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Cover photo by Jo Mynard taken at PLL3, Tokyo, Japan. June, 2018.

Introduction to the Special Issue: Papers from the Third Psychology of Language Learning Conference

David McLoughlin, Meiji University, Tokyo, Japan

Jo Mynard, Kanda University of International Studies, Japan

Welcome to the first issue of 2019 which is a special issue containing papers from the third Psychology of Language Learning Conference (PLL3) which took place at Waseda University in Tokyo from June 7-10 2018. We both had the pleasure of attending the whole conference and enjoying five excellent plenary sessions and dozens of high-quality and stimulating presentations over the four days. Summaries of more presentations were included in the 36 chapters of the *Conference Collection* edited Mynard and Brady (2018), but this special issue of SiSAL Journal features selected papers that were relevant to the scope of this journal. **Greg Rouault** (Tezukayama Gakuin University, Japan) and **Colin Skeates** (Keio University, Japan) provide a review of the conference which is included in the reviews section of this issue.

Research Papers

There are five research papers in this issue from different research settings. In the first paper, **Eduardo Castro** from the Federal University of Pará, Soure, Brazil shares a longitudinal case study of a learner from the perspective of Motivational Dynamics in Language. The learner is participating in advising sessions where she notes her motivation at the beginning and the end**.** In addition, she notes motivation outside of advising sessions. The interpretative phenomenological analysis suggests that advising is an emergent property of the advising process.

In the second paper, **Claire M. Dunne** from Marino Institute of Education in Dublin, Ireland reports on a study which explores the process of becoming a primary level teacher of Irish. The author analyses similarities and differences in views on the teachers' role in promoting the Irish language and issues related to Irish language proficiency, at the beginning and end of a teacher education programme. The results suggest that there are shifts in the ways in which teachers conceive of their roles as teachers of Irish. In addition, it is suggested that more support for this role is provided.

The third paper, by **Junqing Jia**, examines the importance of vision on sustaining long-term motivation. She presents case studies of two advanced learners of Chinese and discusses how their well-constructed and robust visions of their future L2 and C2 (second culture) selves allowed them to develop resilience and sustain motivation in the face of setbacks in their language learning journey. The author suggests that through having such a self-constructed vision, together with extended socialization and a sense of progression, learners are able to create a self-sustaining motivation system.

In the fourth paper, **Masao Kanaoka** from Kagoshima University in Japan draws on Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational view of motivation. The author describes a pedagogical intervention and research study which investigates identity, inner spirituality and L2 practice. The results indicate perceptible self-growth, including positive self-image and positive impressions of the English language.

The qualitative study by Ryo Moriya from Waseda University in Japan explores the longitudinal trajectories of emotions mediated in advising sessions with two Japanese secondary school students. Using Plutchik's wheel of emotions, the author acknowledges both contextually complex and longitudinally dynamic aspects of emotions. The paper concludes with a tentative four-dimensional model of emotions which captures trajectories of advisees' emotions from multiple perspectives.

Work in Progress

In the first paper, **Dorota Matsumoto** from Waseda University in Tokyo, Japan shares some findings from a longitudinal study looking at how third agers in Japan conceptualize their foreign language learning experiences and how those experiences and conceptions of them contribute to learners' well-being. In particular, the study is examining the role of savouring (i.e., attending to and appreciating experiences) in well-being. In this paper, data from one in-depth interview are presented.

In the second paper, **Nathan Thomas** from the University of Oxford, UK discusses facilitative and debilitative formal learning spaces - classrooms. The author suggests that principles from self-access learning should inform the design of classroom spaces. Furthermore, the author argues that such learning spaces should be viewed as complex learning systems; in addition, the strategies learners use in those spaces are themselves complex systems. This view of learning spaces as complex language learning systems is offered as one future direction for research.

Upcoming Events

The fourth Psychology of Language Learning Conference will take place from June 24-28 at Cape Breton University in Sydney, Nova Scotia in Canada. The conference chair is Peter MacIntyre who is also the current president of IAPLL. The theme of the conference is "Themes and Waves" which was inspired by the physical location of the upcoming event, but is also a metaphor for the currents and waves that shape our thinking about language teaching and learning. For updates, see the website https://www.iapll.com/pll4.

Notes on the Editors

David McLoughlin is an Associate Professor in the School of Global Japanese Studies at Meiji University in Tokyo. He has an M.Phil in Applied Linguistics from Trinity College Dublin, Ireland, and an Ed.D. in TEFL from the University of Exeter, in the UK. His research interests are motivation and affect.

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Mynard, J., & Brady, I. K. (Eds.) (2019). *Stretching boundaries: Papers from the third Psychology of Language Learning conference, Tokyo, Japan, 7-10 June, 2018*. International Association for the Psychology of Language Learning. http://www.iapll.com

Motivational Dynamics in Language Advising Sessions: A Case Study

Eduardo Castro, Federal University of Pará, Soure, Brazil.

Abstract

Researchers have increasingly been interested in the complex and dynamic character of motivation. Recent studies point out the complex fluctuation of motivation in a situated perspective, as in a language classroom. However, little is known on how motivation evolves in out-of-class contexts, as in advising in language learning context. The present paper aims to explore the dynamics of motivation to learn English of an advisee. Data of this longitudinal case study were collected through a motivational grid combined with advisor's diaries and an in-depth interview, which were analyzed following the interpretative phenomenological analysis procedures. Results revealed that task complexity, tiredness, sense of competence, teachers and peers contributed to the fluctuation of the participant's motivation.

Keywords: motivation, advising in language learning, foreign language learning, learning trajectories, complex adaptive systems.

The language learning trajectory towards language proficiency is a personal, long and tortuous journey which is influenced by several factors, including learner motivation. In fact, motivation has been described as having a fundamental role in providing the necessary energy for one's pursuit of the goal of proficiency and engagement in such a process (Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, 2011). The focus on understanding the processual development of motivation has emerged from the interest of researchers in learners' behaviors in a situated perspective (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). More recently, such interest takes into account a complexity-informed frame, as motivation is no longer seen as a static, isolated individual difference, but as a construct that evolves on different timescales and in response to internal and external influences to the learner (Dörnyei, MacIntyre, & Henry, 2015; Waninge, Dörnyei, & De Bot, 2014).

Despite the increasing number of publications that investigate learner motivation from a complexity-informed perspective (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015), few of them have considered it within the context of advising in language learning. Advising in language learning is defined as "a process of helping someone to become an effective, aware, and reflective language learner" (Kato & Mynard, 2016, p. 1), which entails a holistic view of the language learner. Castro and Magno e Silva (2016), for example, investigated how language advising contributed to the participant's motivation in different language learning contexts.

By taking into account six lenses on the same learning process, the authors highlighted how the participant's interaction with her advisor was of paramount importance for her motivation regulation in different learning environments. If language advising was particularly helpful for that learner, how it helps learners to regulate their motivation without the support of an advisor was the question posed at that time. As an answer to that question, Castro (2018) conducted a longitudinal case study to explore how language advising influenced the participant's middle term motivation. The study concluded that language advising was one of the sites where positive language learning experiences took place, which led to the strengthening of the participant's ideal self both as a learner and a teacher.

Different from the aforementioned research studies, the present article turns its attention to a third gap in researching motivation in advising in language learning, as it explores how motivation fluctuates within and between advising sessions. More specifically, the current paper aims to identify and describe the factors that contribute to the waxing and waning of the level of motivation of one single advisee over time. In this regard, by adopting a complexity-informed perspective, the study combines a motivational grid along with an advisor's diaries and an in-depth interview with the learner. By understanding motivation as an emergent property from the learner's interaction with the advisor, this study may clarify some local practices of advising.

The Complexity Perspective in Applied Linguistics

In a brief look at the field of Applied Linguistics, what becomes clear is the increasing interest of researchers in adopting a complexity-informed approach in order to explain language learning and teaching phenomena as complex dynamic systems. In fact, since the publication of Diane Larsen-Freeman's seminal article (1997) two decades ago, for example, some international refereed journals have dedicated special issues to the theme, several books have been published (e.g., King, 2016; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Magno e Silva & Borges, 2016; Ortega & Han, 2017; Paiva & Nascimento, 2011; Verspoor, de Bot, & Lowie, 2011), as well as several articles, book chapters, theses and dissertations, related to different research agendas in the field (cf. Larsen-Freeman, 2017).

This growing interest places Applied Linguistics in the recent complexity turn, which is characterized by the interest in non-linear processes viewed in a holistic approach and in interaction with a range of contextual factors (Dörnyei et al., 2015; Mercer, 2013). Hiver and Al-Hoorie (2016) argue that complexity is not only a productive metaphor to explain language phenomena, but it is an empirical way of seeing reality which, according to Larsen-

Freeman (2012), challenges us to understand such phenomena in terms of their complexity and dynamism. In this regard, Larsen-freeman (2013; 2015) and Hiver and Al-Hoorie (2016) understand the complexity perspective as a meta-theory, that is, as

> a set of coherent principles of reality (i.e., ontological ideas) and principles of knowing (i.e., epistemological ideas) that, for applied linguists, underpin and contextualize object theories (i.e., of language and language development) consistent with these principles (de Bot et al., 2013). (Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2016, p. 2).

These principles refer to the characteristics of complex dynamic systems (CDS henceforth): openness, complexity, nonlinearity, self-organization, adaptation, emergence, and context-dependency, which will be briefly described in the following paragraphs.

CDS are formed by two or more interrelated components that interact over time (Dörnyei, 2014; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Each component can be a nested complex system by itself (Mercer, 2016). One of the major characteristics of CDS is their dynamism, as they are in continuous change (De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2015). This change can be smooth or abrupt and also nonlinear, as the effect is not always proportionate to the cause. The dynamism of CDS is due to their openness to external influences. As systems are in a constant flux and adapt to these influences, they are also adaptive. Another feature of CDS is their chaotic nature once unpredictable changes may occur; that is, a small change may have a significant impact on systems development. This development occurs in a state-space, i.e., a metaphorical area that represents all the possible states, positions or outcomes of a system (Hiver, 2015; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). In this spatial metaphor, there are certain states, modes or patterns of preferred behaviors of the systems called attractors (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Mercer, 2013). They "are critical outcomes that a system evolves toward or approaches over time" (Hiver, 2015, p. 21). In other words, attractors are recurring patterns of behavior of a given system.

Emergence is a fundamental feature of CDS. It refers to the result of the interaction between different elements and agents of a system (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) that "cannot be deduced from an understanding of the individual components" (Mercer, 2013, p. 378). Davis and Sumara (2006) state that the components of CDS are in interaction in/with a context. Similarly, Mercer (2013) argues that contexts are an integral part of the system, rather than an external variable affecting it from outside. In fact, contextual factors influence the trajectory of the system by fostering or constraining changes in its development in the state-space (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). However, it is not the presence of these

factors that influences language teaching and learning, but rather the way in which the agents of the system perceive and relate to them (Larsen-Freeman, 2016; Mercer, 2016). The boundaries of systems are blurred because of their interconnection with a range of other components. Due to the interconnection of components, the question of how to research a complex system has been a hot topic for discussion in the literature. In this regard, Larsen-Freeman (2012) emphasizes the need to select and define a focal point, a system, according to the research purpose. In this article, I consider language advising as a CDS and motivation as an emerging property from the learner-advisor interaction, recognizing its interconnection with other subsystems.

Language Advising from the Complexity Perspective

Advising in language learning, or language advising, is a relatively new field in applied linguistics that has been attracting attention due to its focus on individual language learning trajectories (Castro, 2018; Kato & Mynard, 2016; Magno e Silva & Borges, 2016; Mozzon-McPherson & Vismans, 2001; Mynard & Carson, 2012). It aims to help learners to become more aware, reflective, and effective regarding their language learning, so they can become more autonomous, motivated and self-regulated learners (Ciekanski, 2007; Kato & Mynard, 2016; Mozzon-McPherson, 2007). Through the advising process, the learner is encouraged to be an active agent, a protagonist in charge of choosing, constructing and evaluating learning plans with the support of a language advisor, a person who facilitates one's learning process, rather than directs it (Mynard, 2012).

Mynard (2012) describes language advising from the perspectives of constructivism and sociocultural theory and understands the advisor as a mediator of learning. In this vein, the author proposed the well-known model of advising that consists of dialogue, tools and context. In a complexity perspective, the advisor is seen as another agent in the learner's language learning system that disturbs and energizes their trajectories, helping them to find their own voice (Castro & Magno e Silva, 2016; Magno e Silva, Matos, & Rabelo, 2015). It is important to note that perturbation refers to "events that affect periods of stability in the development of the system" (Henry, 2015, p. 316).

The process of helping someone to become a competent and reflective language learner involves considering a conglomeration of factors related to their life, experiences, beliefs, motivations, identities, among others, that should be considered within a holistic view of the learning process. In this sense, language advising benefits from the principles of the complexity perspective, since by extending the scope of analysis to a dynamic, complex and

non-linear trajectory, it considers the potential agents and contexts that may foster or constrain the evolution of that language learning system. Recently, I have argued that language advising could be understood as a CDS in which various components, including the learner and the advisor, are complex systems (Castro, 2018). They interact over time with a multitude of other elements, agents and contexts, such as self-access centers, language classroom, mother tongue and foreign language, learning materials, language teachers, classmates, family, etc. These components also refer to the properties of the temporal and physical environment, such as where the advising session takes place (i.e., self-access center, classroom, or virtual environment), temperature, day of the week, time of the meeting, the interval from one session to another, among other factors that can influence the dynamics of advising.

In my understanding, language advising is an open system since it can be affected by a range of factors that go beyond the advising session itself. In this sense, the student and the advisor are constantly influencing each other in a process of coadaptation. The goals, strategies, and learning plans established by them are constantly (re)evaluated in each advising session so that new ones can be negotiated. However, the effort undertaken by the learner will not always result in the expected outcome due to the nonlinearity of language learning. In the relationship between student and advisor in a particular context, new properties emerge, which can be reflected in a network of environments, including the language classroom (Castro & Magno e Silva, 2016). Among them is motivation, in which language advising has a pertinent role in all its phases. This is because the advisor helps the learner to establish, put into action and evaluate the results of a learning plan.

In the complexity perspective, the motivation to learn a foreign language integrates multiple factors related to the learner, the tasks and the learning environment in a single complex system so that the result of this interaction can be understood as the regulator of learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In the present article, I adopt the person-in-context relational view of motivation proposed by Ushioda (2009). This view places emphasis on the agency of language learners, who are seen as individuals situated in a particular historical and cultural context so that their motivation and identity shape and are shaped by the context (Waninge et al., 2014). This means that motivation is a phenomenon that emerges from the individual and context. Ushioda (2009; 2011) still emphasizes the multiple identities of the individual who, in addition of being a language learner, is also a graduate student, member of a religious community, among other identities that influence his/her motivational process.

The Study

Learner motivation research has increasingly focused on its qualitative character. Yet, Ushioda (2016), one of the advocates of such an approach to motivation research, states that "fewer studies of L2 motivation have been grounded in specific local contexts of practice, focusing on the needs and experiences of particular learners" (p. 566). Although the author refers particularly to the language classroom, this seems to be also true for language advising research, in which there are few studies that explore language learning motivational trajectories, especially if conducted by the language advisors themselves. One of the methods that may illustrate motivation from such a perspective is the longitudinal case study, which is grounded in rich, detailed, personal and contextualized data collected in different intervals of time (Duff, 2008; Yin, 2003). This method is of great value for the language advising context, once this practice focuses on the development of individual and personal language learning trajectories. In this vein, the research questions of the present study are twofold as follows: (a) how does motivation for learning English fluctuate within and between language advising sessions? (b) what are the factors that contribute to such fluctuation, as self-reported by the participant?

Language advising is sensitive to the context in which it occurs so that its definition and practice are constantly negotiated between the learner and the community of advisors. This means that there are different forms of advising conducted around the world with their particular goals and approaches. For example, some places may take a more directive approach, may privilege face-to-face meetings rather than virtual ones, or may even focus on a specific linguistic ability only, such as written production (Mynard & Carson, 2012; Tassinari, 2016). The language advising conducted in the self-access center of Federal University of Pará (UFPA) adopts an indirect approach, prefers face-to-face meetings, although virtual meetings may happen according to the preference of the learner, and focuses on the skills that the student would like to improve (Magno e Silva & Castro, 2018). It is an optional service offered to undergraduate students in German, Spanish, French, English or Brazilian Sign Language and consists of individual meetings between a learner and advisor; each session lasts between 20 and 45 minutes and can be conducted in Portuguese or in a foreign language, depending on the learner's preference and linguistic competence. It is important to note that advisor is assigned to assist a specific learner and, since there is no limit of sessions offered to the student, the learner can attend as many sessions as necessary with the same advisor.

This case study was conducted with a single participant, advised by the author. Laura (pseudonym) is a 23-year old first-year student of Teaching English as Foreign Language Program. She decided to major in English because she liked the language and saw it as an opening to other courses, such as journalism. Although she has studied English for a few years at a private language school, Laura considers herself a beginner. She decided to participate in the language advising service to find support to help her to organize her studies, to improve her speaking skill and also to regulate her emotions, such as anxiety and lack of motivation. Laura attended eight advising sessions between March and June 2017.

Data were collected through three instruments. The first was a motivational grid that was used to help Laura reflect on her motivation. This instrument measures the level of a learner's interest and motivation in an immediate learning situation (Pawlak, 2012; Waninge et al., 2014) or retrospectively (Henry, 2015). It consists of a table with two axes: a vertical one that represents the level of motivation and interest measured in terms of 'high', 'partly high', 'partly low', and 'low'; and a horizontal one that represents the temporal factor. Laura was asked by the advisor to note down in a scale from 1 to 4 how she perceived the level of her own motivation at the moment of advising, "1" meaning the lowest level whereas "4" meaning the highest. This was done twice per advising session, one at the beginning and the other at the end (Figure 1). After noting down the level of her motivation, Laura was asked to provide a brief explanation of the reasons why she perceived that level. Prior to language advising, she had attended a course on how to learn a foreign language which included learner motivation in its syllabus. Because of that, Laura had an idea about the definition of learner motivation, which occasionally led her to turn to advising for help due to her self-reported "lack of motivation". This previous knowledge helped her to note down her self-perceived level of motivation.

The second instrument was the advisor's diary in which activities, objectives, learning plans, advising procedures and reflections, and any relevant aspects discussed with Laura were noted down. This instrument helps the advisor to better comprehend the learning process of the learner. The diary entries were written during and after advising sessions and they were shared with the learner. The final instrument was a semi-structured interview conducted one year after Laura was advised. The interview lasted one and a half hours and focused on her learning experience before, during and after the advising sessions. Laura was also asked to plot her motivation on a graph in order to describe her self-perceived level of motivation in each academic semester (Figure 2).

Data were analyzed following the principles of Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis (IPA henceforth) as suggested by Henry (2015) and Smith and Osborn (2003). IPA aims to "to explore in detail how participants are making sense of their personal and social world" (Smith & Osbourne, 2003, p. 53). In other words, it focuses on one's experiences and perceptions of those experiences. IPA uses an interpretative approach referred to as double hermeneutic, which involves two stages called empathic hermeneutics and questioning hermeneutics. This means that while "the participants are trying to make sense of their world [empathic hermeneutics]; the researcher is trying to make sense of the participants trying to make sense of their world [questioning hermeneutics]" (Smith & Osbourne, 2003, p. 53). As language advising is a dialogical reflexive practice, such an approach seems appropriate in order to comprehend the meaning-making process between the learner and advisor.

Findings

Laura's learning trajectory within a language advising setting

Verspoor (2015) defines initial conditions "as the conditions subsystems are in when the researcher starts measuring" (p. 46). This means that the attractor state that Laura's motivational system occupies at the beginning of her advising process must be first identified. At the first advising session, Laura mentions that she decided to study English because of a personal interest in the language and the desire to travel to and study in English-speaking countries. She imagines herself as a fluent speaker living in different cities and being able to interact in different contexts. This image of herself as a competent learner can be understood as an attractor state in her language learning, as it shows relative stability in her motivational system (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). It is interesting to note that despite having a vivid image of herself as a user (Dörnyei, 2009), Laura has no immediate interest in becoming a teacher of that language, similar to the participant described in Castro's study (2018). In addition to her future vision, Laura has also a clear idea of what constitutes advising when she reports that it is not a private class, but a support to help her in becoming more aware of her language learning. This clear idea about advising and the advisor's role facilitates such intervention, while a misconception of what this practice entails may prevent the student from benefiting from that support (Kato & Mynard, 2016).
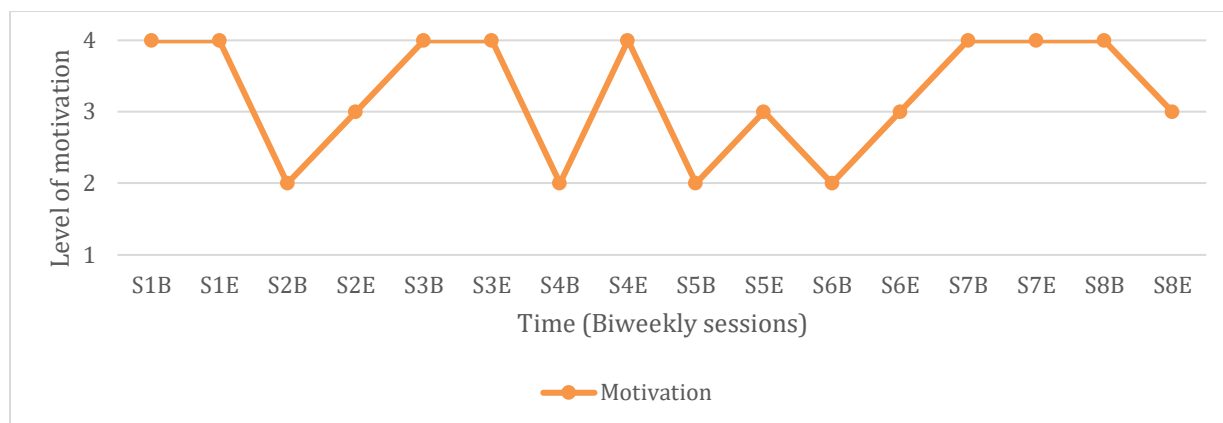
Figure 1. Motivational Graph Describing the Self-perceived Evolution of the Level of Laura's Motivation in Language Advising Sessions.

As described before, one of the fundamental characteristics of a CDS is that they are in a continuous state of flux, even in periods of stability (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Such a characteristic may also be perceived in terms of motivation, which undergoes changes on different timescales. In this case, motivation may change from one session to another or even in the same session itself due to a constellation of factors internal and external to the individual. Taking a brief look at Figure 1 above, the fluctuation of Laura's motivation evolving in a complex way because of several factors becomes apparent. In some sessions, her motivation remains at a similar level (S1, S3 and S7), whereas in others it increases (S2, S4, S5 and S6) or even decreases (S7). MacIntyre (2012), cited in Henry (2015), argues that motivation fluctuation depends on the task in which students are engaged, how difficult it is, what happens before the task and also the student's mood, among other factors. This seems to be the case of Laura, who mentions similar factors by stating that her motivation decreased because of tiredness, task complexity and also how worried she was about grades. On the other hand, an upward movement is noted when she perceives herself as a competent learner or when she observes a slight progress in her learning, as can be seen in the following extract from the advisor's diary:

(1) We discussed about her agenda. She said it was very difficult to organize her agenda because of her time. At the end, she said her motivation was 'high', stating 'I can do more than I am aware of'. (Advisor's diary, 12/4/17).

Learners' motivated behavior is not always perceived by them when they put in effort to perform a given activity. This is true for Laura who, even after completing the tasks and achieving some of her learning goals set in advising sessions (e.g., participating in a

conversation group, reading books in the target language and writing a summary about a movie in that language), still sees herself as demotivated. This is a clear example of non-linearity, since engaging in meaningful activities does not guarantee a high level of motivation. It is the way that she perceives her internal and external context that determines her motivated behavior, according to her own beliefs, as we can note in the excerpt below:

(2) Even though she was complying with several activities, Laura mentioned that her motivation was partly low. She emphasized one struggling aspect of her learning (a subject) and described all the tasks and goals as they were not important anymore. I said that she was making a significant progress that should be celebrated. (Advisor's diary, 26/5/17).

(3) Laura said she would like "to give up" whenever she faces a more complex task or whenever she feels demotivated, but she is now adopting a new attitude. She said, 'every time my motivation is low I think of you and I know this will pass'. It seems like our discussion about seeing the good side of things and understanding both learning and motivation as a process is having a positive effect on her perception about her learning (7/6/17).

In the excerpts above, the advisor acted as a disturbing agent in the student's motivational system, causing such a system to move in the space-state to an attractor of a more positive perception of her language learning. This attitude emerges from the learner's interaction with the advisor.

The advising context is situated in a network of systems that, interconnected, supports students' learning. One influences the other in a complex, non-linear and adaptive process. Many of the factors mentioned by Laura regarding their influence on her motivation in the advising come from other learning contexts. Because of that, some strategies related to how to deal with these factors (classmates' proficiency, teacher's methodology etc.) were strongly discussed in our meetings. One of these attractor states that the student reported was her difficulty in keeping up with discussions in her English classes. In that regard, the advisor asked her about the possibility of studying the subject before going to class because, in doing so, her difficulties would probably be diminished. Laura decided to implement this strategy and saw that it worked in that particular course. Because of this, she autonomously used this

strategy in at least two other subjects. This behavior exemplifies the interconnection and coadaptation between the contexts where Laura's language learning takes place.

Looking back: Laura's language learning trajectory after advising

One of the reasons why Laura wanted to participate in language advising was to deal with her lack of motivation. Although she reports being motivated while learning English with the support of advising, her learning trajectory takes a different path when not being advised. Laura was advised during the two months in the first academic semester when her motivation was high because of the beginning of the course (see ST1B and ST1E in Figure. 2), but as soon as she observed the proficiency level of her classmates, she felt discouraged to speak in the classroom, decreasing her motivation ("When I got to university I didn't have the same level of proficiency as my colleagues and this was very demotivating" – Laura, interview). This downward movement is also perceived in advising sessions, as previously seen in Figure 1.

After having participated in advising, Laura's motivation decreased and settled in an attractor state of self-perceived low level of motivation. In her view, she did not adapt to her English teacher methodology and, because of this, she put less effort into studying this language at university and eventually received average grades, not the highest as planned. As Figure 2 illustrates, her motivational system shows an upward movement when a new teacher arrives. Although her grade was the same as in the previous courses, she reports to be motivated because of this new agent in her motivational system.
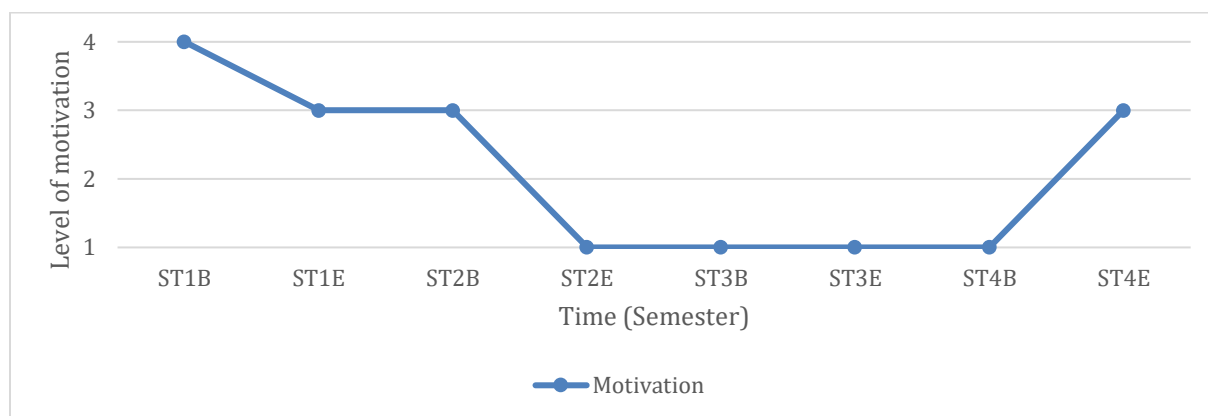
Figure 2. Motivational Graph Describing the Self-perceived Evolution of the Level of Laura's Motivation in Academic Semesters

It is important to note that it was not Laura's decision to not take part in advising sessions anymore. This happened because her advisor had to work on a different campus and

could only advise her virtually. In this regard, Laura mentions that language advising was beneficial for her when face-to-face as it provided her with learning strategies to improve her language learning and also reflection about such process ("If there's something I learned in advising was to reflect about my learning" – Laura, interview). In addition to that, she says it was important having someone to talk to in English in a more individualized and personal space, and also setting goals. However, although she acknowledges her role, she reports that if she had had more face-to-face advising sessions, her motivation would have had more chance to be high. Although such statement cannot be assured in terms of the complexity paradigm, it seems true that Laura needed an additional support to regulate her motivation.

