and after adapting the journal focus with less of a subjective and more of an objective focus, it was felt that enough data was able to be gathered from the journal entries, again due to the amount and quality of data collected. However, it was also felt that, another approach to gathering data from participants in journal format would need to be considered if the study was to be carried out again. This could possibly have been done by adding the journal-keeping process to the regular syllabus or allowing for student reflections to be made at the end of each lesson. Of course, this would again have led to ethical considerations as the research would then need to be carried out by the researcher as teacher.

The fact that the participants were self-selected, in other words, they chose to
take part in the study, may indicate a certain bias. This could be a case argued especially in terms of the journal study, for which only 4 of the 12 participants chose to take part. These participants could be seen therefore as being more motivated to begin with, as they have volunteered to take part. However, the findings from the data collected from these participants did not indicate that they are all motivated to learn English and therefore it could be argued that even though the participants were self-selected, a bias did not emerge from the data collected. Future research in the high school context in this area could look at snowball, cluster or simple random sampling, to reduce the possibility of bias in the sample.

The overall population was also very specific. The participants were chosen from one Japanese high school. The findings of the present study were representative of the current context in which the study took place. However, to be more representative of the larger population of all high schools in Japan, and even high schools in general, a larger, more costly and time-consuming study would be needed. This is also an area that could be looked at for future studies.

Having implemented the study, some drawbacks with certain aspects of the methodology were recognised. The current study used a mixed methods action research approach that utilised surveys, interviews and journal studies. A survey was designed with a broad focus on the overall L2 identities of the participants by combining the ideal and ought-to self items into one category. This allowed for this category to be explored in terms of its relationship to the L2 learning experience category as a whole. Further studies could explore this area in terms of specific ideal-selves separated from their ought-to selves. The journal study could also have been expanded to include more participants and more themes could have been explored over a longer time frame to look
at the more complex dynamic nature of the participants L2 motivation – which would be more in line with current and emerging studies in this area (Dörnyei et al. 2016; Sampson, 2016).

8.5 - Recommendations for Future Studies in L2 Motivation

In addition to areas discussed for further exploration in Section 8.4, the researcher would like to highlight some other areas of possible focus for future studies in L2 motivation. These are: 1. An exploration of conflicting L2 self images, 2. More representation of secondary school research in mainstream studies, and, 3. Further innovative methods for data collection.

The concept of conflict in the L2 future-self construct is one area where researchers agree requires further investigation in future research (Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015; Nakamura, 2015). They, however, are mostly concerned with the possible conflict that may arise between coexisting ideal-self images and the influence of mainstream psychological theories on future L2 motivation research, such as the conflict between conscious and unconscious attitudes. Due to the experience of having combined the L2 ideal-self and ought-to self in the current study, the researcher would like to suggest that there is a need to investigate the possibility of a conflict that may exist between these L2 motivational components. In other words, learners who have a desire to live and work in an English-speaking country may also feel obliged, due to external factors, to ‘settle down’ into life and employment in their home country. In the present study, this conflict was a sub-theme that began to emerge during the data collection process, and it was felt that it warranted further investigation in future studies,
due to the possible effect this conflict could have on L2 motivation.

It is also pointed out by researchers that ‘the tertiary student sample dominates the research paradigms and secondary school pupils are underrepresented’ (Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015: 156). The researcher agrees, and suggests that there is a need for further studies in L2 motivation in the secondary school context in Japan. Due to the introduction of a formal course of English study for 5th and 6th graders in primary school in Japan from 2020, much of the research that has taken place in the last decade focusing on young learners in Japan, has been in the primary school context – see Chapter 2. However, it is possible to say that this change to the primary school English curriculum is going to have a washback effect on the secondary school curriculum in the coming years. Therefore, there is an urgent need to focus more investigation on the secondary school context. One such innovative study, discussed in chapter 2, is Sampson’s research (2016) on his own students, who were aged between 15 and 18 in a Japanese technical college. He used student activity worksheets and class observations along with learning journals to attempt to gain a greater understanding of how to foster his students’ unique desires, hopes and wishes, in order to improve their L2 motivation and subsequent acquisition. He admits that it was an experimental and often flawed investigation; however, due to observed higher levels of student motivation at the end of the project, it was ultimately worthwhile.

