STRETCHING

BOUNDARIES

Papers from the Third International Psychology of Language Learning Conference, Tokyo, Japan. 7-10 June, 2018

Edited by Jo Mynard & Imelda K. Brady

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International Association for the Psychology of Language Learning (IAPLL)

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FOREWORD

Stephen Ryan, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan

It is my great pleasure to introduce this collection of papers emerging from the *Third International Conference for the Psychology of Language Learning* (PLL3). Although the written word can never fully capture the raw energy and excitement that occurs during face-to-face conference interactions, the various contributions to this volume give some indication as to the theoretical scope and academic rigour that characterised the event.

PLL3 was held at Waseda University, Tokyo from June 7 to June 10, 2018, and was attended by over 350 people from 31 different countries. The conference has now established itself as an international event and, as someone involved from the beginning, it has been a huge thrill to watch PLL expand and mature to its current status in such a short period of time. It has been an enormously exciting, and somewhat unexpected, journey. Looking back to the first PLL conference held in Graz in 2014, it is now amusing to recall that it was only ever intended as a one-off event. At the time of planning that conference we had no idea that it would be the start of something new. In fact, we really had no idea whether anybody would come at all. We need not have worried since, largely due to the energy and passion of the organiser, Sarah Mercer, the conference proved to be a huge success, generating enough energy and good will to carry us forward to a second conference in Finland in 2016.

Thinking about that last sentence, I would now like to immediately contradict myself. My own experience as conference organiser has taught me that, more than anything, the success of the conference depends on the commitment and enthusiasm of the participants. It is my strong belief that much of the commitment and enthusiasm witnessed at all of the PLL gatherings has come from a powerful need for a different kind of academic conference, one in which listening shares equal billing with talking, a conference defined more by cooperation and collaboration than by self-promotion. PLL offers that kind of environment. In the months since the conference, I have been inundated with kind messages from participants thanking me and telling me how inspiring they found the event. Of course, I appreciate such sentiments and people taking the time to share them, but at the same time there is a lingering sense of puzzlement. As organiser, my chief contribution was simply to make sure an appropriate venue was booked for the correct dates; all the inspiring aspects of the conference came from the participants themselves, from their willingness to listen to each other and from their openness to new ideas. This collection of papers offers a snapshot of some of these exciting new ideas and approaches.

The theme of PLL3 was *Stretching Boundaries,* and this was an idea borrowed from the title of a little-read paper I co-authored with Sarah Mercer, in which we set out our long-term vision for the development of the field of psychology in language learning. However, the rationale for this theme, and the origins of the conference itself, can be traced even further back to a book co-edited with Sarah Mercer and Marion Williams, entitled *Psychology for language learning: Insights from research, theory, and practice*. I cannot speak for my co-editors but much of my own motivation for working on that book came from a perceived need to improve my understanding of the boundaries between different areas of language learner psychology. At that time, I regarded my lack of understanding of why learner psychology needed to be discussed in terms of discrete components as somehow a failure on my part; after all, many people far more distinguished than myself worked in this way so I assumed that I was missing something very important. Perhaps unexpectedly, the experience of working on that book convinced me of the need to move in the opposite direction and to explore the connections between the various aspects of language learner psychology and challenge established boundaries. Those sentiments were implicit in the first two PLL conferences, but by the time

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of the third conference we felt confident enough to be more explicit in our aims.

It was not only disciplinary boundaries that we hoped to stretch at the conference. An international conference is about bringing together diverse national and cultural perspectives and the contributions to this volume capture some of that intercultural dialogue. Further boundaries stretched at PLL3 were generational ones, or perhaps it is more accurate to think of them as boundaries imposed by academic status. The conference began not with a plenary talk or a speech from a local dignitary but with an *Early-career Researcher Showcase,* in which novice researchers held centre stage to discuss their nascent work with more established scholars. Of course, it is always refreshing to encounter new faces and new ideas, but it was truly inspiring to witness the genuine enthusiasm with which internationally known academics engaged with the early-career researchers. This set the tone for the whole conference and I hope that readers of this collection of papers get some feeling of that interaction between leading researchers and newcomers to the field.

Holding an international conference in Tokyo in June is a highly risky, perhaps even foolhardy, undertaking. As organisers we did not mention the fact in any of our promotional materials for the conference, but the chances of constant, torrential rain at that time of year are very high. As conference chair, the first moment that I allowed myself to consider the possibility that the conference may go ahead without any serious mishaps was when, defying weather forecasts, the sun came out on the morning of the first day. That good weather stayed with us until the closing ceremony, almost unheard of in Tokyo at that time of the year, serving as an appropriate indicator of the mood inside the venue. For those who attended the conference and made it such a special event, the contributions to this volume will serve as a record and reminder of both the academic quality and the vitality of the conference. For those who were unable to attend, this book should offer some idea of what to look forward to at PLL4 in 2020, for rather than a souvenir from PLL3 I prefer to think of this collection of papers as the first steps towards PLL4, continuing the conversations that began in Tokyo and initiating new ones to be taken to Cape Breton … And beyond.

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CHAPTER 1

Stretching Boundaries: Introduction to the PLL3 Conference Collection

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It is our pleasure to introduce this collection of papers from the Third International Conference for the Psychology of Language Learning (PLL3) held from June 4th-7th in Tokyo, Japan and hosted by Waseda University. We are grateful to **Stephen Ryan** for writing the foreword to this collection and bringing us back to the event itself in order to re-consider the impact it had on our understanding of the psychology of language learning. In addition, **Wang Ping** and **Honggang Liu** provide a comprehensive overview of the event in their conference review in Chapter 2 giving some valuable insights to the keynote talks and other events. This account provides an important summary of the conference which has become part of our shared history. The remaining papers in the collection have been divided into three sections: *The learner and L2 learning*, *the self and identity in language learning*, and *language teachers and teaching*.

Part 1: The L2 Learner and L2 Learning

Part 1 contains a diverse set of papers contributed by researchers working in different contexts. The papers included in Part 1 provide insights into wide ranging topics related to language learner psychology, such as complexity, positive psychology, willingness to communicate (WTC), affective factors, ways of motivating learners, parents' perceptions, and positive environments for learning. We begin with Chapter 3 which contains four papers on the topic of complexity which were presented as a symposium entitled *Simply Researching Complexity in Language Learning and Teaching*. The first paper by **Richard J. Sampson** sets the scene for the topic of complexity by initially providing a definition, then urging researchers to explore emergent, classroom phenomenon. One way this can be done is through the use of reflective texts. In the second paper, **Richard Pinner** applies a complexity paradigm as an analytical framework to his research by using autoethnography as a form of practitioner-based inquiry. The researcher documents his own reflections on the various psychological states that he went through while teaching a course for one academic year. In the third paper, **Joseph Falout** calls for further research in the field of PLL in order to ultimately improve language learning. The author shares some example studies in order to begin to examine what we do not know in PLL and what research questions need to be asked. In the fourth contribution to the symposium summary, **Tomoko Yashima** gives an overview of a study which aims to capture the dynamics of WTC and observe the communication behavior demonstrated by individuals and groups of learners in a classroom setting. It was found that topic, presence of certain individuals, and timing were important in determining discourse flow.

The next two papers focus on findings in positive psychology. In Chapter 4, **Katarzyna Budzińska** provides a case study analysing the physical, pedagogical and psychological aspects of a language school in order to determine whether the institution could be said to be a positive one. Positive institutions provide language learning environments which contain structures that promote success. In Chapter 5, **Brian Cullen** provides some practical activities for the language classroom. Drawing on Seligman's (2012) PERMA model, the author provides several activities that can stimulate positive emotions.

There are several chapters dedicated to WTC. In Chapter 6, **Nathan Ducker** investigates classroom discussions and WTC by recording and analysing classroom interactions. The author conducted stimulated recall interviews to identify factors that either promoted or inhibited participation. The findings indicate low correlation coefficients between WTC ratings and talk time and some of the reasons for this are explored in this paper. In Chapter 7, **Cynthia E. Gonzalez** investigates factors affecting change in WTC in an adult learner using a narrative biographical account. A chronology of one learner's journey indicates that L2 WTC was affected by both positive and negative intergroup and interpersonal variables. In Chapter 13, **Yoko Munezane** explores the structural relationships among WTC and concepts that affect intercultural communicative competence (ICC), in particular constructive conflict resolution. The author notes that constructive conflict resolution strategies directly predicted ICC and that tasks can be designed to develop mutual understanding and constructive conflict resolution.

Moving to the theme of motivation within classrooms, several chapters approach this in various ways. In Chapter 9, **Emiko Hirosawa** looks at how a teacher promoted motivation in fifth grade students through autonomy and relatedness support. Using an exploratory action research approach, the author describes features of the classroom activities which resulted in particularly positive reports from the students. **Madoka Kawano, James A. Elwood, Yuya Koga,** and **Reijirou Shibasaki** report on a course designed to promote active learning at a private university in Tokyo in Chapter 11. Drawing on students' positive evaluations of the course over three consecutive years, the authors provide recommendations for curriculum improvement for an ESP course incorporating student poster sessions. In Chapter 18, **Caroline Torres, Yoneko Kanaoka,** and **Nicole Otero** describe a study whereby eighty community college language learners were given place-based writing instruction and subsequently demonstrated an increased motivation and knowledge. Place-based instruction engages learners in their own communities and applies learnings to real-world settings. In Chapter 19, **Kyoko Tomikura** explores the correlation between "free presentation" and students' motivation to learn the Japanese language in her study. 33 students were asked to give a presentation on the topic of their choice in order to enhance active participation in speaking without being graded. Finally, in Chapter 21 **Hiroki Yamamoto** and **Hiromi Tsuda** describe a study which investigated whether stimulating learners' proactiveness and creativity in vocabulary learning would increase their motivation for learning vocabulary. The participants, who were 48 English learners at a university in Japan, were surveyed one month apart. The results indicated that the proactiveness and creativity training did have various benefits for learners related to motivation for learning vocabulary.

Continuing with a classroom focus, two chapters report on teaching approaches that deepen students' awareness of their learning processes. In Chapter 12, **Vashti Lee, Dan P. Dewey, Hannah Trimble,** and **R. Kirk Belnap** examine mental contrasting with implementation intentions (MCII) as a self-regulatory strategy for accomplishing goals. The authors describe a study comparing the development of L2 speaking proficiency and social networks in two groups of learners, where one group were taught to use MCII, and the other group were not. In Chapter 14, **Tim Murphey** describes an exploratory action research project involving a new conception of testing whereby students give themselves grades at two points during one class. The first grade represents individual efforts and the second grade takes into account the human connections in the class.

The next chapter (Chapter 15) investigates parents' perceptions of their children's learning. **Maiko Nakamura** and **Tomoko Hashimoto** investigate attitudes toward English demonstrated by parents of kindergarteners in Japan. Questionnaire analysis revealed that in some cases, the parents lack confidence in their own English skills and that this could be the cause of high expectations for their child's English skills.

Two chapters deal with emotion in language learning. In Chapter 16, **Richard J. Sampson** explores the diversity of feelings expressed in an L2 classroom. Participants wrote weekly introspective journals and they frequently wrote about their feelings. Results included seven positively-valenced feelings and three negatively-valenced ones. In Chapter 17, **Scott J. Shelton-Strong** and **Jo Mynard** describe six specific ways in which affective factors can be incorporated into self-directed learning courses. The authors include an example of a tool designed to focus on positive emotions called the confidence-building diary. They conclude by stressing the importance of dialogue with learners in collaboration with such tools.

Finally, Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs) are the focus of three chapters. DMCs are intense periods of motivational energy enabling a learner to achieve results beyond what would normally be expected (Henry, Davydenko, & Dörnyei, 2015). In Chapter 8, **Tomoko Hashimoto** investigates whether Japanese university students have experienced DMCs while learning English. Results indicate that the students had experienced both individual and group DMCs. In Chapter 10, **Yuko Inada** tracks the motivational trajectories of four Japanese students studying EFL and an MBA overseas. The author is able to shed light on how the participants' motivation shifted from EFL to the MBA over time. Finally, in Chapter 20, **Angela Marli Karsten Tsunoda** describes how she employed a qualitative phenomenological study to investigate psycho-emotional elements underlining L2 DMCs in Japan. Participants included Japanese people learning English and also foreigners in Japan learning Japanese. The author reports that of the six interviewees, four had experienced L2 DMCs, while two cases of disruption and two cases of inhibition of DMCs were also found.

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Part 2: The Self and Identity in Language Learning

Part two of the collection centres on studies carried out in the realms of the self and identity in L2 learning, two areas that have, in recent years, generated a great deal of research thanks to seminal works in the field such as Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2009) account of the L2 Motivational Self System. The section starts off in Chapter 22 with a study by **Imelda Brady** in which she explores the possible overlaps between the dual figures of ideal L2 and professional selves of students of translation and interpretation, who are rarely investigated from the perspective of L2 learning. In Chapter 23, **Stephen Scott Brewer** explores the applicability of an interview techniques to help make explicit the self in terms of internal states, mental events, and cognitive processes that underlie situated functioning-in-action in L2 learners.

Two studies focus on the role of classmates to encourage positive views on learning. In Chapter 24, **Wendy Davis** describes how raising metacognitive awareness using Ideal Classmates helps students create a cooperative learning environment through positive socialization, and details the procedure followed to foster an ideal classmate environment. In the second study (Chapter 25), **Yoshifumi Fukada, Tetsuya Fukuda, Joseph Falout,** and **Tim Murphey** use random control groups to investigate the impact of visualising Ideal classmates on learner motivation and contrast this with the motivating effect of other self related concepts, such as a future L2 self.

Chapter 26 is related to possible selves theory and the authors, **Masako Kumazawa** and **Damon Brewster**, report on findings from a mixed-method study into learner choice and motivation in an English as a medium of instruction (EMI) programme. Some findings suggest that a target such as a test score may be not simply be an externally imposed requirement, but may actually be internalised by students.

With regard to learner identity, **Anne Mette Nyvad** (Chapter 27) argues for the benefits of implementing a personal learner log in foreign language teaching to help stretch the

boundaries of identity in the development of the interlanguage, and compel students to implicitly assume ownership of their own language learning processes. With a similar objective in mind, in her paper, **Erina Ogawa** (Chapter 28) looks at the effects of study abroad programmes on national and global identities and contrasts these effects in males and females. Study abroad continues as a theme in Chapter 29 in a paper by **Aaron Sponseller** and **Russell Sarwar Kabir** in which they create a Japanese version of a scale to measure self-efficacy in communication in study abroad contexts. The section ends with a study by **Chihiro Kinoshita Thomson** and **Tamami Mori** (Chapter 30) who propose stretching boundaries by establishing and connecting learners to Communities of Practice, and so offer experiences that enhance the development of L2 identities.

Part 3: Language Teachers and Teaching

Part three of the collection turns to the oft-forgotten figure of the language teacher and the complexities of his or her labour in learning contexts. We are very pleased to be able to witness such a varied set of papers finally putting the spotlight on the language instructor or guide, and we are also amazed to see the variety of teaching perspectives catered for. This section thus offers views on the psychology of all stages of language teaching, from pre-service trainee status to third age and retired teachers, gauging data on their emotional wellbeing and subsequent influences on the teaching-learning process. We also see the different roles that teachers play for students and for each other within the teaching community. Diverse studies feature teachers as mentors, as motivators and, last but certainly not least, teachers as people. The first set of papers (Chapter 31), presented as a symposium, highlighted the concept of teacher wellbeing starting with a discussion by **Elaine Horwitz** on the impact of L2 anxiety on teacher psychological mindsets and offering advice on how teachers can also be kind to themselves while they are being so to their students. **Phil Hiver** explores data from a sample of 900 language teachers, to examine teacher wellbeing as seen through the lens of teacher immunity, including concepts such as resilience, burnout, classroom affectivity and attitudes to change and the connection with effective teaching practice. For his study on teacher wellbeing, **Kyle Talbot** discusses findings of a qualitative study examining factors that contribute and detract from teacher positivity and how teachers manage to counteract negativity and prolong positive experiences. **Sarah Mercer** discusses ways to support practising teachers in managing their stress, and how to recruit and ensure the retention of early-career stage teachers. Her study involved analysis of journal and interview data with four first year teachers at a secondary school in Austria. The symposium summary ends with a discussion by **Tammy Gregersen** and **Peter MacIntyre** and the topic of teacher mentoring. They discuss the emotional challenges in the transition from student to teacher and how support from experienced mentors can help by capitalising on teachers' strengths as opposed to remediating weaknesses.

Third age teachers becomes the focus of the next paper (Chapter 32) by **Sonja Babić** who explores the concept of psychological capital and how the positive psychological resources teachers and teacher trainers accumulate in their careers can aid them in the transition to retirement. In Chapter 33, **Daniel Jackson** uses tasks and stimulated recall interviews to investigate to the extent to which teachers are aware of their own anxiety during tasks and how this emotional response may affect students' responses to the task. In Chapter 34, **Yuki Ota** focusses her attention on converting able and willing university students to language advisors or teachers for low level learners. She highlights the benefits of fellow students with good social skills as a motivating aid for less able learners. In Chapter 35, **Nathan Thomas** investigates the psychology of the language learning classroom. The author makes the point that settings for language learning and available resources within them are often overlooked in the literature.

The author presents the *Classroom Affordance Assessment Rubric (CAAR)* as a starting point for describing such learning spaces.

Finally in this section, and as a fitting end for the conference collection, in Chapter 36 **Dorota Werbińska** highlights the benefits of looking at the trajectories of retired language teachers in order to gain insights into the language teaching profession. The author discusses the development of an operational framework to analyse teachers' stories based on a narrative inquiry approach.

We sincerely hope readers will enjoy this collection and find within its pages inspiration and high quality research on which to base further studies within the field of the Psychology of Language Learning.

Warm regards,

Jo Mynard and Imelda Brady (editors)

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CHAPTER 2

Stretching the Boundaries, Meeting the New Challenges: A Review of PLL3

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The Third International Psychology of Language Learning conference (PLL3) was held at Waseda University, Tokyo from June 7-10, 2018. It was co-hosted by the International Association for the Psychology of Language Learning (IAPLL) and the Research Institute for Letters, Arts and Sciences of Waseda University, supported by Tokyo Metropolitan Government and Education Research Foundation and sponsored by Multilingual Matters, Springer, Oxford University Press, ABAX and Cengage. With the theme of "stretching boundaries", this conference has witnessed an exceptionally high level of interest from people wishing to participate, including over 350 researchers, teachers, and students from over 30 different countries.