Concluding Remarks

This paper illustrated the factors that contributed to the fluctuation of motivation of one learner, Laura, in advising in language learning sessions. It considered both Laura's and the advisor's perceptions about her motivational trajectory. The objectives were achieved as such factors were identified, such as task complexity, tiredness, sense of competence, teachers and peers. They influenced the fluctuation of motivation, which underwent a complex, dynamic, and non-linear evolution. In relation to the influence of advising in her motivation, the findings show that the advisor disturbed the system to an attractor state of more positive attitudes, even though that attractor state did not remain stable after language advising support. Despite that, the present study encourages more research on language advising trajectories, exploring the relation between advising and self-regulation, advising and self-esteem, and further advising and motivation.

Acknowledgements

Notes on the Contributor

Eduardo Castro is a language advisor and a lecturer at the Federal University of Pará, Brazil, where he teaches courses in applied linguistics and language pedagogy. His research interests

include the psychology of language learning and teaching, language advising, motivation, autonomy, agency, and emotions using a complexity-informed approach.

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Primary Teachers' Experiences in Preparing to Teach Irish: Views on Promoting the Language and Language Proficiency

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Abstract

The present study explores the process of becoming a primary level teacher of Irish, the official yet a minority language in Ireland. Since all primary level teachers must teach Irish, becoming a primary teacher in Ireland is bound up in complex ways with the process of becoming a teacher of a minority language and with personal attitudes to, and views on, the language itself. The current study analyses similarities and differences in views relating to teachers' role in promoting the language, as well as issues in proficiency in the language, at the beginning and end of initial teacher education. Also examined is the extent to which above-average self-reported proficiency in Irish influences the experience of teaching Irish. Data is derived from responses to closed and supplementary open-ended questionnaire items administered to two different groups of pre-service teachers: at the beginning (n=75) and the end of initial teacher education (n=91), and is supplemented with data from interviews conducted with a subgroup of Group 2 (n=30). Data from this mixed methods study show that changes occur in the way teachers conceive of their future roles as teachers of Irish, and reveal the need for more support in aspects of their role such as nurturing positive attitudes to Irish amongst children and a desire for shared responsibility in promoting the language more generally.

Keywords: Irish language, teacher education, proficiency

For primary teachers in Ireland, a significant part of their generalist educational role relates to the teaching of the Irish language, the official yet a minority language in Ireland. Though they will teach over 11 different subjects in their role as primary teachers in the classroom, their role as language teachers extends beyond the classroom walls and is of critical importance in the national language revitalisation and maintenance initiative. This language teaching role is quite complex compared to teachers of other minority or heritage languages when it is taken into account that the vast majority of teachers are not native speakers, and that the children they will teach too are usually second or additional language speakers, especially in English-medium schools where Irish is taught as a subject only. Despite these challenges in transmitting the language to the next generation, data relating to practising teachers in Irish consistently show that teachers have an above average interest and ability in Irish (Ó Riagáin & Ó Gliasáin, 1994), and this commitment to the language may form part of their professional and

personal identity. It is not known, however, whether their positive views and dispositions are formed prior to or during initial teacher education, and whether they are further modified by experiences during their college programme and in the classroom. This research paper presents the perspectives of pre-service primary teachers (herein referred to as teachers) during initial teacher education in relation to aspects of their role in teaching the language in the classroom, and their wider role as key players in the revitalisation and maintenance initiative.

First the research methods employed in this study are presented. Then the sociolinguistic context of the Irish language is explored in order to situate the important role that primary teachers take on in teaching Irish. The profile of teachers when they enter initial teacher education, as well as the stability and change in their views during their Bachelor of Education programme is then outlined. Next, teachers' awareness of and views relating to their significant role in revitalising and promoting the Irish language at different points of their career are presented. Issues of proficiency in the minority language are examined as the primary teacher is for the most part the main role model for language use. Also explored is the influence that high competence in the target language has on teachers' views and role perceptions.

Research Methods

Pre-service teachers bring to initial teacher education several beliefs about how a language should be taught, attitudes to the language itself, and perceptions of their future role. Several studies exist in Ireland revealing the kinds of beliefs and attitudes that the general public as well as practising teachers have (CILAR, 1975; Harris, Forde, Archer, Nic Fhearaile, & O'Gorman, 2006; Ó Riagáin & Ó Gliasáin, 1984; Ó Riagáin & Ó Gliasáin, 1994). Corresponding data was not until now available for pre-service teachers. In addition to this, data regarding how teachers *feel* about taking on their future role as teachers of Irish is lacking. This study aimed to address this gap. In the absence of any existing instrument suitable for administration to pre-service teachers and teachers in early professional practice to examine together role perceptions and views on proficiency, the questionnaires and interview schedule used in the present study were developed.

The study explores how the dependent variables of role perceptions, are influenced by the independent variable: experiences during initial teacher education and early classroom practice. Broadly, the aims of this study are to investigate the following questions:

(a) What are the characteristics and role perceptions of pre-service teachers, and how do these compare to the national profile?

(b) What changes, if any, happen to these role perceptions during initial teacher education?

(c) Do teachers with reported higher proficiency in Irish have the same experience as teachers with reported lower proficiency?

A cross-sectional approach was implemented for part of this study. (The data reported here is part of a larger study which also included longitudinal dimensions, see Dunne, 2015). Data discussed are derived from the study of two groups of teachers, one at the beginning of first year (Group 1 n=75) and another at the end of their final year (Group 2 n=91). This allowed the researcher to obtain two snapshot views of pre-service teachers: those who have just begun initial teacher education with those who have just completed it, thus allowing the comparison of the two perspectives and analysis of the impact that initial teacher education, and later early classroom practice, potentially has on role perceptions and views on proficiency. Cross-sectional approaches to the study of language beliefs, attitudes and role perceptions have been implemented by various researchers (e.g. Kern, 1995; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2007). A cross-sectional approach, looking at two different populations e.g. beginner and advanced learner, novice and expert teachers, first year students and final year students, helps us to understand the belief systems at different stages of the process. It allows us to make comparisons between the two groups and to reflect on changes in views that are present between the two groups. Hence, the cross-sectional aspect of this study compares views at two important points in the process of becoming a teacher of Irish in a relatively short space of time.

Research instruments

The research instruments designed for this study mirror approaches used in other studies of language attitudes and role perceptions, e.g. questionnaires used by Horwitz (1985), Mori (1999), Nikitina and Furuoka (2007), Sakui and Gaies (1999), and interviews used by Riley (2009). A mixed methods approach was chosen to explore teachers' views. This included a questionnaire containing closed questions and open-ended supplementary questions, as well as

an interview schedule, thus combining the advantages of quantitative and qualitative data gathering.

Questionnaires are seen to be easy to administer and are not time intensive (Dörnyei, 2007). A questionnaire was used in this study to draw comparisons between the views of the two groups, and also between teachers in this study and the general public. As well as asking for certain biographical details, common questionnaire items were used from other national surveys conducted by Ó Riagáin & Ó Gliasáin (1994) on behalf of Institiúid Teangeolaíochta Éireann. Five answer options were available to respondents, usually ranging from 'Strongly Disagree' to 'Strongly Agree'.

A qualitative element was also included in the data collection, too, in the form of open-ended supplementary questions in the questionnaire to allow teachers to expand on or further clarify responses they gave to particular items. As well as this, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a subgroup of Group 2 at the end of initial teacher education to complement the questionnaire and allow a smaller group to provide a richer and in-depth description of early classroom practice.

Piloting

Following several drafts of the research instruments, questionnaire and interview schedule, the researcher undertook a pilot phase of data collection as advised by several other researchers e.g. Dörnyei (2007). The purpose of this pilot phase was to examine the clarity of the wording in the questionnaire, to investigate the amount of time it took for them to complete the questionnaire, to discuss any other key experiences or issues, that teachers felt were not covered in the questionnaire at present. Three students in second year who had experienced the entire first year course, and two practising teachers who had recently graduated were invited to complete the draft questionnaire. Some amendments were made to the research instruments in light of the pilot study. In terms of the questionnaire, these concerned layout, amending particular items, clarity and wording, and finally the translation of the questionnaire to Irish.

Practising teachers also agreed to take part in the pilot interview. The pilot interviews highlight issues in the following areas: relationships with teachers in face to face interviews; the treatment of contradictory beliefs, attitudes and role perceptions; the need for a focus on affective dimensions of learning; the exploratory nature of the study; and the need for a flexible

interviewing style. A redraft of the research instruments was undertaken, in consultation with the research supervisor, immediately following the pilot study so that all suggestions were fresh in the researcher's mind.

The source, where relevant, of the questionnaire items, any amendments made, and the type of scoring/ analysis undertaken is outlined in Table 1 below. In order to examine the unique context of teaching Irish, some original items were also added e.g. in relation to how teachers feel about their role in revitalising and maintaining the language. For open ended supplementary questions, the responses were coded. Representative comments under each theme were then compiled (see Dunne, 2015 for a full list).

In sum, the approach to gathering data that chosen for this study was as follows: Questionnaires were administered to both groups at the beginning and end of their programme. Qualitative data was also sought in the form of open-ended supplementary questionnaire responses, and interviews were conducted with a third of the teachers in their final year, to provide insights about how teachers feel about the issues of proficiency and promotion of the target language during their early classroom experiences.

Measuring Change

In analysing discrete questionnaire items, Levene's Test to assess equality of variance was first undertaken (Levene, 1960). This test established whether or not there was an equal variance in Group 1 and Group 2 for each item. The categories of 'strongly agree' and 'agree' were combined, as were the categories of 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree'. The neutral category 'neither agree nor disagree' was retained. Hence, the previously five-point scale now has three points. The data In Tables 2 and 3 are the results of Chi Square tests undertaken to examine any significant differences across these three points: 'agree' (strongly agree/ agree), 'neither agree nor disagree', and 'disagree' (disagree/strongly disagree) with each item.

Table 1

Part 3 of the Questionnaire Relating to Views on Promoting Irish and Language Proficiency

Name of Scale	Source	Type of Scale	Scoring
Irish as an ethnic symbol	Irish as an ethnic symbol ITÉ (1993)	4 positively and negatively worded items *item concerning independence from Britain omitted	Items analysed discretely
Teaching of Irish	INTO (1985)	6 positively and negatively worded items *Item concerning teaching Irish to EAL learners included	Items analysed discretely
Teacher proficiency	Original scale	5 positively worded items 4 open-ended supplementary parts	Items analysed discretely Open-ended responses coded thematically
Role of primary teacher in the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish	Original scale	6 positively worded items 5 open-ended supplementary parts	Items analysed discretely Open-ended responses coded thematically

Sociolinguistic Context of Teaching Irish

Defining the status of the Irish language in Ireland today is complex. It is a minority language in the sense that its pool of speakers is a significant minority; but it is the official language of the State and so under the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages (ECRML) it cannot technically be classified as a minority language. For the purposes of this paper, the term minority language is used indicative of the minority of speakers. Irish can be described as an autochthonous language like Welsh in the United Kingdom, where the language is part of intergenerational transmission – L1 of a speech community and the L2 in educational contexts for significant numbers of learners/speakers (Ó Laoire & Harris, 2006). It should be noted that the case of Irish as minority language differs from other minority languages because of four notable characteristics (Harris, 2008a):

(1) The weak position of the language in Irish-speaking regions or *Gaeltacht* heartlands at the time when the revitalisation initiative of the state originally began

(2) Despite its minority status in terms of number of speakers, it was installed as the first official language of the new state

(3) The failure in the interim to improve the rate of intergenerational transmission of the language within families and homes – either in the *Gaeltacht* Irish-speaking areas in the West, or in the country more generally

(4) The heavy reliance placed on the education system to compensate for this failure of natural transmission.

When revitalisation initiatives began in Ireland in the 1880s, the Irish language was already in a vulnerable position. Efforts were made in different sectors of society to increase citizens' exposure to the language. The primary education system was an obvious vehicle through which to give the next generation opportunities to learn Irish. With the foundation of the Free State in 1922, the revitalisation of Irish largely centred on the education system. Coolahan (1981, p. 40) goes so far as to say that the spread of the Irish language was the most important function of the school programme. Though there was a lot of optimism surrounding the revitalisation of Irish, indeed there are many accounts of the commitment that primary teachers showed in relation to translating educational materials for school children (Ní Chuilleanáin, 2014), there are early reports from the national teachers' trade union (INTO) after only a few years that their responsibility in teaching and promoting Irish was becoming burdensome, and that the government's ambitious aims to redress language shift through the education system were quite difficult to achieve. Factors attributed to this lack of sufficient progress were outlined by the INTO in 1941 and later in a White Paper in 1980 which identified the lack of support for Irish outside the school, inadequate use of Irish as a teaching medium of other subjects, and the low level of proficiency of many teachers. The most tangible support on a day-to-day basis for the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish continues to reside with primary school teachers. The survival and promotion of Irish rest on the "attitudes, efforts, and commitment of individual schools and teachers in a way that other subjects do not" (Harris et al., 2006, p. 170). Teachers can therefore, though interested and invested in the language, feel isolated in their role in the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish.

Unique characteristics of beginning primary teachers

Data from national attitudes surveys show that the positive views of practising teachers in relation to Irish differentiate them somewhat from the general public, especially their reported higher level of proficiency. Often in language atttiudes research static measures of language competence are sought such as whether a person attended an immersion school or the languages that were spoken in the home growing up (e.g. Garrett, 2003; Lasagabaster, 2007). While these biographical details are shown to correlate with high proficiency, as evidenced in the comparison of pre-service teachers to other teenagers nationally, the identity of a primary teacher can also influence one's investment in the language. Therefore in the current study, pre-service teachers were asked not only to indicate their experience of language in the home and in school but also to indicate their current perceived competence in the language. Teachers with reported high levels of Irish not surprisingly in the main also reported exposure to the target language during their childhood years, but there was a number of teachers who did not experience this contact with the language in the earlier stages of their life who nonetheless identified as proficient language speakers through their role as teachers. Self-report data in relation to language proficiency was considered a more inclusive measure to identify very competent and confident speakers of Irish. Self-report data in relation to language competence have been sought from the general public as well as serving primary teachers in the past, e.g. CILAR, (1975); INTO (1985). Proficiency scales used in other national surveys are utilised in the current study to allow for meaningful comparison.

The extent to which pre-service teachers upon entry to the Bachelor of Education (BEd) programme have a distinct profile is examined by comparing them to other secondary school students in their final year. In the Murtagh study (2007) which surveyed students in Irish-medium and English-medium schools, over 80% of students who attended Irish-medium secondary schools report 'native-speaker ability in Irish' and the rest of this group report being able to take part in 'most conversations'. In the current study, two-thirds of students who attended Irish-medium primary schools report 'native-like ability' and the rest report being able to take part in 'most conversations'. This is not surprising as students in immersion education contexts consistently show higher competence in the target language.

The findings in relation to pre-service teachers who attended English-medium schools are more interesting because they highlight the influence of their emergent identity as a primary

school teacher on language competence. No students from English-medium schools in the Murtagh study (2007) report 'native speaker ability' even those undertaking the higher level course, but almost half report being able to partake in 'most conversations' (48.1%). In the current study of teachers in their first month in teacher education, a small minority of teachers who attended English-medium schools report having 'native speaker ability' (4.2%), and over half of them report being able to partake in most conversations' (57.0%). By combining the categories of 'native speaker' and 'most conversations', there are 48.0% reporting high proficiency in Murtagh's study of Leaving Certificate students but 61.2% in the present study. So, more beginning teachers who attended English-medium secondary schools report high proficiency than their secondary school peers. There is also a tendency for pre-service teachers to have more positive attitudes to Irish, to have attended course in an Irish-speaking region or *Gaeltacht* presumably to meet the entry requirements for Bachelor of Education (BEd) programmes.

Stability and Change in Views during Initial Teacher Education

There are other views that teachers may develop during initial teacher education. The influence of third level education on teacher views, however, is contentious (Peacock, 2001; Woods, 1996;). Some researchers suggest that this period does hold potential for the modification of views because of the pre-service teacher's new pedagogical knowledge and school placement (Almarza, 1996; Borg, 2003; Horwitz, 1985; Johnson, 1994; Kern, 1995; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2007; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Riley, 2009; Zheng, 2009). Others disagree however, and claim that teacher education plays only a minor role in modifying pre-existing perceptions (Peacock, 2001; Vibulphol, 2004). Some potential triggers for change in language learning beliefs include age (Tercanlioglu, 2005), and stage of career (Bailey, 1992; Hinton, 1999; Murchan, Loxley, & Johnston, 2009; Zheng, 2009), so the natural maturation that occurs during initial teacher education can lead to changes in views. Peak learning experiences (Maslow, 1959) and critical incidents (Matsumoto, 2007), i.e. significant experiences encountered when learning the target language, such as being understood by a native speaker for the first time or a negative interaction in the classroom may also trigger this change. Studies that deal with language attitudes, particularly attitudes to the Irish language reveal great stability in learners' views over a number of years, and also in the population at large (Murtagh, 2007; Ó

Riagáin & Ó Gliasáin, 1994). Studies conducted immediately after the learner spends time in the target language community, on the other hand, can often reveal more positive attitudes to the language and to the people who speak it (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). Similarly, studies conducted immediately after a teacher has engaged on school placement have also suggested that a change in attitude has occurred (Busch, 2010). Therefore, the experience of school placements and learning periods in the target language community, as well as other experiences in initial teacher education, may have the capacity to develop or modify pre-service teacher views.

In the current study there is a high level of agreement in the views reported by both groups, at the beginning and end of initial teacher education. This is a good sign in some ways considering teachers enter with certain positive traits. Teachers responded to questions concerning the perceived pride, or otherwise, of taking on the role as primary teacher, the importance of Irish in the primary curriculum, the centrality of being a teacher of Irish in their overall self-image, as well as the role they felt they should have in promoting Irish, and the role they feel they are currently assigned by society. Differences between the two groups in proportions agreeing with certain items at the beginning and end of initial teacher education are measured using Chi Square testing. Statistically significant results at $p<0.05$ are indicated with an asterisk in the three tables and text below.

The overwhelming majority of teachers in Group 1 and Group 2, at the beginning and end of their programme, report being 'very proud' or 'proud' when thinking about taking on the professional role and public image of a primary school teacher (96.0% at the beginning and 94.4% at the end). Being a teacher of Irish is 'very central' or 'central' to most people's overall identity as a primary teacher (67.8% compared to 78.7% at the beginning). Though the majority in Group 2 express the centrality of Irish in their overall role, this fall at the high end of the scale may be explained by their awareness of their role in fostering the holistic development of children and not just specific subjects. Over a third at the end of their programme consider Irish to be one of the most important subjects in the curriculum (37.4%) which is less, but not significantly so, than the proportion at the beginning (58.7%). A very large majority in both groups think that the primary teacher is 'very important' or 'important' in the revitalisation of Irish (96.7% at the end and 94.7% at the beginning). Beginning teachers are therefore proud about their role in teaching Irish and it is part of their overall emergent identity as an educator.

Their role in promoting Irish more generally in society is more demanding though. At the beginning 12.0% of teachers in Group 1 think they should have the 'main responsibility' but less than half of this percentage in Group 2 at the end of their programme agree with this level of responsibility (5.6%). Though this is not a significant change, it does fit in with the general trend of teachers asserting that the level of responsibility assigned to them is too great. At the beginning, over half (54.7%) of teachers feel that rather than the 'main responsibility' they should have 'a good deal' of the responsibility but by the end almost two-thirds (65.6%) feel they should have 'a good deal' of the responsibility, which again suggests that teachers would be more comfortable with a lesser degree of responsibility or more shared responsibility.

As seen in Table 2 below only one statistically significant change occurs in the closed questionnaire items, indicated by an asterisk, and this is in relation to the responsibility that teachers perceive society to *currently* assign to them. Over a quarter of teachers (27.0%) at the beginning of initial teacher education feel they are currently assigned the 'main responsibility' whereas at the end, significantly more feel they are currently assigned the 'main responsibility' (44.4%). In total 71.9% of teachers at the beginning feel they are assigned the 'main responsibility' or 'a good deal of the responsibility', while 88.8% of teachers at the end feel they are assigned this level of responsibility.

Table 2

Percentage of Teachers at the Beginning and End of Initial Teacher Education Agreeing with Statements Regarding the Role of Teachers in Promoting Irish

Questionnaire Items	Beginning of programme Group 1 n = 75	End of programme Group 2 n = 91
20. I feel very proud/ proud about taking on the professional role and public image of a primary school teacher.	96.0	94.4
21. Irish is one of the most important subjects.	58.7	37.4
22. My role as a teacher of Irish is very central/ central to my image of myself as a primary teacher.	78.7	67.8
23. The primary school teacher is very important/ important in the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish in Ireland.	94.7	96.7
24. The primary teacher *should* have		
(a) the main responsibility for the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish.	12.0	5.6
(b) a good deal of the responsibility for the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish	54.7	65.6
*26. At present, society assigns to teachers		
*(a) the ***main responsibility*** for the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish	27.0	44.4
(b) ***a good deal*** of the responsibility for the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish	44.9	44.4

*Q26 a: X^2 (2, N= 164) = 6.97, p $\leq$.05

Pressures in relation to the critical role that teachers acquire in promoting Irish are further reinforced in the responses to the open-ended questionnaire responses. Over three quarters of teachers responded to this supplementary part. Almost a quarter of respondents stress that teachers are key players in revitalising and maintaining Irish (24.2%) but three main issues in implementing this role arise, as had with Group 1, and are listed below. Significantly more teachers in at the end of their programme mention the blame that they perceive to be placed on teachers for low standards of Irish (X^2 (2, N= 166) =8.363, p $\leq$.05).

Society has unrealistic expectations of teachers

(32.0% Group 1; 45.1% Group 2)

More support is needed for teachers in in exercising their role in relation to Irish

(29.4% Group 1; 26.4% Group 2)

*Teachers are often blamed for low standards of Irish in the general public

(4.0% Group 1; 18.7% Group 2)

Teachers feel that ideally parents should have a role in passing on Irish to their children and in working in tandem with the class teacher, but that in reality this support does not always exist. Local organisations that promote aspects of Irish traditional culture include The Gaelic Athletic Association and *Comhaltas Ceoltóirí Éireann*, a group that promotes traditional music. Almost half of teachers in the INTO study on teachers' attitudes in 1985 report an awareness of local Irish-language organisations but even in the present day while they may have developed some links with schools, teachers still feel that their role could be strengthened to include the teaching of some games, and musical instruments or singing through Irish.

Being proficient in the target language and providing rich and accurate language input is a key part of a teacher's classroom responsibility. There is a high-level stability across both groups relating to the views that teachers hold in relation to the importance of language proficiency. As shown in Table 3 below, teachers at the beginning and end of initial teacher education overwhelmingly support the notion that teacher proficiency in Irish is a key requirement for the primary teacher's work. The vast majority, both at the beginning and end, feel that is 'very important' or 'important' for teachers to improve their own Irish during initial teacher education (92.0% and 93.4% respectively) and agree that the advice to use Irish informally throughout the school day is 'very reasonable' or 'reasonable' (97.3% at the beginning and 100% at the end). When it comes to views about teaching another subject through Irish, over half of teachers in Group 1 and 2 feel that this is 'very reasonable' or 'reasonable' (57.3% and 57.1% respectively).

There is a statistically significant change however, as indicated by the asterisk in Table 3 below, in relation to expectation that Irish should be taught primarily through Irish (93.2% at the beginning compared to 57.1% at the end) (X^2 (2, N= 165) = 27.21, p $\leq$.05).

Table 3

Percentage of Teachers at the Beginning and End of Initial Teacher Education Agreeing with Statements Regarding Teacher Proficiency

Questionnaire Items	Beginning of programme Group 1 n =75	End of programme Group 2 n = 91
11. It is very important or important for pre-service teachers to improve their own Irish.	92.0	93.4
*12. I feel that the expectation to teach Irish primarily through Irish is very reasonable or reasonable.	93.2	57.1
13. I feel that the advice to use Irish informally outside of Irish lessons is very reasonable or reasonable.	97.3	100
14. I feel the advice that the teacher should make an effort to teach other subjects through Irish from time to time is very reasonable or reasonable.	57.3	57.1

*Q12: X^2 (2, N= 165) = 27.21, p ≤.05

89.0% of Group 2 elaborated on their answer in the supplementary open-ended part and reported that while teachers are generally still in favour of teaching Irish primarily through Irish, they raise a number of issues in relation to implementing this effectively. Teachers draw on their experiences on school placements and as learners of Irish in lectures which are usually conducted for the most part through Irish. Significantly more teachers at the end suggest that there is a need for a judicious use of English in the teaching of Irish (X^2 (2, N= 166) =27.09, p ≤.05) and that there is a risk that children might disengage from the lesson if it is taught primarily through Irish (X^2 (2, N= 166) =17.974, p ≤.05):

Teaching primarily through Irish is the ideal approach

(51.0% Group 1; 56.0% Group 2)

*There is a need for a judicious use of English while teaching Irish

(1.0%; Group 1; 33.0% Group 2)

*Children might not understand and as a result might disengage from lesson

(1.0% Group 1; 24.2% Group 2)

Teachers at the end of initial teacher education also mention the following three factors:

Children's may have limited experience of immersion practices (15.4%)

Teachers are anxious about their ability to teach completely through Irish (5.5%)

Total immersion may not be beneficial for EAL and SEN children, and some class levels (2.2%)

The extent to which the mother tongue can be used in teaching a target language is raised in other international studies of language teachers (Liao, 2006; Wong, 2010). Data from the INTO (1985) survey show that a significant number of teachers reported challenges in teaching totally through Irish and many reported teaching partially through Irish. This has also been noted in more recent evaluations conducted by the Department of Education and Skills as a weakness in the teaching of Irish (DES, 2013). Teachers report challenges in nurturing positive attitudes to the language which is in keeping with other studies that show that children can have negative attitudes to the experience of learning Irish in school (Devine, 2003). Teachers are aware of their important role in creating a rich language environment for learners and therefore their wish to use as much Irish as possible and seek guidance on the role that English may play is understandable.

An examination of views of both groups at the beginning and end of initial teacher education reveals that many positive traits such as a positive attitude to the language and a willingness to use Irish outside of the Irish lesson are stable. However, as they advance through initial teacher education, they become more aware of the responsibility that is placed on them in revitalising Irish. They also become more cognisant of the demands placed on them in terms of teacher proficiency and providing an Irish-speaking environment for children.

Language Proficiency and Experiences of Teaching Irish

Many of the expected roles of the teacher of Irish are predicated on the teacher having high proficiency in Irish e.g. teaching primarily through the medium of Irish, using informal Irish outside of the Irish lesson and teaching other subjects through Irish (CLIL) (NCCA, 1999a). This research sought to explore whether teachers with a higher self reported competence in the language have a different experience of teaching Irish.

A positive feature of BEd programmes is that they attract candidates with a high level of language proficiency and positive attitude to the language. Despite the above average competence reported by pre-service teachers, there are still serious concerns about teacher language proficiency and its impact on teachers' ability to teach Irish effectively (DES, 2013; Ó Duibhir, 2018). This is understandable to an extent when it is taken into account that Irish is a minority language and that both teachers and children are usually second or additional language speakers. In this study, correlation tests were administered to explore the influence that self-reported high ability in Irish has on teachers' confidence in engaging with aspects of their role. This data are supplemented with qualitative data from interviews with a third of Group 2 during their final year where they were spending significant periods in the classroom and still attending college lectures.