Finally, it is important to mentioning the trend that is emerging away from more traditional methods of data collection, towards a more multimodal approach. Video in research is becoming more and more prevalent. Through their innovative studies, researchers have pointed out the benefits of using video to document real time participant gestures and expressions in order to get a better understanding of the
interpersonal relationships that exist between participants and how these may result in richer data being gathered (Stone, 2012; DeFreitas, 2016). Also, Adolphs et al. (2018) have very recently carried out research utilising technology that attempts to map the ideal future-self images of L2 learners onto their faces in order to enhance their ability to develop their L2 identity. Even though the lack of appropriate technology hindered their results, this study points us in the right direction in terms of future studies in L2 motivation and identity. Future research could, for example, also make more use of video and technology in secondary school settings, just as Stone (2012), DeFreitas (2016) and Adolphs (2018) have done in the university setting. In order to achieve this, however, there would possibly need to be more collaboration between school boards and research departments in universities in order to comply with ethical considerations that are rightly there to protect the privacy of secondary school students.

8.6 - Overall Reflections on the Present Study

On reflecting on the overall experience of writing a thesis over the course of the 4-year study, I can now look back on an enjoyable experience that has given me an overall feeling of immense satisfaction. I have enjoyed seeing how a project that started with an idea progressed from there through each stage into a completed full thesis on that idea. In particular, it was interesting to see how the participants themselves added real, authentic and unique insights into the questions that I was looking to answer through the survey, interview and journal stages. In addition to learning a lot about SLA and L2 motivation theory, I have also learned a lot about how to write and present an academic thesis.

Of course, and as expected, there were some difficulties encountered during the
course of the 4-year study. It was difficult at times to motivate myself to do the work and ensure that plans and timelines that I had drawn up were rigidly adhered to. The irony of this, considering I was conducting a research project on L2 motivation, is not lost on me. However, there were many days and weeks when I found myself being carried along by a current or wave of motivation while I was immersed in, for example, carrying out the interviews or writing up the thematic analysis of the transcripts of those interviews. Now, at this final stage, and after all the late nights, and sore fingers from typing, I feel that it was ultimately worth it.

I have already begun to notice the positive influence the last 4 years has had on my own teaching in the present setting and in particular how writing a thesis has also improved my organisation and presentation of pedagogy in the classroom. I am now confident that this study and thesis will be an important milestone in my academic life and I can now look forward to using the skills and knowledge that I have acquired over the last four years for the betterment of my career. Overall, I feel that this has been an enjoyable and rewarding experience and I am excited about the opportunities that lie ahead.
REFERENCES


British Council (2003), Action research, 02 Feb 2019.


Clark, G. (2009). What’s wrong with the way English is taught in Japan? Japan Times 5 Feb 2017


production, SSLA, 16, 283-302.
Hollaback (2014) Catcalling video –YouTube, 02 Feb 2019


Joe, M. (2010). Why do English teachers have to be native speakers? The Japan Times. 15 April.

Juan-Garau, M. (2015). Speaking an additional language: Can study abroad do the


Kulharia, V. (2016). Using music to learn a second language. vivkul@iitk.ac.in


Lake, J. (2014). Curious readers and interesting reads.: Developing a positive L2 reading


Mainichi Japan. (2018). Japan high school English proficiency falls short of government targets. 06 April 2018


O’Donoughue, J.J. (2014). Teaching quality, not lesson quantity, may be the key to Japan’s top math marks. The Japan Times. 23 Nov. 2014

OECD educational ranking data 2014


Osaki, T. (2017). Education ministry panel approves private-sector English testing for


[sooscistatistics.com](http://sooscistatistics.com), Fisher Exact Test Contingency Table Formula, Jan 2019


Tofel ETS data (2009)


APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Information Letters (English and Japanese)

University of Limerick

FACULTY OF ARTS, HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

INFORMATION LETTER

For student:

I, Andrew McCarthy, would like to invite you to take part in a research project into motivation and language learning. This would require you to take part in an interview, complete a survey and keep a reflective journal, once a month. The interview time would be about 10 or 15 minutes at a time that is convenient for you. The interview will be recorded on an audio digital recorder. Questions will be about your language learning experience and what you would like to do in the future. This interview will take place in Oberlin High School. Your name and any personal details will not be used in the presentation of the research.

All stages of the research may be conducted in English or Japanese. If you don’t wish to answer any questions or if you decide not to take part at any time, you may do so. You may contact the Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee at the University of Limerick if you have any concerns about participating in the research.