Five plenary speakers were invited to share their insights into the field. They are Richard M. Ryan (Australian Catholic University / University of Rochester), the co-developer of Self-Determination Theory; Ema Ushioda (University of Warwick), well-known for her work on motivation and autonomy in language learning; Mimi Bong (Korea University), focusing on adolescent motivation with particular emphases on self-efficacy beliefs and achievement goals; Lourdes Ortega (Georgetown University), whose main area of research is in second language acquisition, particularly sociocognitive and educational dimensions in adult classroom settings; and Zoltán Dörnyei (University of Nottingham), whose representative works cover various aspects of motivation and second language acquisition. A large repertoire of topics was addressed, ranging from autonomous motivation, achievement goals, motivational currents and vision to social justice and social responsibility in the research of the psychology of language learning. Apart from plenary speeches, other types of presentations such as papers, posters, works in progress and symposia, were brought together to make a fascinating research picture. To sum up, this conference was remarkable in the following ways:

Highlighting the challenge of integrating interdisciplinary approaches

The interdisciplinary approaches to language learner and language teacher psychology research is a typical feature of "stretching boundaries". Take the five plenary speakers, for example. They shared different perspectives of theoretical traditions and practical approaches with the participants to show the diverse efforts of scholars towards moving the field of language learning psychology forward. Richard M. Ryan provided an overview of Self-Determination Theory and its applicability in different settings (SDT research with parents, in schools, workplaces, clinics, sports, and so on) where motivation matters. He pointed out that autonomous motivation is one of the main predictors of persistence and success. SDT research can cross different stages of development and bridge over different cultural contexts, reflecting common characteristics of human psychological development. Therefore, in the classroom, the styles and strategies of teachers can promote or undermine more autonomous engagement in learners and the positive consequences that follow it. Mimi Bong briefly introduced the evolution of achievement goal theory over the past four decades, along with some of the major findings, issues and challenges from each generation of the achievement goal research. She

presented evidence that adolescent learners pursue both social and competence-oriented achievement goals at school. She showed how there is a complex interplay of achievement goals with various factors, including individual differences, classroom contexts, and self-efficacy beliefs. The talk also concluded with a reflection on the implications for foreign language acquisition. As for the new trend in motivation research, Zoltán Dörnyei claimed that motivation concerns the choice and direction of a particular action, requiring constant effort and persistence which has received less attention in the past. Few studies focused on the maintenance of effort which is in contrast with the practical needs of educators and learners. Motivation is not constant but displays continuous ebbs and flows. It even shows a tendency to dissipate with time. For these reasons, a better understanding of the nature of student perseverance would be crucial for promoting sustained learning behaviours to master an L2. Dörnyei also summarized three research strands which could be explored to fill the existing theoretical gap: (1) established motivation research concerning long-term motivation; (2) the theory of vision; (3) the recent conceptualization of directed motivational currents. Manifold practical implications of these issues were discussed at the end of the plenary.

The above-mentioned scholars mainly situated their talks within the scope of learner psychology. The other two plenary speakers, on the other hand, discussed researchers' social responsibility and the issue of social justice in multilingual contexts. Ema Ushioda drew participants' attention to the situation where few research studies were really designed to serve the interests of the people under study despite a growing research concern with language learners 'as people' rather than abstract bundles of variables. The value of research should not be judged simply by its rigor and significance but also on the basis of its potential to help with social and educational problems. She challenged the L2 motivation field to think about the real value of research and focus on the motivation research in a more clearly socially responsive direction. Similarly, Lourdes Ortega expressed her concern over language learning psychology research in which the attitudes, beliefs, emotions and behaviours of language learners should be cared about in multilingual contexts. The experience of learning a new language fosters critical self-awareness, expands world horizons, and promotes respect for human diversity and human difference. However, there are also multilinguals who have faced plight, poverty and difficult relationships, struggling to be more vulnerable. Ortega proposed that a promising direction of research into the psychology of language learning should transform language learning experiences into opportunities to affirm social justice for individuals, classrooms, and communities.

Challenging the traditional approach by stretching the scope of language learning psychology

There were 148 talks concerning the topic of language learning psychology, accounting for 75% of all types of presentation. These talks cover not only traditional approaches of learning psychology (Individual Differences) in second language education field, for example, the studies of motivation and L2 selves, anxiety, learning styles, learning strategies, willingness to communicate, self-efficacy, learner beliefs and attitudes, but also some foregrounded research such as self-regulation in language learning. Topics involving self-regulation range from self-regulatory techniques used to improve performance or promote goal achievement, emotional engagement and self-regulation, self-regulation and subjective well-being, the role of agency and self-regulation in intercultural interactions, to the academic and social dimensions of self-regulation. One symposium concentrated on innovative methods for assessing language learning and emotion-regulation strategies for learners, dealing with the following topics: (1) Assessing the assessment: How the Managing Your Emotions (MYE) questionnaire reflects psychosocial theories (Rebecca L. Oxford); (2) Strategy scenarios for

assessing acts of emotion self-regulation and well-being (Christina Gkonou); (3) Utilizing innovative methods for analyzing quantitative and qualitative data in learning strategy assessment (Atsushi Mizumoto & Osamu Takeuchi). These studies present scenario-based questionnaires and their associated psychosocial theories, as well as Bayesian methods, and text mining and natural language processing techniques, in an attempt to explore the psychological dimension of strategy use.

Paying close attention to language teachers' psychology

Research on language teacher psychology has received increasing attention during the past few years. This conference witnessed a heated discussion over issues in that field, including the longitudinal effect of teachers' L1 use on students, teachers' professional subjective well-being, teacher motivation theory and practice, veteran teachers' professional development, EFL teachers' beliefs and practices, promoting teacher empathy in positive language teaching, construction of pre-service teachers' identity, professional pathways of retired language teachers, third-age language teachers' psychological resilience and perceptions, emotions and attitude changes of teachers-to-be. The field of psychology research and second language acquisition has given attention to learners' cognitive learning processes over the past decades, seeming to weaken the role of teachers. However, these talks allow us to see a more promising picture of diversified research paying attention to teachers' psychology and reminding us of the fact that teachers are one of the major stakeholders in the teaching/learning process and, as such, deserve the close attention of the academic field. This trend is clearly demonstrated in the symposium session on the well-being of English language teachers, for instance, where a group of scholars including Elaine K. Horwitz, Phil Hiver, Kyle Talbot, Sarah Mercer, Tammy Gregersen and Peter MacIntyre discussed their work. They explored the central issue from different perspectives: (1) the undermining effect of anxiety on teacher well-being and teaching effectiveness; (2) teacher well-being, exemplary teaching, and social ecology of the L2 classroom; (3) self-regulation and subjective well-being of university English language teachers; (4) the well-being of first-year EFL teachers; (5) signature strengths as a gateway to more effective language teacher mentoring.

Emphasizing the effect of classroom course design on language learner psychology

This type of research highlights teaching practice involving language learner psychology, explores different teaching approaches and techniques and provides better reference for L2 classroom as compared with theoretical and explanative researches, with the aim of meeting actual needs of different classroom contexts. Take Marc Helgesen's study, for example, whose study aims to help students learn more, stay on task longer and have more grit by sharing them with key positive psychology concepts. He introduced a way with both language goals and psychology elements, that is, short language/positive psychology activities entitled '10 Minutes for Happiness'. Such activities can be added to teachers' course/curriculum to foster happier students.

Providing a supportive environment for early-career researchers

The conference offered an excellent opportunity for researchers to present their work in poster sessions with a visual format and for focused face-to-face discussions of research. This type of presentation was arranged in four sessions (two mornings and two afternoons). Participants demonstrated a great amount of interest in the heated discussion around the poster presenters in a relaxing environment. A key aim of the conference is to welcome and encourage

new researchers to this growing field. With this opportunity, some early-career researchers could share their ideas in a work-in-progress presentation category in which presenters could discuss their unfinished, ongoing work (e.g., doctoral theses or preliminary studies for projects) in a supportive environment. Presentations within this format were concise and focused on interaction with the audience, covering a wide range of topics: EFL teachers' beliefs and practices, the effect of facilitative and debilitative spaces on psychology, language policies and affective factors, causes of speaking anxiety, developing self-efficacy, the language teacher's motivator self, incorporating learners' self-reflection journal to in-class learning tasks, real and imagined discourse-community membership and third-age language learning from a wellbeing perspective. Naturally, early-career stage scholars can benefit considerably through the discussion of their own interests, formulating a clearer logic line in their own research in such a supportive environment.

In summary, the topics presented at the conference fully echo the original recommendation of the committee (language learners as people and their various individual characteristics, including self-concept, motivation, identities, beliefs, agency, and emotions; the dynamics of the learning process and interaction with others; context and the psychology of language learning; innovative and interdisciplinary approaches to research; practical classroom applications). Individual Differences, as the classical focus of language learning psychology research, has been stretched to language learners and language teachers as people, with more attention to teacher psychology as well as a consideration of the contexts and dynamics. Research with interdisciplinary approaches will definitely become a trend in the near future to fully depict the picture of "stretching boundaries". These new trends offer us new opportunities as well as new challenges to develop this field. Following on from two highly successful conferences, first in Graz, Austria in 2014 and Jyväskylä, Finland in 2016, the conference now comes to Asia for the first time. The fourth conference will be held in Cape Breton University, Canada in 2020. We hope the new conference will witness even more fruitful research from different parts of the world to make it another truly memorable event. And the field of the Psychology for Language Learning will embrace an even more promising future, especially with the support of the newly founded association to support work in this area as well as the conference: See IAPLL website: http://www.iapll.com/

Notes and Acknowledgements

Part 1
The L2 Learner and L2 Learning

CHAPTER 3

Symposium: Simply Researching Complexity in Language Learning and Teaching

Richard J. Sampson, Gunma University, Japan
Richard Pinner, Sophia University, Japan
Joseph Falout, Nihon University, Japan
Tomoko Yashima, Kansai University, Japan

Complexity offers intriguing new avenues to investigate the interrelated, co-adapting, and emergent nature of the social psychodynamics among actors in classrooms. This collection of papers aims to offer windows on analysis and ways of representing emergent understandings through research built on the philosophical underpinnings of complexity – also known as complexity thinking.

Paper 1: Exploring Classroom L2 Learner Psychology through Complexity Thinking

Richard J. Sampson

Introducing Complexity Thinking

A fundamental understanding of complexity thinking is that meaning arises through the interaction of elements (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). It is elements interacting in certain ways that come together as an emergent phenomenon. Elements interact to give meaning at a higher level, and higher levels also give meaning and constraint to lower levels. Different interactions of the same elements or changes in some of the parts give rise to qualitatively different emergent phenomena. Complexity thinking therefore urges us to explore interactions in the context of any emergent, classroom phenomenon. Whilst we might be tempted to think of context as here-and-now material space, aligning with the more humanistic, relational ideas of Ushioda (2011), complexity thinking views context as also social, psychological, temporal, and so on.

Thinking about Analysis and Representation

This section introduces a selection of reflective texts, focusing on one student's experience of achievement of a self-determined hope to "show enjoyment" in his lessons (see Sampson, 2018 for further detail). There are three extracts: The first is Kanata's (all names are pseudonyms) writing in a reflective journal after the second lesson of semester; the second and third extracts are from Kanata as well as his new partner in the third lesson of semester. I had initially noted a theme of "degree of achievement of hope" in these extracts. As you read them, think about the interactions occurring in the context of this emergent phenomenon:

> Kanata, Lesson 2: I chose "Show Enjoyment." …Well, I tried hard to achieve. But it's difficult. I was nervous because my partner was female. I unusually talk with girl, so I hardly made my words to say. And she's cute. With some reasons like that, I couldn't

keep remembering to make smile. If you ask me that I achieve the task, I can't say "yes" clearly. But it's not problem to me. It was so fun and this feeling is certainly from my heart.

Kanata, Lesson 3: I chose Show Enjoyment again. And I probably achieved this task although it was with embarrassed smiles. She also smiled all the time while we worked together. I think that smiles make us happy naturally, and today I realized that again. On the other hand, I was being embarrassed too much. I'm going to try to Show Enjoyment task next week, I will also try not to be nervous at the time. ...My partner was again cute girl who looked good on smile.

Nanami, Lesson 3: Be kind. In class, my good pair was Kanata. First, we talked about hometown, hobby, and dream in English. At that time he looked nerves to me because he didn't talk positively. So I asked him many questions. I was happy that he answered my question nicely. It was precious time for me to know him very well.

Complex systems interact over different timescales. Processes or emergent phenomena at one timescale are influenced by what happened/is happening/will happen at shorter and longer scales (de Bot, 2014). One useful tool to stimulate new perspectives on analysis and represent co-adaptive language learner psychology in interaction with the classroom context is a kind of coding comparison table (Figures 1 and 2). They help us to understand such nested, interacting timescales of feeling/motivation/identity in the extracts from Kanata.

Complexity thinking also reminds us to appreciate the qualities of individual sense-making. Yet it moreover urges us to recognize that individuals interact to co-form the context of any learning group. In the example extracts, Kanata was not acting alone – his decisions and perceptions were co-constructed in the classroom via his interactions with those around him. The coding comparison tables (Figures 1 and 2) allow us to uncover these processes, and understand that Kanata's experience of "degree of achievement of hope" is a phenomenon emergent from ongoing interactions between his psychology *as a person* and the social context of the classroom.

Months / Years	• Personality / life experience: "Unusually talk with girl"
Lesson Series	
Lesson	• Motivation to "Show Enjoyment" → Couldn't achieve? • "It was so fun" (And she's cute)
Activity	• Nervous: "Hardly made my words to say" • Couldn't keep remembering to smile

Figure 1. Coding Comparison Table of Interacting Timescales of Feeling, Motivation and Identity (Lesson 2)

Months / Years	▪ Personality / life experience: "Unusually talk with girl" ▪ Belief in "Showing Enjoyment": "Smiles make us happy naturally"
Lesson Series	▪ Continued to choose "Show Enjoyment": Felt progress ▪ Try again next lesson: Not be nervous
Lesson	▪ Motivation to "Show Enjoyment" → Couldn't achieve? ▪ "It was so fun" ▪ Motivation to "Show Enjoyment" → "Probably achieved although with embarrassed smiles"
Activity	▪ Nervous: "Hardly made my words to say" ▪ Couldn't keep remembering to smile ▪ Being embarrassed too much ← Supported by Nanami: "He looked nerves, so I asked him many questions"

Figure 2. Coding Comparison Table of Interacting Timescales of Feeling, Motivation and Identity (Lesson 3)

Concluding Thoughts on Complexity Thinking

A complexity approach emphasizes the observer as part of the observed. In the L2 classroom, this means that teacher-researchers are uniquely placed because of their contextualized understandings of learners and learning groups. However, quite importantly, complexity thinking also cautions us to be modest. Knowing is provisional and an interpretation of lived experience, but as a teacher, I find it useful to understand my students even a little more.

Paper 2: "It's Simple in Retrospect": Using Autoethnography within a Complexity Paradigm

Richard Pinner

Introduction

The complexity paradigm in applied linguistics is essentially grounded on qualitative understandings, retrospection and reflection (Kramsch, 2011; Larsen-Freeman, 2008); all of which are gaining traction now due to their potential for bringing research and practice together (Barkhuizen, 2017; Walsh & Mann, 2015). My research used autoethnography to stretch the boundaries of practitioner-based inquiry. In particular, I wanted to include my own reflections on the various psychological states that I (as teacher) went through as I taught a course over an academic year. Autoethnographies are not merely about one person, but draw on the interactions of the community to make observations, just as ethnography does (Denzin, 2014). This methodology places emphasis on context, making autoethnographies ideal for in-depth qualitative reviews in institutional, local and social settings (Ellis, Adams, & Bochner, 2011). In this way, I also attempted to gain richer insights into how students experienced the course as well. The main focus of inquiry became the synergistic link between teacher and student motivation (see Pinner, 2018). However, this paper focuses purely on the methodology and its fit within a complexity paradigm.

In this paper, I will reflect upon how autoethnography has enabled me to apply a complexity paradigm to my research as an analytical framework which harmonizes the central methodology. Drawing on one particular research project examining authenticity (here meaning the congruence between activity and beliefs), I explain how complexity helped me to recognize the gestalt nature of my class as its own small culture developed. It also enabled me to understand the social dynamics between myself and learners, as our emotions and perceptions fluctuated throughout the study. I will discuss the fact that, although many of these insights came retrospectively, they have deeply informed my teaching and helped to crystallize my philosophy of practice.

Autoethnography and Complexity Fit

One of the challenges posed by the complexity paradigm is that, as an actual research method it potentially poses a threat because reduces the reliability of standardised, measurable research based on variables, although it increases the validity (Kramsch, 2011, p. 21). In other words, traditional approaches to SLA research which focus "on averages and aggregates that lump together people who share certain characteristics" (Ushioda, 2011, p. 12) are insufficient, to say the least, and research methods that seek to gain contextualised understandings become paramount. Autoethnography is one research method which has the potential to answer this call because it combines ethnography with the tradition of narrative inquiry, which is an ontologically different approach to positivist methods because it acknowledges that there is no fixed, singular truth and places context at the centre of any attempt to gain a deeper understanding into complex phenomena (Barkhuizen, Benson, & Chik, 2014; Polkinghorne, 2007).