As is clear in Table 4 below, for teachers at the beginning of their programme, self-reported high proficiency is positively correlated with a view that it is reasonable to expect teachers to teach other subjects through Irish (r = .358) and an expectation that the teacher will derive great satisfaction from teaching Irish (r = .432). Significant correlations exist for high proficiency teachers at the end of their programme in relation to these two statements also. High proficiency amongst teachers at the end of their programme is also positively correlated with a view that it is important for teachers to improve their own Irish (r = .265) and that children in their class will have a lot of interest in Irish (r = .212). This is probably linked to the greater amount of experience that they have in teaching and their awareness of how central proficiency is to the teaching of Irish. Teachers at this stage also think that children will have more interest and higher proficiency in Irish. It is likely that this is due to the fact that most undertake school placement in an Irish-medium school, and as seen in the open-ended responses, teachers do not report difficulty in motivating children or nurturing positive attitudes to Irish in these settings. It should also be noted that reported correlations are relatively weak which shows that high proficiency in Irish plays some role in the formation and evolution of views, but that it may not play as large a role as experiences in the classroom.

High proficiency in Irish, for teachers at the beginning and end of teacher education, does not correlate with their views on the importance of Irish in the curriculum, or with their views on whether or not teachers should take on a greater responsibility in relation to the revitalisation and maintenance of Irish. This does not mean that teachers with higher proficiency in Irish are

necessarily negative about any of these issues but rather that positive views are widespread across the entire teacher cohort, and possibly linked to teachers' identity rather than being solely related to proficiency in Irish.

Table 4

Correlations Between Role Perceptions and Teachers with High Oral Proficiency in Irish

Beginning of Programme	Correlation	End of Programme	Correlation
14. It is reasonable to expect teachers to teach other subjects from time to time through Irish.	(r = .358)	11. It is important for teachers to improve their own Irish	(r = .265)
17. I expect to derive great satisfaction from teaching Irish	(r = .432)	14. It is reasonable to expect teachers to teach other subjects from time to time through Irish.	(r = .296)
		17. I expect to derive great satisfaction from teaching Irish	(r = .235)
		18. The children in my class will have a high level of interest in Irish	(r = .212)

Taking account of all of these statistically significant correlations, it can be summarised that a higher level of proficiency influences, in a variety of ways, the views of teachers during initial teacher education. These teachers are more positive about teaching Irish, they associate greater satisfaction with teaching Irish, and they are more willing in principle to teach other subjects through Irish. High proficiency, therefore, can give rise to an increased confidence in teaching during initial teacher education. Correlations for most items are stronger at the beginning, showing that by the end of initial teacher education, there are other factors influencing teacher views.

Though these findings in relation to higher proficiency and increased confidence seem intuitive, in looking at the qualitative data derived from inteviews with a subgroup of teachers

during their final year (Group 2), it is clear that increased confidence does not always translate to actual implementation of these teaching methodologies (for a full discussion see Dunne, 2015). Teachers reporting high proficiency are no more likely to have actually implemented CLIL practices or to use informal Irish in a communicative way. Indeed most of the samples of informal Irish employed relate to the teacher using the imperative to give general instructions. Teachers can become disillusioned about the importance that schools place on high competence in Irish. The original belief that they reported during initial teacher education that high proficiency in Irish would be of benefit in getting a job is now challenged by teachers working in English-medium schools. Very few report that proficiency in Irish was mentioned in the job criteria or addressed in the interview. Indeed many refer to the 'tokenistic' Irish question they were asked in the interview. In the words of one teacher "*I found myself going into the interview and learning off an Irish question.*"

Teachers with higher proficiency are not immune to the challenges in teaching Irish that are reported by the rest of the group. They too report challenges in teaching completely through Irish in English-medium schools, and in nurturing positive attitudes to Irish amongst children. Teachers with high proficiency who chose to work in Irish-medium schools did not report these same challenges, although they are cognisant of the limited resources available for Irish-medium schools compared to English-medium schools. This points to the need for teachers to be supported in their day-to-day work in promoting Irish, particularly in English-medium schools, which is for the vast majority of pupils the environment in which they learn Irish. The relative isolation of this role has been highlighted before (Harris et al., 2006), and this finding adds urgency to this need for support.

On the one hand, these findings from the questionnaires administered at the beginning and end of initial teacher education, combined with the data reported in the interviews with a subgroup in their final year of their programme and when they have significant experience in the classroom, show that the initial enthusiasm and confidence associated with higher proficiency is not fully harnessed and does not automatically lead to greater use of Irish outside of the Irish lesson proper. On the other hand it suggests that teacher language proficiency, though important, is not the only factor in creating an environment in which children can experience and improve their language skills. Teachers note a particular challenge in nurturing positive attitudes. The focus on the teacher as the main language input reflects theories of cognitive psychology that

influenced the early design of immersion education programmes. Insights from sociocultural perspectives, however, point to the role that peer learning has on language development and so the focus should perhaps be shifted from a description of language proficiency to the pedagogical and content knowledge that a teacher has, and the subsequent strategies they employ to scaffold learning.

Conclusion

In conclusion, pre-service teachers of Irish show some idiosyncratic ways of thinking even at the very earliest stages of initial teacher education given their above average competence and investment in learning Irish. Many attitudes and role perceptions are shared by student teachers at the beginning and at the end of teacher education. This is important because the attitudes and role perceptions with which they enter initial teacher education are mostly conducive to teaching Irish effectively and to promoting Irish through their role as teachers, and are linked to confidence in the language. Despite claims that views are immutable, a small number of role perceptions are reported to change throughout initial teacher education following teachers' classroom experience. Though the number of changes is small, these can make substantial changes in the way a teacher will engage in her role. Teachers are key players in the promotion of Irish and their awareness of this role and their relative isolation in doing so becomes more apparent as they move through their educational programme. Some changes point to a need for more guidance e.g. in relation to the potential role that English has in the teaching of Irish and how teachers can be supported by other members in the community in promoting Irish.

Many concerns over teacher proficiency have been noted by the Department of Education and Skills (2013) and teachers report challenges in teaching primarily through Irish. Self-rated high oral proficiency in Irish is an advantage in that it leads to increased confidence in taking on aspects of their future role, particularly at the beginning of initial teacher education, but it does not mean that these teachers are any less vulnerable to the challenges of nurturing positive attitudes or in creating an Irish-speaking environment. It would seem that support around nurturing positive attitudes to Irish, and in sharing responsibility for the promotion of Irish amongst other members of the community, is needed for all teachers regardless of their own positive attitude and competence.

The minority status of Irish leads to a heightened responsibility on teachers in promoting the language, and they are aware that the language is not usually reinforced outside the school gates. This study highlights their commitment to and awareness of this important role, even at the very early stages of their career.

Notes on the Contributor

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Chinese Language Learner Motivation: Vision, Socialization and Progression

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Abstract

Echoing Dörnyei and his colleagues' conceptual discussion of the "L2 Motivational Self System" (Dörnyei 2005, 2009; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013), this paper introduces case studies that examine how vision relates to the long-term motivation of learners of Chinese. The findings indicate: first, the social roles learners expect to play and visualize could affect their learning behaviors and what they consider as motivating learning experiences. Second, it is through meaningful socialization that learners construct and reinforce their motivation to learn. Last, learners' vision is closely connected with socialization and sense of progression. With a well-established learning mechanism (*vision, socialization and progression*), learners constantly adjust their expectations, visualize the successful second culture (C2) selves, monitor their own progress, and evaluate their assumptions by interacting with native speakers of the target culture.

Keywords: motivation, learners of Chinese, vision, socialization, progression

James Carse in his work *Finite and Infinite Games* (1986) determines two types of games and game players which can be categorized by different motivations: a finite game is played for the purpose of winning, and an infinite game is played for the purpose of continuing the play (p. 3). What learning experiences can be pedagogically designed to motivate learners of Chinese and make them the infinite players who continuously engage with learning and using Chinese language outside the classroom is the fundamental concern of this paper.

Sustainable Motivation to Perform Beyond Language Proficiency

This paper identifies and expands learning experiences that increase Chinese language learners' long-term interactions with the language and culture which requires a sustainable willingness to learn the language and perform in the target culture.

L2 motivation and sustainable motivators

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), students' learning motivation has been a favored research topic. Studies along the social-psychological perspectives tend to distinguish L2 motivation from other types of human motives, and consider motivation as a

significant cause of variability in SLA. Gardner points out that the cultural component of language learning motivation and classroom learning motivation operate on the individual at any given time (Gardner, 2010, p. 10), but it remains unclear how these two types of motivation affect learner behaviors and how best to enrich learning experiences by bridging these factors in the classroom and beyond. Although I agree with Gardner (2010)'s distinction between static reasons, directional orientation, and multi-dimensional motivation to a certain degree, there are two aspects of his theories I would like to refine when discussing pedagogy of less commonly taught foreign languages, such as Chinese. First, positive responses to the learning activities are suggested as an indicator of one's motivation to learn in his work. However, as instructors of less commonly taught foreign languages, we often witness our most driven and well-prepared language students struggle at certain points. A positive language student who enjoys the classes is not necessarily a motivated language learner, and vice versa. Students at different stages encounter all types of challenges that could hinder or even end their learning of the language. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) suggest that "language learning is a sustained and often tedious process with lots of temporary ups and downs, and I felt that the secret of successful learners was their possession of a superordinate vision that kept them on track" (p. 25). Motivated language learners do not necessarily appreciate or enjoy each learning activity, instead, they are willing to endure the discomfort, adjust learning strategies and expectations, and rebound to the available track. Another issue is that some key factors in Gardner's work such as nationally recognized bilingualism, commonly shared cultural belief towards the target community or frequent social interaction with native speakers do not apply to students who learn Chinese or Japanese in the United States. Most American students of East Asian languages do not have much direct exposure to the target culture before they learn the language. Instead of an integrative attitude towards the target culture, these students usually have some reasons to study the language, such as interest in Japanese *manga* or teaching English in an Asian country. However, these static reasons are not motivation. Once students begin to learn the language and encounter excitement and difficulties, they gradually develop a dynamic learning mechanism which includes motivation construction.

During the 1990s, there was a shift in research of language learning from the social-psychological tradition to a cognitive-situated one which brings L2 motivation research in line with cognitive theories in mainstream motivational psychology. Among these studies, Dörnyei and his colleagues (Dörnyei 2005, 2009) developed a "L2 Motivational Self System" based on the possible-selves theory of Markus and Nurius (1986). Muir and Dörnyei (2013) define

vision as "the mental representation of the sensory experience of a future goal state" (p. 357), which should be used for pedagogical design to create effective motivational pathways to directly energize long-term, sustained learning behaviors. According to them, a "*process-oriented imagery*" is as significant as using outcome simulation. Furthermore, the more detailed, personal and vivid the visions of one's future selves are, the more motivating these visionary interventions could be. Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) also proposed a redefinition of language learning integrativeness relating it with L2 possible-selves: what students might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming. In Gardner (2010)'s socio-educational model, integrativeness is an affective concept constructed mostly through interaction with the learning community, while L2-specific selves lead to a cognitive milieu where the learning outcome is associated with how learners perceive their future and use that imaginary self as a driving force. As Gardner (2010) challenged, Dörnyei's studies did not further explore the correlations between this perception of the self and the effectiveness of language learning. However, Dörnyei's conceptual discussion of visioning L2 selves contributes greatly to understand how learning motivation could be sustained when students do not have direct access to the target culture.

Some recent studies on classroom motivation claim to work beyond the cognitive-situative epistemological divide and combine individual and social processes. Jarvela, Volet, & Jarvenoja (2010) discuss two characterizations of the role the social plays in conceptualization of motivation: social influence and social construction. Studies along this line examine classroom interaction and pay adequate attention to individual cognitive perspectives and social processes (Turner & Patrick, 2004; Vauras, Iiskala, Kajamies, Kinnunen, & Lehtinen, 2003). They consider learning motivation as the psychological processes that drive student engagement, and the processes that emerge through human interaction.

Echoing Dörnyei and his colleagues' discussion of visioning L2 and the attempt to bridge the individual and social processes, this paper examines how vision relates with Chinese language learners' long-term motivation from beginning to advanced levels. As Pink (2009) suggests, the mastery asymptote is a source of frustration but the joy is in the pursuit more than the ever-receding realization of the goal (p. 125). While the asymptotic nature of mastery could be a source of frustration (i.e. the inability to achieve nativeness), the sense of approaching mastery is what constantly keeps people motivated.

Language learning motivation, socialization and cultural expertise

My understanding of constructing language learner's motivation also builds on theories in the sociolinguistic tradition (Voloshinov, Metejka, & Titunik, 1973; Gumperz, 1982), interactional sociolinguistics applied to educational research (Green & Wallat, 1981; Bloome 2005) and cognitive discussions of change in behavior as a consequence of interaction of motivation (J.Heckhausen & H.Heckhausen, 2008; Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005). One implication of associating Dörnyei (2009)'s L2 motivational self system with these behavior changing theories is that understanding students' motivation beyond the classroom setting requires a description of what they visualize and do in general, with special attention given to how they interact with the target community.

Considering language learning as an extended journey to achieve linguistic and cultural expertise, we should also realize that different agents of socialization are involved in constructing learner motivation at various stages. For beginning-level foreign language students, teacher feedback, grades, and peers' performances are key elements when assessing their own efforts. On the contrary, a long-term motivated language learner must be someone who derives self-satisfaction and constantly seeks opportunities to repeat the mental pleasure of learning a foreign language outside the classroom. Therefore, this paper suggests that there are different levels of communication and negotiation between people from the first (C1) and second (C2) cultures, and a "third space" is the ideal result of participants from C1 and C2 negotiating a mutually recognized purpose. Furthermore, negotiating a third space is a cultural competence that motivated language learners and users must develop. According to Kramsch (2009), "the concept of third culture was meant to capture the experience of the boundary between NS (native speaker) and NNS (non-native speaker)" (p. 239). Kramsch positions a third culture as a popular, critical and ecological language and cultural mode that L2 learners created for themselves. This paper, on the other hand, suggests that a third space is co-constructed by people from C1 and C2, and more importantly, functions to the benefit of both groups. A third space is also where people with diverse cultural background could perform different roles and gain a sense of achievement through interacting with each other. It takes proper training for one to learn to create and function in a third space. In the context of Chinese language pedagogy, the driving force to learn Chinese to a high level of proficiency and cultural expertise involves vision, sustained sense of progression, and socialization between language learners and their Chinese counterparts.

The Study

Rationale of the study

When we extend our discussion into language learners' expertise in living and working successfully in Chinese culture, the definition and construction of learning motivation should likewise be revised. Students as infinite cultural players should be prepared to monitor their progress and master new skills. Even though there is no full mastery in any aspect, the possibility of breaking through to higher levels or surpassing one's own best performance brings enjoyment to learners. Two main concerns that initiate this empirical study[1] are: 1) What motivates finite learners to grow into infinite learners of Chinese, and 2) How does their journey extend into advanced-levels and beyond.

Research questions

Breaking the divide between social-psychology and cognitive approach, I propose that motivation construction involves three interrelated components: socialization, vision and progression (see Figure 1). Along with Dörnyei and his colleagues, this model argues that a detailed and process-oriented vision of oneself plays a significant role in motivating language learners. Students should be guided to visualize themselves using the foreign language to interact with the target community at a relatively early stage. Thus, *socialization*, in this model, should be considered as both the content and outcome of a successful vision system. *Progression*, in this model, represents a learning mechanism that realizes continual improvement and generates the willingness to further participate in meaningful vision and socialization activities.

Figure 1: Cyclic Nature of Motivation Construction

As discussed, human beings act and react to each other in a multitude of social contexts on a daily basis. It is through meaningful *socialization* that we construct and

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[1] IRB protocol # 2016E0438.

reinforce the motivation to learn. For beginning-level Chinese students, those interactions with native speakers mostly take place in a classroom setting. One could argue that a high level of proficiency could be achieved through limited social interaction, namely through practicing in the classroom setting or even individually. However, when we examine and focus on language learners' working capacity in the target culture, it is reasonable to agree that socialization with native speakers is a critical component in the process of learning.

Furthermore, agreeing with Pink (2009) who positions autonomy, mastery and purpose as the three nutrients to a sustainable and self-directed motivation (p. 78), this model suggests that infinite players of the language learning game are those who can generate, monitor and sense their own *progression*. The motivation to learn a foreign language is usually spontaneously influenced by these three components. While one single aspect of learning could demotivate a language student, a motivated language learner must be stimulated by multiple factors. For example, a poorly designed feedback system could directly affect one's willingness to practice. However, successful language learners are unlikely to be motivated only by the grades they receive.

The two subjects selected in this study joined the Midwest Chinese Flagship Program (MCFP) in the United States with a clear goal of linking their language skills with their areas of interest. This study is designed to understand various learning experiences from these two successful Chinese learners' perspectives, and understand the cyclic nature of motivation construction. By investigating the individual learning journey and discussing motivating experiences at different stages of Chinese learning, the following questions are addressed: First, which experiences were considered as crucial and motivational by the subjects? Second, how does their vision of using Chinese relate to long-term willingness to learn and perform in a specific domain? Lastly, how does their interaction with Chinese associates affect their willingness to engage, perform and practice?

Subjects: Learn in Chinese and work in China

Both subjects of the study successfully graduated from the MCFP. Over the past decade, the program has trained more than one hundred Chinese language learners who not only achieved advanced to superior level proficiency as indicated by Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) testing, but also developed demonstrable working capacities in Chinese culture. In addition to writing a master's thesis in Chinese, both of them worked in a Chinese institution as an intern during year two of the program. Living and working in China as a foreigner is markedly different than being a foreign student in China. When examining some

of the basic skills one needs to work in Chinese culture, we quickly realize that none of these "basic" skills can be developed without a willingness to negotiate and co-construct a third space with the target community. In this regard, both subjects should be considered as potential infinite players of the Sino-US game.

However, the two subjects were also selected because of their distinguishable but representative learning backgrounds. Alex Walker (pseudonym) followed the Combined Bachelor's/ Master's degree path to complete his Bachelor's degree in a non-language major and a Master's Degree in advanced Chinese language and culture. He started learning Chinese during high school in Chicago and joined the MCFP with a clear intention of improving his Chinese and extending it into his future career. He was introduced to the combined undergraduate-graduate Chinese track during his first year in college and then worked toward that goal. Alex developed an interest in researching China's influences on Hollywood films during his first year in the master's program, and eventually attended the prestigious Beijing Film Academy. He now works in a film production company in Beijing and frequently interacts with young and well-known Chinese movie directors.

Jenny Liu (pseudonym), on the other hand, is an American-born Taiwanese. Mandarin Chinese is Jenny's native tongue as her parents, originally from Taiwan, taught her Chinese from an early age. Her parents, like many first-generation immigrants in the United States, use their native tongue at home and expect their children to learn both their mother language and English. Her father required Jenny and her siblings to use Chinese at home, and sent them to Chinese school on weekends. When Jenny was 10 years old, they also put her in a 4th grade classroom in Taiwan for a month to expose her to an immersive environment and improve her spoken Chinese. Jenny took some intermediate-level Chinese courses in college, and earned her bachelor degree in journalism. According to her, she was not studying Chinese intensively during those years in college. After graduation, Jenny worked as a crime and general-assignment reporter for two newspapers in Arizona and later went to graduate school for public administration. She recalled that she lost a lot of her Chinese during those years due to lack of use. In 2007, at the age of 27, she decided that she would attend the MCFP program and focus on her Chinese with hopes of turning her Chinese skills from a hobby into a career.

Methodology

One-on-one interviews were conducted with Alex and Jenny to provide a comparative view of two learners possessing differing training backgrounds, ethnicity, and career

development trajectory, and examines the role vision plays in their language learning. They were prompted to discuss their learning experiences, including examples of both successful and frustrating interactions (see Appendix for interview questions). One goal of the interview was to explore the most influential experiences that moved these learners along their journey from beginner to sophisticated language users. They were prompted to discuss their learning of Chinese at various stages, initial study abroad experiences, and early working experiences in China. As discussed, one important feature of motivated learners is how they establish resilience through failures and sustain the foreign language learning journey. In this regard, the interviews aimed at exploring how advanced-level Chinese learners' vision affects their learning motivation and resilience construction.

After agreeing to participate in the study, the subjects were asked to schedule a time to talk to the researcher on Skype or by phone due to their distant physical locations. They were informed that the interview revolved around the topic of motivating learning experiences, but were not provided interview questions in advance. Although they both speak fluent Chinese, the interviews were primarily conducted in English with only a few examples given by the subjects in Chinese. English was used during the interviews to better allow them to provide detailed information about learning experiences. Also, the researcher avoided translating subjects' words to a different language except as necessary. Each interview lasted approximately 30 to 40 minutes, and was audio recorded for the purposes of data analysis.

Data analysis

Alex, the filmmaker

The data suggest that Alex's sustainable motivation of learning Chinese and interacting with Chinese speakers has long been related with his vision of using Chinese to achieve professional goals (see Figure 2). The blue circles in the charts are the prompts mentioned by the researcher to guide the interview. The blue dots represent motivation-related experiences mentioned by the subjects. The greens dots are categorized as motivation enhancing experiences that are related to learners' long-term willingness to engage, perform and practice. The red dots represent learning experiences presented by the subject that were seen as challenging the learners' drive to engage (the same interpretations apply to Figure 3).
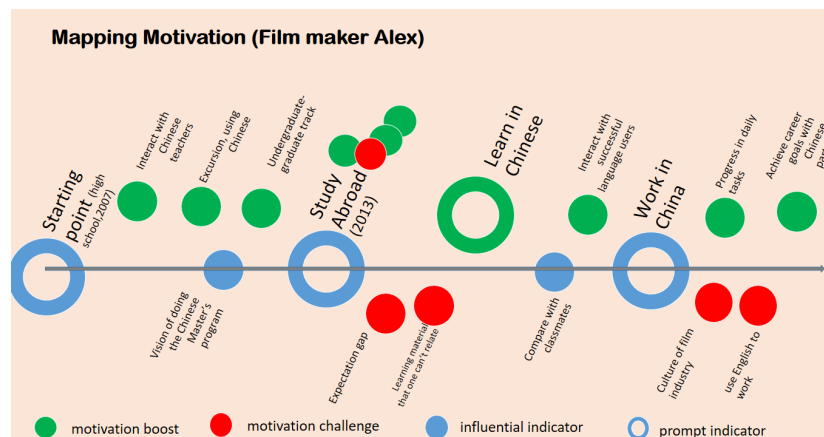
Figure 2: A Motivation Map of a Chinese Learner, Alex

Alex's journey helps us understand the following important questions relating to his long-term learning motivation. First, Alex started learning Chinese in high school, but what impact did his early Chinese learning experiences have? He recalled little field trips he took with his high school teacher and classmates to Chicago's Chinatown. Those experiences were particularly memorable and fun because it was the first time he could actually "use" his Chinese to order bubble tea and have basic interactions with Chinese speakers. It was not the tasty bubble tea that motivated Alex, but instead the sense of progression and growth that he gained through socializing in Chinese. Alex, now a superior-level Chinese language learner, recalled in the interview that he did not learn much Chinese in high school, but his early teachers made learning Chinese so enjoyable that he applied to a well-known Chinese program to continue his language learning.

Second, how does his vision of using Chinese affect long-term willingness to learn and perform in a specific domain? Alex selected the university he attended based on the reputation of its Chinese program. He was also introduced to the undergraduate-graduate program track during his first year, and had been working towards that goal from early on. After establishing plans to attend the master's program and live in China for at least one year, Alex constantly pictured himself using Chinese in those contexts. Markus and Nurius (1986) suggested three types of possible selves that are associated with our motivational construction: what a person might become, what they would like to become and what they are afraid of becoming. Alex had clearly created images of those three types of himself along the journey of learning Chinese. Knowing that he would use Chinese everyday motivated him to learn more and concerns about looking bad or unattractive when applying for jobs made him work even harder. Alex recalled his interaction with a Chinese program alumnus who at the

time managed a game company in China. Alex said, "I remember just being blown away by his Chinese ability and we were all like 'man, if we could all get to be that good'." Knowing that someone who had gone through the same training and is now using Chinese to achieve his professional goals in China is particularly motivating.

Thirdly, how does Alex develop expertise in motivating himself to practice and perform on a higher level? When asked if he ever felt frustrated while learning Chinese, Alex answered, "all the time." Learning Chinese and reaching advanced level is a long and arduous journey. It requires time, resources, resiliency and a comprehensive learning mechanism, including self-motivation. Fortunately, Alex was determined to invest years into learning Chinese from early on in his journey. However, he described a frustrating moment when he joined Beijing Film Academy as an advanced level language learner. He had studied Chinese for nearly seven years at the time, and lived in several cities in China for short periods. But he was all of a sudden surrounded by "male classmates who like to swear, all want to make movies and are artists in their own right." Alex had a tough time understanding their conversations and described it as a particularly frustrating experience. Motivation challenges occur when there is a gap between one's understanding of the situation and reality. One big difference between Alex and other less resilient learners was his strong desire to achieve career goals alongside his Chinese counterparts.

Jenny Liu, a heritage learner and social worker

Although Jenny's parents made active efforts to introduce Chinese to her, she stated that learning Chinese as a means to understand her roots was not a very good motivator. When Jenny joined the MCFP, she finally had a chance to use Chinese to learn what interests her the most, public administration and NGOs in China. During the pre-program summer in Qingdao, China, she discovered the Spring Buds Program, a hope project created by the All-China Women's Federation in 1989 to aid young Chinese female drop-outs to return to elementary or middle school. Jenny very soon decided to focus her research on the group and later moved to an underprivileged area in Shandong Province. Jenny had always sought out opportunities to improve her skills in reading, writing and presenting professionally. Therefore, when she had the opportunity to actually apply these skills in a field that she was knowledgeable about, she was highly motivated to bring her Chinese to the next level and perform in formal contexts (see Figure 3).
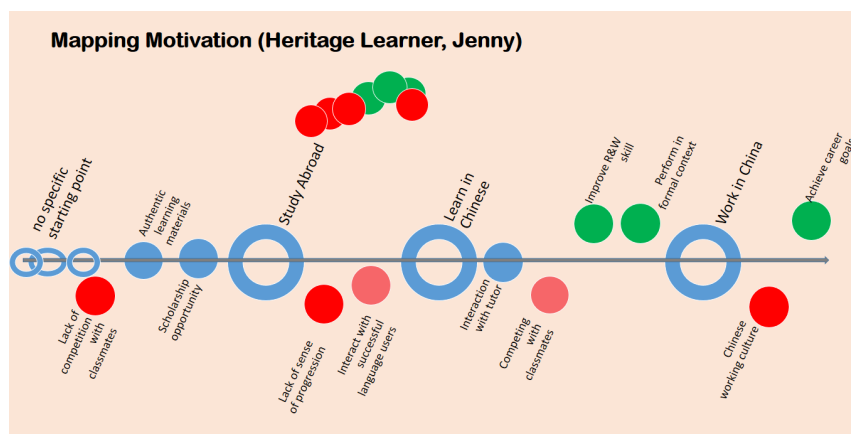
Figure 3: A Motivation Map of a Heritage Chinese Learner, Jenny

One hidden fact about Jenny's learning of Chinese is that although she was sitting in the advanced-level Chinese classroom, she may not have established a comprehensive learning mechanism as her non-heritage peers. Chinese learners, such as Alex, have fully experienced both success and failures along the journey of reaching advanced level. Over the years, they are able to identify the specific learning strategies that work best for them and understand how to motivate themselves. However, Jenny had never learned Chinese intensively before attending the MCFP. Regardless of her Chinese proficiency level, she was actually experiencing a critical transition period when joining the program. This became a motivational challenge for Jenny since she no longer was the most fluent Chinese speaker in the classroom (see Figure 3).