My contact details are, Andrew McCarthy (Andrew.mccarthy@ul.ie)
My supervisor’s contact details are Dr. Liam Murray (Liam.Murray@ul.ie)
and Dr. Fiona Farr (fiona.farr@ul.ie)

*If you wish to participate or have any questions, please contact Kuroda sensei.

This research study has received Ethics approval from the Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee. If you have any concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent authority, you may contact:

Chairperson Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
AHSS Faculty Office
University of Limerick
Tel: +353 61 202286
Email: FAHSSEthics@ul.ie
リムリック大学 (University of Limerick)
芸術・人文社会学部 (Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences)
研究倫理委員会 (Research Ethics Committee)
案内状 (Information Letter)

2017年4月吉日

高等学校 生徒の皆さんへ

高等学校 英語科 Andrew McCarthy

研究リサーチ案内状

私は現在リムリック大学において「言語学習と動機付け」に関わる研究を行っているのですが、桜美林高校の生徒の皆さんにもこの研究プロジェクトに参加していただけると嬉しく思います。今回のリサーチには、短い面談、アンケート記入、「振り返り日記(a reflective journal)」をつけていただくことなどが含まれます。面談時間は皆さんに都合の良い時間に設定しますが、約10〜15分で、デジタルオーディオレコーダーで録音されます。質問内容は、語学学習経験と将来の希望や夢に関するものを予定しており、高等学校で行います。参加してくださる方の名前などの個人情報は公表されることなく、リサーチ発表においても秘匿されます。参加してくださる生徒の皆さんには、面談直前にアンケートに記入していただきます。振り返り日記は、月に一度短いものを書いてもらうことになります。

今回のリサーチは、英語ないし日本語で適宜行われ、質問に答えたくない場合やリサーチに参加したくないという判断をされた場合には、いつでも参加を中止することができます。今回のリサーチに関して何らかのご不安がある場合は、リムリック大学の芸術・人文社会学部研究倫理委員会に遠慮なくご連絡ください。私と私の指導教官の連絡先を以下に記しておきます。

Andrew McCarthy (Andrew.mccarthy@ul.ie)

Dr. Liam Murray (Liam.Murray@ul.ie)

Dr. Fiona Farr (fiona.farr@ul.ie)
参加したい場合やご不明な点がございましたら、高校の Andy 先生または____先生にご連絡ください。

この研究調査は、芸術、人文社会科学研究倫理委員会からの倫理承認を受けています。この研究に関して懸念されることや、上記の人物とは独立した権限を持つ者と連絡されたい場合には、以下の者にご連絡ください。Chairperson Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
AHSS Faculty Office
University of Limerick
Tel: +353 61 202286
Email: FAHSSEthics@ul.ie
I (Andrew McCarthy) would like to invite your son/daughter to take part in a research project into motivation and language learning. This would require them to take part in a short interview, fill out a survey and keep a reflective journal. The interview time would be about 10 or 15 minutes at a time that is convenient for them. The interview will be recorded with an audio digital recorder. Questions will be about their language learning experience and what they would like to do in the future. This interview will take place in ________ High School. Their name and any personal details will not be used in the presentation of the research. The participants will be invited to complete a survey just before the interview takes place. The participants will also be invited to write a short entry in a journal, once a month.

All stages of the research may be conducted in either English or Japanese. If they don’t wish to answer any questions or if they decide not to take part at any time, they may do so. You may contact the Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee at the University of Limerick if you have any concerns about
participating in the research

My contact details are, Andrew McCarthy (Andrew.mccarthy@ul.ie)

My supervisor's contact details are Dr. Liam Murray (Liam.Murray@ul.ie)

and Dr. Fiona Farr (fiona.farr@ul.ie)

This research study has received Ethics approval from the Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee. If you have any concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent authority, you may contact:

Chairperson Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee  
AHSS Faculty Office  
University of Limerick  
Tel: +353 61 202286  
Email: FAHSSEthics@ul.ie
リムリック大学
(University of Limerick)
芸術・人文社会学部
(Faculty of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences)
研究倫理委員会
(Research Ethics Committee)
案内状
(Information Letter)