The key aspects of autoethnography and its complexity fit are outlined as follows; firstly, autoethnographies seek for validity as opposed to reliability, in other words the believability of the story rather than its relation to some abstract notion of truth or a singular version of reality; secondly, as mentioned previously the auto- in autoethnography does not mean that it focuses purely on the self, but on the self in relation to others, thereby highlighting the wider social

ecology and context of the inquiry; finally, as central emphasis on context, autoethnographies are useful for examining unfurling relationships, something which Ushioda has advocated in the study of motivation (Ushioda, 2015, 2016).
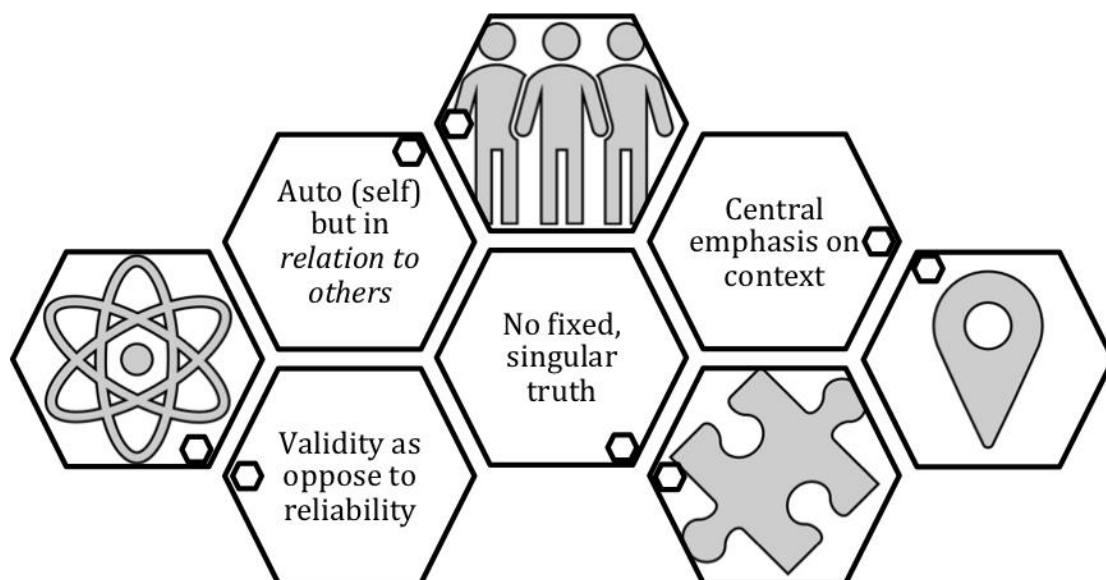
Figure 3. Autoethnography and Complexity Fit

Informing a Theory of Practice

Despite the inquiry in question being motivated by a desire to seek a richer understanding of broad and elusive theoretical topics (authenticity and motivation), this inquiry was primarily practical in nature and in focus. This was achieved by making the inquiry about practice, and working within practice to observe the broader phenomena as I interacted with my students deepening our understanding of the issues. This was primarily facilitated by combining autoethnography with other introspective forms of practitioner research, in particular Exploratory Practice (Allwright & Hanks, 2009) and evidence-based reflective practice (Mann & Walsh, 2017). Autoethnography worked as a central framework and harmonised the other practitioner-based methodologies when my discussion moved to issues that centralised less on the individual class in question and more on my broader professional development and wider layers of context, such as the institutional context and the wider social context of English learning as a foreign language. I found that linking the various socioeconomic and sociocultural issues that exert an influence on me and my learners from outside the classroom enabled me to inform my practices within the classroom, and thereby focus on empowering learners as speakers rather than seeking to impose my own agenda on them. One example was in how I came to question certain assumptions I had made about what I perceived as 'less motivated' students and to seek a broader understanding of these learners within a wider context that was not only limited to my interactions with them in class. Together, students and I worked at building up a more complete picture of ourselves in the much bigger context of English in use. In this way, the complexity paradigm helped us to make sense of our identities from a dynamic perspective and to recognise that the classroom is a place where many contexts interact.

Paper 3: Researching Complex Imageries of Self and Others: The Analyze-then-aggregate Approach

Joseph Falout

The burgeoning field of psychology in language learning (PLL) boasts a host of proposed and tested theories of cognitive, affective, and behavioral development, which in turn informs teacher training practices, textbooks, pedagogies, and academic policies. Yet there remains much more we can ask and learn about in our field.

A Fitting Lesson

Over half a century of expert knowledge essentialized that a reflex embedded within the central nervous system accounted for the curious stages in which infants begin to walk on their own: Infants are first able to make bipedal movements when supported upright, later this assumed-to-be reflex disappears, and by around twelve months old they begin to make their first steps. It was thought that the reason behind this conundrum had been solved, according to a host of proposed human developmental norms fixed upon motor reflexes, but all these proposals had gotten it wrong.

Against a bedrock of accepted theories and studies, it was shown that infant stepping stages are not reflexive but intentional. In A Dynamic Systems Approach to the Development of Cognition and Action, Thelen and Smith (1994) describe their approach to dispelling false conventional assumptions and building evidence toward more accurate understandings: "If we forget about any single causation and look at the behavior itself and the context in which it is performed, a different picture emerges" (p. 11). Rose (2015) summarizes it more plainly: "The aggregate, then analyze approach disguised each child's individual pattern of development. Thelen's analyze, then aggregate approach revealed it" (p. 71).

In PLL, What do we Assume to Know?

What are the things in PLL that are hidden to our knowledge simply because we are singling out single causations and not using the approaches that help to magnify the investigations, looking at the behaviors and psychological phenomena themselves? Instead of first aggregating data and then analyzing it, we might first analyze the separate parts of the phenomena we are investigating separately, then aggregate what was analyzed into patterns. The following illustrative studies approximate this analyze-then-aggregate approach within their research designs, which might be applied to future studies to help answer our questions.

How do Images of Past Selves Guide Student Perceptions of their Identities in Learning Languages?

Falout, Murphey, Fukuda, and Trovela (2013) offer a clue. They first analyzed the valences of Japanese EFL learners' past selves separately, along with collecting their individual motivational timelines across several years. The individual timelines were then aggregated according to groups: negative, low positive, and high positive valences of past selves. Unfolding from this aggregation was an emergent fractal pattern of the motivational timelines dovetailing outward, displaying different ways the groups had been demotivated and remotivated in language learning.

Are Past and Future Selves in Language Learning Developmental?

Quoidbach, Gilbert, and Wilson (2013) uncovered something fascinating between multigenerational past and future selves. They first isolated imaginings of either past or future selves among individuals, and at separate age groups, and then analyzed separately either reported changes in the last ten years (past selves group) or predicted changes in the next ten years (future selves group) in self-perceived personality, values, and preference. These analyses were then aggregated into the same age groups, but with the past and future selves groups kept separately and overlaid so that the ten-year increments would match up between groups. For all measurements of all generations, the past selves group tended to think they had changed a lot in the past ten years, whereas the future selves group thought they would change little over the next ten years.

Does Sociocultural Emotional Baggage Play a Role in Attitudes, Perceptions, and Expectations of Classroom Interaction?

A hint that implicit biases could play a role against other students (or even teachers) is found in Long (2006, 2008). He used the matched guise technique to first analyze separate sociocultural frames upon separate nationalities in switched guises to two groups of participants, and then un-switch the data to match up the guises in aggregate. Japanese university students thought they were listening to either a male or female voice presenting themselves as bilingual foreigners living in Japan, but in fact the voices were recordings by Japanese nationals. The voices in the American guise were evaluated as having more positive, likeable traits, whereas the voices in the Chinese guise were perceived less positively in personality, speaking style, and imagined physical appearance.

Conclusion

The example studies provided here give a glimpse into what we don't know in PLL and what research questions we might yet ask. Using some form of the analyze-then-aggregate approach in our research could help dispel false conventional assumptions and build evidence toward more accurate understandings, and ultimately help us to improve language learning.

Paper 4: Nested Systems and their Interactions: Dynamic WTC in the Classroom

Tomoko Yashima

According to Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008), "a complexity perspective on the language classroom highlights connections across levels of human and social organization, from individual minds up to the social-political context of language learning" (p. 198). This study focuses on interconnectedness between system and context to capture the dynamics of willingness to communicate (WTC) and communication behavior exhibited by individual learners and the group learners constitute as nested systems.

Willingness to Communicate in an L2

WTC is defined as readiness to initiate communication at a particular time and with a specific person/s in an L2 (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). MacIntyre and colleagues' pyramid-shaped WTC model foreshadows approaches informed by Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST; Dörnyei, MacIntyre, & Henry, 2015). It presents a systemic view of how various enduring and situated variables interact in a complex manner and converge as L2 WTC at specific moments. When WTC reaches a certain threshold, language use is triggered, resulting in communication (e.g., asking a question). A slight change in one element in the model, such as intergroup motivation, affects the whole system's dynamics. Drawing on our past studies (Yashima, Ikeda, & Nakahira, 2016; Yashima, MacIntyre, & Ikeda, 2018), this paper extends the original model by showing how CDST perspectives can uncover connections between individuals' WTC and group (class) level WTC as nested systems as they co-adapt to each other.

The Study

This is an interventional study in response to King (2013), who reported after 48 hours of classroom observation in Japanese EFL contexts that students' self-initiated communication amounted to only 7 minutes, or 0.24% of the total. This, King claims, is evidence of "a robust trend, with minimal variation, toward silence" (p. 12), or attractor state, in Japanese EFL classrooms. To reverse this trend, an intervention was designed, consisting of 20-minute discussion sessions at the end of regular 90-minute university EFL classes over 12 weeks. We removed I-R-F (Initiation-Response-Feedback) sequences to see what happens to WTC dynamics in individuals and the group these individuals comprise.

Data were collected via: (a) a questionnaire designed to elicit participants' trait-like anxiety, WTC, and motivation; (b) audio-recordings of each session; (c) observation notes, and; (d) stimulated recall interviews with three students.

In analyses, we measured amount of silence between turns, amount of talk by instructor and students, and number of utterances per student. Discussion sessions were transcribed for analysis. Interviews were transcribed, open-coded, and analyzed for salient differences between interviewees.

Group level phenomena

Group-level performance (proportion of student talk versus silence) is shown in Figure 4. To understand what creates so much variation in amount of student talk, we examined three

sessions that differed greatly in this respect (Times 2, 7, and 9), when the proportion was 62%, 19%, and 66%, respectively.
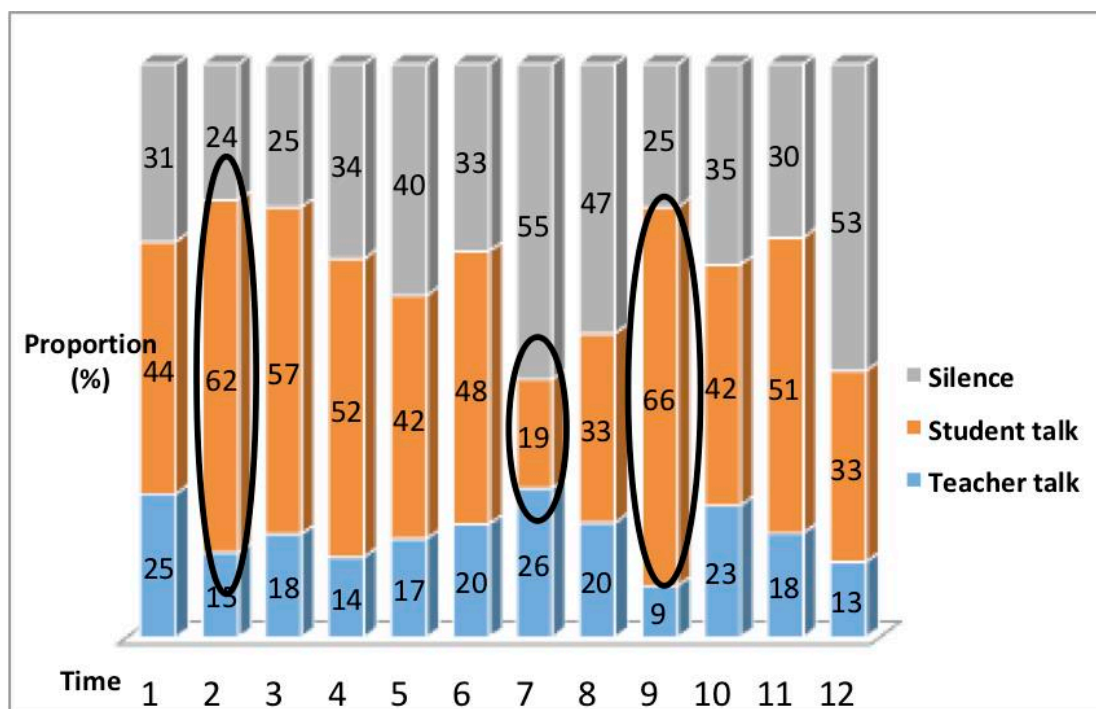
Figure 4. Proportion of Student Talk, Teacher Talk, and Silence (Yashima, Ikeda, & Nakahira, 2016)

Although multiple factors interacted to give rise to the observed group-level phenomena, topic was vitally important in determining discourse flow. The Time 2 topic (*How first names are chosen*) elicited average length of students' utterances (20.21 words), the Time 9 topic (*Multiple intelligence*) elicited an average of 17.09 words, and that of Time 6 (*Factors in owning a successful restaurant*) only 6.24 words. Evidently, students found the latter topic harder to deal with.

Secondly, attendance dramatically changed group dynamics. At Time 2, leadership by one student (Masa) was conspicuous, as he expressed his views frequently and distributed turns among students by asking questions. At Time 6, Masa was quiet, and this was one reason why the discussion was rather stagnant. We learned that he was tired due to lack of sleep the previous night. At Time 9, Masa was absent. Interestingly, this was when the student talk ratio was highest of the 12 sessions. This is partly attributable to Taki, a constant contributor to discussions, who triggered a Question and Answer chain to which other students responded, taking turns to express their views. This is a good example of coadaptation of individuals as systems in CDST terms.

Thirdly, the timing of each session within the semester mattered. At Time 2, immediately after the start of university life, students were motivated to try something new and challenging. At Time 6, however, students showed signs of tiredness following two months of excitement and high motivation to learn. In addition, by then, student roles in the class (those who did/not talk) were somewhat fixed.

Individual communication behaviors

We interviewed three students who differed greatly in frequency of self-selected turns, which we operationalized as situated WTC. Qualitative analyses of stimulated recall interviews revealed how individuals' communication behaviors emerged and evolved during the discussion sessions. Combining these results with trait-like WTC and anxiety, the data yielded insights into what creates individual differences in communication frequency. A specific individual's decision to communicate (or not) at a specific time is affected by momentary anxiety levels, topic familiarity, sense of responsibility, as well as other students' reactions and class ambience (among others). This in turn affects the talk-silence pattern for the whole class, which then becomes the context for ongoing communication. Thus, individuals and the group individuals comprise interact and co-adapt to each other as nested systems, thus creating specific communication behavior in both.

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CHAPTER 4

Positive Institutions: Case Study

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Introduction

Positive institutions, defined as "enabling institutions", "organizational structures that enable success and promote positive language learning environments", as well as "institutions that enable people to flourish" (MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014, p. 154, p. 165), are one of the three main pillars of positive psychology together with positive emotions and positive individual characteristics. Compared with the other two pillars there has been little research carried out in this field. The present case study is hoped to have filled this gap. It analyses a language school from the physical, pedagogical and psychological angle aiming to determine whether the institution can be labelled as positive.

Literature Review

The recognition of the affective aspects of language learning goes back to the humanistic movement. The importance of enhancing student learning experiences and their beneficial effects on second language acquisition has been highlighted, e.g., by Stevick (1990) before modern positive psychology originated. Researchers, e.g. Arnold (2011) have also emphasised the significance of positive classroom atmosphere and the rapport between the teacher and the learners as well as among the learners.

Nevertheless, the most prominent contribution from positive psychology to SLA has been Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory looking at the function of emotions (MacIntyre, 2016). While negative emotions tend to narrow an individual's field of attention, the function of positive emotions is to broaden and build. The broaden and build theory suggests that positive emotions can contribute to an upward spiral toward improved subsequent, emotional well-being or a virtuous cycle in other words.

The Current Research

The present study looks at a private language school, which represents a further education context playing a very important role in Polish foreign language education. The participants were studying English at intermediate level. The total was forty-one: eighteen males and twenty-three females. The study was qualitative. To obtain the data student journals were utilized together with naturalistic observation.

To analyse the data, a grounded theory approach was taken. As Charmaz (2006, p. 181) explains, the approach allows systematic but flexible data analysis to formulate theories. According to grounded theory, data collected is analysed for repeated ideas that are tagged with codes. Codes are subsequently grouped into categories that may give rise to new theories. I read the narratives looking for themes or categories which in this study were the positive features of the institution.

Results

The data analysis has enabled me to identify three main themes: physical aspect of the institution, pedagogical approaches, and psychological consequences. The participants

consider the physical aspect of the institution superior to state schools and highlight the fact that it looks more attractive, is cleaner and more modern. They also point out that classrooms are smaller and cosier, the furniture is superior and the technology is more advanced.

All of the respondents feel they are making progress in their English studies, which indicates that pedagogical approaches are conducive to learning. The students say they benefit from activating new language and regular revision. Additionally, they find the lessons appealing thanks to a wide range of activities, techniques and materials as well as relevant topics. The students also praise the clarity of explanations, a considerable amount of speaking practice and employing L2 as the language of instruction.

Moreover, the narratives demonstrate that the teachers use pedagogical approaches enhancing student well-being, which has been manifested by positive psychological consequences such as low level language anxiety and enjoyment. Most of the sample feel at ease. They are rarely anxious when they come to study at this school largely because it is their own decision. It is critical that the instruction does not seem to increase their apprehension. One of the reasons is positive evaluation. Grades are given little importance and learners are not assessed for speaking in front of others. Test anxiety is minimised thanks to revision, familiarising learners with test types and material.

The participants emphasise the relaxed atmosphere of the institution, which has been described as "family". The respondents value the opportunity to express their thoughts within the supportive learning environment free from criticism or ridicule.

Discussion

Looking at the institution from a physical, pedagogical and psychological angle has demonstrated that it could be referred to as positive. Even though the physical aspect of the school is just adequate, the school is extraordinary owing to professional, dedicated teachers who care about student success as language learners as well as their emotional well-being. What is more, the institution creates an upward spiral. Students coming to study here do not usually suffer from anxiety. Thus, the school does not reduce negativity, but focuses on expanding positivity. Learners joining the school with a positive attitude enter a positive virtuous cycle, which in turn, may help them build intellectual resources.

Conclusion

The present study has demonstrated what it means in practice to be a positive institution in the SLA field and how the criterion of enabling success in foreign language acquisition while promoting student well-being can be realized. It is hoped that other foreign language teaching contexts that lack some of the positive aspects use the institution as an example to follow, which would contribute to the growth in number of contexts where foreign languages can be acquired in line with positive psychology.

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CHAPTER 5

Practical Positive Psychology Activities for the Language Classroom

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Positive psychology has become more widely researched within ESL and there is now considerable literature outlining its benefits. However, there is still a shortage of tested pedagogical activities. This paper outlines six practical activities for the language classroom. For readers not familiar with positive psychology, the influential PERMA model developed by Seligman (2012) encapsulates core aspects of the field, with each letter representing one key construct of well-being:

Positive emotion
Engagement
Relationships
Meaning
Achievement

Below, the seven activities are introduced and can be adapted, scaffolded, and expanded for different teaching contexts.

3 Good Things

Gratitude is an important positive emotion which contributes to well-being, a sense of meaning, improves relationships, and engagement. One way to develop an attitude of gratitude is to keep a diary of good things that happen. They can be big things or small things.
Each day, list three good things that happen and the reason why each was good.
Example
Good Thing 1. Dinner was delicious tonight. My mother made grilled chicken.
Why? This was good because... grilled chicken is one of my favourite foods.
Day 1: _____day
Good Thing 1……………………………………………………………………
Why? ……………………………………………………………………

Magic Moments

Magic moments are moments in people's lives with special resonance and can be used to connect to the positive emotions and meaning constructs of the PERMA model. They also give students the opportunity to improve relationships with other students, to experience more of life vicariously, and to bring more magic into their own lives.
List examples for…
⋯ a moment when you felt really alive

⋯ a moment when something really changed in your life

⋯ a 'light-bulb' moment when you had a new understanding

Use the questions below to interview your classmates.
What was one of your magic moments?
Try to experience it again.
What do you see?