How does this cyclic structure (Figure 1) fit in Jenny's case? Different from Alex who made a lot of Chinese friends during his internship, Jenny did not establish a strong personal relationship with colleagues. As she recalled, "being a Chinese-American, people had different standards for me in terms of my Chinese level. If it was not perfect, there would be a problem. So sometimes that was frustrating…My boss and colleagues would say 'Your parents should have taught you Chinese!' And I would be like 'Yeah, they did.' She obviously had never been to the U.S. and had no idea what it was like." In most areas in China, people expect foreigners to know very little about Chinese and tend to generously praise a foreigner's Chinese. Unfortunately, American-born Chinese are placed in a different category by Chinese people and expectations for their Chinese skills tends to be unrealistically high. Thus, it is difficult for Jenny to connect with those who blame her parents for not teaching her Chinese.

Results and discussion

It is worth mentioning that every Chinese language learner who reaches an advanced-level of fluency and working capacity has experienced some type of frustration and challenges to their motivation. These challenges to motivation, represented by red dots in Figure 2 and 3, should not be viewed as purely negative factors. When combined with motivating experiences, these challenges produce well-rounded learners. As Alex and Jenny stated, they learned through the years how to deal with unexpected situations and adjust themselves accordingly. Their motivation for learning Chinese becomes stronger and more sophisticated when closely intertwined with career and life goals. After having reached an advanced level of language proficiency, being asked to use English with his colleagues and act as a "foreigner" in some social contexts becomes a motivational challenge for Alex. However, he had years of experiences interacting with Chinese people in and outside the classroom, which gave him a facility for understanding this culture and handling the frustration. Jenny and Alex were both motivated when they see they can use their Chinese to accomplish real life tasks. One of the biggest misunderstandings of learner motivation is the idea that it is merely a supplementary construct that can be simply tacked on to any language program. In fact, learning motivation is constructed through everything students do both in and outside the classroom. A successful Chinese program should design certain amounts of failure alongside pathways to establish learners' resilience. The ability to use Chinese combined with sustainable motivation construction should be considered as a gradual and evolving process.

The presentation of other successful learners from similar backgrounds is the best vision-evoking signal to help our students create their own visions of learning and using Chinese. Both Alex's and Jenny's language learning journey help us to understand that the more similarities one shares with the role model, the more effective and motivating the interaction will be. For example, when Alex meets a male non-heritage learner who has developed a fruitful business in China, he can create a meaningful and motivational vision much more easily than Jenny does. However, realizing that a foreign appearance sometimes contributes greatly to one's career in China could be disturbing to a heritage learner like Jenny. Furthermore, a powerful and detailed vision could sometimes influence learner's attitude towards different types of learning activities. For instance, when being required to learn Chinese through a story that describes the efforts of a young Chinese woman to escape a rural village, Alex found it difficult to relate it to his future self. However, when he was

given a chance to associate Chinese learning with his interest in the film industry, he greatly expanded his social milieu and visions of utilizing his Chinese skills.

One convention of understanding heritage learner motivation is to focus on their cultural identity, considering their ethnicity as the most influential or even the only factor in the entire framework. It is true that most heritage students begin to learn the language because of their family background, but their journey of becoming an active language user must involve other personal and career goals. It was discussed previously that motivation challenge occurs when there is a gap between one's expectation and reality. Since Jenny's years-long efforts were not recognized by the people she worked with, it was difficult for her to sense progression through interacting with her colleagues. Jenny said she knew she was making progress because she was getting higher and higher scores in Chinese tests, and eventually wrote her thesis in Chinese. As it is proposed in this paper, learner motivation is considered as a co-creation of their vision, socialization experiences and sense of progression. Since obtaining a sense of progression through interacting with native speaking is hard for heritage learners, constructing a detailed domain-related vision becomes extremely important to help them to overcome some of the challenges. It was the eagerness to improve her reading and writing skills in hopes of accomplishing her research projects that sustained Jenny's journey of learning Chinese. To understand the learning motivation of this group of learners, we should no longer focus on "what they should know and learn as American Chinese." Instead, we need to recognize their motivation challenges, and emphasize their progression in the areas of interest to them.

Conclusions

The journey of mastering a foreign language is not always enjoyable. To motivate foreign language learners to overcome the inevitable temporary failure and frustration, researchers and educators should focus on helping them to establish the vision of a successful future self through autonomous goal setting and extended socialization. Indeed, motivating language learners with a goal of achieving cultural expertise must expand beyond simple fulfillment of curriculum requirements.

This study also suggests that a language user of Chinese needs to practice and gradually grow into different social roles or personae. Their accumulated memories of doing various tasks within the target community provide the drive for them to complete more complicated and challenging tasks. The motivating strategies and mindsets one establishes through the journey also make it possible to construct a self-sustaining motivation system that

operates on higher and higher levels of tasks. A successful language learner's vision should be simultaneously connected with socialization and sense of progression.

To conclude, language learners who gain a high level of language and cultural capacities must also have a plethora of motivating experiences in a variety of learning contexts, and be able to bridge language learning with their long-term career or life goals. Language learners of the 21st century no longer work in a monolingual or monocultural setting. Recognizing the dominant culture in the working environment and performing accordingly is an essential skill. Yet, to be able to establish and realize a domain-specific vision with people from different cultures is a higher-level sustainable strategy that overcomes the possible fatigue and conflicts along the journey.

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Appendix

Interview Questions with the Chinese Language Learners

As mentioned in the consent form, this interview will focus on your memorable Chinese learning and working experiences. You can pause the interview, and skip the question you do not feel comfortable to answer at any time.

1. A lot of students who study Chinese do not continue after one year or two. Few have reached the advanced-level as you did. In your opinion, what are the major reasons for you to continue with Chinese learning? Can you list three?

2. Now you look back, who was the most influential people in your journey of learning Chinese? Your family, teacher, classmate, Chinese friends?

3. Did you interact with native speakers of Chinese often when you were beginning or intermediate-level student? Did you always enjoy it?

4. Can you recall any learning material that you used in school setting was particularly motivating or demotivating?

5. When did you have your first study abroad experience? Now you look back, do you think it motivated you to improve your Chinese, or made you want to give up learning Chinese?

6. Was there a certain period or moment that you realized Chinese was going to be closely related to your career?

7. Do you think it would make a difference if you associate Chinese learning with your career at an early stage?

8. Who did you compare your Chinese with at different stages? Your classmates? Previous Flagship students? Or native speakers?

9. Was there a point that you felt frustrated about learning Chinese and wanted to give up? If so, what brought you back?

10. Did you set long-term or short-term goal of your Chinese learner? Can you give some examples?

11. What is your biggest take-away from the Chinese Flagship Program?

12. During your first year of the Flagship Program, you took course and prepared for conducting your research project in China. Was any learning experience during that first year particularly useful to your later professional life?

13. Was any learning experience during your second year particularly helpful to your later career?

14. What will motivate you to spend time on learning Chinese and bring it to an even higher level at this point?

15. Last question, do you mind providing the contacts of two Chinese people you have worked together with recently so I can interview them about your language learning capacity and motivation?

A Pedagogical Attempt to Promote Japanese College EFL Learners' Self-Growth

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Abstract

Drawing on Ushioda's (2009) L2 motivation theory "a person-in-context relational view (PCRV)", this study provides relevant ELT methodology utilizing a semester-long core English course for Japanese college EFL learners (N = 63), involving the underpinnings of spirituality (e.g., Baker, 2003). The language instruction aimed at the organic integration of identity, inner spirituality, and relevant L2 practice and self-expressive L2 use, all related to successful self-development of the EFL learners. The objectives were three-fold: to examine (1) the effects of the employed teaching methodology, (2) the emergence of relevant L2 learning methods, and (3) the enhancement of self- and identity-focused L2 use capabilities. These points were analyzed respectively with focus on the aspects of: (a) PCRV, (b) spirituality, and (c) target language acquisition (TLA) for an authentic self-expressiveness. Four self-focused stages and spirituality-laden tasks were administered, and relevant questionnaires were prepared. The research findings of t-tests for pre- and post- collected data (Weeks 1 and 15) yielded significant results for (1), (2), and (3) with respect to the three aspects. The participants' open-ended statements (Week 15) reported perceptible self-growth and relevant L2 practice, including positive self-image as a person, followed by the role of English and new impressions of the English language.

Keywords: PCRV, spirituality, ELT methodology, L2 learning methods, L2 use capability

Current research of a second/foreign language (L2) motivation is oriented toward a person (i.e., self and identity) as a whole human being, rather than as a learner constrained by linguistic and communicative competence. This emergent perspective can be recognized, for instance, in dynamic systems and contextual interactions (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). There, identity, context, and relevant target language acquisition (TLA) are emphasized with L2 learners' successful self-development and its supportive L2 practice. Identity refers to each learner's "sense of self as a language learner or use in relation to a particular linguistic community or learning context" (Mercer, 2012, p. 12). In self-and-identity-concerned language education, context is deemed to be "how the activities, symbols, and texts used in one or more social worlds produce the components of a social world—identities, roles, relationships, expectations, norms, beliefs, and values" (Beach & Myers, 2001, p. 17).

Ushioda (2009) argued for a healthy view of L2 motivation, in which a person and context should be organically amalgamated, thus introducing "A Person-in-Context Relational View" (PCRV henceforth). PCRV is elaborated as follows:

I mean a focus on real persons, rather than on learners as theoretical abstractions; a focus on the agency of the individual person as a thinking, feeling human being, with an identity, a personality, a unique history and background, a person with goals, motives and intentions; a focus on the interaction between this self-reflective intentional agent, and the fluid and complex system of social relations, activities, experiences and multiple micro- and macro-contexts in which the person is embedded, moves, and is inherently part of (Ushioda, 2009, p. 220).

Ushioda (2013) made a critical inquiry of what language and language learning mean to L2 learners, referring to "the ambivalences and complexities of how they see English fitting into (or not fitting into) their personal system of values, goals and identities" (p. 10). In other words, in Ushioda's (2006) account, it is presumed that motivation for learning and using a second/foreign language is fostered by each learner's belief and sense of value.

Prima facie, the notion of spirituality intimately resonates with the hallmark of Ushioda's L2 motivation theory as noted above, since spirituality also looks into the meaning, goals, and orientations in human life (Baker, 2003), thus focusing on "the thoughtful awareness of an inner feature of human experience" (Priestley, 2005, p. 210), such as personal beliefs and senses of value. In other words, spirituality acts as an agent toward inner strength, and as a force of meaning-making toward a dynamic expression of self and identity, with the development of self-transcendence in mind (Astin, Astin, & Lindholm, 2011, pp. 4-5).

Ushioda's viewpoint is essentially embedded in successful self-development, which needs to be facilitated at least by virtue of the maturity of inner self (e.g., fostering personal beliefs and senses of value), namely, spiritual aspects. Mindful of these notions and concerns, introducing an ELT methodology aimed at epitomizing the underpinnings of PCRV and spirituality becomes an authentic pedagogical challenge. It is therefore worthwhile to explore how PCRV-spirituality-amalgamated ELT contributes to fostering not only a matured L2 person, but also relevant language learning practice and language use.

Rationale and Research Objective

Much L2 instruction focuses on the learner rather than the person, largely due to traditionally supported ELT praxis targeting linguistic competency as the authentic learning outcome. Meanwhile, ELT methodology aimed at embracing PCRV and spirituality at a tertiary level has been rarely administered and examined in Japanese college EFL, in

particular that focusing on self-development, well-matured L2 learning methods, and perceptible L2 use capability as a tripartite entity. As a research aim, it is imperative to design and introduce classroom-based activities with focus on these perspectives. Ushioda (2011a) conceptualized L2 motivation as "an internal representation of how one sees oneself and what one wishes to become" (p. 202), a target language as "a means of self-expression and self-development" (p. 202), and a foreign language as "a personalised tool that enables us to expand and express our identity of sense of self in new and interesting ways" (Ushioda, 2011b, p. 228). Drawing on these notions, it might be beneficial to allow Japanese college EFL learners to explore, engage in, and recognize how their L2 practice (learning methods and target language use) may become practical in pursuit of their self-growth. In this regard, they need to be encouraged to create a fully-fledged self-description of who they are, what they want to be, and what they ought to be by forging an idealistic self-image (i.e., good character). In other words, an imperative L2 accomplishment is to look at the whole person, while dealing with a surface level of the self (e.g., basic self-introduction and real world self-orienting) as well as looking into an inner part of the self (e.g., tangible descriptions of personal beliefs and senses of value). This agenda fundamentally corresponds to the hallmark of spirituality as mentioned earlier. Accordingly, the following research questions were addressed.

RQ1. Is it possible to implement an ELT methodology emphasizing PCRV, spirituality, and relevant TLA for successful self-development and better description of self and identity?

RQ2. Utilizing this instruction, is it possible to develop corresponding L2 learning methods?

RQ3. Is it possible to develop relevant L2 use capability recognized through individual L2 learners' perception and convincing awareness gained through their empirical and cognitive engagements of L2 practice?

RQ4. It is possible to elicit some tangible responses that suggest or witness the emergence of self-growth as a person, or a newly emergent aspect of using the English language?

Methods

Participants and instrumentation

Participants comprised first-year college students at a national university (N = 63, male = 44, female = 22). The students were taking a one-semester long weekly English course in the second semester of the 2016 academic year (15 class periods), mainly designed

for production-oriented L2 use including self-focused oral presentations. Students (all Japanese, mostly aged 18 and 19) were from three faculties of non-English majors: Agriculture, Education[1], and Engineering. In this core English course, the aim of the current research was explained to them in the first week (i.e., during the course guidance), indicating that it more or less overlapped with the course content and goal in terms of seeking successful self-expressiveness using English. As a result, all of them acknowledged and agreed with the aim, thus participating in the study and all participants completed the course.

Relevant questionnaires using a Likert-type scale were provided in order to investigate RQs 1 to 3 and administered twice. The responses were: 1 = never applied/not true at all, 2 = not applied/not generally true, 3 = neither/no idea, 4 = applied/ generally true, 5 = much applied/very true (RQs 1, 2); or 1 = I cannot do it at all, 2 = I cannot generally do it, 3 = I have no idea (neither can or cannot), 4 = I can generally do it, 5 = I can do it very well (RQ3) (see Appendix for details). In the questionnaires, two questions each relate to (1) PCRV, (2) spirituality, and (3) TLA for better description of self and identity[2]. For RQ 4, multiple choices (Yes or No) and follow-up open-ended questions asking for detailed information (response and impression) were administered at the end of the course. This instrumentation was specifically designed as part of the intervention necessary in the current research[3].

Four self-focused stages and spiritual guidance toward self-development

In the research setting, four stages were provided for the students as an instructional intervention. The aim of the first stage, self-positioning, lies in clarifying their reasons and purposes for entering college and choosing their current major. The second stage, self-orienting, has them envisioning an intended career plan or goal after graduation (e.g., desired workplace or graduate school; type of occupation or specialized research field). The third stage, self-imaging, has them depicting a concrete image of their ought-to-be self as a mature

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[1] Education majors included mathematics, science, music, fine arts, etc.

[2] In exemplifying the concept and the content of the questions, (1) Ushioda's theoretical underpinnings and educational emphases on PCRV, (2) important aspects of spirituality education in college (Astin, Astin, & Lindholm, 2011; Baker 2003), and (3) theories from self-expressiveness (Green, 2007) were taken into account.

[3] The validity of the instrument (based on the numerical scale) tailored for RQs 1 to 3 was examined in a pilot study in the first semester of 2016 involving first-year students (N=115) in the same university (all non-English majors different from the participants employed in this study). The test had a fairly acceptable level of internal consistency reliability: RQ1 questions ($\alpha = .78$), RQ2 questions ($\alpha = .71$), and RQ3 questions ($\alpha = .79$).

person (e.g., socially acceptable and responsible attitudes and behavior, together with relevantly required personal beliefs and senses of value), and the final stage, self-directed decision making, focuses on actualizing tangible expressions of they are and what they want to be and ought to be (i.e., creating a self-determined message that represents or reflects solid mindset in aphorism style[4]).

The characteristics of PCRV and spirituality were critically valued. It was essential to adopt a holistically organic stance of integrating the self, identity, the real world, philosophy of life, and critical language use altogether. In this regard, social constructivist L2 practice and ELT played a vital part, in particular in fostering agency. Agency is "not simply an individual character or trait, but a contextually enacted way of being in the world" (van Lier, 2008, p. 163). Additionally, character formation was emphasized because it crucially relates to PCRV and spirituality. In college education, self-development for good character is deemed crucial (Arthur, 2010) as it pertains to the maturity of spirit.

In the above-noted pedagogical intervention, commencement speeches in U.S. colleges were also utilized[5]. When embracing PCRV, spirituality, self-development, and character formation altogether, it was essential to introduce materials that promote college learners' spiritual enrichment. As recognized from the messages in aphorism style below, college commencement speeches are a good showcase of how character and spirituality should be developed and demonstrated to be a well-matured person. For example:

- A self that has been nurtured will lead you to what you really want to do.
- Material possessions rust away, wear away, or depreciate. Character alone will never tarnish.
- Culture is not enough; there must be an ethical dimension to whatever you study.
- If you don't have a philosophy of life, let me warn you that the world you are about to enter is a dangerous place to go looking for one.
- If you stick to your integrity and your goals, eventually the world will appreciate what you are doing.
- Identity is something that one must create for himself by choices that are significant and that require a courageous commitment in the face of anguish and risk. Identity is

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[4] As Morson (2012) explained, the hallmark of aphorism is anchored in wise sayings and wisdom arising from worldviews. Wise sayings view the world as "providential, guaranteeing reward for prudence and righteousness" (ibid, p. 7) and wisdom concerns not only human life, but also the human being itself in pursuit of self-verifying truth.

[5] Short speech messages (i.e., aphorisms) from U.S. college commencements were cited from books of college graduation, including Bark (2005).

one's witness to truth in one's life.

Self-story (life story) and authentic self-expressiveness

The participants, utilizing the four stages and commencement speeches, endeavored to create their self-story (life-story) in chronological order. This task required information about high school graduation, reasons for selecting the current university and major, and personal desires and aspirations toward future occupation or academic life after graduation. In making this authentic story, they included a self-determined message in aphorism style. To create a self-reliant aphorism, participants studied the content and emphases of college commencement speeches, then struggled for a thought-provoking message which would represent their resolution, determination, or aspiration. The following are samples of some participants' self-created aphorisms:

- A challenge is necessary to improve myself.
- Every mistake is a stepping stone toward success.
- Living is not breathing but doing.
- Nothing is a waste of time if you use the experience wisely.
- The first and best victory is to conquer the self.
- There is always light behind the clouds.
- University is the place to find what I will be.
- You make habits and habits make you.

In forging the whole story, practical writing skills were explained (e.g., unity-focused top-down logical framework, transitions for better coherence, parallel structure for stylistic sophistication). The aim of this writing task was to create a presentation script in one paragraph (approximately 150-180 words). For language development (language maturity), another task was administered. The students wrote a five-paragraph essay (approximately 300 to 320 words). Using their life story already created in one paragraph, they added more detailed information (e.g., examples, reasons, facts, etc.) to make their beliefs and sense of values more authentic and convincing. The completed essay was used for production-oriented L2 practice, including reading aloud (paralanguage) and kinesics. Creating a visual aid was also required. Through these multi-layered tasks, the college learners endeavored to become self-directed, self-decisive, resilient, and prudent in exhibiting, demonstrating, and

appreciating who I am, what I want to be, and what I ought to be, while engaging in truly important language acquisition and use.

Results

The results of t-tests on responses for effects of ELT methodology (RQ1) were examined in Week 1 (α = .83) and Week 15 (α = .78) and six items evidenced substantial impact (Table 1). In terms of the three highlighted aspects (PCRV, Spiritualty, TLA for Better Description of Self and Identity), t-tests of the mean scores exhibited substantial change from lower to higher values (Table 2).

Table 1

Effects of ELT Methodology: All Examined Items (N = 63)

6 Items (Questions)	Pre (Week 1)		Post (Week 15)				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Aspect 1—PCRV							
1. Life Orientation	2.45	1.23	4.89	1.08	-12.09	.000*	2.10
2. Society and Self	2.54	1.16	3.48	1.16	-4.62	.000*	0.81
Aspect 2—Spirituality							
3. Belief and Value	2.43	1.13	4.69	1.06	-7.40	.000*	2.06
4. Character Forming	2.06	0.95	3.45	1.19	-11.75	.000*	1.29
Aspect 3—TLA for Self-Description							
5. Paralanguage-Centered	3.24	1.41	4.95	0.95	-8.15	.000*	1.42
6. Kinesics-Centered	1.84	1.24	5.37	0.87	-18.87	.000*	3.29

Note. Items are succinctly labeled (see Appendix for details). Bonferroni adjustment was applied for six tests (p = .008: $p < .005*$).

Table 2

Effects of ELT Methodology: Three Aspects (Mean Scores Computed) (N = 63)

	Pre (Week 1)		Post (Week 15)				
3 Aspects	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Aspect 1—PCRV	2.50	1.00	4.18	0.93	-9.98	.000*	1.73
Aspect 2—Spirituality	2.25	0.96	4.07	0.94	-10.97	.000*	1.91
Aspect 3—TLA for Self-Description	2.54	1.12	5.16	0.78	-15.51	.000*	2.71

Note. Bonferroni adjustment was applied for three tests (p = .016: p < .01*).

The L2 learning methods (RQ2) corresponding to RQ1 for the six items were examined in the same way (Week 1, α = .64; Week 15, α = .83). After applying the Bonferroni adjustment (p = .008), three items (Belief and Value; Character Forming; Paralanguage-Centered) indicated statistically significant learning transformation (Table 3). Mean scores for two of the three aspects (PCRV and Spirituality) were clearly improved (Bonferroni adjustment: p = .016) (Table 4).

Table 3

Emergence of ELT-Corresponding L2 Learning Methods: All Examined Items (N = 63)

	Pre (Week 1)		Post (Week 15)				
6 Items (Questions)	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Aspect 1—PCRV							
1. Life Orientation	3.56	1.21	3.87	1.20	-1.50	.134	0.25
2. Society and Self	2.86	1.10	3.36	1.03	-2.68	.008	0.46
Aspect 2—Spirituality							
3. Belief and Value	2.92	0.99	4.00	1.06	-5.98	.000*	1.05
4. Character Forming	2.63	0.95	3.51	1.17	-4.70	.000*	0.82
Aspect 3—TLA for Self-Description							
5. Paralanguage-Centered	2.80	0.98	3.45	1.13	-3.52	.001*	0.61
6. Kinesics-Centered	3.37	1.16	3.46	1.15	-0.45	.652	0.07

Note. Bonferroni adjustment was applied for six tests (p = .008: p < .005*).

Table 4

Emergence of ELT-Corresponding L2 Learning Methods: Three Aspects (N = 63)

	Pre (Week 1)		Post (Week 15)				
3 Aspects	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Aspect 1―PCRV	3.21	0.92	3.62	0.98	-2.46	.015	0.43
Aspect 2―Spirituality	2.78	0.86	3.75	1.02	-5.92	.000*	1.02
Aspect 3―TLA for Self-Description	3.09	0.85	3.46	1.06	-2.20	.029	0.38

Note. Bonferroni adjustment was applied for three tests (p = .016: p < .01*).

Regarding L2 use capability (RQ3), the same six items were examined (Week 1, α = .78; Week 15, α = .87). Except Kinesics, statistically significant enhancement emerged for five items. Of these, the four pertaining to PCRV and Spirituality were rated positively in Week 15 (M = 4.00 or beyond). Furthermore, two items of Spirituality were changed from negative to positive levels (Table 5). All three aspects exhibited self-recognized improvement (Table 6).

Table 5

Enhancement of L2 Use Capability: All Examined Parts (N = 63)

	Pre (Week 1)		Post (Week 15)				
6 Parts (Questions)	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Aspect 1―PCRV							
1. Life Orientation	3.18	1.16	4.81	1.04	-8.45	.000*	1.47
2. Society and Self	2.86	1.13	4.49	1.06	-8.47	.000*	1.48
Aspect 2―Spirituality							
3. Belief and Value	2.19	0.91	4.16	1.13	-10.92	.000*	1.92
4. Character Forming	2.00	1.05	4.63	1.06	-14.19	.000*	2.49
Aspect 3―TLA for Self-Description							
5. Paralanguage-Centered	3.03	1.13	3.89	0.99	-4.64	.000*	0.80
6. Kinesics-Centered	3.60	1.21	3.92	0.99	-1.64	.102	0.28

Note. Bonferroni adjustment was applied for six tests (*p* = .008: *p* < .005*).

Table 6

Enhancement of L2 Use Capability: Three Aspects (Mean Scores Computed) (N = 63)

3 Aspects	Pre (Week 1)		Post (Week 15)				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Aspect 1—PCRV	3.02	1.06	4.65	0.96	-9.16	.000*	1.61
Aspect 2—Spirituality	2.09	0.88	4.40	1.00	-13.90	.000*	2.45
Aspect 3—TLA for Self-Description	3.31	1.00	3.90	0.87	-3.60	.000*	0.62

Note. Bonferroni adjustment was applied for three tests (*p* = .016: *p* < .01*).

In sum, the overall results shown in Figure 1 illustrate pre-post comparisons centered on the three aspects.
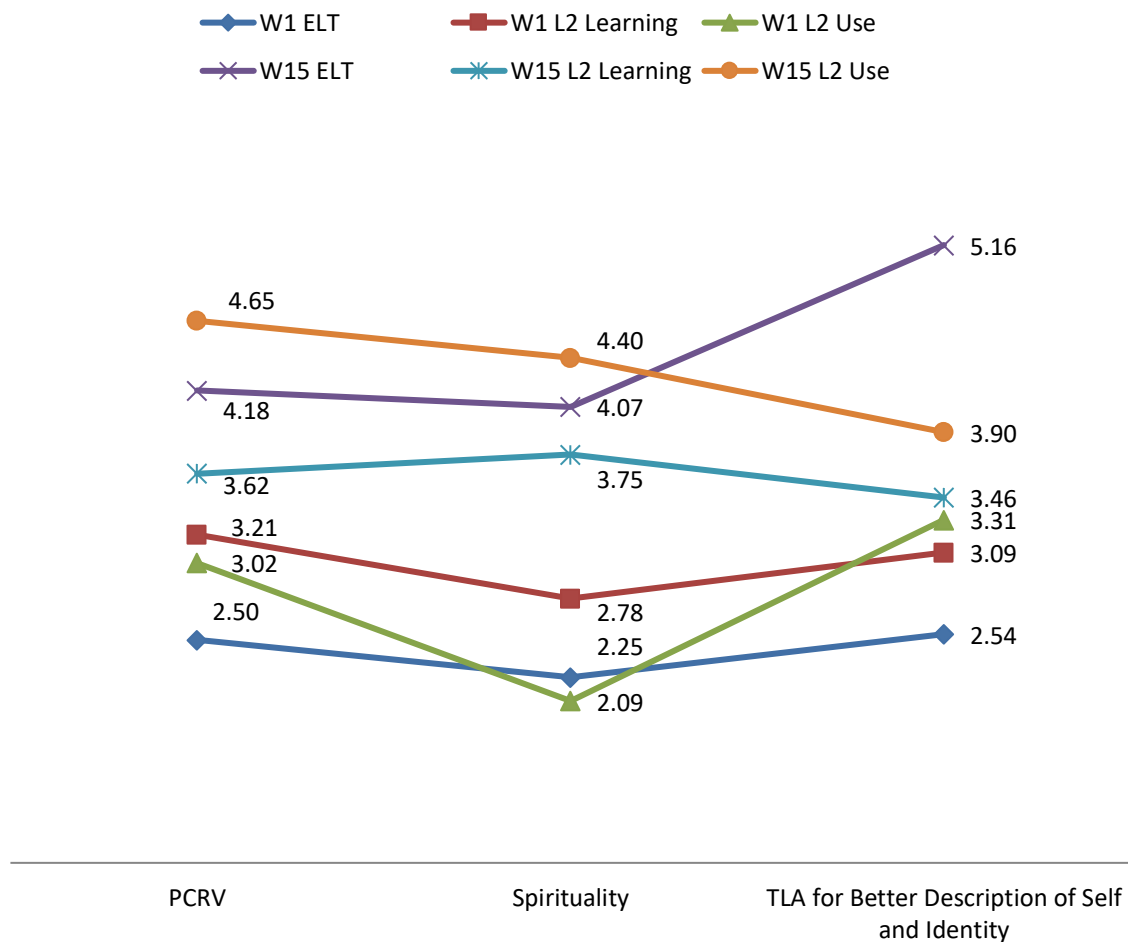
Figure 1. Overview of Pre-Post Comparisons Focusing on PCRV, Spirituality, and TLA.