高等学校 生徒保護者各位

高等学校 英語科 Andrew McCarthy

研究リサーチ案内状

高等学校で英語科の専任教員をしている Andrew McCarthy と申します。私は現在リムリック大学において「言語学習と動機付け」に関わる研究を行っているのですが、高等学校の生徒の皆さんにもこの研究プロジェクトに参加していただけると嬉しく思います。今回のリサーチには、短い面談、アンケート記入、「振り返り日記(a reflective journal)」をつけていただくことなどが含まれます。面談時間は生徒の都合の良い時間に設定しますが、約 10〜15 分で、デジタルオーディオレコーダーで録音されます。質問内容は、語学学習経験と将来の希望や夢に関するものを予定しており、高等学校で行います。参加してくださる生徒の名前などの個人情報は公表されることなく、リサーチ発表においても秘匿されます。参加してくださる生徒の皆さんには、面談前に、アンケートに記入していただきます。振り返り日記は、月に一度短いものを書いてもらうことになります。

今回のリサーチは、英語ないし日本語で適宜行われ、質問に答えたくない場合やリサーチに参加したくないという判断をされた場合には、いつでも参加をとりやめることができます。今回のリサーチに関して何かのご不安がある場合は、リムリック大学の芸術・人文社会学部研究倫理委員会に遠慮なくご連絡ください。 私と私の指導教官の連絡先を以下に記しておきます。
この研究調査は、芸術、人文社会科学部研究倫理委員会からの倫理承認を受けています。この研究に関して懸念されることや、上記の人物とは独立した権限を持つ者と連絡されたい場合には、以下の者にご連絡ください。

Chairperson Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
AHSS Faculty Office
University of Limerick
Tel: +353 61 202286
Email: FAHSSEthics@ul.ie
Appendix 2 – Consent Forms (English and Japanese)

University of Limerick

FACULTY OF ARTS, HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
CONSENT FORM

Parent/ guardian

Consent:

I, the undersigned, declare that I am willing to allow my son/ daughter take part in research for the project entitled “Language Learning Motivation”.

I declare that I have read the information letter and that my son/ daughter is aware of their role as a participant in the research.

____________________________________
Signature of parent

__________________________
Date

of

parent

3 0 8
私は、私の息子/娘が研究プロジェクト "Language Learning Motivation"に参加することを許可したいと宣言します。私は情報声明を読んだことを宣言し、息子/娘は研究の参加者としての役割を認識しています。

ここにサインしてください ______________________月___日___年___
Appendix 3 – Assent Forms (English and Japanese)

University of Limerick
FACULTY OF ARTS, HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
Student Assent Form

I _________________________ have read the information letter and I know what is going to happen and what I have to do to take part in this research project. I also know that I may decide to stop taking part in the project at any time even after the project has started.

Signature _______________________________ date_______________
私は情報の手紙を読みました。私はこの研究プロジェクトに私がどのような関与をしているかを知っています。私はまた、プロジェクト開始後もいつでも参加を中止できることを知っています。

ここにサインしてください ________________ 月___日___年___
sensei,

I would like to request your permission to invite students to participate in a research project in the high school. This will include interviews, surveys and reflective journal entries. These will form the basis of my research into language learning and motivation. The results will be presented as a thesis. The participating students will have full rights to anonymity. I will also be requesting their permission and the permission of their parents in line with the rules of the university ethics committee. If you have any further queries regarding this research please contact me, Andrew McCarthy Andrew.mccarthy@ul.ie or my supervisor, Dr. Liam Murray Liam.Murray@ul.ie and Dr. Fiona Farr fiona.farr@ul.ie or Chairperson Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee AHSS Faculty Office University of Limerick Tel: +353 61 202286 Email: FAHSSEthics@ul.ie

Yours sincerely,
Andrew McCarthy
___________ High School
Dear Sir / Madam,

I certify that Andrew McCarthy, who is a full time teacher in our High School, does not have a criminal record in Japan.

Certifying Officer’s signature: ________________________________
Name (Block Capitals) ________________________________
Date: ________________ Profession ________________________________

Organization stamp or seal:
Appendix 5 – The Survey

**Language Learning and Motivation Survey**

Category 1 - L2 Learning Experience: *Circle a number from 1-5 for each question.*

1= not at all  2= not so much  3= a little  4= yes  5= very much/ I really think so

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I like English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I like studying English at school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I like English lessons at school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I like studying English in my free time. 「空いた時間」</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I like speaking English with other students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I like speaking English with my English teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I like speaking English in front of my classmates. 「〜の前で」</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I like watching movies in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I like listening to music in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I like reading books in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I like speaking English outside of school. 「〜の外で」</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. My parents encourage me to study English. 両親は私が英語を勉強することを奨励する（励ます）。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. My classmates encourage me to speak English in class. 級友は私が英語を勉強することを奨励する（励ます）。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. It is important to learn to read English at school. 学校で英文読解を学ぶことは重要である。</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
15. It is important to learn to \textit{speak} English at school.
学校で英会話を学ぶことは重要である。