What do you hear?

How do you feel?

Which of your classmates' magic moments would you like to experience?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

How can you have more magic in your life?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

Goal-Stepping

Goal-Stepping focuses on the *achievement* construct of the PERMA model and helps in setting achievable goals.

Ask your partner these questions.

What is one of your goals?

When do you want to achieve it?

Help your partner to imagine their goal.

Now imagine you have achieved your goal…

What do you see?

What do you hear?

What do you feel?

What do you say to yourself?

Lead your partner.

1. Imagine your goal is located somewhere in the room. Throw an eraser to mark your goal.
2. Walk to and step into your goal. Visualize achieving your goal.
3. Take a step back. What is the action that needs to happen at this step?

Write down the action. Repeat step 3 at least three times.

Help your partner to identify any missing steps. Be sure there is a step that can be taken very soon.

I-Messages

Positive psychology suggests that relationships are the top predictor of happiness. I-messages help to mend and improve relationships. In a "You-message", a person blames the situation on the other person. An I-message attempts to explain your perspective, thus protecting the relationship and helping the other person understand. An I-message has three parts:

DESCRIBE THE BEHAVIOUR you would like to change in factual terms.

When you leave the dishes beside the sink after a meal for a long time…

DESCRIBE THE CONCRETE EFFECTS this behavior has on you

…it makes the kitchen dirty and then I wash them…

DESCRIBE HOW YOU FEEL about the behavior.

…and I feel angry at you.

➔ When you leave the dishes beside the sink after a meal for a long time, it makes the kitchen dirty and then I wash them, and I feel angry at you.

Think of a situation where someone's behavior annoys you.

Write an I-message.

Role-play the situation with a partner.

Reframing

A *context reframe* suggests another context where the behavior or event might be useful.
Example: *I always feel sleepy.*
→ That could be useful when you are on a long boring journey.
A *content reframe* suggests another meaning for an event or statement.
Example: *I get shy when I have to talk in English. I'll never be able to do it.*
→ Getting shy just means that you care about communicating properly.

Write context reframes of these statements.
Sometimes, I just don't want to talk to people.
etc.
Write your own "problems" and appropriate context reframes.

Write content reframes of these statements.
My teacher is too strict. He doesn't like us.
etc.
Write your own examples and appropriate content reframes.

Learning from Yourself

When students are facing the challenge of learning a foreign language, this activity supports them by remembering something they have learned successfully.
Ask your partner:
What is something you learned successfully?
When did you learn it?

1. What information or knowledge did you need to learn?
2. What skills did you need to learn?
3. What personal characteristics did you need to learn it?
4. What other resources did you have to learn it?
5. What was your motivation?
6. How did you know that you had learned it successfully?
7. How much time did it take to learn?
8. How did you feel while you were learning?

What is something you want to learn successfully?
When will you learn it by?

Ask questions similar to 1-8 to help your partner to think about the new skill.
e.g. What information or knowledge do you need to learn?

Fuller versions of these activities are available from the author (cullen.brian@gmail.com).

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CHAPTER 6

Mechanisms (Dis)Connecting WTC and Speech

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Willingness to communicate in a second language (WTC) is considered to be an individual learner difference that may impact L2 acquisition success or failure (Macintyre, et al., 1998). WTC is believed to be a direct antecedent of communication. As such, WTC ratings have predictive and deductive value when researching learners' communicative behaviors. WTC studies focus on either personality trait-like factors which impact learners' decisions to speak such as confidence (Noels, Yashima & Zang, 2011), extraversion (MacIntyre, Babin & Clement, 1999), and ideal-self (Munezane, 2013), or on immediate, situational factors such as topic knowledge, class atmosphere, and interlocutor variables (Kang, 2005; Cao & Philp, 2006).

While there are strong theoretical arguments for pedagogy that promotes WTC, there is scant empirical evidence of a direct relationship between WTC and actual communication. Conversely, doubts about the nature and extent of this relationship have been voiced, as MacIntyre and Doucette note: 'There is an unfortunate tendency for people in general, and language learners in particular, to fail to act on their intentions…' (2010, p. 161). Furthermore, due to practical difficulties in measuring communication, WTC researchers frequently employ self-reports of participation as evidence of a relationship between trait-WTC and actual language use. Subsequently, clarity concerning the relationship between WTC ratings and communication remains an important limitation in many studies, as Yashima explains: 'the next step… ... should be to investigate whether WTC can predict actual L2 communication behavior.' (2002, p. 63). Moreover, situated studies reveal very weak correlations between WTC and talk (Cao & Philp, 2006; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011) – necessitating further investigation into the relationship between WTC and speech.

The Study

Video data were collected from small, mixed groups of Japanese and international students during in-class conversations at a Japanese university. Japanese participants rated their situational WTC from +10 to –10 using a slightly adjusted version of MacIntyre & Legatto's, (2011) idiodynamic software. Based on those ratings, participants carried out a stimulated recall interview to discuss factors that either promoted or inhibited their participation. In total, 21 conversations were recorded, and 37 interviews were carried out.

Results and Analysis

Preliminary results revealed extremely low correlation coefficients between second-by-second WTC ratings and second-by-second talk time, as shown in table 1.

Table 1. Correlation Coefficients of WTC and Realized Talk

Data collection round one	Data collection round two
Naomi 0.152	Michelle 0.201
Seo 0.201	Seo 0.118
Kevin 0.166	Michelle -0.077
Michelle -0.0176	Seo 0.004
Annie 0.128	

| Steve 0.030 | |
| Terry 0.045 | |

These results are for moment-to-moment WTC and talk time; however, further analysis of different conversational behaviors such as asking topic related questions, or initiating topics may reveal different results.

Subsequent qualitative analysis was guided by comparing moment-to-moment WTC ratings with realized speech. As indicated in the key in Figure 1, actual talk is shown by a diamond on the x-axis, and situational WTC is indicated by the variable line "in situ WTC".

Figure 1. Chart depicting student's WTC ratings and talk

The chart shows that, in some instances, students failed to participate when registering positive WTC ratings (see 04:55 & 08:25), and even communicated while registering negative WTC ratings (see 02:07 & 10:59). Factors contributing to these discrepancies were analyzed and coded.

Coding of (a) factors that regulated WTC and (b) factors that promoted or limited speech was carried out in an inductive and deductive manner, until saturation was reached. Factors contributing to the observed disparities between WTC ratings and talk included: a lack of time, lack of various strategic and structural language competencies, perceived interlocutor interest, having something to say, and various combinations of these factors. These findings are important as previous studies (Kang, 2005; Cao & Philp, 2006) only examined the impact of factors on WTC, but did not examine their effects on speech.

Finally, codes were backchecked against the original transcripts and a hierarchy of relevant factors was derived. The ordering of codes is related to the interdependency of each factor. For example, in order to have "topic interest", sufficient "comprehension" is a prerequisite. Thus "comprehension" precedes "topic interest" in a hierarchy of the coded findings, and "language competencies" is not relevant if the students do not "have something to say".

These findings could help instructors pinpoint individual student's weaknesses in communicative situations, or highlight issues with classroom activities and materials. Additionally, the current procedures could be used to examine the relationship between WTC and various types of talk such as initiations of topic, or conversational turn taking maneuvers.

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CHAPTER 7

Investigating the Change in Willingness to Communicate Factors in an Adult Foreign Language Learner's History

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Anecdotal stories indicate that foreign language (FL) instructors witness varying degrees of willingness to communicate in their classrooms: students who seek opportunities to use the foreign language; students who avoid it; students with high levels of linguistic proficiency who hide it; and students with low levels of proficiency who attempt at the language (MacIntyre, 2007; MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998). What can account for these differences? Some practitioners may simply label these students as *motivated* or *unmotivated*, but this may not be a fair nor accurate assessment based on classroom observations.

Learning about second language willingness to communicate (L2 WTC) through the 6-level heuristic pyramid model (see Figure 1) can assist instructors in understanding the range of potential influences, which include personal, situational, contextual, and temporal factors (MacIntyre et al., 1998).
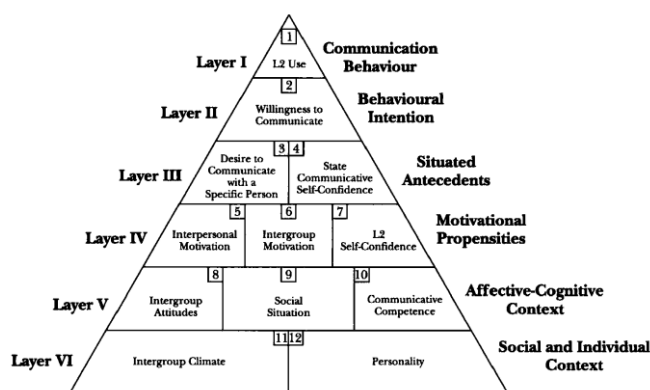
Figure 1. Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing L2 WTC.
Adapted from MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998).

Since the publication of the heuristic model, research investigating and uncovering the underlying factors of L2 WTC has been prolific; however, the research draws heavily on the collection and analyses of questionnaires, which cannot accurately portray the longitudinal scope nor depth of a learner's FL journey. Although these studies add valuable information to the L2 WTC literature, they only capture the learners at one moment and in one context in their language learning journey.

Qualitative narrative research on foreign language learning can reveal the learner's experiences, linguistic developments, affective developments, motivation, dispositions toward learning, access to sociocultural worlds, acceptance in communities of practice, and variables that affect their willingness to communicate (Benson, 2005; Benson & Nunan, 2005; Kalaja, P., Menezes, V. & Barcelos, A. M. F., 2008).

The present study investigated the changes in L2 WTC factors over time and across situations of an adult FL learner through narrative biographical accounts. The study posed two questions:

1. How do L2 WTC factors change for an adult FL learner over the course of her FL journey?
2. What influenced the changes in L2 WTC factors for the learner?

Method

This qualitative study implemented a triangulation approach that included the Willingness to Communicate scale (McCroskey & Richmond, 2013), a foreign language learning history timeline (FLLHT) designed by the author (see Appendix A), and semi-structured interviews to trace the 34-year English and French foreign language history of a 40-year old Japanese woman. The L2 WTC pyramid (MacIntyre, et al., 1998) served as the analytical framework and coding system for investigating the variables that influenced the participant's attitude, actions, and willingness to communicate.

Keiko (a pseudonym) was instructed to draw timelines of her FLLH that served as the foundation for the interviews. Guided questions were constructed to elicit more information about the participant's educational background, FL learning experiences, and to elaborate on items from the timeline. The participant was free to expand, explain, and navigate her storytelling.

Results

Mapping Keiko's journey chronologically exposed patterns and variables that had a significant impact on her life (See Appendices B and C). In childhood, Keiko's initial exposure to English and French was neither positive nor enjoyable. From childhood to the completion of high school, both languages plagued her and caused her much anguish. However, two substantial situations greatly impacted Keiko's foreign language learning experience: studying and living abroad in the United States and France.

A 2-week trip to Idaho and an 18-month missionary excursion in Hawaii shifted Keiko's attitude from negative to positive and her unwillingness to communicate in English to an active pursuit of it. In Idaho, despite Keiko's low communicative competence, her desire to communicate with her host mother increased her L2 WTC. In Hawaii, Keiko's initial low communicative competence did not deter her from using English. Instead, she was motivated to connect with her peers in the social context of doing missionary work together, which significantly increased her willingness to learn and use English.

Contrary to Keiko's experience in America, she arrived in France with sufficient communitive competence and self-confidence; however, the social distance between her and the French community, her inability to connect with them, and her inability to understand their point of view deterred her from seeking opportunities to use the language.

In both environments, the L2 WTC variables that positively and negatively affected her experiences were intergroup climate, social situation, intergroup attitude, intergroup motivation, and interpersonal motivation.

Conclusion

Qualitative narrative research can reveal the complex, dynamic, life-long foreign language journey of adult learners. Furthermore, it can provide instructors and researchers with a thick description of the learners and expand the layers and factors of the original L2 WTC heuristic pyramid model. Finally, these narratives are imperative for applied linguistics and psychology of language learning research because they provide instructors and researchers with invaluable data that extends the borders of the classroom context. Additionally, they provide foreign language learners an opportunity to share and reflect on their own journeys.

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CHAPTER 8

Directed Motivational Currents of Japanese Students

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Introduction

In April 2018, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) announced results of a national survey conducted on the Implementation of English Education in 2017. Results were disappointing. While attainment goal of Eiken grade 3 level for ninth graders was set at 50%, the outcome was 40.7% (MEXT, 2018). When discussing English proficiency, an important measure to consider is student motivation. The presence of a strong inner drive which leads one to study voluntarily is ideal, such as Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs) (Dörnyei, Henry & Muir, 2016). According to Muir (2016), DMCs are experiences that can be observed without any demographic limitations. Her broad study proved that this phenomenon transcends gender, age and nationality. However, a study focusing on a specific age group and nationality should also be worthwhile. This study aims to see whether Japanese college students learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) have ever experienced DMCs individually or as a group.

Research Questions

This study intends to see whether individual DMCs (DMCs experienced individually) and group DMCs (DMCs experienced with others) are phenomena that Japanese college students have ever experienced and whether this was in an English learning context. It also aims to find out the details of their experiences.

Definitions

DMCs are extremely strong motivational drives which carry an individual or group towards a meaningful goal (Dörnyei et al., 2016). The core features of DMCs are as follows: 1. goal/vision orientedness, 2. positive emotionality, 3. salient facilitative structure composed of three factors: a set of recurring behavioral routines without exercise of will power, regular progress checks with subgoals and affirmative feedback, and a clear start and end point (Henry, Davydenko & Dörnyei, 2015, p. 331). This motivation experienced as a group is called group Directed Motivational Currents (group DMCs). (This paper uses the term, "individual DMCs" to refer to DMCs in order to clarify the difference between DMCs experienced as an individual and as a group). If individual DMCs and group DMCs are phenomena that Japanese college students learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) can relate to, a deeper investigation into this should prove to be worthwhile.

Method

Participants were Japanese third and fourth year EFL college students at two colleges (N=24). Two were male and 22 were female. Students were between the ages of 20 to 22 years old. As for the students' English ability, three students had taken the STEP Eiken test and of these, one had Level 3 (N=1), and one had Level Pre-2 (N=1). Based on results of a language school placement test conducted in July 2017, the English level of all 24 students was rated at beginner to low intermediate.

For the procedure, a survey based on a Japanese translation of Muir's (2016) DMC disposition questionnaire was created, and questions concerning group DMCs were added. Measurement was conducted on a five-point Likert scale (5=strongly agree, 4=agree,

3=indifferent, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree). There were also free descriptive sections in order to perceive raw voices of the respondents.

An informed consent document was handed out, signed and returned by all participants. All students agreed to have their data used for this study (N=24). However, two responses (N=2, 8.3%) were excluded from the analysis as many of the questions were left unanswered. All questions were asked and answered in Japanese.

Results and Discussion

The study revealed that 46% of the students had experienced individual DMCs and 55% had experienced group DMCs in the past (Figure 1). As to whether this was in an English learning context, 23% answered 'yes' for individual DMCs and 36% answered positively for group DMCs (Figure 2). These numbers indicate that individual and group DMCs are phenomena that Japanese EFL college students can relate to, even in English learning settings.
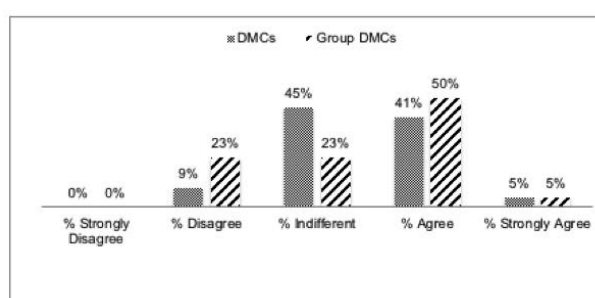
Figure 1. Results to the question *I have experienced DMCs / Group DMCs in the past*.
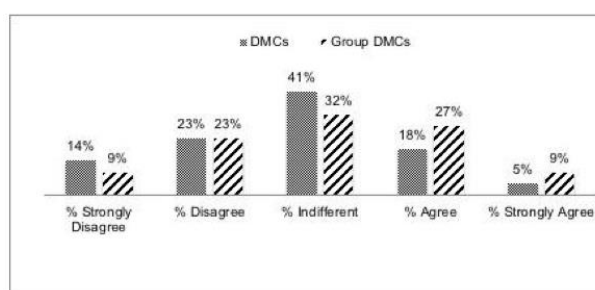
Figure 2. Results to the question *I have experienced DMCs / Group DMCs while studying English*.

Furthermore, analysis of free descriptive data indicated that over 80% of the comments made about their experiences were positive. Content of this was further analyzed using User local, an on-line test mining tool. 368 characters (N=368) were analyzed for individual DMCs and 354 characters (N=354) were examined for group DMCs. Figures 3 and 4 are word clouds representing frequency of appearance. Size of vocabulary indicates how frequently it appeared; the bigger the vocabulary, the more often it was used.
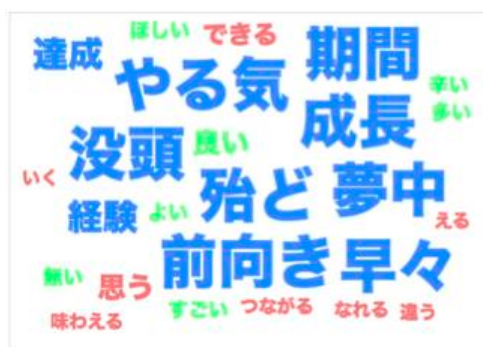
Figure 3. Word cloud for comments made by students about their individual DMCs
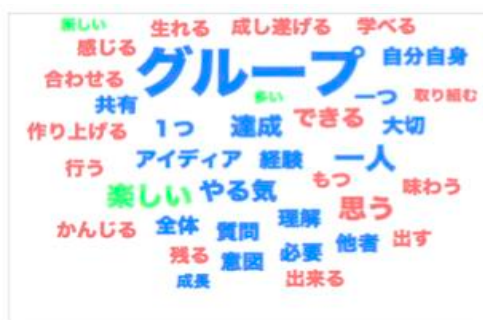
Figure 4. Word cloud for comments made by students about their group DMCs

The word clouds indicate that students used words such as "motivation," "growth," "immersed," "optimistic" to describe their individual DMCs, and "group," "fun," "motivation," "idea," and "achievement" to describe their group DMCs. Thus, it appears that for Japanese students, their individual DMCs provided them with an opportunity for self-growth and self-immersion while group DMCs allowed them to experience a sense of achievement and enjoyment in the process. Furthermore, students seem to have felt motivated during both phenomena.