As Figure 1 shows, the ELT methodology indicated its practicality in all three aspects (W1 vis-à-vis W15 ELT). Successful self- and identity-focused L2 use can also be seen (W1 vis-à-vis W15 L2 Use). Specifically, in terms of PCRV and Spirituality, the post-test results surpassed those of ELT. On the other hand, the post-test results for L2 learning methods were lower than those of ELT and L2 use, and were not rated positively (W1 and W15 L2 Learning).

Concerning perceptional and empirical changes of the person and the English language (RQ4), students' responses were largely positive. This result specifically applies to (1) change of self-image (i.e., being self-matured) [Yes = 45, No = 21] ($\chi2$ (1) = 8.72, p = 0.003), and (2) change of language image (i.e., raison d'être of the English language) [Yes = 44, No = 22] ($\chi2$ (1) = 7.33, p = 0.007) and learning behavior (i.e., self-directed) [Yes = 51, No = 15] ($\chi2$ (1) = 19.63, p = 0.000). In this regard, the overall content of the yielded responses implied the maturity of self. For (1), for instance, some participants explained their personal growth as follows:

> *Compared to before this course, I have become a calm person. I used to panic whenever some troubles occur, but this trait has gone now.* (Female / Agriculture)

> *With the end of this course, I have become a positive person, challenging everything without fear or anxiety.* (Male / Education)

> *Different from what I was at the beginning of this course, now I have become more serious about my future life, my study at college, and the development of human network.* (Male / Education)

> *I have spontaneously reflected on my personal belief and philosophy of life.* (Male / Engineering)

> *I became aware and prudent of how I should be able to express who I am as a social being in the near future.* (Male / Engineering)

With regard to (2), relevant comments are as follows:

For me, to complete take-home assignments was quite demanding and laborious. But this engagement has definitely become a solid motivation to learn English. (Male / Agriculture)

Now, I feel I am closer to the English language. (Female / Agriculture)

I used to avoid English because I disliked it, but now I appreciate the enjoyment and the importance of learning English. (Male / Education)

Apart from textbook-oriented English learning, I begin to use English in order to describe myself through writing and self-introduction. (Female / Education)
Working on self-focused reports and writing tasks were more difficult than other tasks and activities, but these experiences eventually brought me a solid sense of accomplishment. (Male / Engineering)

Discussion

As has been evidenced from the overall results, in conjunction with the pedagogical impacts (RQ1), the L2 learning methods have transformed in terms of PCRV, Spirituality, and TLA for Self-Description (RQ2). These three aspects were also empowered in L2 use capability (RQ3), along with personal growth as illustrated from some self-determined messages. Together with extensive positive responses, concrete explanations of perceptional and behavioral changes as a person and for the English language were also reported (RQ4). In reference to these results, the following points are to be noted. Firstly, it has been reaffirmed that "language learning can be an experience related not only to language and communication, but also to personal growth" (Rubio, 2014, p. 54). In supporting this truth, the language teacher's responsibility is to map out socio-philosophical contexts, for the L2 learners' duty is anchored in "the struggle of a person (self) … in maintaining the integrity of the self" (van Lier, 2010, p. xiii) from wider, multi-disciplinary aspects. In this vein, the current research has targeted the three aspects, anticipating that good L2 learners "strive to make a foreign language more meaningful to themselves, but what is also important is that they strive to make themselves more meaningful to others through using the language" (Arnold & Murphey, 2013, p. 2). In accomplishing this aim, identity, agency, and social

context are inseparable (Duff, 2012). And in fortifying the core/inner part of self, spiritual training constitutes a critical part.

Secondly, in successful L2 learner development, contextualization is important. In the employed pedagogical intervention, the four organically connected stages served to develop authentic self-and-life stories. For these self-and-identity-concerned contexts, not only personal history (past-present-future: explicit real world), but also a self-verified mindset was crucial. In other words, for the quest of inner spiritual growth, self-examined beliefs must become a vital agent. Quasthoff (2001) explained that contextualization is "the forward and backward oriented sense-making forces of each move" (p. 224), in which contextual relevance and integration are processed sequentially. In other words, context can no longer be regarded as an analytical entity; rather, it should be deemed as "dynamic relational, and a parts-whole configuration" (Fetzer & Oishi, 2011, p. 2). Ushioda (2015) argued that the context should be a holistic entity in which self, linguistic characteristics, motivation, self-esteem, agency, and linguistic competence are equally embraced. Otherwise, weak and fragile contextualization may engender superficial, unstable, or fragmented English learning motivation (i.e., immature motivation).

Finally, in promoting self-directedness and self-efficacy as a token of personal growth, well-balanced L2 use supported by well-designed contexts and spiritually challenging tasks is indispensable. Empirical, cognitive, and spiritual self-focused TLA-aimed L2 experiences need to be perceived as meaningfully authentic for college L2 learners. In effect, this conviction can encourage each learner to become more proactive and self-directed in seeking the twin maturities of self and language use.

Limitations and Implications

Despite a limited research period, this study put pedagogical emphases on the feasibility of well-balanced self-and-language development among the Japanese college EFL learners, focusing on four domains as articulated in the research questions. As indicated by Table 3 and Figure 1, in the current research setting including employed materials and administered tasks, facilitating the transformation of the learners' L2 learning methods into a positive level (i.e., being into a mature level) was proved not easy through their recognition and perception. As previously noted, while ELT and L2 use capability were successfully improved, the struggle for well-conceivable transformation of English learning strategies, approaches, and practices remained as a difficult achievement goal for the learners. This issue also applies to the domain of TLA for better description of self and identity (i.e., L2 use

capability utilizing paralanguage and kinesics). Hence, toward a higher level of research outcomes, more elaborated and precisely designed ELT interventions and task administrations will need to be provided in the further study, with a longer research period secured.

Concerning the last research question, another research agenda is to conduct an extensive investigation for validating individual learners' self-growth by utilizing text analysis with focus on their self-determined messages. Text analysis works effectively in extracting reliable key concepts from open-ended written statements, as well as in exploring and eliciting semantically salient aspects hidden in the created messages. Using this technique, it is worthwhile to present tangible numerical data and visual interpretations as an evidence (or a clue) of personal growth arising from the inner part of self.

Conclusion

Truly authentic L2 motivation must nurture insightful and critical awareness of the self, identity, and society. In this respect, it has been evidenced that PCRV and spirituality act as powerful agents. In substantiating idealistic self-images, language learners must step back and reflect on themselves with focus on both life-orienting and inner spiritual aspects. The foremost duty of college learners is to examine themselves and their language use while putting themselves in maturity-aimed self-orienting contexts. Their ultimate goal is to empower their agency characterized by authenticity, spirituality, solid identity, and good character.

Acknowledgments

Notes on the Contributor

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spirituality and Dr. Ema Ushioda's L2 motivation theories into authentic L2 context and language use.

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Appendix

Questionnaires for ELT Methodology (RQ1), L2 Learning Methods (RQ2), L2 Use Capability (RQ3)

Note. This instrument was originally created and used in Japanese for the participants. The six questions for RQs 1 to 3 relate to three aspects: (1) PCRV, (2) spirituality, (3) TLA for better description of self and identity. Each of two questions comprises (1), (2), (3) respectively (questions 1, 2 = (1), 3, 4 = (2), 5, 6 = (3); see below).

[1] ELT (RQ1): administered twice (Weeks 1 and 15)
Note. Week 1 focused on previously experienced ELT styles before taking the administered English course in this research; Week 15 focused on the ELT style of the administered English course.

1 = never applied/not true at all, 2 = not applied/not generally true, 3 = neither/no idea, 4 = applied/generally true, 5 = much applied/very true

The English teaching method is based on or aimed at:
* scale numbers omitted for space economy
1. employing tasks and assignments in order for envisioning life-orientation.
2. providing opportunities to consider the connection between real society and the self.
3. employing tasks and assignments to clarify personal beliefs and senses of value.
4. providing themes for character forming through self-maturity.
5. strengthening read aloud, paralanguage, and other speaking practices.
6. strengthening gestures, facial expression, and other kinesics practices.

[2] L2 Learning (RQ2): administered twice (Weeks 1 and 15)

1 = never applied/not true at all, 2 = not applied/not generally true, 3 = neither/no idea, 4 = applied/generally true, 5 = much applied/very true

I am learning English in pursuit of:
1. envisioning my life-orientation.

2. considering the connection between real society and myself.

3. clarifying my personal beliefs and senses of value.

4. my character forming through self-maturity.

5. strengthening read aloud, paralanguage, and other speaking practices.

6. strengthening gestures, facial expression, and other kinesics practices.

[3] L2 Use (RQ3): administered twice (Weeks 1 and 15)

1 = I cannot do it at all, 2 = I cannot generally do it, 3 = I have no idea (neither can or cannot), 4 = I can generally do it, 5 = I can do it very well

I use English in order to describe myself, including:

1. the reasons for selecting the currently enrolled university, the department, and the major.

2. my future life goal and career plan after graduation with concrete reasons.

3. my important personal beliefs and senses of value.

4. relevant self-determined message created in the form of aphorism.

5. exercising necessary paralanguage to fully convey my thoughts, ideas, and feelings.

6. exercising necessary kinesics to fully convey my thoughts, ideas, and feelings.

Longitudinal Trajectories of Emotions in Four Dimensions Through Language Advisory Sessions

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Abstract

Through advising in language learning, this study describes two Japanese secondary school students' (Ai and Yu: both pseudonyms) longitudinal trajectories of socioculturally mediated emotions in four dimensions. To investigate types of emotions, the research integrates multiple qualitative methods and Plutchik's wheel of emotions, thus acknowledging both contextually complex and longitudinally dynamic aspects of emotions. Throughout a year of 19 advisory sessions, the amount of time spent was 1,263 minutes (Ai's 12 sessions = 891 minutes; Yu's 7 sessions = 372 minutes), and the number of emotional incidences identified was 358 (201 for Ai; 157 for Yu). Among multiple findings, the most notable was that both participants experienced convergence of emotions: the one process from diversified to less diversified emotions was caused by longitudinal dynamics of emotions in Ai's case and by contextual complexity of emotions in Yu's case. The study concludes by suggesting a tentative four-dimensional model of emotions to capture trajectories of advisees' emotions from multiple perspectives. This model can help advisors to understand advisees' emotionality and, therefore, to implement emotional support appropriately and continuously.

Keywords: longitudinal study, advising in language learning, secondary school students, emotion, sociocultural aspects

After years of neglect, many researchers have turned to the importance of emotions in language learning because, as Swain (2013) states, there is an inseparable relationship between cognition and emotion. In Sociocultural theory (SCT), following Vygotsky (1978) and his colleagues, this interrelatedness is conceptualized as *perezhivanie* (e.g., Poehner & Swain, 2016; Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2015; Van Compernolle, 2014), a Russian term that originally described the dialectical unity of cognition and emotion and that represents a central concept in SCT (Lantolf, Poehner, & Swain, 2018). However, since investigating emotion had been previously regarded as taboo even in psychology, doing so is not so simple that many researchers have explained emotions' difficult aspects (Barcelos, 2015). By the same token, advising in language learning (ALL) needs to include some emotional support for advisees because of overly strong emphasis on its cognitive and/or metacognitive aspects

(Tassinari, 2016). Therefore, this paper intends to advance implementation of emotional support in advisory sessions through multiple case studies, which are appropriate for describing how advisees' emotions were observed and how they interrelated longitudinally with external variables. First, this study describes some issues of emotions and, second, addresses the importance of emotional support—especially in advisory sessions—grounded in SCT as a theoretical framework. Next, the study provides detailed explanation of the methods for describing advisees' emotions, focusing specifically on sociocultural aspects. Finally, the study suggests that such information about advisees' emotions will be of value in supporting advisees (and other participants) from various perspectives.

Literature Review

Defining emotions and Plutchik's theory

People can probably imagine various emotions with ease, but defining emotion itself is challenging because of its multidimensionality. Whether intentionally or unintentionally, many researchers avoid explicitly defining emotion. By referring to Reeve (2009), however, Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza (2014) define emotion as "a coordinated reaction typically covering four domains: subjective feelings, biological/physical reactions, purposive (goal-directed) behavior, and a social component that guides emotional expression and interpretation in situ" (p. 575). As Barcelos (2015) and Reeve (2009) indicate, emotion is constructed variously and has multidimensional, complex, and dynamic characteristics, so this paper follows Averill's definition because, from a social constructivist view, emotion is socially mediated and includes how people interpret their ongoing situation (Oxford, 2015). In fact, some researchers argue and conceptualize emotions as socially constituted (e.g., Gross, 2015; Miller & Gkonou, 2018; Zembylas, 2005), which shares similar ontological and epistemological stances with SCT. According to Averill (1980), "an emotion is a transitory social role (a socially constituted syndrome) that includes an individual's appraisal of the situation and that is interpreted as a passion rather than as an action" (p. 312). That is, since situations or social contexts (i.e., social roles) evoke our sets of responses (i.e., syndromes), emotions are not inner feelings but what we respond to and how we symbolize it (for further discussion, see Aranguren, 2017). More specifically, this definition indicates that emotion is socioculturally constructed.

The term *affect* covers a broad range, not limited to emotions, but including emotions, feelings, moods, beliefs, attitudes, and motivations (Oxford, 2011, 2017; Yamashita, 2015). In other words, emotion is categorized within affective factors, and

emotion is also an important affective variable of language learning (e.g., Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Gkonou, Daubney, & Dewaele, 2017; Imai, 2010). However, some psychologists or neuroscientists distinguish between emotions and feelings (e.g., Damasio, 2006; Immordino-Yang & Damasio, 2007), but Plutchik (1980, 2001) uses these terms interchangeably. In addition, other researchers do not clearly state the difference between the two, so following their stances, this paper also regards emotions and feelings as equivalent because the researcher applies Plutchik's model to the analysis. However, according to Oxford (2011, 2017) and Yamashita (2015), who have applied findings in such areas as clinical psychology to psychology of language learning, the difference between emotions and moods is that emotions are transient but observable, while moods are durable but almost unobservable (Figure 1).
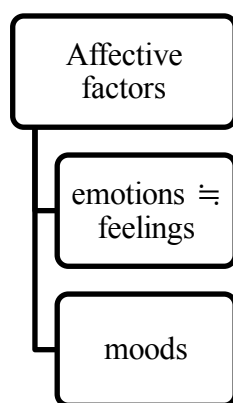
Figure 1. Researchers' Summary of Affect, Emotions, Feelings, and Moods (Oxford, 2011, 2017; Plutchik, 1980, 2001; Yamashita, 2015).

Plutchik (1980, 2001) suggests three dimensions of emotion: type, intensity, and proportion. Types of emotions fall into two categories, positive or negative. Positive emotions, for example, include happiness, excitement, and trust, while negative emotions include anxiety, anger, disgust, and so on. Even during language learning, people feel many varieties of emotions (Gkonou & Miller, in press), and intensity indicates how strongly people feel a certain emotion. In Plutchik's (2001) model, descriptive words are adjusted depending on how intense emotions become. For instance, if sadness is strengthened, it can become grief. By categorizing emotional descriptors according to level of intensity, Plutchik created the model called "the wheel of emotions" (see Appendix A). This model mentions how proportionate emotions are. However, for Plutchik, proportion differs slightly from what Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) express as "two faces of Janus," implying both positive and negative valences in one emotion. In their study, anxiety, manifesting as anger or anguish,

can function as a hindrance to language learning, but positive anxiety causes excitement. Despite Dewaele and MacIntyre's (2014) insights, their study focuses on the outcome of a certain emotion, not on emotion itself. Thus, proportion, according to Plutchik (1980, 2001), is a mixture of more than one emotion, so this third dimension integrates emotions' type and intensity. To put it another way, the proportion of emotions can be understood only after their type and intensity are determined because mixed feelings result from two (or more) types of emotions and, to determine their proportion, their intensity should also be considered. Consequently, considering emotions' comprehensiveness, this study follows Plutchik's (1980, 2001) theory (Figure 2).
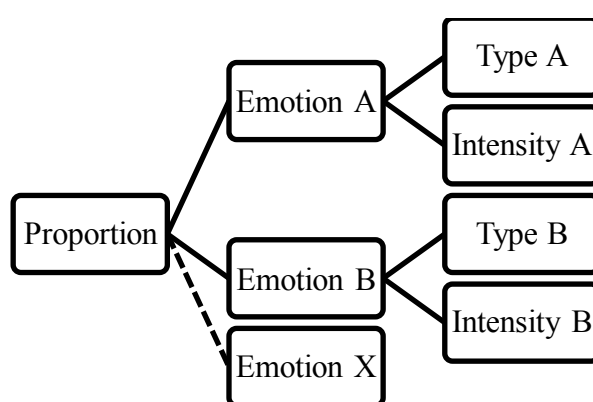
Figure 2. Three Dimensions of Emotions Based on Plutchik's Theory (1980, 2001).

Emotional support and perezhivanie for advisees

Advising in Language Learning (ALL) is defined as a dialogic, dialectic process of helping second language (L2) learners solve their language-related issues (Kato & Mynard, 2015; Mynard & Carson, 2012). Through ALL sessions, advisors encourage advisees to be autonomous (Benson, 2007, 2011) because ALL's primary purpose is to facilitate self-directed learning (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Self-directed learners have knowledge and understanding of their learning and can also manage it, thus developing awareness of language learning. Generally, ALL is a comparatively new practice for L2 learners in Japan, and although it is growing in some higher education settings, some issues need consideration (Moriya, 2018a, 2018b).

One issue is the need for advisees' affective support, which is this study's focus. Indeed, Tassinari (2016) has strongly criticized advising sessions that place an emphasis on cognitive and/or metacognitive aspects, for instance, learning strategies, styles, and preferences. Of course, she admits the importance of these aspects, but she also addresses the

importance of affective support, especially emotional support because cognition and emotion are interrelated (e.g., Douglas Fir Group, 2016; Immordino-Yang & Damasio, 2007; Swain, 2013). Considering the interconnectedness between cognition and emotion, similarly conceptualized as *perezhivanie* in SCT (Fleer, González Ray, & Veresov, 2017; Veresov & Mok, 2018), some studies focusing on emotions during advisory or counseling sessions have been conducted (e.g., Carette, Thiébaut, & Nassau, 2015; Tassinari, 2016; Tassinari & Ciekanski, 2013). However, since emotions could underlie L2 learners' identities (Miyahara, 2015; Moriya & Ishizuka, in press), advisors need more holistic understanding of advisees' emotionality to provide more appropriate support continuously.

The Study

The present study addresses the following four research questions:

RQ1: What kind of emotions do advisees have in their lives?
RQ2: How contextually complex are advisees' emotions in their lives?
RQ3: How longitudinally dynamic are advisees' emotions in their lives?
RQ4: What characteristics do advisees' trajectories of emotions have in their lives?

These overarching purpose of the research is to establish emotional support for advisees (Carette, Thiébaut, & Nassau, 2015; Tassinari, 2016; Tassinari & Ciekanski, 2013). The first research question focuses on types of emotions in response to Pavlenko (2005, 2013), who mentions that differences in emotions depend on learners' languages. If advisees' L2 emotions differ, language choice during advisory sessions must be seriously considered; if not, Pavlenko's finding insightfully contributes to L2 advising. As Averill's (1980) definition and the Douglas Fir Group's (2016) transdisciplinary framework (Appendix B) indicate, the second research question focuses on the contextual complexity of emotions because emotion is socioculturally mediated and myriads of cultural artifacts, such as language, trigger "colorful" emotions. The third research question focuses on the longitudinal dynamics of emotions or how kaleidoscopically changing emotions are—because, presumably due to feasibility, many studies are conducted with a one-shot design (e.g., Gallo & Tassinari, 2017; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Gregersen, MacIntyre, & Meza, 2014). The fourth research question integrates the other questions to create advisees' trajectories of emotions because multidimensional trajectories paint different empirical pictures compared to findings obtained from individual questions.

Methodology

The current study adopts multiple, longitudinal case studies (Creswell & Poth, 2017). Case study research is appropriate for conducting in-depth data collection on the complex nature of emotion because, despite its subjectivity, qualitative research allows participants' experiences to be understood in context (Creswell, 2015; Mackey & Gass, 2012), and longitudinal studies reveal the dynamic nature of emotion. The overall research design follows that of Moriya (2018a, 2018b).

In this one-year study, two 17-year-old female Japanese learners of English voluntarily participated (pseudonyms: Ai and Yu). Their selection reflects purposive sampling (Given, 2008) because in previous research, participants were mainly college students (e.g., Mynard & Carson, 2012; Tassinari, 2016; Thornton, 2016; Yamashita, 2015). Data from secondary school students can provide precious insights into unique issues caused by daily classes and anxiety about forthcoming entrance examinations, among others relevant to studying English. On the surface, Ai and Yu share commonalities: they are in the same year of school, interested in English, and, to some extent, influenced by their siblings (Ai's younger brother and Yu's elder sister). However, close investigation revealed completely different profiles, and these differences are introduced individually.

This study includes multiple data sources because ALL generally needs various tools to support advisees from several perspectives. However, the most important tool for this study was learning logs in which advisees tracked their English study (Kato & Mynard, 2015; Yamashita, 2015). As the example indicates (Figure 3), these learning logs consisted mainly of three parts. On the left, "Content of learning" asks what the advisees did that day. In the middle, "Self-reflection" encourages them to reflect on their study because reflection plays an important role in ALL (Kato & Mynard, 2015). On the right, "Today's feeling" checks how advisees felt throughout the day. Self-reflection and Today's feeling elicit advisees' emotions, while Content of learning contextualizes how they feel a certain emotion. Based on their descriptions, during each session, I confirmed content and context of their emotions as member checking by participants, which is a technique "to enhance trustworthiness and credibility of data analysis" (O'Brien, Harris, Beckman, Reed, & Cook, 2014, p. 1247). Every advisory session was audio-recorded and, in Ai's case, eight sessions were also video-recorded; she allowed this prior to beginning advisory sessions. Therefore, audio data accumulated to more than 21 hours (1,263 minutes) and video data to more than 9 hours (568 minutes). For this analysis, however, video data was only for triangulation. During sessions, I took field notes for two purposes, first, to triangulate data as a researcher and, second, to

improve subsequent ALL sessions as an advisor. After the sessions, memos were written, especially during analysis, to interpret data iteratively and deeply.

Learning Log (Example)

Date	Time spent	Content of learning (action I have taken)	Self-reflection (how I feel about the action)	Today's feeling
7 / 18 Mon.	1 hour and 30 minutes	Listened to a TED talk on design. I made a note of expressions I liked.	It was interesting for me to learn vocabulary in this way. I can learn better by listening to something.	tired but interesting
7 / 19 Tue.	10 minutes	I read a novel "The Little Prince" for 3 pages.	I was so busy that I could read only 3 pages. And, I couldn't concentrate well. So, tomorrow, I will try harder than today.	sad
7 / 20 Wed.	3 hours	• read newspaper for 3 articles • listened to music "Yesterday" • talked with ALT for 30 minutes	• Yesterday, It was terrible. • I tried to study as much as I could. • Trying many ways was good for me, I think.	happy and delightful
7 / 21 Tur.				
7 / 22 Fri.				
7 / 23 Sat.				
7 / 24 Sun.				

Question for advisor / Comment
I am wondering whether it is good to read aloud or read silently. This week, I couldn't do well, so I would like to study more than 10 hours next week! （日本語でも構いませんが、積極的に英語を使ってみましょう！）　　　**Total: 4h 40min.**　　**/ a week**

Figure 3. Example of Advisees' Learning Logs.

To create trajectories of advisees' emotions, multiple analytical methods and multiple data sources for triangulation were applied, including: (a) Plutchik's (2001) wheel of emotions, (b) activity theory (Engeström, 2001; Appendix C), (c) a transdisciplinary framework (Douglas Fir Group, 2016), and (d) the Trajectory Equifinality Model (Sato, Mori, & Valsiner, 2016; Appendix D). For the research question on types of emotions, Plutchik's wheel of emotions is theoretically comprehensive and understandable as a coding schema (referring to Tassinari, 2016). For the question focusing on emotions' contextual complexity, referring to Gkonou (2017), activity theory and a transdisciplinary framework serve as pre-determined frameworks (i.e., activity theory for artifacts; a transdisciplinary framework for levels). For the third question, the Trajectory Equifinality Model is effective when considering emotions' dynamics. Considering the amount of data and different data sources, even in an exploratory study, pre-determined frameworks are highly helpful because this study's purpose is to provide advisees' emotional guidance. In addition, the analytical lenses

from (b) to (d) were fundamentally developed from Vygotskian theory, thus sharing high commensurability or similar axiological viewpoints.

Findings and Discussion

The time spent on 19 ALL sessions was 1,263 minutes. On average, each session lasted about 66.47 minutes. The number of emotional incidences identified was 358. Using labels from Plutchik's (2001) wheel of emotions, the following types emerged: 178 joy, 7 trust, 9 fear, 10 surprise, 46 sadness, 72 disgust, 15 anger, and 21 anticipation. Referring to Gallo and Tassinari (2017), this information is summarized in Figure 4, and emotions are placed as on Plutchik's wheel of emotions. Notably both Ai and Yu felt joy the most (178/358), but disgust was second (72/358), trailed by many fewer incidents of sadness (46/358) among the eight basic emotions. The other five emotions seemed less frequently co-constructed. As adopted from activity theory analysis (Engeström, 2001), the following lists Ai and Yu's interactions: 78 class, 51 test, 53 homework and studying, 34 club activity, 39 daily life, 27 school, 15 cram school, 15 friends, 4 university, 10 music, 5 movie, 9 trip, 6 self, 7 value, 3 study, and 2 weather. In regard to emotions' contextual complexity, details of emotions' levels based on the Douglas Fir Group (2016) follow: 129 micro level, 211 meso level, and 18 macro level. However, these results show only overall characteristics from which we can derive little understanding. Better understanding of each advisee derives from comparison of individual results to total results. In the next sections, therefore, each case is carefully described according to the research questions.
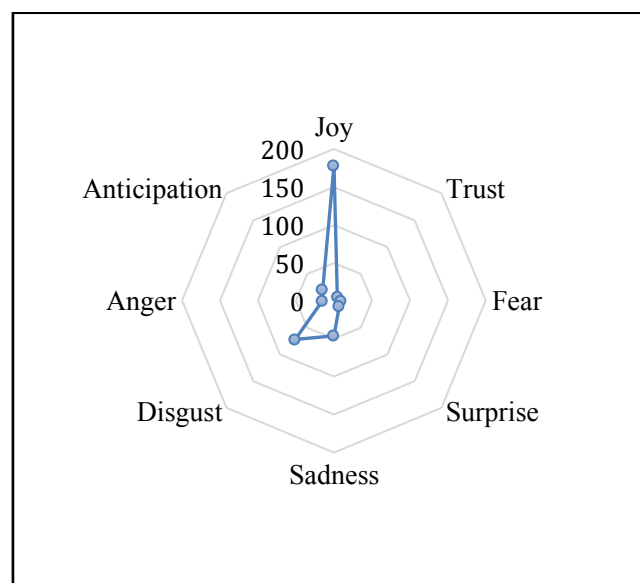
Figure 4. Total Frequency of Emotions According to Type for Both Advisees.

RQ1: What kinds of emotions did the advisees have in their lives?