16. It is important to learn to \textit{read} English well in order to enter a university.
大学に入るために英文読解をよく学ぶことは重要である。

17. It is important to learn to \textit{speak} English well in order to enter a university.
大学に入るために英会話をよく学ぶことは重要である。

\textbf{Category 2 – L2 Identity:} \textit{Circle a number from 1-5 for each question.}

1= not at all  2= not so much  3= a little  4= yes  5= very much/ I really think so

1. I would like to speak English in the future.

2. I would like to use English in the future for my job.

3. I would like to work for an international company.

4. I would like to live and work in an English-speaking country.

5. I would like to travel to English-speaking countries in the future.

6. I am interested in learning about cultures from English-speaking countries.

7. I am interested in famous people from English-speaking countries.

8. I try to be like famous people from English-speaking countries.

9. I like/ would like to make friends from English-speaking countries.
私は英語圏の友人をつくりたいと思っている。

10. Speaking English makes me feel good about myself.
   英語を話すことは私を気持ちよくさせる（自信をもたせてくれる、楽しくさせる）。

11. I imagine myself as someone who will be able to speak English well in the future.
   私は自分が将来、英語を上手に話せるようになっていると思う。

12. I imagine myself as someone who will use English in the future.
   私は自分が将来、英語を（仕事や旅先で）使うようになっていると思う。

13. I am the type of person who would start an English conversation with a foreigner.
   私は自ら外国の方に話しかけるタイプの人間だ。
Appendix 6 – The Interview Guide

Interview Guide

1. Do you like English? Why? 为什么喜欽英語？
2. Why do you want to learn English? 为什么想要学英語？
3. How do you imagine yourself in 10 years? 你认为自己十年后会是什么样子？
4. Can you imagine yourself using English in your daily life in the future? 你能在未来想象到自己在日常生活中使用英語嗎？
5. Do your friends, teachers or parents encourage you to speak English? 你的朋友、老師或父母支持你說英語嗎？
6. Are there any famous people from foreign countries that you admire? 你有崇拜的外國名人嗎？
7. Can you tell me about your past language learning experience? 你有什麼語言學習經驗想分享？
8. What do you think of your English lessons in high school? 你對高中的英語課有什麼看法？

317
高校での英語レッスンはどう思いますか？/ Kōkō de no eigo ressun wa dōmoimasuka?
- Which skill would you most like to improve, reading, writing, listening or speaking?
  Why?
どの英語スキルを改善したいですか？Dono eigo sukiru o kaizen shitadesu ka?
9.  Is there anything you would like to change about your high school lessons?
  あなたの高校のレッスンについて変更したいことはありますか？
  Anata no kōkō no ressun ni tsuite henkō shitai koto wa arimasu ka?
10. Which English skill do you think is most important in order to pass the university
    entrance exam; reading, writing, listening or speaking?
    大学入試のためにどの英語のスキルを準備するのが最も重要だと思いますか？
    Daigaku nyūshi no tame ni dono eigo no sukiru o junbi suru no ga mottomojūyōda to
    omoimasu ka?
11. Do you think that university entrance exams should have an English-speaking test?
    大学入試には英語を話すテストが必要だと思いますか？
    Daigaku nyūshi ni wa eigo o hanasu tesuto ga hitsuyōda to omoimasu ka?
Appendix 7 – Journal Process Information Letter

Reflective journal — please write 3 entries in your journal.

Thank you for agreeing to write the reflective journal for me (Andy). Please write an entry in your journal by these dates. Try to write about one page for each entry.

1. By Oct 31st (10 月 31 日までに出してください)
2. By Jan 31st (1 月 31 日までに出してください)
3. By March 25th (3 月 25 日までに出してください)

Write about your English lessons. (コミュニケーション英語が英語表現いて書いて下さい)

Try to include this information:

- What do you do in your lessons?
- What do you think of the lessons?
- What are the good and bad points of the lessons?
- What is your weak point in English? Do you think these lessons help to improve your weak point?
- What would you like to do more of/less of in your lessons? レッスンで何をも
  いですか？何をやりたいですか？

Anything else? 他の？

*You can write in Japanese or English. 日本語または英語で書いてことができます。If you have any questions or if you have lost your journal, please talk to Andy or #### sensei.