This study shows that both individual and group DMCs are concepts that Japanese college students have experienced before, with some in an English learning setting. In addition to this, many students seem to perceive their experience positively. Thus, further investigation into this should prove to be worthwhile in the future.

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CHAPTER 9

Motivating English Learning Through Foreign Students Visitations In 5th Graders

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This exploratory action research (Smith, 2016) looks at how teacher's autonomy support and relatedness support helped fifth grade students increase their quality of motivation toward learning English. From observation and by reading written class-feedbacks from students, I have seen some very positive changes in their minds on how they view what a successful interaction looks like. They expressed more competence as an active agent in their interactions in a foreign language.

This research took place in a private elementary school located in west Tokyo. One homeroom class consisted of 36 students making the whole grade a total of 108. The students' English level varied from near-native level to many that couldn't write the alphabet. The class was taught by a native speaking English teacher (NET) and a bilingual Japanese English teacher (JET). It was their first-year learning English at school. They were assigned a one-hour cross-cultural talk (CCT) event every term with international students from an affiliated university. Below, I describe the procedure of the 13 classes that lead up to the CCT, and I annotate my teaching with autonomy support and engagement correlates in parentheses.

First, the NET performed a short presentation in Japanese. The NET was a beginner level Japanese speaker, so he used an array of means to communicate (using realia, taping in on students pre-acquired knowledge, gestures). In the following class, the students gave their impressions on the NET's Japanese speech in the previous class. The students' reported that they liked it a lot and the incomplete Japanese didn't bother them at all. We elicited what made them not concerned about language accuracy but still understand and like the presentation. By eliciting and analyzing, they realized there was more to communication than just language. They also found that all skills that they elicited that made communication work were skills they either what could already perform or simple and practicable with reasonable effort. Then, the JET elaborated and modeled how the way a person talks also has a huge effect on the interlocuters feeling of (in)security. These were examples such as smiling vs neutral facial expression, intense vs occasional eye contact, and adjusting speed of speech. The discrepancy between their image that effective speech must be fluent (pera-pera) and how a listener-friendly speaker speaks seemed to pleasantly shock them and helped them to feel that effective communication seemed much more attainable than they had previously thought. This fact was reflected in their class-feedback sheet that helped them feel more secure about the CCT.

This class-feedback sheet was something the students had been writing after every English class (twice a week) for the last 3 months. In this feedback they were asked to reflect on the previous class and write comments and requests, such as, asking to review a certain topic. They were also asked to write down anything they wanted to know about English, related or not related to the current class topic, in the intention of extending their consciousness about English outside of the classroom. Every feedback sheet was handed back with handwritten comments (student-teacher relatedness). Questions from students were occasionally printed and shared with the whole class which they loved to read. Students reported that this helped them lower their anxiety in class, knowing that other people had the same questions and shared the same feelings towards a certain topic (group-belongingness) (Murphey, 1996). In the next few classes, the students reviewed basic SVX sentence structure, how it's different from Japanese, and why it's important. They also brainstormed whatever they thought would be beneficial for

the international students to be informed of when living in Japan (meaningfulness) and categorized them in to four categories (tradition, school, custom, culture) given by the teacher (scaffolding). Then students were asked to choose a topic among the topics that they agreed on as beneficial for the international students and were to prepare a two-minute presentation on it (autonomy). Free choice was given how and what to use for their presentation if it was congruent with what they thought will best send their message at the CCT.

After a two-week break, the students were given the opportunity to practice their presentation in the way that they would at the CCT. Students were given instructions on how to give peer-assessment that will be beneficial for the listener. They were asked to evaluate on the speakers' communicational effort (subjective perceptions on comfortable amount of eye-contact, speech volume, visual and other aids, gestures, posture). This is because their English level was not advanced enough to understand other students. It was also congruent with the teachers' constant message that language is only one of the useful tools in communication, thus it made them feel safe that they were not assessing others/been assessed on things they didn't have confidence in. The students were then given advice on how to interpret constructive feedback. The students had started to express how practicing under pressure was exciting and they were making improvements. This lead in to presentation practice in a higher, and different, level of pressure – parents class observation. The parents were asked to play the same role as a listener and used the same evaluation sheets as the previous classes. In a setting where constant and quick feedback was provided, rapid reflection funneled them into intense deliberate practice at an optimal challenge level. Most students got at least fifteen times (7-8 with peers, 7-8 with parents) before their CCT.

In the written comments after the CCT, the vast majority reported positive and determined attitudes to communicate with foreigners even if their English was incomplete (improvement in competence). They also expressed very specific awareness of meaning in improving on linguistic aspects of English in order to become a more effective communicator.

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CHAPTER 10

Directed Motivational Currents in Higher Education: A Case Study of Japanese MBA Students at an English-Based Business School

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The field of L2 motivation has been receiving increasing attention during the past decade (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015). One construct that has received remarkable attention in the field is a Directed Motivational Current (DMC). It is a recent theoretical framework describing unique periods in which a person is intensely motivated to complete a specific goal (Dörnyei, Muir, & Ibrahim, 2014). Henry, Davydenko & Dörnyei (2015) provide evidence that DMCs have three elements: goal/vision orientedness, a salient facilitative structure, and positive emotionality. More recently, Ibrahim (2016) adds two elements such as identifiable triggering factors and launch, and attenuation and aftermath as characteristics of DMCs. Furthermore, in her study she found all three participants with DMCs achieved their goals even though DMCs had vanished after their accomplishments. Despite those promising new findings of L2 motivation research, research into DMC has been scant. Especially, an area of DMC research may be necessary for EFL Japanese students who are struggling with requirements to meet English language proficiency requirements in MBA program at foreign universities. The aim of this study is to examine whether Japanese students have DMC characteristics, how DMCs effects on their individual goals, and their experience after achieving their goals.

Four EFL/MBA students (Yoji, Sho, Kyo, Takako) who have studied in a European Business School, which is located in Spain and offers English-based MBA programs, participated in the study. They are all in their 30s. Three participants (Yoji, Sho, Kyo) were male and one participant (Takako) was female. All participating students were native speakers of Japanese. They had all education in Japan until they graduate from a well-known university in Japan. While they were studying for their TOEFL test, they worked at a company.

Two interviews were held in Japan. In the first phase of the interview, the semi-structured interviews had three components: a) Affiliation b) English learning experience c) MBA requirements. In the second phase of the individual interview, a self-plotted graph was used to elicit participants' retrospective memories of time change (Chan, Dörnyei, & Henry, 2015; Henry, 2015; Henry, Davydenko, & Dörnyei, 2015; Yashima & Arano, 2015). The graph shows the X-axis as a time frame and the Y-axis as a level of motivation from 1 to 10, is used. Then, they were asked to describe their motivation from the year of 2001 they started to study TOEFL for MBA program requirements to current (after 3 years graduating from MBA).

Results reveal that three (Yoji, Sho, Kyo) out of the four students had improved their TOEFL score by more than 20 points. Those members experienced an intense motivational drive, which could be described as a DMC. Three elements of a DMC were observed: 1) A specific *goal* of achieving an iBT TOEFL score of 100 as a minimum entrance requirement and being a MBA holder; 2) A strategic challenge took part in a huge financial cost and time management to private English lessons and self study towards their goal; and 3) Feelings of satisfaction.

On the other hand, one participant (Takako) who has not struggled with IELTs exams and has intrinsic motivation keeps studying English as well as using English in a job. She has

liked English since she was a junior high school and shows appreciation for the English lessons which cover the basics of English in junior and high school.

Results in a second interview show three DMCs participants' Self-Assessed Motivational trajectories. The important point was DMCs in TOEFL has dropped or/and switched to the MBA program after accomplishing the close score of 100 points. Then, DMCs dropped sharply after graduating from MBA school due to mainly tiredness. However, three students keep adapting their English learning style to listen to English programs such as CNN and NHK world news or watch English News and entertainment on cable TV as a habit or daily hobby without paying a special attention because they would like to keep their English levels.

The findings provide important insights, which relate to how Japanese MBA graduates overcome difficult challenges with DMCs in order to achieve personal English language goals. Life can be changed to repeat successful experiences with DMCs. More case studies in different settings will be important to discover more about the role of DMCs in language learning.

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CHAPTER 11

Learner Perceptions of Active Learning: Some Issues of Poster Session Activities in ESP University Classes

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Recently the Ministry of Education has been promoting active learning as a part of school curriculum reform. The nexus of active learning involves learner-centered activities, interactive or communicative experiences, and deep learning, all of which are germane to group presentations. This new active learning trend in English education in Japan, although increasingly incorporated into secondary and tertiary education, has received only modest attention from researchers; thus, more research would be prudent to probe the effectiveness of such active learning classes and learner reactions to such programs. In this study, we report on an ESP course on poster sessions as active learning at a private university in Tokyo.

Class Overview

The students enrolled in this course (N = 230-270 per year) are third-year students majoring in STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) who may have an opportunity to attend a conference and to participate in a poster session there. In this course, students had to cooperate to form groups, chose a topic related to their majors, design a poster, plan the oral component, and finally do their poster presentation. Achieving the target tasks meant working extensively with a group. At the end of the courses in 2015, 2016, and 2017, students completed a survey consisting of 17 items on perceptions of classroom activities and also on progress in language skills. The survey included 5-point Likert scale questionnaire items evaluating the effectiveness of the program. In 2017, the survey was lengthened to include group dynamics, motivation, classroom climate, facets of self-determination, and the decision-making process.

Longitudinal Effects

The survey on poster presentation was conducted for three consecutive years. As for the content, students indicated that they gained new knowledge, enjoyed making posters, and yet expressed that making posters was difficult. There were significant differences in student ratings between 2016 and 2017.

Table 1. Student Evaluations of the Content

Year	2015	sig	2016	sig	2017
Content					
1. New knowledge	3.75		3.73	*	4.11
2. Enjoyed making poster	3.56		3.64	*	4.00
3. Making poster difficult	4.06		4.15		4.09

Note. An asterisk indicates statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level. Results were corrected with a context-dependent FDR correction.

As for preparation, students said that they learned how to write an abstract and how to prepare for a poster session; the results improved significantly every year, perhaps due to the improvement of teaching approaches. In 2017, the means for all items equaled or exceeded 4.00 (out of a maximum of five).

Table 2. Student Evaluation of Perception

Year	2015	sig	2016	sig	2017
Preparation					
5. How to write abstract	3.60	*	3.88	*	4.15
6. How to prepare session	3.71	*	3.90	*	4.16
7. How to organize poster	3.59		3.73	*	4.01

Note. An asterisk indicates statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level. Results were corrected with a context-dependent FDR correction.

The items on skills revealed that reading, speaking, listening and explaining skills are perceived to have improved, especially in 2017. In 2015, most skills were under 3.5. Again, teaching improved gradually year by year as is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Student Evaluation of Skills

	2015	sig	2016	sig	
Skills					
8. Research skills up	3.27		3.28	*	
9. Reading skills up	3.38		3.34	*	
10. Writing skills up	3.30		3.41		
11. Speaking skills up	3.49		3.44	*	
12. Writing skills up	3.30		3.24	*	
13. Explaining skills up	3.55	*	3.77	*	

Note. An asterisk indicates statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level. Results were corrected with a context-dependent FDR correction.

Group-work and Autonomy

In 2017, we investigated how students perceived decision making processes and group work. A total of 131 students responded, with the average score of 4.69 out of 5 indicating that they were actively involved in poster preparation group work. When they decided on topics, 37 % chose the topics of the members' interests, 27% decided to present about their research (seminar) themes, and 10% discussed to reach agreement.

As for the group size, 18.3% formed a pair, 55.0% formed a group of 3, 16.8% formed a group of 4, and 9.9% were in a group of 5. The group of 3 seemed to have worked best, as 71 out of 72 students responded that the group size was appropriate. Pairs mentioned that 2 was too small in terms of the workload of preparation. Those in groups of 4 mentioned that it was difficult to share the group work fairly and those of 5 were concerned that the work load was unequal and that sharing information was difficult.

In regard to the strengths of group work, students gained new perspectives and knowledge through group work; they taught each other, and collaborated effectively. On the other hand, it was difficult for many students to meet outside the classroom to complete their posters, and the work load were unbalanced in some groups. Some referred to the difficulty of coordinating opinions in a group. Although the students were in favor of group work in general, issues such as fairness in responsibility, evaluation, and leadership emerged.

Conclusions and Implications

In this study, an ESP course focusing on poster sessions was implemented and evaluated. As a type of active learning, students enjoyed their experiences and improved in language and presentation skills according to the exit surveys. It was also found that the program itself improved year by year after the first year of implementation. On the contrary, some factors of group dynamics should be treated carefully; for instance, the issue of uneven work load can be addressed before beginning group work; the students can discuss and negotiate the preparation tasks in the group, which is an important and essential skill that should be nourished at university. This study provides evidence for teachers and students as well to improve the curriculum actively as stakeholders of the learning.

CHAPTER 12

Mental Contrasting with Implementation Intentions, Social Networking and Second Language Development

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Mental contrasting with implementation intentions (MCII) is a self-regulatory strategy for accomplishing one's future goals (Oettingen & Reininger, 2016). It is often re-labelled WOOP, which stands for making a goal or wish (W), envisioning and elaborating on the outcomes (O) of achieving that wish, identifying obstacles (O) that might prevent achievement, and making a plan (P) to cope with those obstacles.

MCII has helped people manage their time (Oettingen, Mayer, & Brinkmann, 2010), engage in greater physical activity (Sheeran, Harris, Vaughan, Oettingen, & Gollwitzer, 2013), stop smoking (Oettingen, Mayer, & Thorpe, 2010), and so on. It has been connected with greater achievement in dieting and personal health care, social interaction, mathematics, and more (Oettingen & Reininger, 2016). Studies related to second language (L2) learning have shown that children who engaged in MCII were more committed to their language learning goals and performed better in language classes than students who did not; furthermore, university students who engaged in MCII developed more realistic expectations of study abroad (including the linguistic challenges) and had higher expectations of success than those who those did not (Oettingen, Pak, & Schnetter, 2001). These are the only known studies connecting MCII and L2 learning to date.

Social interaction plays an important role in L2 development, in particular for those studying abroad. Specifically, time interacting with locals in the L2, depth and breadth of friendships with locals and other measures of social networking have been significant predictors of L2 development during study abroad (Dewey, 2017). MCII has been shown to promote social interaction and relationships with others in non-L2 settings, but no research to date has explored promotion of social interaction using MCII for L2 learners.

In the current study, we compared learners taught to use MCII to increase their social interaction with locals (MCII group) with those not taught (control group). The research questions were as follows:

1. Does the MCII group develop better social networks with locals than the control group?
2. Does the MCII group show greater L2 development than the control?

The second question was based on two assumptions: first, learners who develop better social networks with locals (presumably the MCII group) will also benefit in terms of L2 development, and second, learners with MCII instruction will be able to transfer the skills to the domain of L2 learning and subsequently develop greater proficiency.

Methods

A total of 84 English L2 learners (42 female, 42 male, 43 MCII, 41 control, 45 L1 Spanish, 39 Other L1) participated in the study. MCII students received one hour of MCII instruction at the beginning of a term, and reflected on MCII and their goals in writing every

three weeks during their three-month term. Controls were taught about self-regulation in more general terms at the beginning of the semester but were given no specific self-regulatory tools in that instruction.

During MCII instruction, students created goals related to interacting with local native speakers of English. They then imagined what it would be like to accomplish those goals (outcomes). Next, they thought of goal obstacles, focusing on when, where and how these obstacles would arise. Finally, they made if-then plans for coping with these obstacles (e.g., If I feel stupid talking to someone, I'll pause, take a breath, and say one of my five memorized conversation-starting lines.").

Results and Discussion

MCII learners developed social networks with locals more than the control group (measured using the SASIQ; Dewey, Bown, & Eggett, 2012). ANCOVA results, with pre-departure social network variables as covariates, indicated the MCII group belonged to significantly more social groups (Dispersion) than the control ($p=.013$) and spent significantly more time speaking English (Time) with locals ($p=.033$). Overall, their networks with locals became larger (Size) and stronger (Intensity), and the individual social groups they belonged to became larger (Density) than the control, but none of these latter differences reached significance. These patterns are similar to those Dewey (2017) notes predict L2 proficiency development—namely, learners with L2 networks greater in Size, Intensity, Dispersion and Density in particular tend to develop higher L2 speaking proficiency.

Regarding L2 development, there were no significant differences between the MCII and control groups. Scores on a computer-prompted speaking achievement test were included in the analysis, but speaking proficiency, the primary area where significant correlations with social network measures have been found in previous studies, was not assessed .

Conclusion

This study shows the potential of MCII to enhance social network formation with L2 speakers during immersive in-country experiences. English language learners in the U.S. taught MCII out-performed controls in creating social networks with locals. Future studies can focus on specific aspects of L2 development or can implement MCII in a variety of additional areas related to positive psychology and L2 acquisition - motivation, stress and anxiety reduction, habit formation, self-awareness, agency, identity, flow, and so forth.

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CHAPTER 13

Constructive Conflict Resolution Strategy and Willingness to Communicate as predictors of Intercultural Communicative Competence

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Globalization and the unprecedented increase in the mobility of people have brought about the hyper-interconnected society, where intercultural contact is ubiquitous. In this multicultural, multilingual world, learners' levels of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) may have a tremendous influence on the amount of time and efforts learners invest in L2 communication and language learning (Mirzaei & Forouzandeh, 2013). Under this circumstance, the ultimate objective of second and foreign language learning is now transferring from communicative competence to intercultural communicative competence (Byram, Holmes, & Savvides, 2013). Therefore, cultivating intercultural communicative competence among young generation is of paramount importance. Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in an L2, which is widely believed to facilitate the acquisition of the target language, has recently been extensively investigated (Trofimovich & Reid, 2018; Yashima, MacIntyre, & Ikeda, 2018). In this study, willingness to communicate, an established construct in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) field, was integrated for the first time into the ICC model to bridge language classroom to intercultural communicative context. The concept of constructive conflict resolution strategy was also added and tested for the first time, in the ICC model. The rationale for testing this construct in the model is that conflicts and disagreements could be the possible aspects of intercultural communication (Hoff, 2014). The primary purpose of this study is to explore the structural relationships among WTC, and several related concepts that affect ICC. Due to space limitations, the focus of this summary paper will be on the impact of WTC, motivation to engage in intercultural communication, and constructive conflict resolution, on ICC.