In Ai's case, the time spent on 12 ALL sessions was 891 minutes, with each session lasting an average of 74.25 minutes. Incidences of identified emotions numbered 201. According to Plutchik's (2001) wheel of emotions, types included: 129 joy, 0 trust, 6 fear, 1 surprise, 29 sadness, 23 disgust, 4 anger, and 9 anticipation (Figure 5). As adopted from activity theory analysis (Engeström, 2001), Ai interacted in the following artifacts: 45 class, 31 test, 32 homework and studying, 26 club activity, 19 daily life, 13 school, 15 cram school, 2 friends, 4 university, 2 music, 1 movie, 6 self, 3 value, and 2 study. As for emotions' contextual complexity, details of emotional levels based on the Douglas Fir Group (2016) were: 76 micro level, 114 meso level, and 11 macro level. Figure 5 shows that Ai most experienced incidences of joy (129/201), but surprisingly, sadness was second (29/201), followed by disgust (23/201) even though these two emotions' incidences were many fewer than those of joy. The other five emotions less frequently emerged, and trust never emerged, or it received no attention during the year.
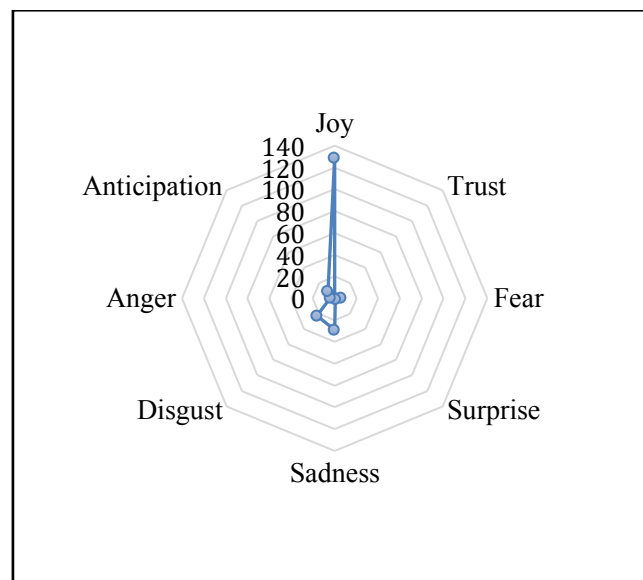
Figure 5. Frequency of Emotions According to Type in Ai's Case.

Yu's case shows quite different characteristics. The time spent on seven ALL sessions was about 372 minutes, each session lasting an average of 53.14 minutes. Emotional incidences numbered 157. According to Plutchik's (2001) wheel of emotions, these were: 49 joy, 7 trust, 3 fear, 9 surprise, 17 sadness, 49 disgust, 11 anger, and 12 anticipation (Figure 6). As adopted from activity theory analysis (Engeström, 2001), Yu interacted in the following artifacts: 33 class, 20 test, 21 homework and studying, 20 daily life, 14 school, 13 friends, 9

trip, 8 club activity, 8 music, 4 movie, 4 value, 2 weather, and 1 study. As for emotions'
contextual complexity, details of emotional levels based on the Douglas Fir Group (2016)
were: 53 micro level, 97 meso level, and 7 macro level. Clearly, the crescent-like shape in
Figure 6 results from two emotions: joy and disgust. For Yu, surprisingly, joy and disgust
were first (each 49/157), followed by sadness (17/157). Regardless of frequency, Yu felt each
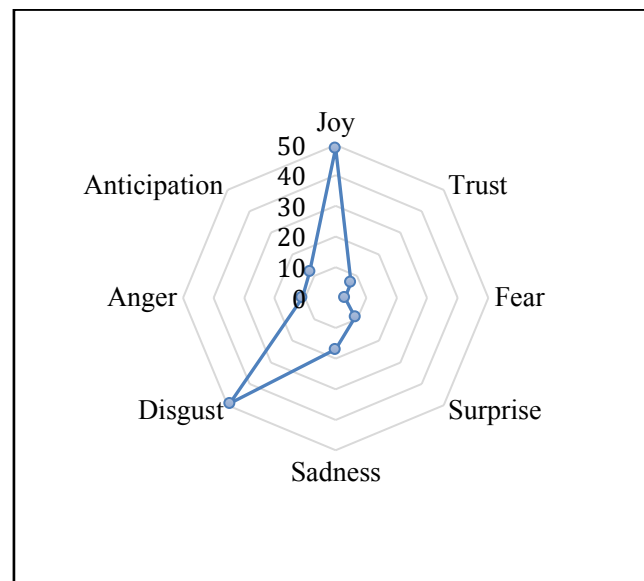of the eight types of emotion.

Figure 6. Frequency of Emotions According to Type in Yu's Case.

RQ2: How contextually complex are advisees' emotions in their lives?

Secondly, the research focuses on emotions' contextual complexity. In this section, I
report each advisee's emotions according to codes of artifacts and three levels. Figures 7 to 9
display artifacts with which Ai socioculturally interacted and what types of emotions she felt
toward each artifact according to each level. On the micro level (within classroom), artifacts
were "class" and "test." "Class" indicates, of course, everyday classes at her secondary
school, including general classroom activities. "Test" includes more specific moments:
weekly quizzes, midterms, or end-term examinations, and mock university entrance
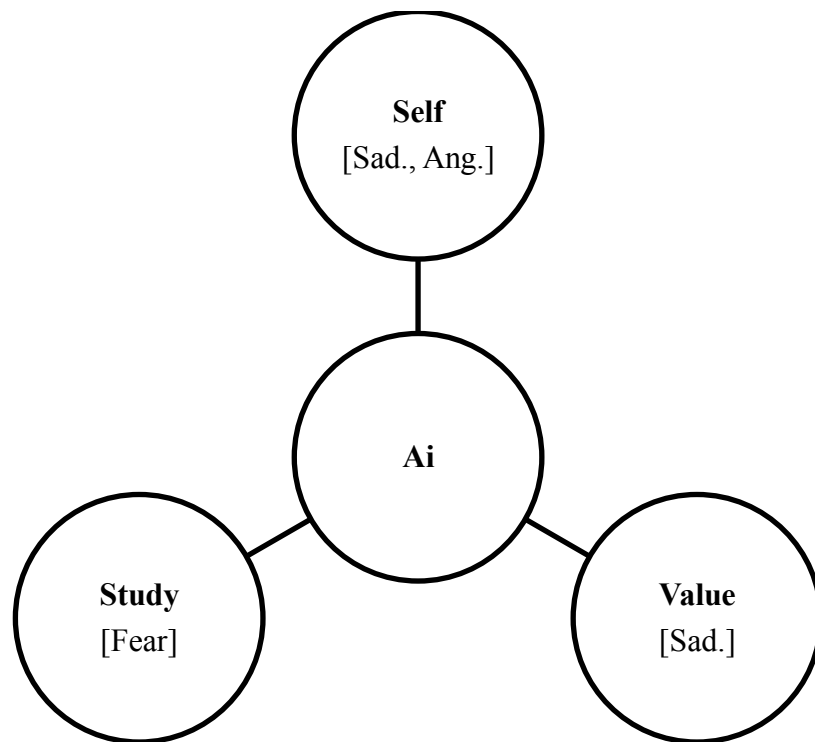examinations.
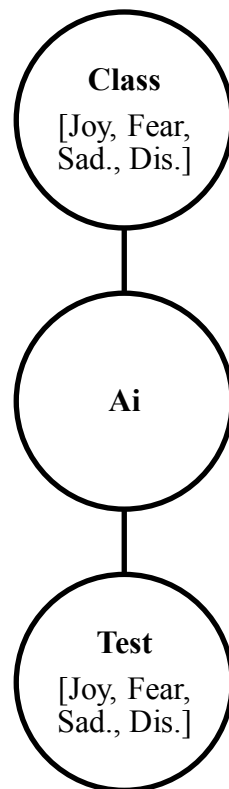
Figure 7. Ai's Contextual Complexity of Emotions on the Micro Level.
(Words in brackets 'Sad.' and 'Dis.' abbreviate sadness and disgust).

On the meso level (outside classroom; Figure 8), Ai interacted with various artifacts, summarized as nine codes: homework and studying, club activity, daily life, school, cram school, friends, university, music, and movie. "Homework and studying" include studying at home or other places (e.g., library, study room at her school or cram school, and coffee shop), not in the classroom. "Club activity" indicates her brass band club. "Daily life" supposes various situations, but ethical issues prevent provision of all the information. However, daily life includes playing with friends, moments with family, trips (but not abroad). "School" is a broader code not limited to club activity because every school regularly holds school festivals, excursions, and course information sessions. "Cram school" indicates weekly English classes held by the tutor (author/researcher). "Friends," "music," and "movie" may be taken literally. "University" includes open campus and school festivals held by the university. Because Ai was thinking seriously about her future, because of her bitter experience in junior high school, she eagerly tried to understand what the university is like and searched for information. Therefore, she felt excitement (coded as anticipation) toward the university and vividly imagined her future.
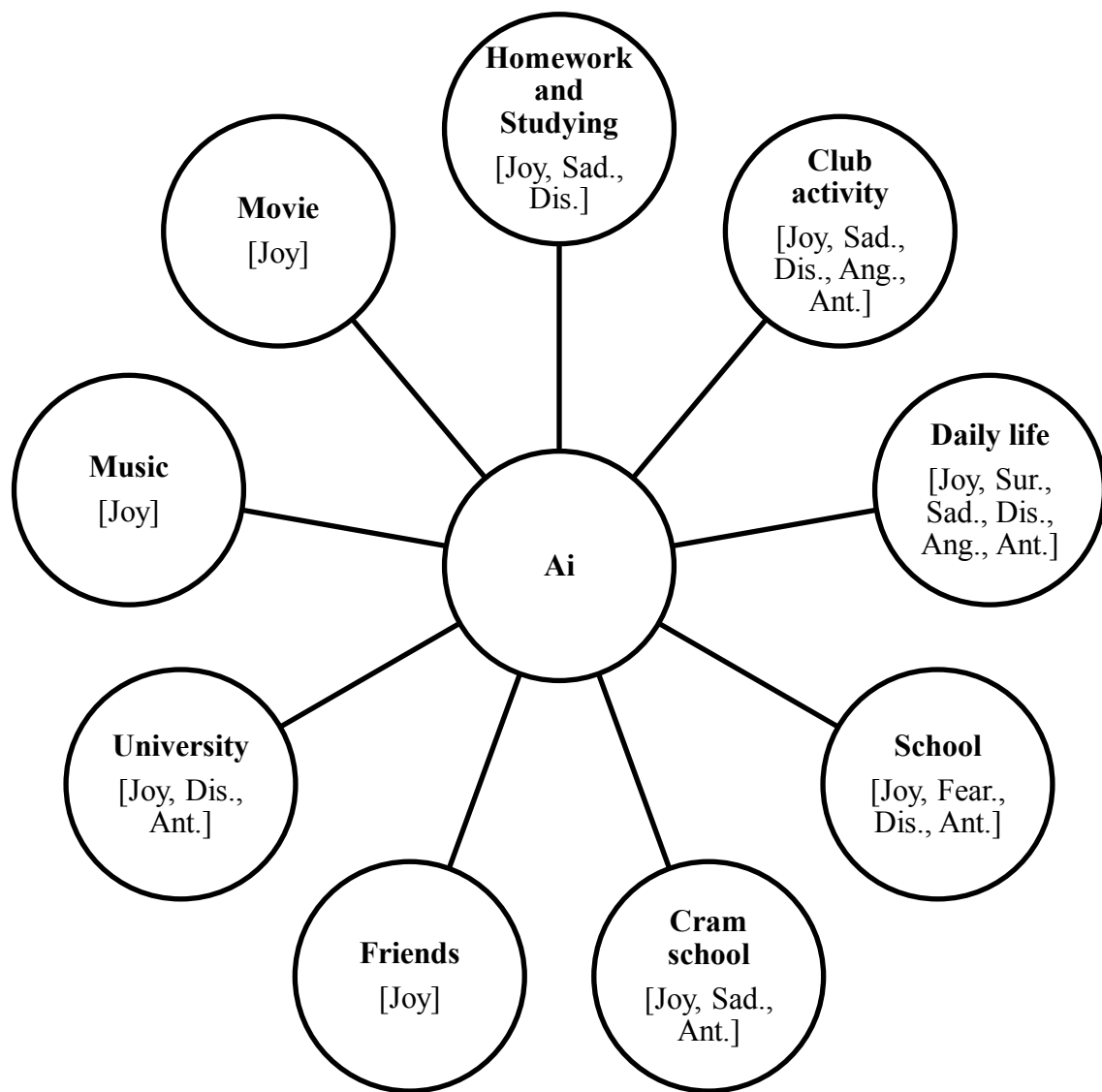
Figure 8. Ai's Contextual Complexity of Emotions on the Meso Level.
(Words in brackets 'Sur.', 'Sad.', 'Dis.', 'Ang.', and 'Ant.' abbreviate surprise, sadness, disgust, anger, and anticipation, respectively).

On the macro level (simply neither the micro level, nor the meso level), Ai interacted with artifacts of: "self," "value," and "study" (Figure 9). "Self" implies her image reflected by and confirmed through her actions. "Value" indicates her values or her philosophy of life through her experiences. "Study" differs from "homework and studying" on the meso level in that the former indicates "pressure" or her obligation as a student, so that she thought only about study; the latter covers acts of studying. Thus, the difference lies simply in whether she studied or not.

Figure 9. Ai's Contextual Complexity of Emotions on the Macro Level.
(Words in brackets 'Sad.' and 'Ang.' abbreviate sadness and anger).

       The next focus is on emotions' contextual complexity in Yu's case. Figures 10 to 12 display artifacts with which Yu socioculturally interacted and types of emotions she felt toward each artifact according to each level. On the micro level (within classroom; Figure 10), as in Ai's case, artifacts were: "class" and "test." Within each code, Yu felt various types of emotions even though the number of basic emotions is only eight.
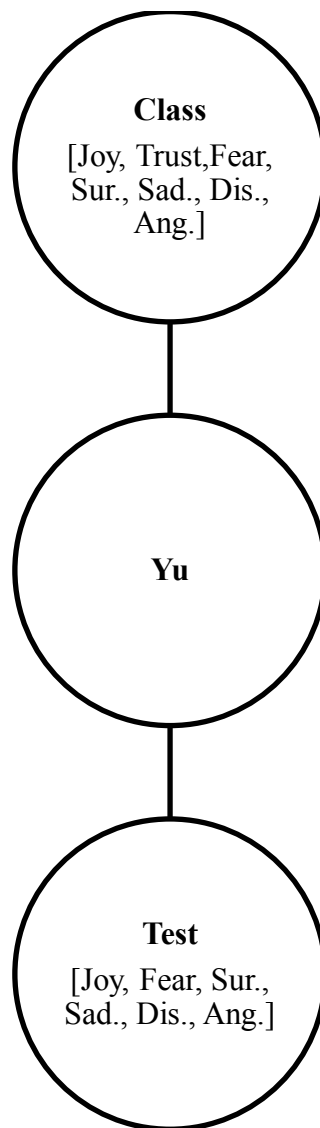
Figure 10. Yu's Contextual Complexity of Emotions on the Micro Level.
(Words in brackets 'Sur.', 'Sad.', 'Dis.', and 'Ang.' abbreviate surprise, sadness, disgust, and anger, respectively).

On the meso level (outside classroom; Figure 11), Yu interacted with various artifacts, summarized as eight codes: homework and studying, daily life, school, friends, club activity, music, movie, and trip. Almost all are equivalent to Ai's codes, but one new code is "trip," which includes planning and the stay. Because Yu and her mother love any length of trip, she repeatedly expressed her emotions through overseas trips as an artifact on the meso level.
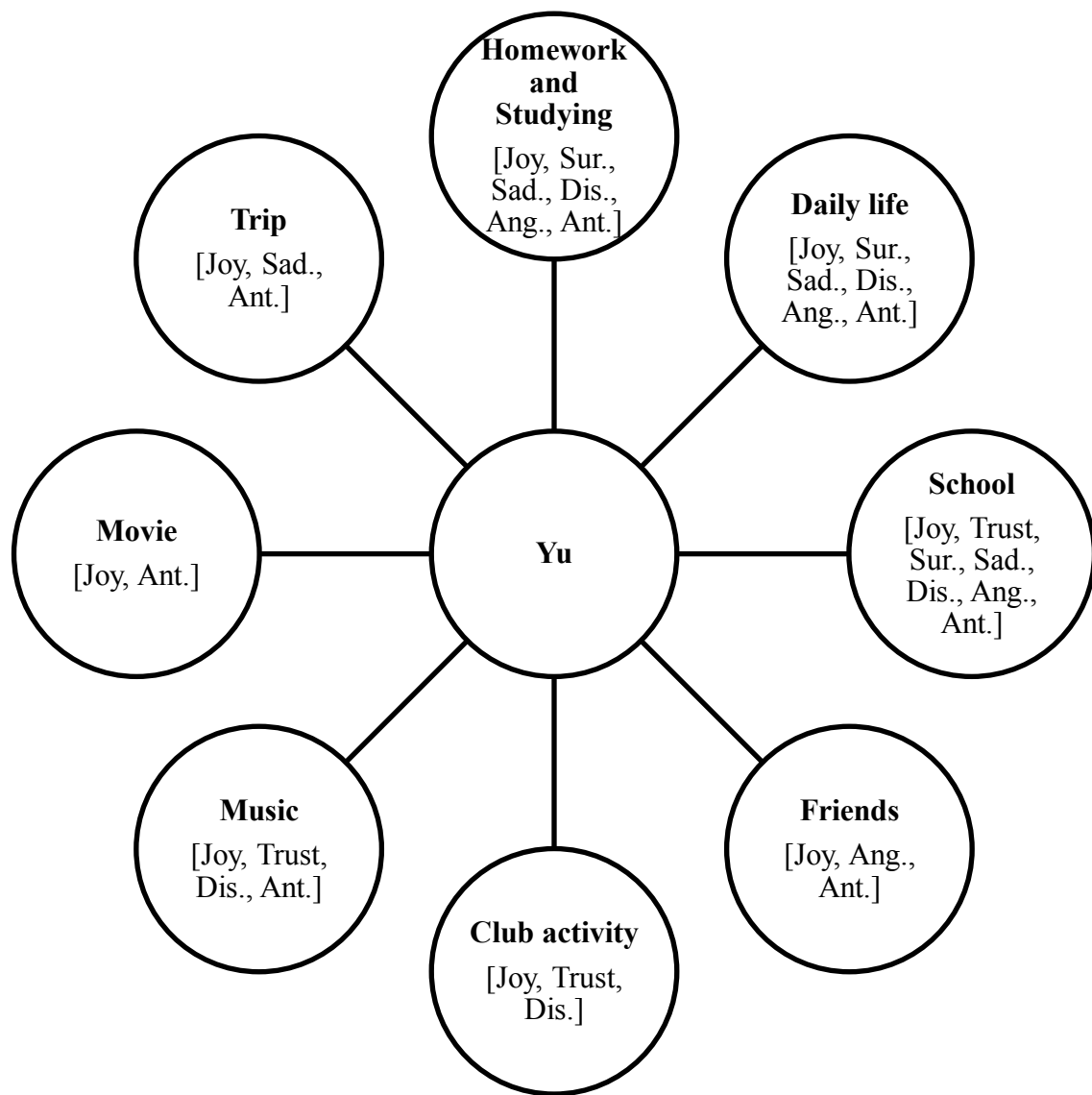
Figure 11. Yu's Contextual Complexity of Emotions on the Meso level.
(Words in brackets 'Sur.', 'Sad.', 'Dis.', and 'Ang.', and 'Ant.' stand for surprise, sadness, disgust, anger, and anticipation, respectively).

On the macro level (neither the micro level, nor the meso level; Figure 12), Yu interacted with artifacts summarized as three codes: "weather," "study," and "value." Whether "weather" is an appropriate code is difficult to decide; however, "weather" is also an external factor that likely influences learners' emotions. For example, some may feel depressed when it rains, but others may feel joy at the music of raindrops. Thus, imagining situations that may co-construct different emotions, "weather" is reasonably regarded as a macro code. "Value" partly relates to too-private information, so for ethical reasons, it is impossible to introduce every detail.
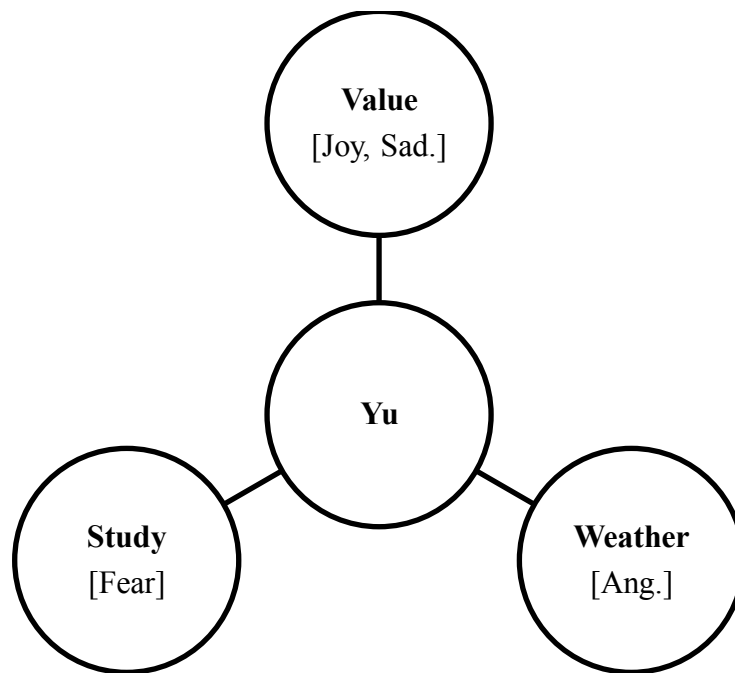
Figure 12. Yu's Contextual Complexity of Emotions on the Macro Level. (Words in brackets 'Sad.' and 'Ang.' abbreviate sadness and anger).

RQ3: How longitudinally dynamic are advisees' emotions in their lives?

The third emphasis is emotional dynamics. Table 1 is color-coded to show how longitudinally dynamic Ai's emotions were (for further details, see Appendix E). Again, color is represented as on Plutchik's (2001) wheel of emotions (yellow for joy, blue for sadness). Instead of an arrow from left to right, numbers ranging from 1 to 182 indicate observed points of emotion, representing the flow of time and referring to the Trajectory Equifinality Model (Sato, Mori, & Valsiner, 2016; Sato, Yasuda, Kanzaki, & Valsiner, 2014). Thus, these numbers do not represent intervals or ranks; they are regarded only as a nominal scale. As Table 1 shows, Ai's emotionality was stable for joy throughout the year, and despite less frequency, the same is true for sadness and disgust. Interestingly, Table 1 also shows emotions' distribution on the time axis. Apparently, types of emotion gradually decreased. In other words, by about point 60, Ai felt another four emotions (anticipation, surprise, fear, and anger) in addition to joy, sadness, and disgust, but especially after that point, these emotions become less frequent. One reason could be relevant to her dreams for the future. That is, before senior high school, her aim was simply to enter a "prestigious" university; she had no clear vision of her future career, especially at the beginning of the advisory sessions (for further details, see Moriya, 2018a). However, through dialogue with the advisor and use of advising tools, around that point, she began to manifest interest in editing because she found it interesting to work with words and arrange messages effectively. Still, the advisor's clear

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remembrance of that day is triangulated through various data sources (field notes, memos, and audio recordings) because she shared her splendid dream during the tenth session. After this memorable moment for Ai and the advisor, she decided on her future, so emotions became concentrated on certain types, thus changing their trajectory into positively less diversified emotions.

Table 1

Summary of Types and Dynamics of Emotions in Ai's Case (Overall)

The third emphasis on emotional dynamics (Table 2) shows how longitudinally dynamic Yu's emotions were by color-coding each basic emotion. Table 2 shows how Yu expressed "colorful" emotions throughout the advisory sessions (for further details, see Appendix F). One of the most noticeable findings from the following table is discontinuity of specific emotion. That is, no emotion continually "lights" more than three points (only joy, from point 143 to point 146, continually covers four points), so, within one to three points, Yu's emotion changed vividly, just as light flickers. Even with this furiously transient nature of emotions, another interesting finding is that, to some extent, joy and disgust appear alternatively. By considering the axis of time, we can better understand Yu's emotional state because, without considering the dynamic aspect, we can hardly understand this relatively balanced occurrence of joy and disgust. Therefore, this information parallels her narrative of emotions, explained by rewards (Moriya, 2018a). The balancing could also be explained by emotional management (Gkonou & Oxford, 2016) or emotion regulation (Gross, 2015) because Yu well managed or bore her negative emotions, anticipating their "cure" by forthcoming joyful events.

Table 2

Summary of Types and Dynamics of Emotions in Yu's Case (Overall)
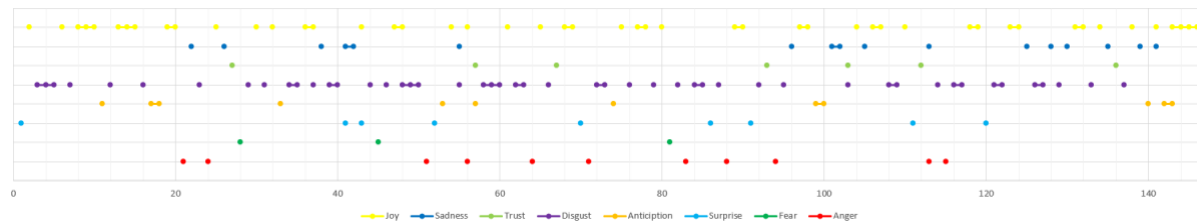
RQ4: What characteristics do advisees' trajectories of emotions have in their lives?

After investigating each case's emotional types, contextual complexity (artifacts and levels), and dynamics of emotions, lastly, each trajectory of emotions is compared to detect similarities and differences. Of course, fundamentally, every person is different, but finding some similarities between Ai and Yu would provide some deeper insights for the fields of emotion, ALL, and SCT. Therefore, Table 3 summarizes all the data on emotions according to type, artifacts, and levels.

Table 3

Summary of Types and Frequencies of Contextually Complex Emotions in Both Cases

	Micro					Meso							Macro				
	class	test	homework	club	daily	school	cram	friends	university	music	movie	trip	self	weather	value	study	Total
Joy	33/7	17/4	27/3	14/1	12/6	8/3	11/0	2/11	2/0	2/5	1/2	0/5			0/2		178
Trust	0/3			0/1		0/2				0/1							7
Fear	2/1	2/1			1/0											1/1	9
Surprise	0/3	0/2	0/1		1/2	0/1											10
Sadness	5/2	10/6	2/1	2/0	1/1	0/3	2/0					0/2	4/0		3/2		46
Disgust	5/14	2/5	3/13	6/6	3/8	3/2			1/0	0/1							72
Anger	0/3	0/2	0/1	1/0	1/1	0/1		0/1					2/0	0/2			15
Anticipation			0/2	3/0	1/2	1/2	2/0	0/1	1/0	0/1	0/2	0/2				1/0	21
Total	78	51	53	34	39	27	15	15	4	10	5	9	6	2	7	3	358

Note. Homework = homework and studying; club = club activity; daily = daily life; cram = cram school. The left number in each cell represents Ai's frequency, while the right number represents Yu's frequency. The blank cell indicates no frequency in either case.

Most notably, in emotional dynamics (Table 1 for Ai; Table 2 for Yu), one similarity is that joy, sadness, and disgust appeared consistently throughout the year. Of course, since Yu's emotionality was expressed discontinuously, the length of points for certain emotions differed somewhat, but whether transient or stable, these emotions were repeatedly and alternatively mentioned. In contrast, the difference between Ai and Yu is the convergence of types of emotions. That is, as mentioned, the number of types of emotions that Ai expressed decreased, especially after point 60, but Yu's emotions were completely dispersed, even the

less frequent ones. Similarly, both Ai and Yu's emotions gradually converged, but their convergences occurred differently. For Ai, types of emotions became less diversified as time passed (especially after point 60). For Yu, types of emotions became less diversified according to their levels (from the micro and meso levels to the macro level, or whether relevant to "school"). Therefore, emotional dynamics made Ai feel less diversified emotions, while emotions' contextual complexity (especially their levels, but partly artifacts) made Yu feel less diversified emotions. However, reduced emotional diversity is not a negative phenomenon. Rather, Ai and Yu seemed to do well, thanks to their individual characteristics because, as their narratives showed, Ai came to enjoy studying more, and Yu tried to balance her emotionality through her interest in art.