Methods

Participants
Participants were 210 Japanese university EFL students in the Tokyo area.
Measurements
Willingness to communicate in English instrument: A modified version of Sick and Nagasaka's (2000) WTC scales with 17 items were used to measure to what degree students are willing to communicate both inside and outside the classroom. Intercultural Communicative Competence: Three items on cognitive, six items on affective, and six items on behavioral aspect of intercultural communicative competence were taken from Arasaratnam (2009) and Chen and Starosta (2000) to measure the learners' intercultural communicative competence. Constructive Conflict Resolution: Six items on constructive conflict resolution were prepared based on Henning (2003), to measure to what degree participants are inclined to apply constructive conflict resolution strategies in dealing with a conflict with intercultural partners. Motivation to Engage in Intercultural Communication: The motivation to engage in intercultural communication scale assessed to what degree learners are motivated to communicate with intercultural partners. Six items were taken and modified from Arasaratnam's (2006).

Results and Discussion

In order to explore the hypothesized relationships among variables, path analysis, a special case of structural equation modeling (Hancock & Schoonen, 2015), was performed, using EQS 6.1 (Bentler, 2006). In the model, motivation to engage in intercultural communication, and constructive conflict resolution directly predicted intercultural communicative competence, suggesting that higher wish to interact with intercultural partners, and higher preference for resolving the disagreements constructively, leads to higher ICC. WTC indirectly predicted ICC, through motivation to engage in intercultural communication, suggesting that higher willingness to initiate a conversation both inside and outside the classroom leads to higher motivation to interact and exchange opinions on various issues from people from different cultures, which leads to higher ICC.

Conclusions and Implications

In this study, constructive conflict resolution strategies directly predicted intercultural communicative competence. Various activities can be designed so learners can experience intercultural disagreement/conflict situations, and learn negotiation skills, and settle the disagreement through dialogue toward mutual understanding and constructive conflict resolution. Classroom-relevant psychological construct willingness to communicate was found to be the indirect predictor of ICC through motivation to engage in intercultural communication. Willingness to communicate is a crucial step toward enhancing interpersonal relationship (Imamura & Zhang, 2014), essential to the development of the intercultural relationship and intercultural communicative competence. Classroom tasks and activities can be designed to enhance learners' WTC (Munezane, 2015) to bridge the language classrooms to the intercultural communicative settings, stretching the boundaries.

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CHAPTER 14

Stretching Boundaries with Social Testing and Self-Evaluations in Language Classes

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Stretching

This exploratory action research (Smith 2015) describes a new conception of testing in which students are directed to evaluate themselves (give themselves grades) at two moments in time: the first after a certain amount of time filling in answers that they can recall alone; and the second after asking others in the class for mediating help during a socially interactive time period. The first grade represents their own individual efforts, without their connections in the class. The second grade represents a situated person in a community with their connections in the class. Enacting self evaluations and particularly the second stage of social testing seems to provoke potentials for expansive learning that may not normally emerge in traditional testing: potentials for self-appropriation of self-evaluation, agency, helpfulness, altruism, social learning, social construction, and the pedagogical learning of scaffolding.

I do not propose that these tests are valid for assessing each individual's competence (not that I believe many others are), but that these exploratory procedures enlighten students to different aspects of learning and evaluation, and to different aspects of classroom dynamics and learning potentials. I see these tests as a generative way of continuing student learning. While there are ways to test such tests more rigorously following conventional assessment guidelines, I am more concerned here with the expansive learning potentials provoked by the procedure and the parallels that seem to exist with dynamic assessment and socio-cultural theory, particularly the use of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and the zone of proximal adjustment (ZPA). This social testing attempts to blend learning and assessment, which is an essential trait of dynamic assessment, and to blend theory with practice in praxis as described by Lantolf and Poehner (2014).

Why Social Testing: Going back in time

Social Testing is supported by Cozolino (*The Social Neuroscience of Education,* 2013) and Lieberman (*Social: Why our brains are wired to connect,* 2013) who advocate for more social and altruistic possibilities in education. These neuroscience books came a decade after David Block's *The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition* (2003) that highlighted research that supports being more socially interactive to learn. There has since been an even greater emphasis on the social turn in SLA (cf: Atkinson, 2011; Ortega, 2009). Robin Dunbar (1998) claimed that the main reason we had big new brain parts, the neocortex, was so that we could live in larger groups and be more actively social.

Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman (2011) introduce the problem well in saying:

We tend to take the use of tests for granted. However, underlying their use is a set of assumptions about the knowledge and abilities being tested that are different from those of SCT [socio-cultural theory]. For example, in general, we think of tests as something that must be done alone. It is considered cheating to ask a peer for help, to use a dictionary, or to search the Internet. Why? (p. 118).

Thus, our basic assumptions lead us down a path that ignores our sociality.

So the best qualitative feedback for students is probably that which comes from peers who are near the same level, experiencing similar things, and are able to adjust to each other more qualitatively, and be near peer role models.

Student Self Evaluated Social Testing Procedures

My procedures start with a conventional test that slowly turns into a social collaboration, a contrast that is sharply noticed and commented upon in student feedback. The following steps have developed over the last five years of experimenting with this procedure (10 semesters of university EFL classes, involving students from all four years with 20 to 160 students in a class).

1. Students take a regular style test and then told to put away their pencils and erasers, and to take out a pen (blue for best contrast) and give themselves an estimated score at the bottom of the test, (see below)
2. Then I tell them they have 10 to 20 minutes (depending on how active they are and how big the group is) to ask any of the questions to anyone in the room and to add to their answers or write down new answers on their tests. Also: "*You are not allowed to look at anyone's paper or show your own paper to anyone.*" (Sometimes I need to explain that "copying" is not learning; whereas a dialogue can open ourselves up to an exchange of ideas and nuances.)
3. After finishing the second part, I ask them to put in the second score and to write the *names of the people who helped them*, *the names of those they helped*, and to comment on *what they think of the test*. The bottom looks something like this:

1st score _____ /100%   2nd score _____ /100%
Who helped you?
Who did you help?
What do you think of this test?

Conclusion

Asking people to evaluate themselves for a real test can engage them in a deeper process than most young people usually engage in. Students tell me that they don't know how to evaluate themselves and are often at a loss. Forced to do so by the rubrics of the social test, they get experience evaluating themselves, something they will do their whole lives.

I do not expect it to replace our conventional tests any time soon, however I offer it as a potential for creating more learning and helping for those teachers who are more concerned with student learning than student testing. As one student commented: "I really like this type of test. I've never done such a creative and interactive test, and I really think that I was required to get information and help people, and these are vital skills to live in real life!" (For further details and full references please see the two articles/links below.)

Link for the full chapter with references
https://www.academia.edu/31159069/Provoking_Potentials_Student_Self-Evaluated_and_Socially-Mediated_Testing

Link for Rick Reis's Tomorrow's Professor Web site Stanford University #1581 end of June 2017 <https://tomprof.stanford.edu/mail/1562#>

CHAPTER 15

Perspective and Attitude Toward English of Japanese Kindergarten Parents

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Introduction

This study investigates perspectives and attitudes toward English that parents of kindergarteners have in Japan. With the age of compulsory English education being lowered, there has been an increase of interest in this for early childhood. According to a survey conducted by Benesse Educational Research and Development Institute (BERD) in 2012, 58% of private kindergartens across Japan (N=921) conduct English lessons during regular class time. This number was 48% in 2007, an increase of 10% in five years (BERD, 2012). Most studies discuss the validity of lowering the age of study and do not shed light on parental views. However, since the influence that parents have on children at this age is substantial, a study on parental views seems worthwhile. Currently, there are very few studies conducted in this area (Nakayama & Hirose, 2010). In order to further elucidate voices of parents whose children are receiving or are going to receive English education, a parental questionnaire was administered at a private kindergarten in Tokyo (hereon referred to as Kindergarten A).

Method and Procedure

A parental questionnaire inquiring about English education that their child is receiving in kindergarten and parental consciousness toward English in the early childhood years was conducted at a Japanese kindergarten in November 2017. Participants could choose to answer either by paper, which was handed out to all parents of the four and five-year-old classes, or on-line via their cell phones or personal computers. 205 questionnaires were handed out (N=205) and 111 were collected (N=111; 33 on-line, 78 paper). The questionnaire consisted of 36 questions, with a majority using a four level Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 4=strongly agree). Contents of the questionnaire included demographic questions, questions regarding views on English in general, and questions on English education that their child is receiving at kindergarten. Items were created based on a questionnaire for parents with children in elementary school (grades one through six) in a BERD survey conducted in 2006 (BERD, 2006). The responses from kindergarten parents were compared and contrasted with answers from the elementary school parents in the BERD survey.

Results

Demographic questions

97% of the respondents were mothers and 3% were fathers. 51.5% of the mothers and fathers were 40 to 44 years old. 57.6% of the mothers stayed at home during the day, 42.4% worked part-time, and none worked full-time. 46.9% of the mothers had received education up to 22 years old and 48.5% of the fathers had received education up to the same age. 51.1% answered that their child was their firstborn, 34.9% their second, and 9.1% their third. A majority of the children (91.0%) had never been abroad.

Analysis of questions revealed the following:

1. 53% of Kindergarten A's parents surveyed like English (Figure 1).
2. 90% of Kindergarten A's parents were not confident in using English (Figure 2).
3. 66% of Kindergarten A's parents had experienced difficulty in learning English (Figure 3).
4. 83.3% of Kindergarten A's parents do not know what type of English education their child is receiving at kindergarten, compared to 56.7% of elementary school parents (Figure 4).
5. Both Kindergarten A's parents and elementary school parents seemed to wish that their child acquire the following skills in learning English: relieve uneasiness felt toward the language, get used to sound and rhythm, be able to listen to and speak the language, interact with individuals from various countries, and understand the culture and lifestyle of different countries (all > 80%). Elementary school parents showed a higher preference (about 65%) for English reading and writing skills compared to Kindergarten A's parents (Figure 5).
6. Kindergarten A's parental expectation of English education was higher than the results obtained (Figure 6).
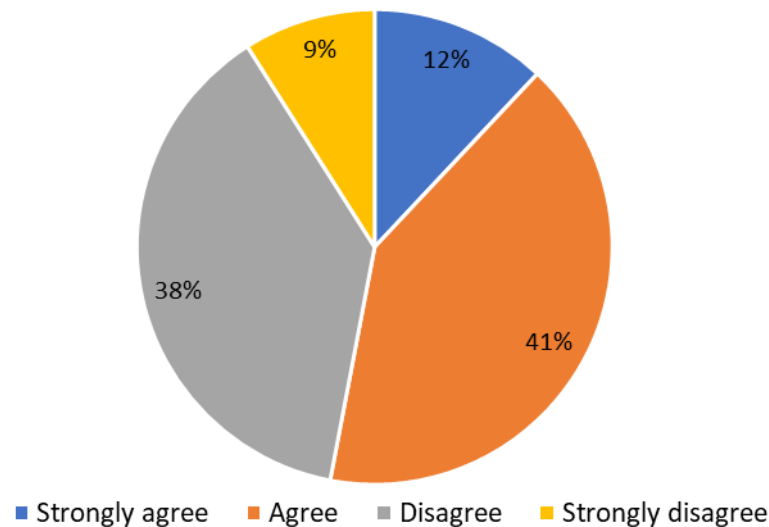
Figure 1. Kindergarten A's parental attitude toward English. Answer to question "I like English."
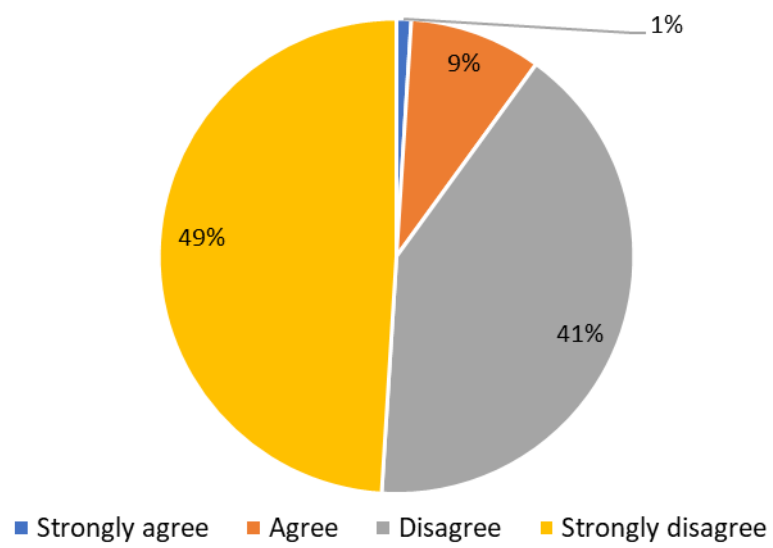
Figure 2. Kindergarten A's parental attitude toward English. Answer to question "I feel confident to use English."
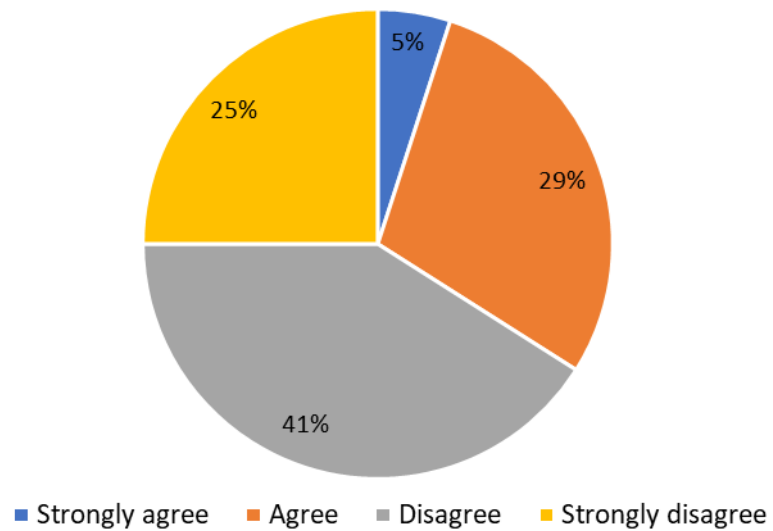
Figure 3. Kindergarten A's parents' past experience of English. Answer to question "It has been easy to learn English."
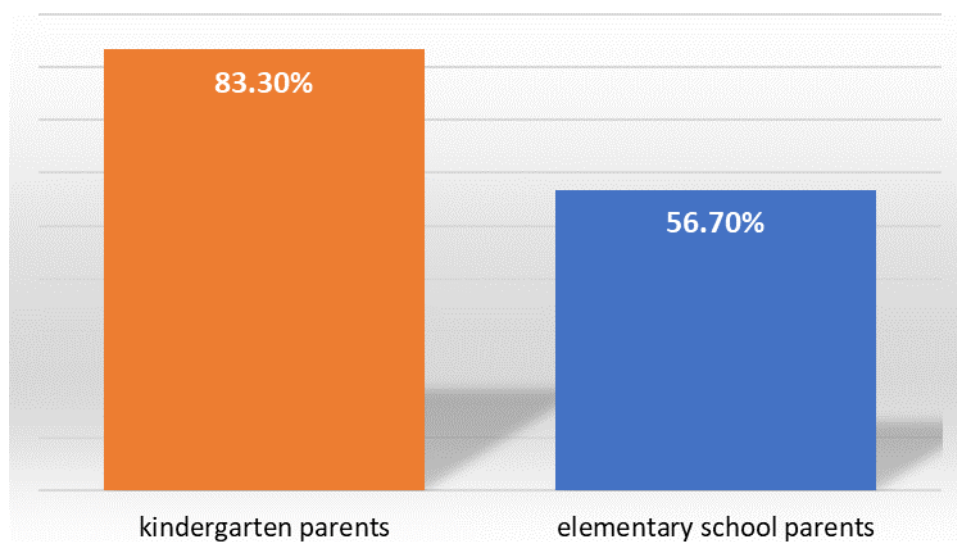
Figure 4. Parental understanding of English education conducted at Kindergarten A. Percentage of parents who "strongly agree" and "agree" to the question, "I do not know what type of English education my child is receiving at school."

Note. indicates %, multiple answers allowed, "very much" and "much" combined
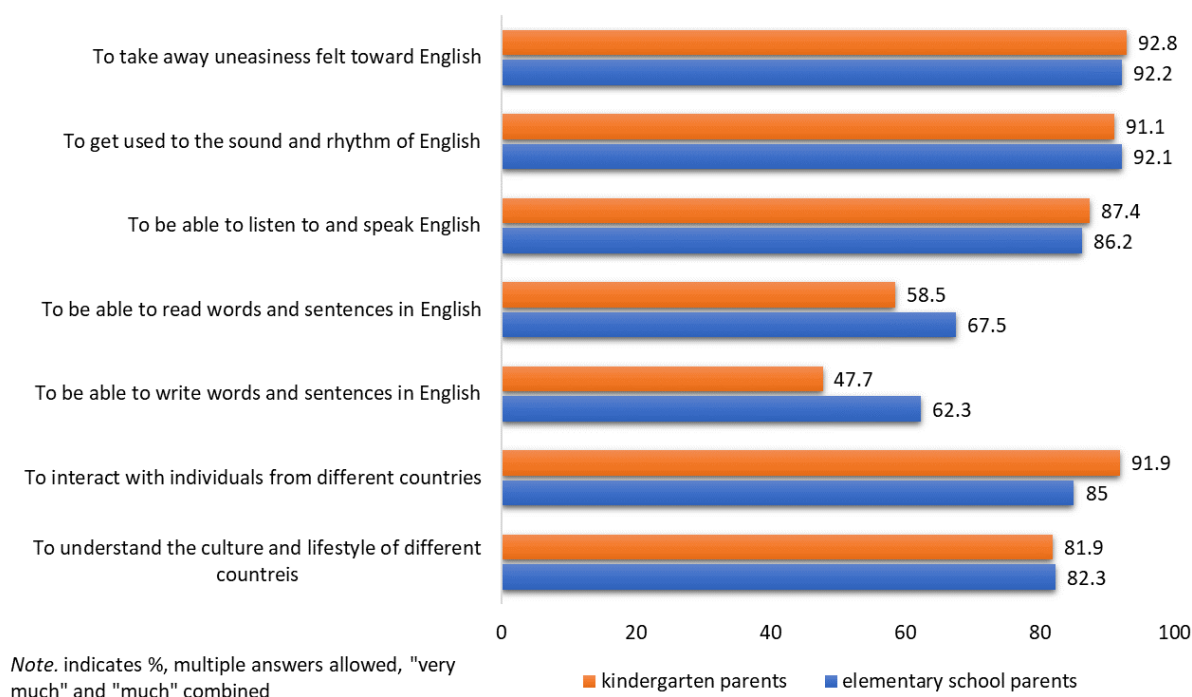
Figure 5. Skills that Kindergarten A's parents and elementary school parents want their child to acquire by learning English. Answer to question "How much would you like your child to acquire the following skills from learning English?"
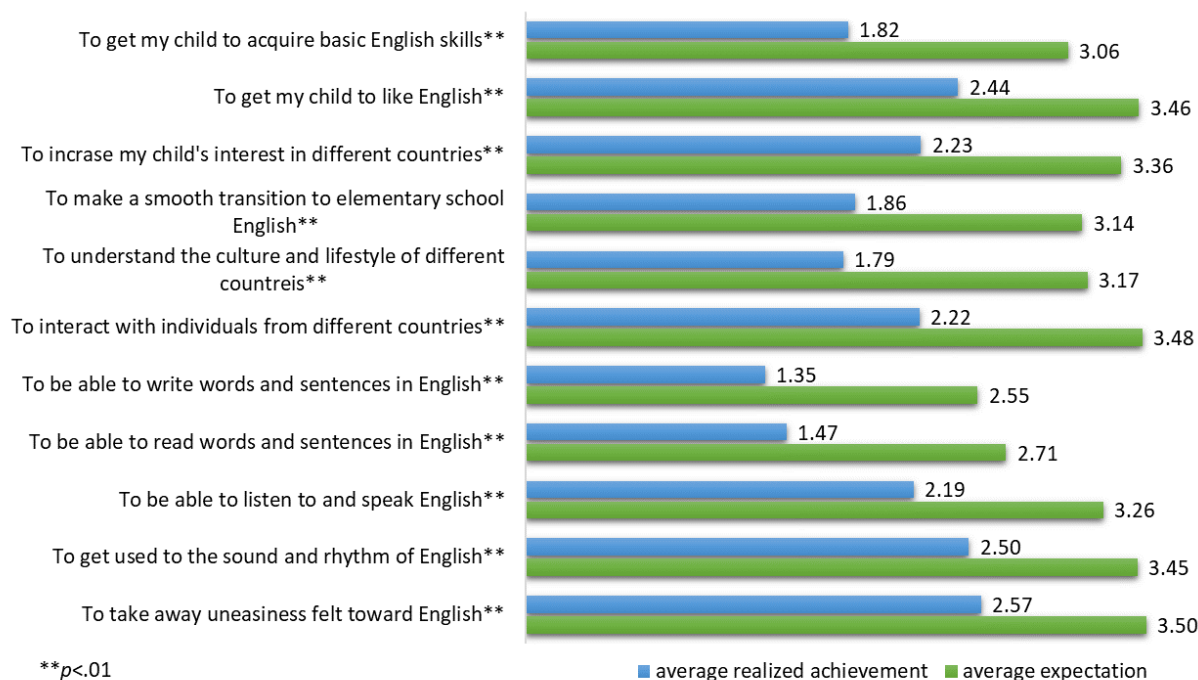
Figure 6. Parental expectation and realized achievement from English education at Kindergarten A. T-test on parental expectation and realized achievement from English education at kindergarten.

Discussion

Kindergarten A's parents' lack of confidence in their own English skills and past difficulty in the language could be the cause of high expectations for their child's English skills. However, even L1 skills are at their developmental stages in kindergarten. Thus, parents may need to reconsider their expectations about the level of L2 language attainment for their child. Furthermore, parental expectation of what can be obtained as a result of English education at Kindergarten A was higher than what they felt had been acquired and will be obtained by their child. This suggests the need for Kindergarten A to actively evaluate their curriculum, pin down problems, and work to improve these. However, the issue may be that parents are lacking opportunities to accurately evaluate their child's English abilities. It can be easily imagined that a child will chose not to speak in English when their parents are native speakers of Japanese.

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CHAPTER 16

Diversity of Feelings in the L2 Classroom

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Despite historically attempting to divorce rational aspects of meaning making from emotional sense-making (see Damasio, 1994), the process of learning is bound up with our feelings. Emotions are episodes emergent from an object focus, and are composed of a subjective feeling, bodily reactions, and expressive behavior (Cahour, 2013).

One emotional aspect of second language (L2) learning that has a relatively rich research history is foreign language anxiety – worry and nervousness about using an L2 (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). However, Pavlenko (2013) has argued that the focus on anxiety seems to have led to neglect in the exploration of any other emotional aspects of L2 learning. While recently Boudreau, MacIntyre and Dewaele (2018) have examined relationships between L2 anxiety and enjoyment, clearly there is room for empirical work uncovering the diversity of feelings in the L2 classroom.

The Study

The current paper describes a study involving two classes of first-grade science and technology students (n=47) in compulsory English lessons at a university in Japan. The researcher was also the teacher for the classes. The lesson focus was speaking/listening skills. Student English ability levels ranged from approximately 400 to 800 points on the TOEIC (TOEIC is a test of English language skills for business, developed by the Educational Testing Service). Participants wrote introspective journals in English, collected weekly over a semester of study. The prompt for the journal was simply:

> Please write about your experiences in lessons. However, do not merely list the activities we did in the lesson. Try to write your perceptions and reflections about your actions and those of other class members doing the various activities.

Analysis revealed that participants frequently used the journals to reflect on their *feelings* in lessons. This development prompted the researcher to re-examine the data from an emotional angle. Analysis aimed to explore the following two questions:

1. In what ways do participants perceive feelings based on their experiences in the classroom?

2. What object foci do participants perceive to these emergent feelings?

Analysis utilized the qualitative data management software NVivo. It began with straightforward content analysis of different feelings and object foci, looking for repetitions and regularities across entries. New codes were created as a phenomenon was not represented by existing codes. Entries were also coded to "week" and "case" codes to enable examination of dynamics. Connections, relationships, and discrepancies between codes were then examined using the matrix coding function of NVivo, and used to develop graphs and multiple threading (Davis & Sumara, 2006 – see Results).

Results

The analysis uncovered a veritable rainbow of feelings perceived by learners. As Table 1 illustrates, across the two classes, there appeared to be seven positively-valenced feelings (blue shades) and three negatively-valenced feelings (red shades) about which students wrote. Despite the long-standing focus on anxiety in L2 learning, while over two thirds of the participants did perceive anxiety at some point in their studies, an interesting finding was that it ranked quite lowly compared to the experience of other feelings. Indeed, a sense of achievement was the most-referenced feeling, with a remarkable 44% of entries across the semester making some reference to this positive feeling.

Table 1. Frequency of Reference to Different Feelings, and Commonly Occurring Object Foci

Feeling	Percentage of entries	Number of students	Frequent foci
Sense of achievement	44%	43	Activity, Other students, Hobbies/Interests/Private-life
Enjoyment	33%	45	Activity, Other students, Hobbies/Interests/Private-life, Friendship
Disappointment	31%	44	Activity, Self, Other Students
Gratitude	27%	39	Activity, Other students, Teacher
Sense of difficulty	27%	43	Activity, Other students
Interest	25%	37	Activity, Other students
Anxiety	18%	36	Activity, Other students, Self, Personality
Admiration	13%	32	Other students, Hobbies/Interests/Private-life
Excitement	8%	21	Activity, Other students, Hobbies/Interests/Private-life
Surprise	7%	21	Activity, Other students

The findings also allow insights to the frequently contrasting qualities of feelings that students perceive in their learning experiences. This contrast is evident at the whole-class level, as in Figure 1, which shows the ratio of different feelings perceived by all participants by week of study.
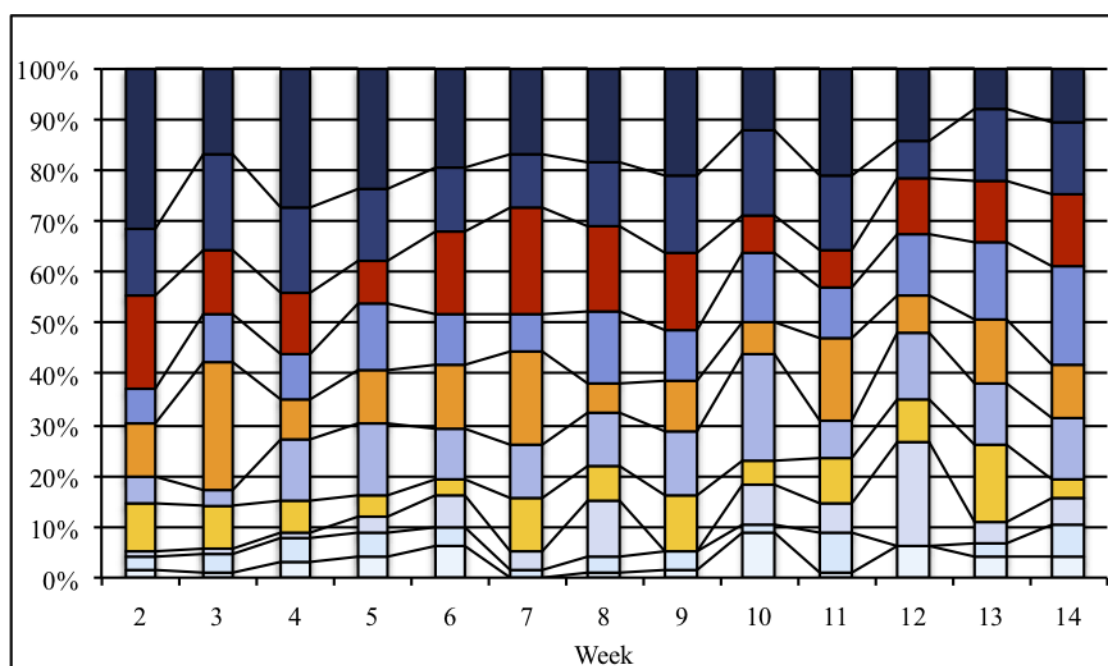
Figure 1. References to Feelings by Lesson (both classes)

Additionally, I employed a tool developed by Davis and Sumara (2006), multiple threading, to allow a representation of the ways in which individual students experienced often conflicting feelings within the space of a lesson and across lessons (Figure 2).
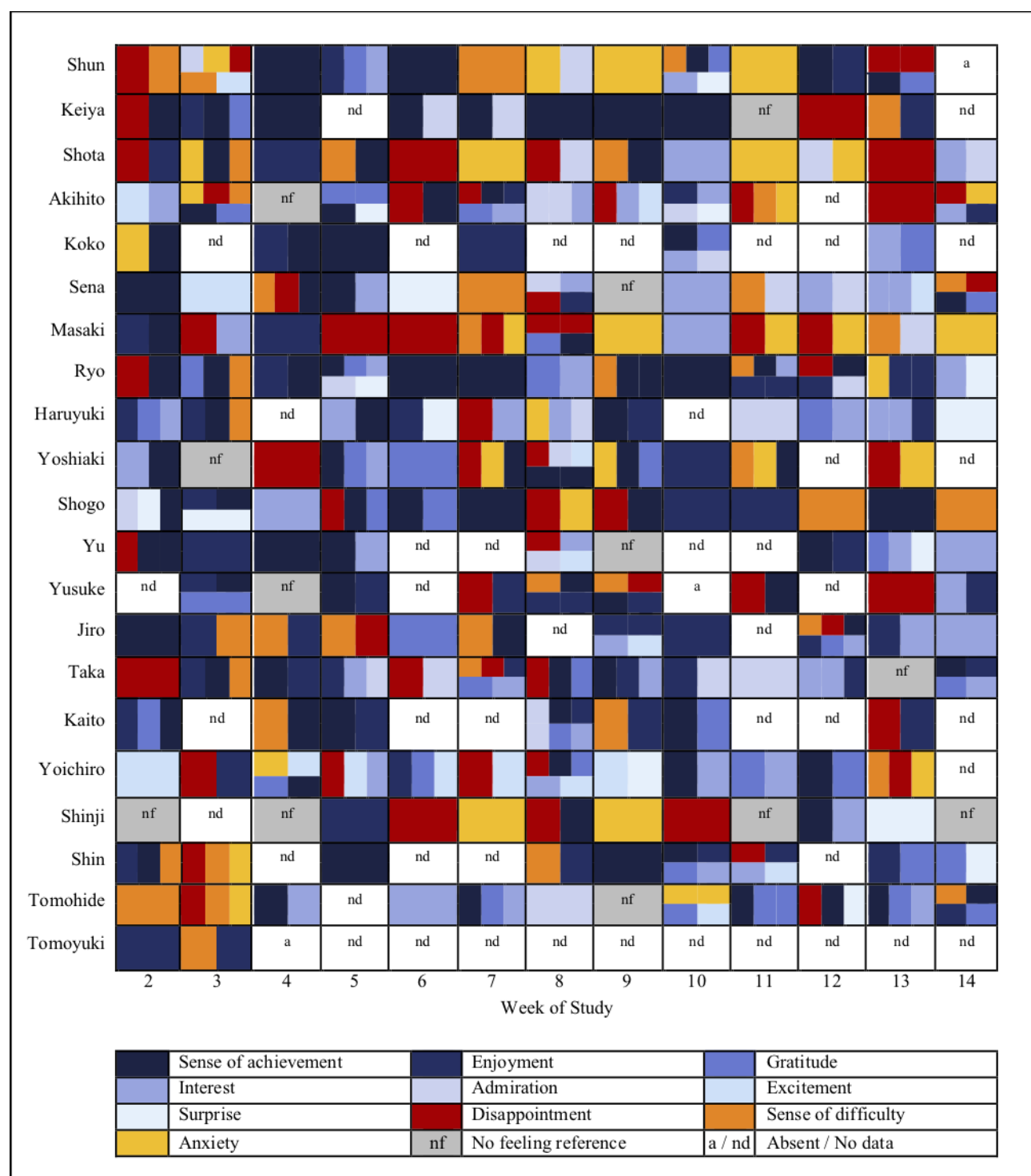
Figure 2. Multiple Threading of Individual Feeling by Lesson (one class)

The findings moreover illuminate interactions between these feelings and different object foci (see also Table 1). A particularly intriguing insight was that, although we may tend to think of emotions as short-lived and focused on a concrete incident, the feelings about which

participants wrote frequently connected across longer timescales with their identities – as language learners, and in other, personally important life areas:

> Since I was child, I couldn't speak positively, much less an ability to speak English positively. I play LEGO with my partner, and thing I have to do is engineer. I could say to her "where do I put this block?" I could tell her positively. She and I enjoyed it, and during lesson, smiled! (Ayumi)

Conclusion

In conclusion, the study revealed that students experience a variety of (ambivalent) feelings in the L2 classroom in any given lesson. While it is useful for teachers to gain an understanding of how certain activities connect with students' feelings, we also need to recognize that their emotional experiences often involve sense-making emergent from the here-and-now as well as individualized life experiences transported into the learning context.

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CHAPTER 17

Incorporating Affective Factors into Self-directed Learning Courses

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In our presentation, we examined different ways we incorporate affective factors in our work as Learning Advisors (LAs). In this short summary we will briefly introduce our context, explain why and how we focus on affect, the role of advising, and finally share some benefits and challenges of incorporating a focus on affect in the ways that we do. See Shelton-Strong and Mynard (2018) for further details.

Context

As LAs we work in a self-access learning centre (SALC) in a private university in Japan, where students have access to courses, one-to-one advising sessions, learning communities, resources, workshops, and a variety of learning spaces. The SALC receives approximately 1000 students per day, and our work here takes place primarily outside of the classroom.

The SALC is designed to foster learner autonomy through reflective practice and dialogue, and to develop the skills and mind-set necessary to encourage lifelong learning. We also place a focus on community, as we consider the social dimension of learning to be extremely important.

Why Focus on Affective Factors?

Three of the SALC's main learner objectives are influenced by affective factors:

- Becoming more aware and in control of learning processes
- Achieving language-learning and other goals
- Becoming confident language users

Addressing the affective dimension allows us to engage with our students holistically. By doing so intentionally, we help our students reach their full potential as language learners and as members of their learning community. If left unattended, negative emotions can have a negative impact on learning processes, and influence levels of motivation and confidence, as motivation, cognition, learning and performance are all very closely interrelated (Oxford, 2017).

Advising

We define advising to be ways in which an advisor works with an individual learner in order to promote language learner autonomy (Carson & Mynard, 2012). To do this, an advisor uses specific discourse (dialogue) and tools in face to face and written advising. One of the core areas of the work for LAs at our university is facilitating self-directed learning courses.

Self-Directed Learning Courses

The Effective Learning Module (ELM) is one of our optional, one credit self-directed

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learning courses, which aims to help students to become aware and autonomous learners. Through self-directed study and reflection, students set and work towards personal learning goals independently, outside of the classroom, with the support of an LA through written advising. The courses provide opportunities for learners to raise their self-awareness, experiment with learning strategies, deal with affective issues, and focus on their needs, learning goals and learning processes. In addition, there are various ways in which the courses address the emotional dimensions of language learning. Six examples are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Six Ways we Attend to Affective Issues

Specific way we focus on affect	Purpose
Introduction of the term "affect"	To equip learners with metalanguage, and emphasise that affective issues are a normal and important part of the learning process
Awareness-raising tools related to confidence, motivation and anxiety	To equip students with strategies to understand and manage affect
Built-in interaction with other learners in order to complete weekly activities	To avoid students being isolated as they work on tasks; to build empathy and understanding of others
Interest development	To sustain motivation for self-directed learning
Weekly guided reflection questions focussing on satisfaction and motivation	To raise awareness that motivation and satisfaction are important for self-directed learning and can be managed
Written advising	A practical way for LAs to focus on affective issues as they arise and to introduce some strategies, tools, and encouragement

Example Content

The Confidence Building Diary is a tool (adapted from Finch, 2004) which aims to help students motivate themselves, as they reflect on the importance of positive thinking. This is part of a unit in the ELM called, 'Affective Strategies'. Shelton-Strong and Mynard (2018) present the work of a first-year undergraduate student, and explore how keeping a diary of self-chosen learning activities over three consecutive days, and the positive feelings these produced, led to self-reported gains in motivation and self-awareness.

In this unit, learners also explore a wider variety of tools available in the SALC to experiment with and reflect on. Later, students summarise and evaluate their experiences. In our example (Shelton-Strong & Mynard, 2018), the learner demonstrates an ability to reflect deeply on her experiences, suggesting a development of her capacity for metacognitive awareness. Recognising that moods change led to the awareness that motivation could be sustained through continued use of the CBD and other affective strategies and tools available.

Benefits and Challenges of Incorporating Affect into a Course

Benefits
- It encourages students to accept it a normal part of the learning process
- Students are introduced to tools and strategies that they can use throughout their lives as language learners
- Activities lead to deeper connections and empathy between learners / advisors
- Everyone can focus on this important part of the learning process to some degree

Challenges
- Not everyone needs a focus on emotions at the same time and in the same way; it may work best to introduce tools when they are specifically needed
- It could be difficult to identify which factors to pay attention to and in what depth
- Not all learners will be prepared to disclose emotional aspects of learning

Conclusions

On balance, while tools can be very useful, we find it is the combination of the tools and the dialogue that make these activities particularly powerful, and this can be achieved through face to face or written advising.