Conclusion

In summary, this study's overarching purpose was to establish emotional support for advisees (Carette, Thiébaut, & Nassau, 2015; Tassinari, 2016; Tassinari & Ciekanski, 2013) by describing longitudinal trajectories of socioculturally mediated emotions through advisory sessions. This is because ALL has over-emphasized cognitive and/or metacognitive aspects of language learning despite "the inseparability of cognition and emotion" (Swain, 2013). Four research questions were addressed to investigate emotions from multiple perspectives. Participants (or advisees) were two female, secondary school Japanese learners of English, Ai and Yu (pseudonyms). Throughout a year of advisory sessions, I qualitatively examined what emotions they felt and with what artifacts they socioculturally interacted. Perspectives applied in the study included type, contextual complexity (artifacts and levels), and dynamics of emotions. After integrating all data through multiple qualitative analyses with pre-determined frameworks (Plutchik's wheel of emotions for type, activity theory for contextual complexity of artifacts, a transdisciplinary framework for contextual complexity of levels, and the Trajectory Equifinality Model for dynamics), trajectories of advisees' emotions were created and compared.

Study findings have some significance, but limitations as well. Many similarities and differences in type, contextual complexity, and dynamics were found through comparison. However, for brevity, I focus briefly on a few findings. Overall similarities can be summarized as the following: joy accounted for more than or nearly 50% of emotional incidences identified; specific artifacts caused specific emotions for advisees; these caused interactions among levels, which seemed to balance positive and negative emotions; three emotions (joy, sadness, and disgust) emerged continually throughout the year, not clustered

within a certain period. In contrast, overall differences can be summarized as imbalances among emotional types for each advisee, whether emotions were diversified across levels, and whether emotions converged as time passed.

As to significance, longitudinally triangulated findings obtained from multiple data sources provided much empirical evidence and contributed not only to the field of emotions, but also to ALL and SCT. Even among qualitative studies, only one-third have a longitudinal design (Tojo & Takagi, 2017), so many studies are not longitudinal despite that method's value. Indeed, the greatest numbers of studies on emotion have a one-shot design (e.g., Gallo & Tassinari, 2017; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Gregersen, MacIntyre, & Meza, 2014), so this longitudinal study's findings shed more light on the dynamics of emotions.

In terms of limitations, as Oxford (2017) mentions, there is no need to generalize findings when the focus is on situational emotions. However, one limitation would be discrepancies between the two cases in time spent on ALL sessions and identified emotions. That is, for ethical reasons or inconvenience, holding ALL sessions (first intended as biweekly) on a regular basis inevitably became difficult, leading to differing numbers of sessions and emotions observed through learning logs. However, advising's purpose is not regular sessions. Too, qualitative researchers (especially in longitudinal studies) must inevitably face the gap between research's feasibility or practicality and actual situations. Therefore, such irregularity is regarded as a limitation, but practically, we can also describe real-world situations by considering ethical issues, flexibility, and balance between practicality and reality.

After integrating all applied analyses, the researcher captured advisees' emotions in four dimensions of a tentative model (Figure 13; Moriya, 2018a). As Figure 13 confirms, all foci of each framework differ, so within the cube, the trajectory of learners' or advisees' emotions can be described. Of course, this tentative model is not mathematically, but logically four-dimensional. That is, when first describing something complex, we inevitably use a two-way model (activity theory analysis is a typical example), so the starting point of discussion is two-dimensional. Secondly, when we are attempting to differentiate each level according to artifacts, another dimension is added (a transdisciplinary framework by Douglas Fir Group, in this case). Therefore, a three-dimensional model is created to describe emotions' contextual complexity. Using only this model cannot capture emotional dynamics because it shows just the structure of socioculturally mediated emotions, not their changes. Hence, we must add the fourth dimension as the time axis (Trajectory Equifinality Model, in this case), so this model finally has four dimensions, enabling us to describe both contextual

complexity and dynamics of emotions based on Plutchik's wheel of emotions. This four-dimensional model enables advisors to understand advisees' emotionality in a visible way. Furthermore, through the model, advisees themselves can confirm their emotionality's character. And this implies further research—on how advisees manage their emotions (Gkonou & Oxford, 2016) and their emotional discourse (Gkonou & Miller, in press)—through the model used by advisors. Of course, this model is still tentative, so further research should refine it since this study focused only on types of emotions based on Plutchik's three-dimensional theory of type, intensity, and proportion. Hence, model refinement should include the idiodynamic method (Gregersen, MacIntyre, & Meza, 2014) or questionnaires (Dewaele, 2013; Gkonou & Oxford, 2016) focusing on intensity of emotions in multiple points, neither one-shot nor one task.
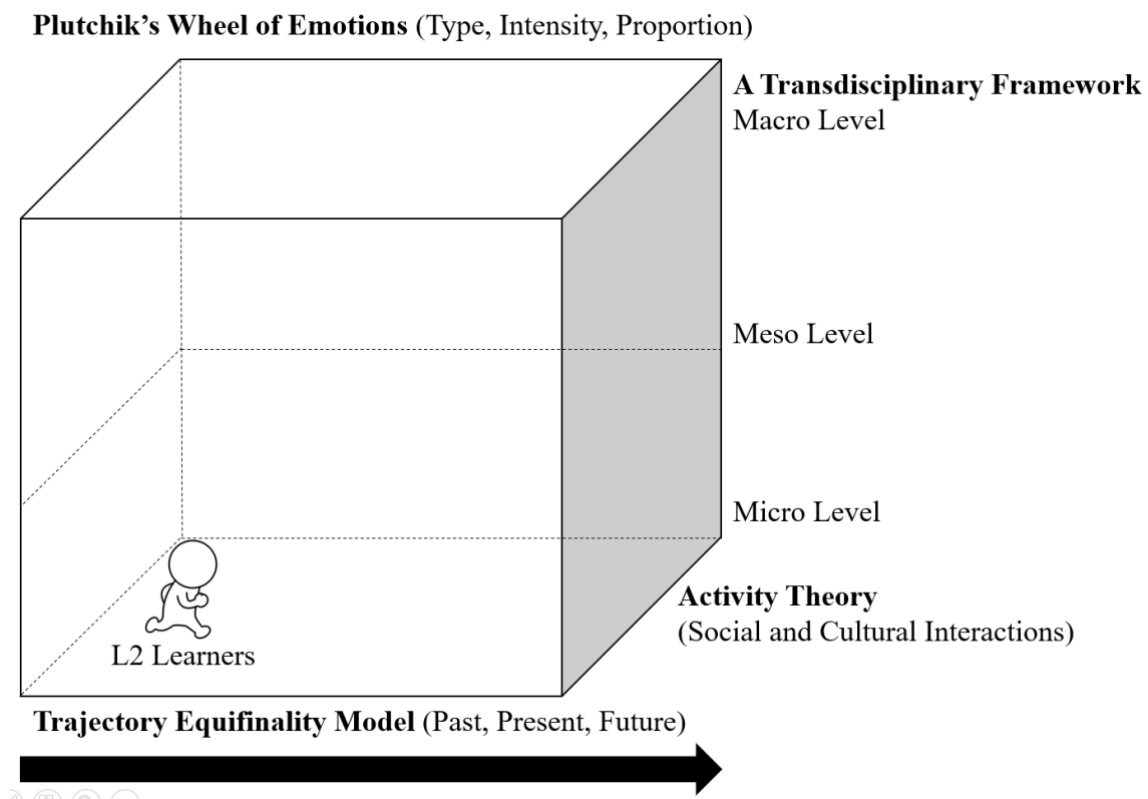
Figure 13. A Tentative Four-Dimensional Model of Emotions (Moriya, 2018a).

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Notes on the Contributor

Ryo Moriya is a Ph.D. student at Waseda University and a Research Fellow of Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. He holds an MA in Education from Waseda University, where he also serves as Japanese and English advisor. His research interests include Sociocultural theory, advising in language learning, and emotions.

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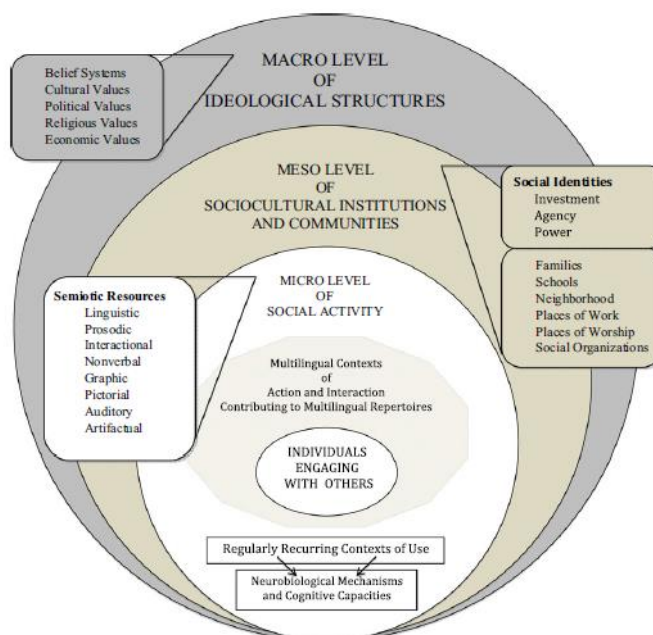
Appendices

Appendix A

The Wheel of Emotions (Plutchik, 2001, p. 349)
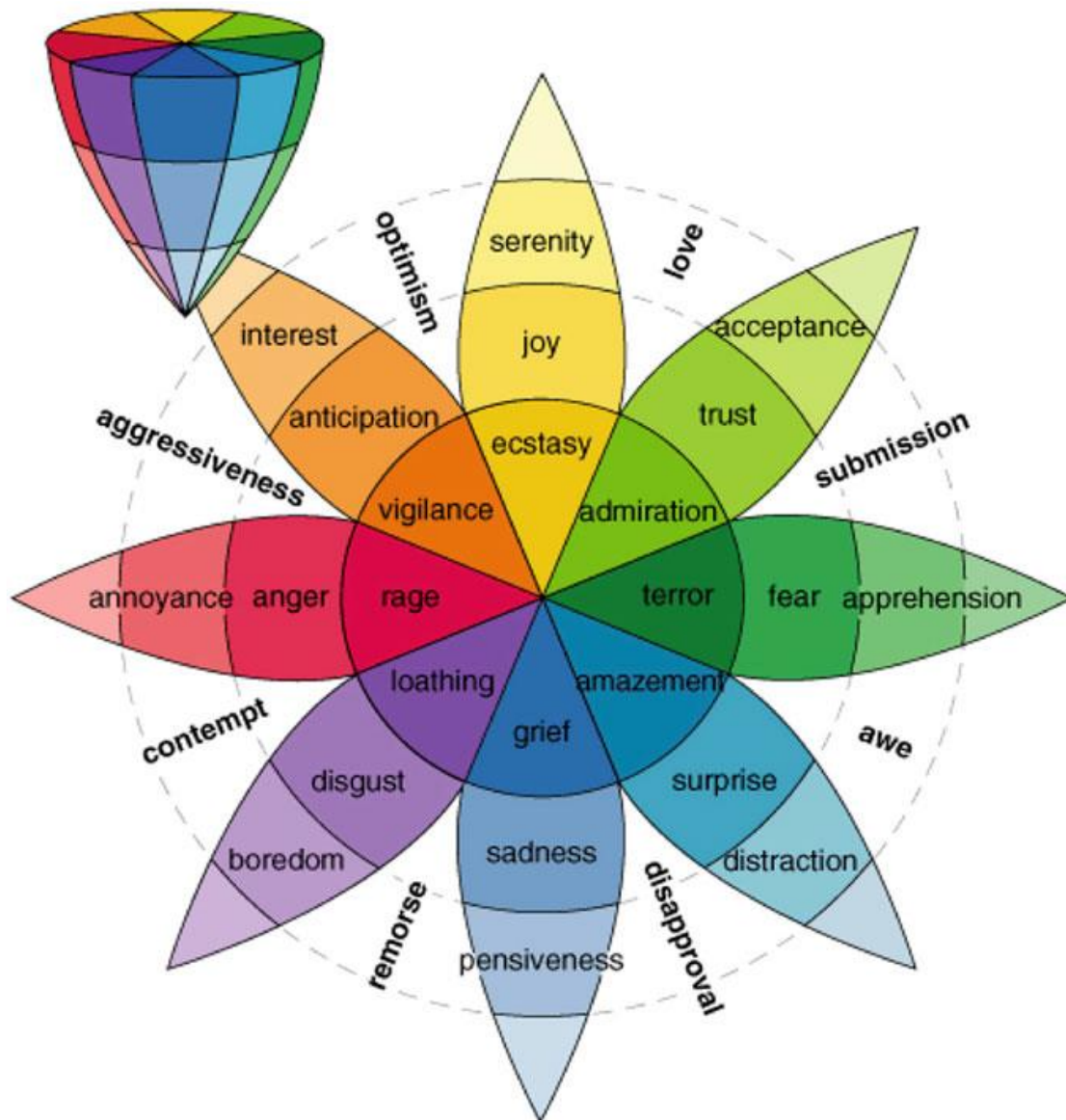
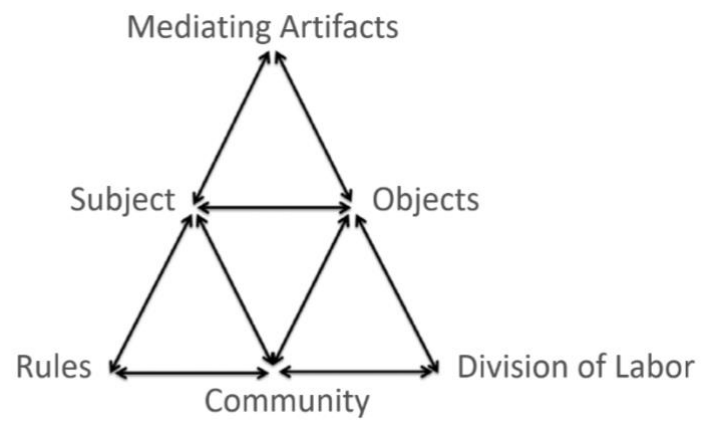*Appendix B*

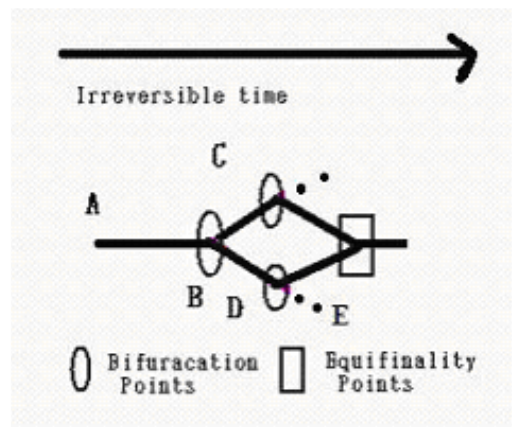A Transdisciplinary Framework by Douglas Fir Group (2016, p. 25)

Appendix C

Activity Theory and its Components (Engeström, 2001)

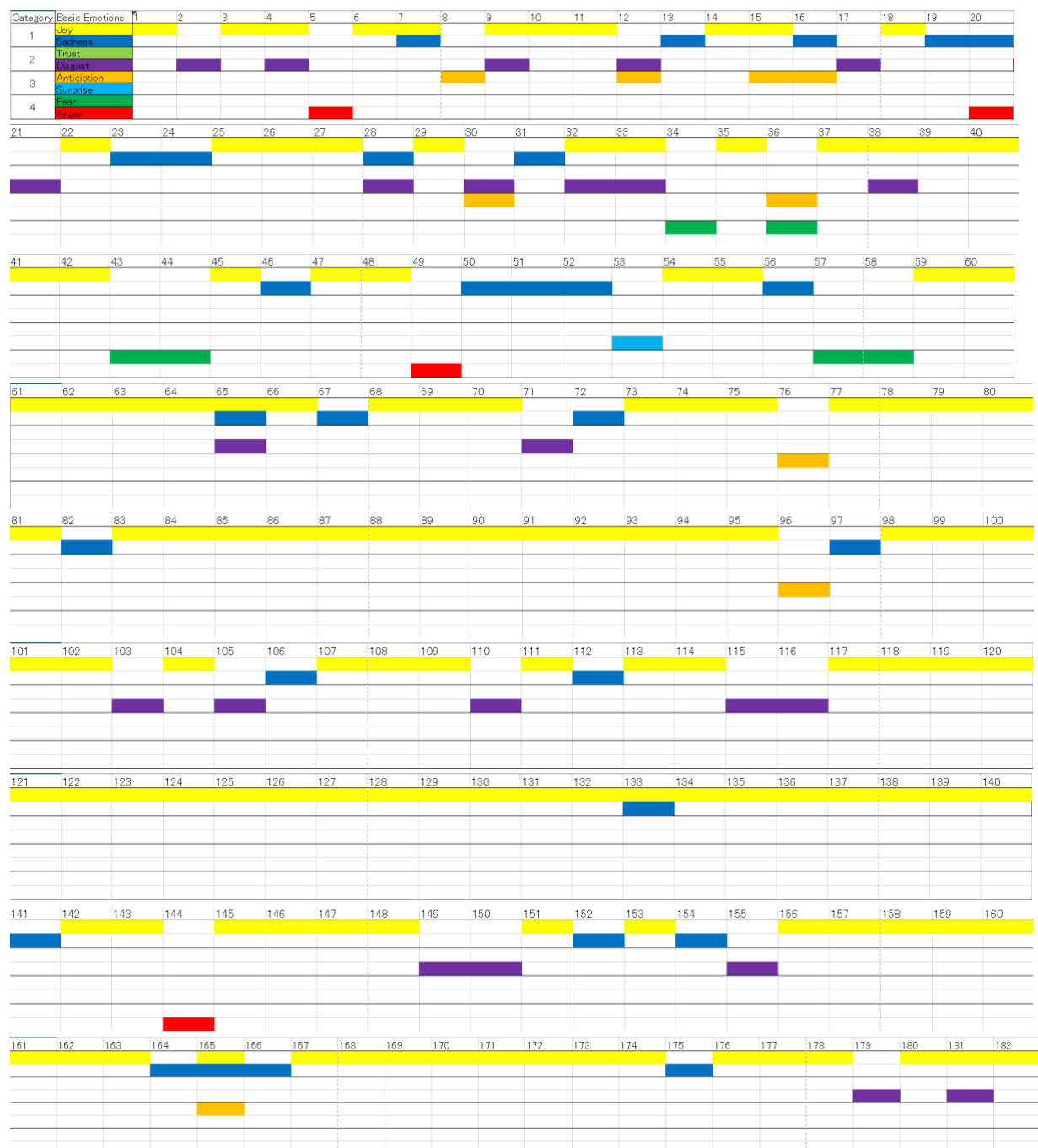*Appendix D*

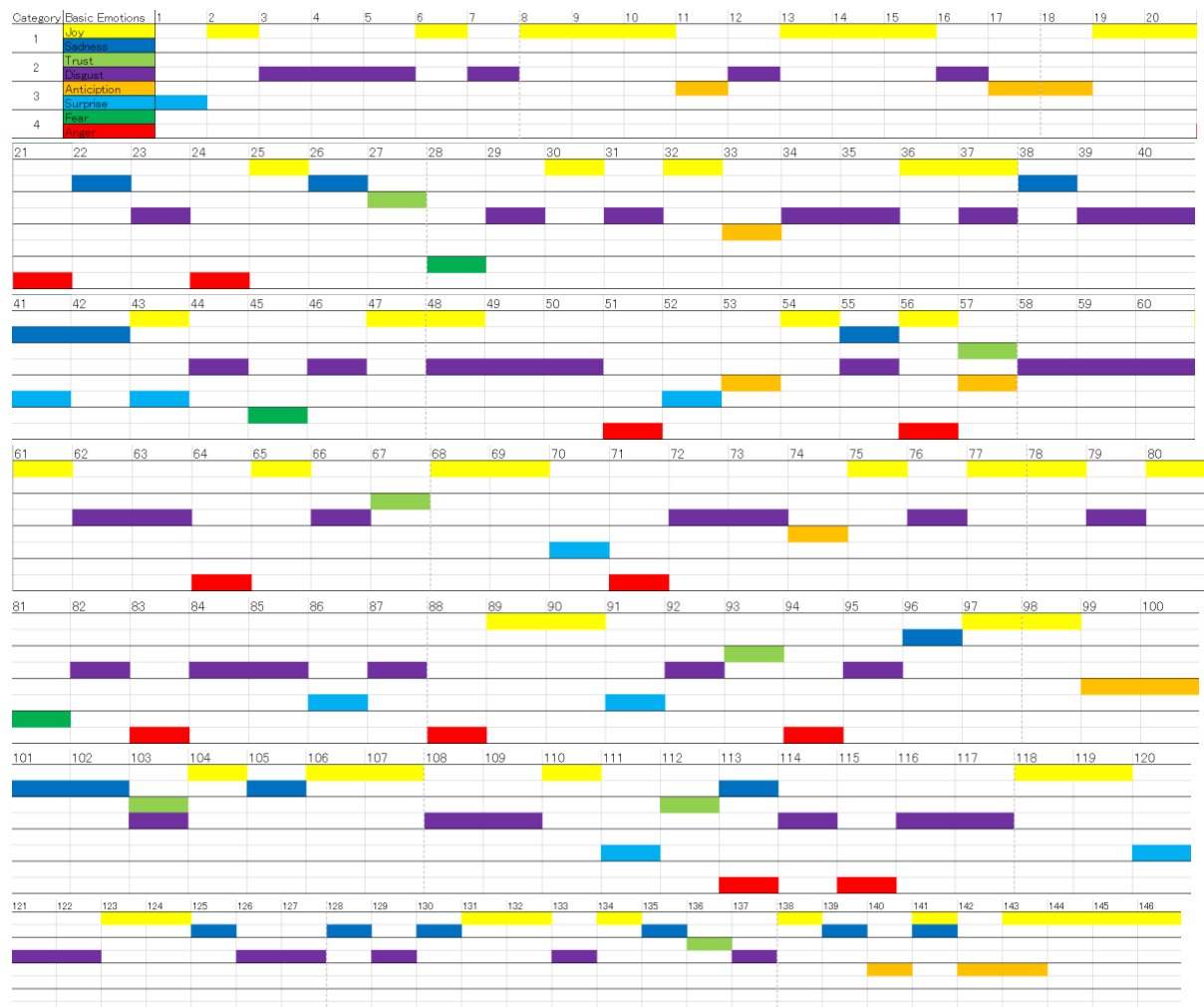Trajectory Equifinality Model (Sato, Yasuda, Kanzaki & Valsiner, 2014, p. 97)

Appendix E

Detailed Summary of Types and Dynamics of Emotions in Ai's Case

Appendix F

Detailed Summary of Types and Dynamics of Emotions in Yu's Case

Exploring Third-Age Foreign Language Learning from the Well-being Perspective: Work in Progress

Dorota Matsumoto, Waseda University

Abstract

The third age in the life of many people in developed countries is considered to be a culmination; time for personal achievement and fulfilment after retirement. While much discussion is focused on the challenges of an ageing society, there are also opportunities. Popularity of language courses among third-agers, who do not seek further career advancement nor wish to live abroad, indicates that there are other aspects of learning a foreign language than attaining linguistic proficiency. This qualitative study will investigate third-agers' perceptions, behaviours and emotions experienced when learning a foreign language, and how such experience contributes to their well-being. Through the lens of positive psychology, especially by exploring the concept of *savouring*, this study will aim to gain insights into how third-agers conceptualize their learning experience, what their savouring capacities are, and what impact these have on their overall well-being. First, an in-depth interview was conducted with a senior lifelong language learner. In the study that will follow, more data will be collected in a snowball fashion through personal connections.

Keywords: third-age, FL learning, well-being, savouring, positive psychology

This short paper represents a summary of a newly begun work-in-progress study, exploring the impact that foreign language learning in the third age has on the learner's well-being. There are three main sets of overarching questions this research aims to answer. The first set or group of questions is about the names, labels, and general understanding of the concept of third age. The second set addresses third-age foreign language learners' perspectives and experiences, as well as their motivations and visions. And finally, the third group of questions focuses on the savouring capacities the third-agers have, and how their appreciation of the enjoyment of language learning contributes to their overall well-being.

What's in a Name? or Terminology and Concepts

Conventionally, one's life has been seen as a three-stage endeavour; with the first stage characterized by dependency, immaturity and learning, the second stage by responsibilities, contribution to society and career, and the third stage when one retires. With expanded life expectancy, the number of healthy retirees, so-called third-agers, has been growing exponentially. The terms *third age* and *third-agers* were introduced in 1980s by

Peter Laslett, who divided the life of a person in a developed country into four ages with the third age being a culmination: an era for personal achievement and fulfilment after retirement. The philosophical underpinnings however go back to ancient India, where a harmonious life, which was believed to be lived for 100 years, was divided into four stages, so-called Ashrams: Studentship, Householder, Forest Dweller, and Ascetic (Tiwari & Pandey, 2013). From Hinduism to Buddhism, and through Buddhism, these terms were brought to Japan. The third stage, the period in which I am interested, is known as *rinjuki*. As at this stage the research is being conducted in Japan and the interviewees are mostly Japanese from the large cohort of the first baby boomers, it is crucial to understand the underlying way of thinking. This hyphenated word, third-ager, however, is still rather a term that is used out of convenience. Generally, it is not instantly understood yet, so what should be used remains an intriguing question. I suspect that third-ager will eventually become one word, *thirdager*, as the term teen-ager became teenager in the first half of the 20th century.

Who are These Third-age Language Learners?

In this age of longevity, and of significant demographic changes in society, there is an urgent need to re-conceptualize life as a multi-staged endeavour as opposed to the widely accepted three stages mentioned earlier: learning, career, retirement, with an additional fourth stage, marked by deterioration and death. In the popular and academic literature, the opinion has already been often voiced that the shift to a multi-stage life will emerge (Gratton & Scott, 2017). Nowadays, we not only live longer, we stay healthier for longer. While much discussion is focused on the challenges and threats of an ageing society, there are also opportunities. According to the Hartford Aging index (Research Network on an Aging Society, 2017), which measures the health and well-being of ageing populations in 30 countries, the super-ageing society of Japan ranks first in well-being and second in productivity and engagement. Japan's baby boomers comprise a significant portion of the retirement generation. It is a generation that experienced the post-war recovery and the economic boom, as well as its collapse and recession. Many of them are financially secure and remain active. The popularity of language courses among third-agers, who do not seek further career advancement nor wish to live abroad, indicates that there are other aspects to learning a foreign language than attaining linguistic proficiency. This qualitative study will investigate third-agers' perceptions, behaviours and emotions experienced when learning a foreign language, and how such experience contributes to their well-being. Through the lens of positive psychology, especially by exploring the concept of *savouring* posited by Bryant

and Veroff (2006), this study will aim to gain insights into how third-agers conceptualize their learning experience, what their savouring capacities are, and what impact learning a foreign language, including savouring their learning experience, has on their overall well-being.

Theoretical Underpinnings

At this point, regarding the theoretical and conceptual framework, this is indeed work in progress. I am still a theoretical agnostic. By this I mean that I do not think there is only one theoretical framework that I should apply. However, having said that, I do want to examine my research questions through the lens of positive psychology. I am especially intrigued by the concept of savouring. Bryant and Veroff (2012) posited that "people have capacities to attend to, appreciate, and enhance the positive experiences in their lives" (p. 2). This deliberate attending to positive feelings and experiences that are making them feel good they call savouring. Time plays an extremely important role in savouring. Although Bryant and Veroff stress that savouring is an experience or a phenomenon of the here and now, besides savouring the present experience, we can enjoy reminiscing, as well as anticipating. Assuming that learning a FL triggers savouring, I am interested in whether the third-age FL learners prefer certain types of savouring, and whether and how those types positively influence their well-being.

There are, of course, other dimensions related to the third-age language learning, per se, that call for attention such as motivating factors: social and recreational (Singleton & Ryan, 2004), or "anti-aging" (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013). These will also be highly connected with the psychological aspects of the whole language learning endeavour in later stages of life.

What Do the Third-age Language Learners Savour?

Well-being is multi-dimensional and pursued in many different ways. However, it is well established that having a certain level of meaning in one's life is crucial. Language learning is clearly rewarding for third-agers, adding to their sense of meaning in their life. "Why and how is that so?", together with "What do third-agers savour, when learning a foreign language? and "How do the savouring capacities and appreciating the enjoyment of language learning contribute to their overall well-being?" are the further questions to be explored in this research. To start answering them, first, an in-depth interview was conducted with a senior lifelong language learner. Later, more data were and are to be collected in

interviews with other third-age foreign language learners in a snowball fashion through personal connections.

Pilot Interview

So far, I have conducted seven semi-structured interviews with third-age foreign language learners, four females and three males, age 76, 68, 62, 69, 56, 73 and 70, learning one or two of the following languages: Chinese, English, French, Italian, and Russian. Regarding the 56-year old interviewee, he seems relatively young to be called a third-ager. However, the third age here is bound to a life stage rather than to an actual chronological age. I interviewed him also because his motivation to learn a foreign language was not connected to his career or other pragmatic necessity. Due to limited space in this article, I focus on the first interview with a 76-year-old female, who still works as a part-time English language instructor at a private university for several hours a week. Her first foreign language, which she studied and acquired to a high proficiency level, was English, which she eventually went on to teach. The interview was about 40 minutes long. We talked about her language learning history and initial language-learning motivation. With several questions I explored her self-concepts and motivating/demotivating factors in studying the languages of her passion, French and recently Italian. And in the last part of the interview, I also aimed to capture her behaviours and practices with a focus on her savouring beliefs and capacities. The recorded interview was transcribed verbatim, translated from Japanese into English, and now I am in the process of analysing the raw data by intense open coding, i.e. I am applying conceptual labels, at this point with the aim of grouping them together in meaningful categories and subcategories.

The first stage of analysis is already revealing several interesting points. Eve's (pseudonym) motivation to study English, her first foreign language, developed from a simple admiration of Western culture in her youth. Born into a middle-class family with a solid lifestyle, as she puts it, at the end of World War II, Eve received her education in private schools, from primary and middle school to university, and her first contact with English was via her teacher, a missionary from the United States. Eve remembers the joy she experienced when she could understand English or make herself understood in English, or when she was praised by her English teacher. At university, Eve encountered the French language, fell in love with it, and apart from a break of several years, when she started a family and prioritized rearing her children, studied the language for more than 40 years. Fast forward to the present, she enjoys French on an almost daily basis, whether it is in the class

she attends once a week, or while reading, listening to, or watching something in French on her own. As mentioned earlier, the temporal dimension is an important aspect of savouring. Whether it is being fully aware of the present, when she actively enjoys her French classes with other long-time classmates

> *"I definitely go! I go. Yes, yes, even if I'm going to be late, I go.* (laughter)*...Everyone is quite late, but comes...the teacher understands...just says Bon Jour* (laughter)*... I'm quite a forward person, right? So, in the French class, when the teacher asks who wants to read* [out loud]*, I'm the first one to raise my hand.* (laughter)*"*

or remembering the past, when she recalls her learning successes

> *"...I'm good at pronunciation... when I took it* [French] *as a second language in university, the teacher would always praise me, and thanks to that I loved pronouncing... it might have been just vain of me, I'm not sure..."*

or anticipating the future, when she imagines herself encountering different ways of thinking

> *"...exploring world that is different from your own, that is very enjoyable...in a foreign language. Being surprised by things that for me as a Japanese would be unthinkable...you know?"*,

Eve seems to have a great capacity to engage in all three types of savouring.

Singleton, among others, points out the need of more research on third-age learning in general, and more research focusing on older adults' capacity for and benefits from additional language learning (Singleton, 2018, p. 27). One way to contribute to our understanding of what it means to learn a FL in later stages of life is to examine the impact of such endeavour through the lens of positive psychology. I want to close this short paper with a beautiful quote from Eve's interview. While talking about her foreign language learning, when asked to describe her immersion in moments of appreciation while in contact with a foreign language, Eve eloquently replies:

> *"Ah...when I watch a play, or a movie [in a foreign language]...* [Hmm] *...I think about how much I understood, and from there I imagine...I fly to the world of imagination...It's the same with music, isn't it? You listen to a piece of music, and when you think it's nice, you listen to it again and again..."* [Yes] *...You're immersed...at such moments. So, when I'm moved by a story, I think to myself, wow...* (laughter) [Yes, yes] *I absorb it, and enjoy it."*

Notes on the Contributor

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Exploring Facilitative and Debilitative Spaces: A Shift in Focus from Classrooms to Learning Systems

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Physical classrooms are often overlooked in educational research. While teachers, students, materials, and methodologies have all been the foci of studies for many years, research into the spaces in which instructed second language acquisition takes place is, for the most part, absent in the literature. In Thomas (2018a, 2018b), I argued that exploring these spaces and the affordances they provide is a necessary endeavor if we are to offer a holistic view of learning. It should be noted that my discussion of learning spaces refers to formal education settings—classrooms—and not self-access centers. However, I believe that relevant work in the field of self-access learning can indeed inform classroom design in instructed settings. Therefore, I use this work to support my discussion. As a work-in-progress report, this short paper will first describe my work up until this point, and second, explain how my ideas about learning spaces have transformed over time. I will discuss a new direction in which this and other studies may take. This new direction involves viewing classroom spaces as complex language learning systems and harnessing successful strategies students use within these systems to allow learning to take place. This focus on learning spaces as complete systems, as opposed to just their physical characteristics, has implications for how students can be better prepared to learn beyond the classroom.

The Psychology of the Language Learning Classroom

One idealistic goal of modern formal education is that it should prepare students to learn beyond the classroom. Whether it actually does so is another story. Nevertheless, classrooms send messages to students (and teachers) about what is and is not possible; how they can and should behave; and how learning takes place. Oblinger (2006) describes this as the *built pedagogy* of the room. The design and resources of a space will often communicate just as much or more to students as a teacher will. For example, desks in neat rows facing forward send an implicit message that students are to look and to listen, not to move around or interact. In this common scenario, the affordances, which Williams, Mercer, and Ryan (2015) define as "[t]he perceived resources in the environment that learners can interact with in order to learn" (p. 149), rely on a teacher to be constructed, arranged, and disseminated. In

Thomas (2018a, 2018b) I reported on an investigation of the affordances present in primary-level classrooms and compared them with various tertiary-level settings. This line of work began in Osment and Thomas (2017), where my colleague and I designed a basic rubric for assessing classroom affordances. The *Classroom Affordance Assessment Rubric* (CAAR) is little more than a crude tool for teachers and students to assess the affordances of their classrooms and is not recommended for serious researchers. However, its aims are still relevant in that it helps to stimulate discussion regarding classroom affordances by assessing the four aspects of *Affordance Noticeability*, *Affordance Accessibility*, *Affordance Transference*, and *Affordance Variety*. In piloting the rubric, we found that in all of the classrooms we examined, rooms designed for younger learners contained more, and more varied, affordances. In general, the affordances present in classrooms for younger learners were more noticeable (e.g. easily identifiable areas or stations for specific activities or skill development), more accessible (e.g. open shelves at a level that could be accessed freely by children), and had greater potential to be utilized in new and novel ways (e.g. a designated area to sit informally, interact with others, and engage in collaborative learning). It was clear to us then, after exploring tertiary-level classrooms, that "we [as educators] have failed to consider the communication potential of the classroom itself, and the authentic resources for interaction it has to offer," (van Lier, 1988, p. 30).

We argued that much useful information could be gleaned for tertiary-level classrooms by observing those at the primary level. Primary-level learning spaces afforded what Tudor (2001) describes as the classroom *as* communication—providing learning opportunities by its mere design and outfitting. We contended that affordance-rich classrooms are typically not multipurpose (they are specialized for the subject), need not rely on expensive technology, and are able to accommodate a wide-range of learning styles. Most notably, we maintained that learning can take place in these rooms even when a teacher is not present, due to the affordances of the room itself. Thus, we considered affordance-rich classrooms *facilitative spaces*; those with fewer perceived resources and that relied heavily on a teacher to 'provide the learning' were considered *debilitative spaces* (Thomas, 2018a).

Generally, those interested in self-access learning design have not made this same mistake as those in formal education settings in underestimating the effect the design of a room may have on learning. For example, Edlin (2016), notes that the physical characteristics of self-access learning contexts "may play a larger relative role in learning and activity for a particular space, thus underscoring the importance of good design in those spaces to create effective places for learning" (p. 120). Edlin's reasoning, which is echoed by others in his

field, is mainly due to the absence of a teacher to lead the learning in a self-access context, compared with a traditional classroom where a teacher is usually present. Edlin (2016) provides six design principles to enhance self-access learning spaces. A learning environment should elicit a positive emotional response, feel safe, enable social interaction, be comfortable, increase accessibility, and remain flexible. It would be hard to argue against the idea that these very principles should, and could, also be applied to formal learning environments. In comparing Edlin's principles with the results from our preliminary studies, it is evident that the primary-level classrooms (which we considered facilitative spaces) generally embodied these principles while most of the tertiary-level spaces were severely lacking. Nevertheless, there is more to be considered than just the room and the resources.

Learning from Studies on Self-Access Centers

The main benefit of facilitative spaces is that they have the potential to afford and promote learner autonomy and self-regulation, because they enable systems at different levels to interact (individual, group, materials, physical space, and so on). However, learning how to regulate these systems successfully requires scaffolding, as it could be detrimental to the learning process if the ability to be successfully self-directed is presupposed (Thomas & Rose, 2019). Regarding self-access centers, Edlin (2016) notes that "users may find themselves relatively lost without any sort of prescription or recommendation […] it would behoove educators and designers to develop learning environments which allow for some guidance to learners that need it" (p. 119). In evaluating the effectiveness of a self-access center in Hong Kong, Datwani-Choy (2016) found that more human support was needed to improve the quality of learning. Moreover, learners were unclear regarding their language learning objectives. In a formal education setting, a teacher would be expected to make these objectives clear. In the UK, Mar-Molinero and Lewis (2016) discovered that many students struggle to become truly autonomous. The authors found flipped learning to be successful in their intervention. Classroom sessions provided necessary structure, while the learners worked autonomously using an online self-access center. Mar-Molinero and Lewis emphasize the important role of the educator, since resources themselves cannot provide scaffolding and support.

An argument can be made then for bringing elements of successful self-access centers to the classroom, creating a facilitative space. Herrera Cerón and García Gámez (2017) argue that a link must be established between the classroom and the self-access learning center to maximize learning effectiveness. Most notably, they contend that developing self-regulation

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is a gradual process that can be aided by a skillful teacher or learning adviser. According to Herrera Cerón and García Gámez, teachers set learning goals and advisers aid students in achieving those goals through materials selection, strategy instruction, and proper planning; "[i]t is the teacher within the classroom setting who is able to make ongoing observations related to students' participation, exam scores, and homework completion, and can identify students' weaknesses as a group." (p. 40). Mayeda, MacKenzie, and Nusplinger (2016) also found success when integrating elements of self-access learning into formal English courses. One main goal was for students to become more autonomous learners. However, when required advising sessions became voluntary, the center experienced a drop from a 24.0% booking rate to just 8.8%. The authors state that it may take multiple sessions for learners to realize the benefit of self-access advising sessions, and many students do not voluntarily invest the time to experience them. Perhaps the regularity of formal classroom meetings could provide the necessary encounters with autonomous learning concepts to develop a habit.

Nakai (2016) argues that learners must be provided with spaces that allow them to "explore the boundaries and possibilities of that space" (p. 168). However, in his study, there were just two self-directed learning sessions for every nine formal language classes, and he attributes much of the early success of the self-directed learning sessions to the scaffolding he provided. The shift to autonomous learning was gradual; yet, the learners were eventually able to exercise autonomy both in a classroom setting and beyond. Horai and Wright (2016) provide solutions for teachers who want to encourage independent learning but do not have access to advisers. The authors believe self-access centers should support both the development of autonomy and the language curriculum. They state that independent learning may by intimidating for students who are used to following a teacher's lead. Therefore, bringing elements of self-access into the formal classroom could create a smooth transition between the two environments and establish a reciprocal relationship between them. It is important to note that only two students out of thirty in Horai and Wright's (2016) study continued self-directed learning outside of their required hours as part of their course. So, as with Mayeda et al. (2016) above, integration of self-access elements into the formal classroom and the regular meetings it provides could help to solve these commonly cited setbacks regarding voluntary participation. Of course, we must strike a balance between the level of integration among self-access centers (and/or their characteristics) and formal education settings; too much of one could inhibit the other (Thornton, 2016).

If we acknowledge that simply providing learners with an outfitted space and the freedom to be autonomous may not be enough to ensure effective learning takes place (Benson, 2001), then focusing on spaces in isolation, as I have reported above and in Thomas (2018a, 2018b), may not be enough; a more inclusive view that highlights the interconnectedness of various dynamic elements now seems more appropriate. This shift in focus from purely physical spaces and resources to a view of interrelated systems represents the "in-progress" nature of this work.

Future Directions

Exploring language learning systems

Murray and Lamb (2018) describe a language learning system as "the learners comprised of their various nested systems (cognitive, biological, affective, etc.), their teachers, the materials, the spaces they move across and the places for learning that emerge as they interact with and within these spaces" (p. 258). The authors recommend complexity theory as a theoretical lens through which to view these interrelated systems (see also Murray, 2017, 2018). This could potentially answer some of the questions posed above as we attempt to determine best practices in preparing learners to learn both in and beyond the classroom, in formal and informal environments.

One way to enhance a space beyond its physical characteristics and resources is by examining the strategies students use to learn successfully in that space. This is not new in the self-access literature, as field insiders have praised the use of learning strategies and strategic learning (e.g. Cooker & Torpey, 2004; Hobbs & Dofs, 2016). Much like Murray and Lamb's (2018) argument for complexity thinking regarding learning spaces and learning systems, the field of learning strategies has begun to move in a similar direction, embracing complexity (e.g. Oxford, 2017; Oxford, Lavine, Amerstorfer, 2018). This view conceptualizes strategies as nested systems, with strategy usage affecting and being affected by individual differences and contextual factors. Because research on both learning spaces and learning strategies is often linked with learner autonomy, there is room for mutually beneficial studies to be conducted. Hurd and Lewis' (2008) edited volume on language learning strategies in independent settings calls attention to the dearth of research on this area and attempts to fill this gap, a gap that I feel is still present over a decade later. Although my interest is in formal classroom contexts, affordance-rich independent settings, such as self-access centers, offer a wealth of information regarding how a link between self-access and instructed settings can be established. This link is necessitated by my push to bring

independent learning affordances to formal education classrooms in contexts where a separate self-access learning center may not be available. This push for integration brings together the characteristics of the affordance-rich classrooms at the primary level from Thomas (2018a) and Edlin's (2016) principles for self-access learning space design. As I have argued above, solely viewing the space and resources the space contains does little for us in understanding best practices in formal language education where we can expect a teacher to be present. There is a need to establish clearly defined methods for how teachers can best utilize affordance-rich, facilitative spaces—perhaps by scaffolding, monitoring, and assessing strategy usage. There is also a need to change the typically negative view of formal education settings to one that helps to develop learner autonomy and self-regulation, as concepts from strategic learning and formal strategy instruction can enhance learning in truly independent settings.

In Summation

In attempting to investigate classrooms in isolation, assuming that autonomous learning through self-regulation would emerge if the room were outfitted to afford it, a number of potentially important dynamic factors were overlooked. While I still believe in the utility of an affordance-rich, facilitative space, there is a need to develop this idea further by investigating the specific strategies that learners deploy and their sources of strategic behavior and self-/other-regulation (see Thomas & Rose, 2019). In both independent settings (e.g. Edlin, 2016; Hurd & Lewis, 2008) and formal settings (Thomas, 2018a, 2018b), "the ability to self-regulate requires scaffolding" (Mak & Wong, 2018, p. 12), and teachers can play a powerful role in this process. By integrating an informed *other* with *self*-access principles, affordances and effective strategies can be harnessed, and all learners can be prepared to learn autonomously both in and beyond the classroom. Therefore, a facilitative space is one that encompasses all of these aspects, while a debilitative space does not. More research into these complete language learning systems is needed.

Notes on the Contributor

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Conference Review of Psychology of Language Learning 3, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan (June 7-10, 2018)

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Abstract

This article reports on the third Psychology of Language Learning (PLL3) conference which was held at Waseda University in Tokyo June 7-10, 2018. This edition of the biennial event marked the launch of the International Association for the Psychology of Language Learning (IAPLL) as the host following its formation in 2016. The stated aims of IAPLL are to foster research, hold conferences, issue publications, cooperate with related organizations and carry on other activities for those interested in the study of the psychology of language learning throughout the world. In addition to invited plenary speakers, the call for papers sourced symposia, poster presentations, and papers under the theme "Stretching Boundaries." Two work-in-progress sessions were held as well as an early-career researcher showcase. This paper looks broadly at the conference contents, its specific events, and the overall experience for the attendees.

Keywords: language learning, psychology, motivation, teaching

The success of PLL3 can be expressed using keywords often found in research into language learning motivation - words such as identity, agency, and currents. From the personalized conference bags using Japanese calligraphy to space being set aside for informal chats, PLL3 ensured plenty of opportunities for professionals new and old to the field to meet and exchange ideas. There are two main purposes for writing this conference review. One, as is tradition, is to provide an account of what actually happened during PLL3, organized by the relatively new International Association for the Psychology of Language Learning (http://www.iapll.com/). This world-class event was action packed and the four days went by quickly, so our co-authored summary is at times thin. For this, we apologize. To check specific presentation abstracts, please go to <http://www.pll3-tokyo2018.com/programmes/>

and download the conference handbook pdf and read the extended 3-page synopses in the conference proceedings edited by Mynard and Brady (2018). A second reason for writing this review is to provide our reaction to the conference and be constructive in highlighting what we especially enjoyed or felt could be improved. Our hope is that some of the energy from past PLL conferences, which was clearly felt in Tokyo, can be an additional resource for what is to take place in Nova Scotia in June 2020.

Early-Career Research Showcase

In the late afternoon on Thursday June 7th, early-career researchers were afforded the opportunity to report on completed or ongoing research projects. Three large rooms were set aside, in which presenters were allotted 15 minutes to present, followed by 5 minutes for Q&A. The most popular theme seemed to be how various factors related to motivation, such as identity, context, and agency, are connected to WTC (Willingness to Communicate). The variety of contexts explored, such as cram schools, study abroad experiences, and regular university classes also added to the take-home values for participants.

Of the four presentations observed, the presenters were well prepared, if understandably nervous, possibly as each room had at least one big name in attendance from the field of psychology in language learning. It was therefore unfortunate, though understandable, that most presentations seemed to end with a rush by the presenter to complete on time, only to be followed by an awkward pause of silence. This criticism aside, this format is one of the most important aspects that should be included at many more conferences as it provides an opportunity for a group of like-minded individuals to make suggestions on real research problems or issues. This unique format holds true potential and should be encouraged in future PLL conferences.

Plenaries

There were five plenaries on a diverse range of topics from recognized leaders in the field. As reviewed below, in the talks attended, the roles were clearly taken seriously, the

themes were covered expertly, and new insights were provided in each. For those interested in reading more about the plenary talks by Dr. Ryan and Dr. Ortega, please see the review of PLL3 written by Ping and Liu (2018).

Following the opening plenary by Richard M. Ryan, who elaborated on self-determination theory and how teachers and their styles and strategies can foster (or undermine) improved autonomous engagement in their learners and the positive consequences known to follow, Ema Ushioda asked us a question. "Whose interests does language learning motivation research serve?" She then proceeded to walk us through her appeal for a more ethical agenda in the field as we were asked to consider the wider social purposes of the research we do for the academic community and for our own instrumental motivation. To frame the arc of this theme, Dr. Ushioda quoted from another plenary speaker, Lourdes Ortega, and her 2005 paper in the *Modern Language Journal*, "For What and for Whom Is Our Research? The Ethical as Transformative Lens in Instructed SLA." Throughout her talk and in closing, Dr. Ushioda challenged the field of L2 motivation, and us as individuals, to consider a socially responsive direction in our scholarly efforts in researching and theorizing about motivation, while also not forgetting about the needs and interests of language teachers. This final point was made very salient with a citation noting that papers on pedagogy in top-ranked journals are down, having been relegated to more practice-focused publications. A sobering statistic eased some by the sake tasting that followed.

Dr. Mimi Bong hails from South Korea and her talk was on a rather counterintuitive topic, the detrimental effects of ability validation goals. The plenary was personable, yet professional and Dr. Bong clearly has extensive experience in this area. One barrier to fully appreciating the talk more was that more than a general understanding of motivational research was needed to understand fully what she was communicating. As language teachers, it would have been perhaps more beneficial for a bit less foregrounding of her previous findings in lieu of more practical teaching implications. This criticism stated, when others in attendance were asked, their response was quite different. For example, one colleague

enjoyed her talk immensely and found it both interesting (given South Korea's emphasis on the importance on testing) and informative.

Perhaps the biggest name in language motivation research, Zoltan Dörnyei dealt with an area that is seldom addressed in motivation research, perseverance. Note that Richard M. Ryan had talked of "persistence" in his opening plenary and it is this kind of awareness, interplay, and synthesis across the field by the featured speakers that can richly enhance the quality of such focused events. Dr. Dörnyei's fluency with the topic was further enhanced with his obvious joy of teaching it to the rest of us. Using the car as a vehicle for explanation, he took his audience on a journey. When at last he arrived at his notion of perseverance, the route which we had followed meant that we had the vocabulary and background to better understand why the topic will most likely see greater coverage in journals that are of interest to language learning professionals.

Poster Sessions

At many conferences, poster presentations are almost an afterthought with an inconvenient location and other activities scheduled at the same time meaning that many poster presenters see few if any people. This was not the case at PLL3 as the posters were held very near the presentation rooms. As a result, it was easy to see the location and be reminded of the poster sessions. The four poster session slots each ran for 90 minutes, half of which coincided with a coffee break offering ample time to visit the posters, review the previous session, or just "conference" and mingle. As good as the scheduling was, however, the physical layout was rather disappointing. In an attempt to accommodate the stellar response to the call for presentations, some delegates who had been rejected for a presentation may have been given the option of presenting a poster. The result was that each poster session was extremely crowded. Talking with poster presenters, the general feeling was one of being overwhelmed as each poster session was packed with interested attendees. In fact, each day there were so many people that it was actually difficult to get around the narrow space to see what was on display.

Logistics aside, the themes of the posters accepted for PLL3 could be clustered in three broad, but highly relevant, categories: positive psychology and emotion, teacher training, and self-directed learning. The latter, likely of greatest interest to *SiSAL Journal* readers included specific topics such as learner behaviors and autonomy, learner beliefs and attitudes, and L2 selves as well as reports on language advisory sessions, learner history narratives, and motivation, identity, and self-efficacy in various learning contexts or modes. At PLL3, posters were also used effectively to present research ranging from purely qualitative or quantitative based studies to those in which a mixed methods approach was used. Elliot's (Day 4, Poster Session 4) focus of metaphor use by learners was particularly innovative as it provided a vehicle by which to better understand changes in language by learners over time. Sponseller and Kabir (Day 3, Poster Session 3) illustrated how quantitative studies continue to be a source of new avenues of research. Utilizing the WTC literature, the two researchers attempted to validate a modified version of a standardized checklist to better gauge the experiences of students who had studied overseas. Given the importance of validation studies in psychology in language learning coupled with a lack of statistical knowledge for many language teaching professionals, the poster format enabled the two presenters to answer questions not only on their topic but also on how validation studies are conducted.

Symposia

In the afternoons on Friday, June 8, and Saturday, June 9, there were time slots for Symposia and Work-in-progress presentations which dealt with a variety of hot topics in PLL. In a Friday session, Christina Gkonou demonstrated the scenario-based questionnaire MYE (Managing Your Emotions) developed together with her co-researcher, Rebecca Oxford (who was unfortunately unable to attend), as a tool to assess emotion-regulation strategies used by foreign language learners. Atsushi Mizumoto and Osamu Takeuchi of Kansai University profiled quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques through

Bayesian methods and text mining to better inform teachers and researchers of the psychological aspects of learning strategy use.

One Saturday symposium concerned how to (simply) research complexity. The presenters (Richard Pinner, Richard J. Sampson, Joseph Falout, and Tomoko Yashima) illustrated ways they had utilized simple tools to research their context. Each presented their ideas by first giving a brief introduction and then engaged the audience with questions. Given how much teachers like to talk, the presenters created a natural bridge between the abstract and the practical. They scaffolded complexity as a theoretical concept that has real classroom application. This inclusivity meant a greater engagement on a topic that most find difficult to use.

Also on Saturday, Kyle Talbot chaired a symposium which brought together the expertise of Elaine Horwitz, Phil Hiver, Sarah Mercer, Tammy Gregersen, and Peter MacIntyre on the topic of language teacher well-being. The active Q&A that followed suggested this coordinated effort on anxiety in teachers' work, what exemplary teachers do and how they learn, control and regulation for emotional well-being, positive psychology, and the role of the teacher as mentor had really hit its mark with the audience.

Concurrent Presentations

One means to judge the success of a presentation is by the questions it generates. Given this simple rubric, the concurrent presentations at PLL3 were a resounding success. Each of the presentations attended were conducted by professionals who had previously published papers, chapters, and books on their topics. The depth of experience showed as each presenter clearly understood the research approach and outcomes from the process intimately and was able to explain what had been done in the 25 minutes allotted. The talks generated interesting questions and with great collegiality many presenters could be found talking with attendees in the hallways afterwards.

It was not a stretch to find something new to learn from each talk with aspects of specific interest to *SiSAL Journal* readers interested in supporting learners outside of the

classroom such as: Martin Lamb's claim that tests crowd out intrinsic motives, the ethnographic study by Alastair Henry into online media production in a blogging project where performance of the self becomes the message and the mode of communication (which unfortunately had the wrong blurb printed with no errata sheet provided), and Miriam-Tashma Baum's discovery of a link between commitment to language learning and the quality of autobiographical reasoning found in language learning narratives. Among several presenters based in Japan, Marc Helgesen's "10 minutes for happiness" handout, Tim Murphey's "social testing," and the overview of a course to develop self-directed learning skills at Kanda University of International Studies as introduced by Scott Shelton-Strong and Jo Mynard provided immediately useful takeaways and food for thought.

Last Word

In this review, we have tried to convey a snapshot of the third Psychology in Language Learning conference that took place on June 2018 at Waseda University in Tokyo. From creating presentation opportunities for newcomers to the field to providing a platform for experts to offer guidance, all participants should have come away with renewed interest in how psychology could be used to better understand language learning and teaching.

Regarding the conference format, there are a few recommendations that we hope the PLL4 conference (and organizers in general) will consider when they plan their events.

1. The early-career research showcase - please consider structuring it to better help researchers who have never presented before. Ideas for this could range from the researcher nominating areas of desired feedback to possibly adding time for discussion among the attendees before the Q&A.
2. Encourage plenary speakers to provide a reading list when they submit an abstract. This could seed better questions and would aid in the uptake from each of the talks. In

addition, it would also help to archive and spread knowledge after the conference on highly relevant topics such as PLL.

3. Scaffold interaction, such as was on open display in each symposium. Teacher-Researchers like to talk.

4. Make sure there is enough time and room for people to mingle and circulate, in particular, space for those attending the poster presentations. This increases interaction and, as a consequence, engagement in the event.

5. If a decision about concurrent presentations needs to be made regarding quality as opposed to quantity, please consider quality to be the guiding criterion.

6. Show off that Maritime culture - both of us are proud Canadians. Part of what made PLL3 exciting was how the organizers included local aspects from Japan. Examples of this could be seen from the use of Japanese calligraphy on conference bags, the breaking of the *sake* barrel on Thursday, to the selection of daily lunch boxes (included in the conference fees), and in a metropolis like Tokyo the coordinated shuttle buses to the Conference Dinner with fresh Tsukiji market seafood at the iconic Andy's Fish restaurant. Please show the attendees what is novel to the area and in the case of PLL4 why Nova Scotia, Canada is such an incredible place.

Notes on the Contributors

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