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CHAPTER 18

The Impact of Place-Based Learning on
ESL Community College Students' Attitudes and Engagement

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Yoneko Kanaoka, Kapiʻolani Community College, Hawaiʻi
Nicole Otero, Kapiʻolani Community College, Hawaiʻi

Introduction

Lack of content relevancy in education leads to lack of engagement, disinterest, and academic failure, particularly for language learners. Place-based instruction bridges this divide by engaging learners in relevant content and community (Powers, 2004). Eighty community college language learners demonstrated increased motivation and knowledge through place-based writing instruction.

Content-based instruction has been identified as an effective method for teaching ESL (e.g., Grabe & Stoller, 1997); however, lack of motivation and disinterest in content contributes to failure in college ESL programs (Song, 2006). This suggests that content is an important consideration for student success. Because many non-mainstream students struggle to identify with new culture, community, and language, place-based instruction shows promise for increased motivation and engagement (Kanaʻiaupuni, Ledward, & Jensen, 2010), which is correlated to academic success (Hashemian & Heidari, 2013). In addition, place-based instruction within a thematic, content-based framework maximizes language development by creating higher repetition and frequency of form, vocabulary, and discourse patterns.

Place-based instruction research shows that students benefit from engaging in their local communities, taking learning out of the classroom, and applying it to real world settings (Place-based Education Evaluation Collaborative, 2010). This community engagement can be harder to develop due to the commuter-nature of community colleges. Additionally, community college students are often at risk for post-secondary failure (Karp, 2011). Therefore, engaging these students through place-based curriculum is particularly beneficial for ESL community college students.

The Study

Research questions

1. What place-based (ʻāina-based) concepts and understanding do students demonstrate?
2. What are students' perceptions of place-based (ʻāina-based) instruction and course content/ assignments/ project-based work?

Participants

This study included 80 community college ESL students in one first year ESL composition course and two English language development and college preparation courses. The participants were Japanese (56%), Chinese (19%), Korean (12%), Vietnamese (4%), Hispanic (4%), Pacific Islander (1%), and Euro-Asian (1%) students.

Methods

We used a Mixed Methods Embedded Design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) to answer the research questions. The qualitative pre- and post-instructional surveys, document analysis of student writing, and focus groups explored students' perceptions of 'āina-based instruction and their knowledge of course concepts. The embedded quantitative pre- and post-instructional measures of knowledge supported the qualitative results by further identifying the knowledge and understanding of 'āina-based concepts that students demonstrated.

'Āina-based instruction

The courses in this study used a content-based framework for language and academic writing development. The materials were 'āina-based and focused on the local environment, culture, and language. Students engaged with the materials through reading, videos, community partners, discussions, data collection from campus and community members, and writing about the topics. Specific content-based grammar, vocabulary, and language instruction was developed through the 'āina-based materials to make the learning more meaningful and relevant.

Results

Research question 1

The students demonstrated an increased awareness of: values; culture; language; place & identity; success; natural environment; kuleana & malama (responsibility & care); engagement; and motivation. These themes emerged repeatedly in students' writing and focus groups.

Students' also demonstrated awareness of the impact of the course concepts on their future academic and personal success and language development. For example, students reported that learning about Hawaiian culture increased their motivation toward the course content and their English language development. Students also reported valuing their multilingualism and the advantages of using their multilingualism in the community and workforce in the future. Students' demonstrated wider perspectives, a greater sense of responsibility for the community, and increased community engagement, resulting in a deeper sense of belonging. An unexpected and positive theme that emerged was a greater awareness, appreciation, and sense of pride for students' own home countries, cultures, and language through the 'āina-based content.

Research question 2

Students perceptions of 'āina-based instruction were assessed in a post-instruction survey. In response to the statement, "'Āina-based assignments increased my interest in this course," 84% of the participants responded "agree" or "strongly agree", and 10% responded "neutral". In response to "Āina-based assignments increased my motivation to learn English," 59% chose "agree" or "strongly" agree with 21% responding "neutral". Finally, in response to "My attitude towards learning (in general) has improved through this course", 87% responded "agree" or "strongly agree", and 6% responded "neutral".

Conclusion

Overall, these results suggest that the ʻāina-based approach led to increased engagement and improved attitudes towards learning. Students' increased sense of belonging to the local community also suggests a level of psychological engagement that has been shown to positively impact academic success. ʻĀina-based learning is a form of place-based learning which is applicable to any learning context, and as such can be adopted by various programs to foster students' engagement and sense of belonging. This is particularly important for language learners adapting to a new environment.

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CHAPTER 19

The Effect of "Free Presentation" and Students' Motivation on Japanese Language Learning

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The primary purpose of this study was to explore the correlation between "free presentation" and students' motivation to learn the Japanese language. Numerous studies have been conducted to verify the cultural influence on education, including language learning. Burns and Joyce (1997), for example, stated that one of the reasons that learners are reluctant to speak in class is cultural in nature; for instance, students possess "a belief that learning involves listening to the teacher and not actively speaking up in class" (p. 134). In his study of English as a second language, Sato (1982) observed that Asian learners participated in student-teacher interactions differently than non-Asian learners: Asian learners needed a cue from the teacher before speaking. Moreover, Hofstede (2001) described cultural influences on education in two different societies - the collectivist society (e.g., Japan and China) and the individualist society (e.g., U.S.A.), as follows:

> In the collective classroom the virtues of harmony and the maintenance of face reign supreme…At all times the teacher deals with the student as part of an in-group, never as an isolated individual. In the individualist classroom, of course, students expect to be treated as individuals and impartially, regardless of their background…(p. 235)

Research, based on the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2002) showed that *autonomy* was most strongly related to the self-determined orientation of university-level students from both individualistic and collectivistic societies (Swiss-German speaking part of Switzerland and Japan) who were studying English as a foreign language (Noel, 2013). Therefore, in the present study, I examined JSL (Japanese as a second language) learners with various cultural backgrounds to compare the effect of free presentation on their learning motivation.

Methods

Participants

The participants in the current study were 33 JSL learners taking either Japanese IV (Intermediate) or Japanese VI (Advanced) at the same university in Tokyo. All subjects were between the ages of 18 and 26 years.

Procedure

Each participant gave an individual oral presentation lasting 5-10 minutes once over the course of a semester. They were free to choose their own topics. There was no requirement regarding the presentation format (e.g., grammar). Further, the aim of this study was learners' active participation in speaking and expressing themselves freely without any concerns about grades, for example, and/or fears (e.g., making mistakes). All participants were informed that the free presentation would not be part of their course grade. Participants received written feedback (mostly positive comments) from their teacher regarding their presentations.

Questionnaires (A) and (B) were administered before and after everyone's presentations. The two were different but comparable in format and the types of questions. Scores from responses to two similar statements in each questionnaire were compared to understand the effect of the free presentations.

Questionnaire (A) had four scales (*1 = Disagree completely, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Agree completely*), whereas (B) had five, including the item of "*Neither of them*" besides the above four items. Therefore, scores for *Agree* and *Agree completely* responses in questionnaire (A) were calculated as 4 and 5, respectively.

Based on their native languages and the secondary education locations, participants in each course were divided into two groups: for Japanese IV (total of 14 participants), Group 1) Chinese or Korean languages (11 participants), Group 2) Filipino or English languages (3); for Japanese VI (19 participants), Group 1) Chinese or Korean languages (12), Group 2) Arabic, Italian, French, and English languages (7).

As not all 33 participants, who gave free presentations, responded to all statements/questions in the questionnaires, the number of participants in each group varied from three to eight.

Results

A 2x2 ANOVA was conducted on the data elicited from both questionnaires. A significant difference was found for responses to the following two statements: "I like to give a presentation in Japanese" (Questionnaire A) and "The free presentation was fun to do" (Questionnaire B). Total scores of Advanced learners from their responses to the first statement were higher than those of Intermediate learners: $F(1, 24) = 9.34$, $p < .01$. For Intermediate learners, scores for the last statement were higher than for the first one: $F(1, 12) = 27.34$, $p < .001$. Overall, the scores for Group 2 were higher than those for Group 1, $F((1, 12) = 8.31$, $p < .05$. Furthermore, when responses to the first statement were compared with those for "The free presentation was good for me" (B), Group 2 scored higher than Group1: $F(1, 17) = 5.29$, $p < .05$. Moreover, a significant difference was found between levels - $F(1, 17) = 5.00$, $p < .05$ - and between statements: $F(1, 17) = 7.82$, $p < .05$. Regarding the first statement, the mean score for Group 1, Intermediate learners, was the lowest (M = 2, out of 5), and the rests followed: Group 2, Intermediate (M = 3.33); Group 2, Advanced (M = 3.83); and Group 1, Advanced (M = 3.86). The mean scores for Group 2 in both courses were highest (M = 4.33) for the last statement, whereas M = 3,25 and M = 3.75 were scores for both Intermediate and Advanced learners in Group 1, respectively.

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CHAPTER 20

Psycho-emotional Elements Underlining L2 Directed Motivational Currents: Insights from within Japan

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L2 (second/foreign language) motivation has long been seen as inconstant, making tracing its roots difficult. Henry, Davydenko, and Dörnyei (2015), however, shed light on a special kind of motivation that might aid research in this regard. Coined by these authors as Directed Motivational Current (DMC), this phenomenon encompasses stability and self-reloading motivational energy. Commonly seen among individuals with non-ceasing commitment to their goals, a DMC carries the feature of vision pursuit, which facilitates its structure comprised of behavioral routines, progress checks, and clear starting and ending points—all engulfed in positive emotionality.

In an attempt of adding to the understanding of L2 DMCs and L2 motivation in general, this qualitative and phenomenological study aimed at finding psycho-emotional circumstances or elements underlining the initiation and sustenance, as well as the disruption or inhibition of L2 DMCs in Japan. Founded on the L2 DMC characteristics explored by Henry et al (2015), and Dörnyei, Henry and Muir (2016), in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with six L2 learners, including Japanese nationals and foreigners living in Japan. The findings might help to generate ideas on how to promote DMCs in classrooms, which could provide fertile ground for the development of learners with strong commitment towards learning an L2.

The Topic of Vision within Psychology and SLA Research

Because the element of vision as it relates to oneself seems to be what enables a DMC to operate its structure, it is necessary to understand how research on this topic has evolved throughout the years. Within psychology, Rogers (1959) defines what he called the ideal self as, "the self-concept which the individual would most like to possess, upon which he places the highest value for himself" (p. 200). This self-concept might have several facets, but be still authentic in that it is composed by an individual's hopes and fears, as suggested by Markus and Nurius (1986), while introducing the concept of possible-selves. In SLA research, Dörnyei (2005) focuses attention on possible-selves to introduce the concepts of the Ideal L2 Self (the self-image of the L2 user one wants to become) and the Ought-to L2 Self (L2 attributes one believes are needed to attend others' expectations, or to avoid negative outcomes). The Ideal L2 Self and the Ought-to L2 Self, along with the concept of the ideal self, were used in this study to theorize and refine understanding of the DMC phenomenon.

Summary of Results: Participants' Experiences

Results suggest that out of the six interviewees, four had L2 DMC experiences. Within these four learning stories, two L2 DMC disruptions were also found. The narratives of the other two participants in the study suggest L2 DMC inhibitions. Table 1 summarizes this content.

Table 1. Summary of Results Suggesting DMC Experiences, Disruptions, and Inhibitions.

Participant (nationality)	Target L2/L2s	Experience
A (Japanese)	English	DMC
B (Japanese)	English	DMC
C (Japanese)	English	DMC
D (Brazilian)	English	DMC
	Japanese	DMC (Disruption)
	Japanese	DMC (Disruption)
E (American)	Japanese	DMC Inhibition
F (Japanese)	English	DMC Inhibition

Main Findings

Psycho-emotional circumstances/elements underlining initiation and sustenance of L2 DMCs

- L2 DMCs offer a clear and stable path to the partial fulfillment of the ideal self (Figure 1).

L2 DMC Path to Partial Fulfillment of an Individual's Ideal Self
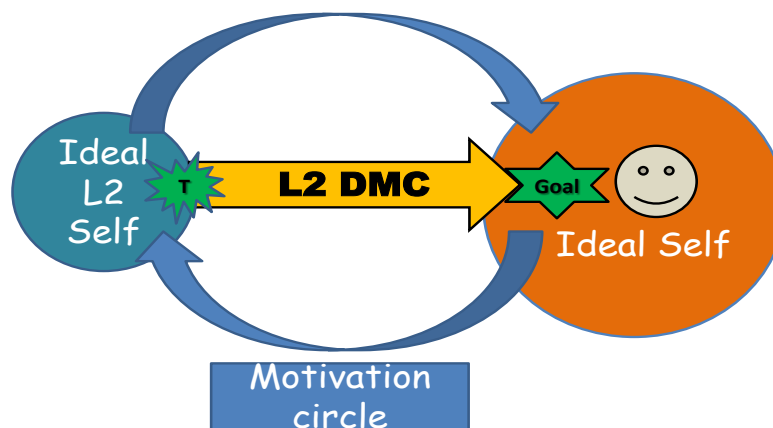

Figure 1. Schematic drawing illustrating an individual's Ideal L2 Self connecting to the ideal self in a motivation circle. The L2 DMC is seen as a clear path to the partial fulfillment of the ideal self, from the trigger (T) to the goal.

- The feature of positive emotionality in an L2 DMC seems to relate to the learner's strong belief that a facet of the ideal self will be fulfilled.

- Learners with an Ideal L2 Self seem more predisposed to experience an L2 DMC.
- Learners with an Ought-to L2 Self seem to be able to switch to the Ideal L2 Self in the event of an L2 DMC trigger.
- Role modelling might pave the way to L2 DMCs. In Japan, Japanese educators with good command of English seem to serve as good role models.
- In Japan, beliefs related to characteristics one might gain while studying abroad appear to influence the triggering and maintenance of L2 DMCs.
- Positive experiences with foreigners within Japan seem to contribute to the formation of the Ideal L2 Self among Japanese L2 learners, in what might lead to DMC triggering.

Among foreigners in Japan, the desire of fitting into society might entail Japanese and also English DMCs to arise.

Psycho-emotional circumstances/elements underlining disruption or inhibition of L2 DMCs.

- Sudden distrust in the accomplishment of one's previous self-concordant goal might cause L2 DMC disruption.
- In Japan, disruptions to Japanese DMCs among foreigners seem to occur due to culture shock, frustration with poor performance, rational assessment of unachievable goals, and feelings of underappreciation.
- Perceptions that an L2 might not contribute to the partial fulfillment of one's ideal self, as well as misperceived expectations concerning the learning of an L2 appear to inhibit DMCs.
- English DMCs inhibitions among Japanese learners might result from over expectation that one might become like a native speaker.
- Japanese DMCs inhibitions among foreigners appear to happen for nonaffinity with Japanese culture, and disbelief in the practical use of the language.

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CHAPTER 21

Practice for Collaborative Development of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

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The aim of this study is to stimulate learners' proactiveness and creativity in vocabulary learning, and to help them learn vocabulary with higher motivation. According to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), learners' internal proactiveness in choosing to use and creatively adapt learning techniques is essential to promote the language acquisition process. It is also important for learners to regulate their own motivation in vocabulary learning, which is not always enjoyable. However, previous studies on vocabulary learning strategy (VLS) training focused on teaching many kinds of VLSs, expecting learners to use them as being taught by teachers and did not pay attention to learners' motivation. Therefore, we designed a VLS training program with teaching principles of vocabulary learning and helping learners regulate their motivation.

Method

Participants

The participants are 48 English learners at a university in Japan. Their English proficiency is upper A2 or B1 in CEFR.

Content of the training

The procedure of the training is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Content of the Training

(A week before Day 1)	Ask participants to memorize 60 English words.

Day 1	1) Vocabulary Test 1
	2) Learning Style Survey (Part 1) (Cohen, Oxford, & Chi, 2002)
	3) Discussion about how they learn vocabulary in groups (5 min.)
	4) Lecture about three important points for vocabulary learning
	  - Test your memory repeatedly (Karpicke & Roediger, 2008)
	  - Consider your learning style
	  - Satisfy your psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (cf. Self-determination theory; Deci & Ryan, 2002)
	5) Make a vocabulary learning plan for Vocabulary Test 2 in groups, considering the three points introduced in the lecture. (30 min.)
	6) Ask participants to memorize 60 new English words, following their plans.

Day 2 (A week after Day 1)	1) Vocabulary Test 2 2) Reflect on their own vocabulary learning in groups (10 min.) 3) Share the VLSs they used and give comments to each other

Data collection

A survey was conducted immediately after the practice (Survey A), and another survey was conducted one month later (Survey B). Discussions about the learning plan and reflection in each group were recorded.

Results

Survey A

Survey A, consisting of five questions by 4-point Likert scale and one open-ended question, investigated participants' perceptions of the practice (4: I think so. 1: I don't think so.). The results indicate that the participants generally had positive perceptions with rather high mean values: "Do you think what you learned in the lecture was helpful for your effective and enjoyable vocabulary learning?" (3.54), and "Do you think discussion with your classmates was helpful for thinking about effective and enjoyable VLSs?" (3.52).

The responses for the open-ended question were analyzed using KH Coder (Higuchi, 2016). The result shows that many participants thought discussion with classmates was fun, listening to others' strategies was helpful, and their vocabulary test scores improved (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. Analysis by KH Coder

Additionally, various positive comments about the practice were found (e.g., "It was good for me to realize the importance of testing my memory and learn what I would not think of by myself through discussion," "I think motivation is the most important. I want to use some strategies that I considered to motivate myself.")

Survey A also revealed that common strategies used in preparation for Vocabulary Test 2 were self-motivating strategies (e.g., "testing memories repeatedly and confirm progress," "setting a goal and follow the plan to achieve it," "competing with classmates") and cooperation strategies (e.g., "giving quizzes to each other with a classmate"). Using apps was another popular strategy.

Data collection

A survey was conducted immediately after the practice (Survey A), and another survey was conducted one month later (Survey B). Discussions about the learning plan and reflection in each group were recorded.

Results

Survey A

Survey A, consisting of five questions by 4-point Likert scale and one open-ended question, investigated participants' perceptions of the practice (4: I think so. 1: I don't think so.). The results indicate that the participants generally had positive perceptions with rather high mean values: "Do you think what you learned in the lecture was helpful for your effective and enjoyable vocabulary learning?" (3.54), and "Do you think discussion with your classmates was helpful for thinking about effective and enjoyable VLSs?" (3.52).
The responses for the open-ended question were analyzed using KH Coder (Higuchi, 2016). The result shows that many participants thought discussion with classmates was fun, listening to others' strategies was helpful, and their vocabulary test scores improved (See Figure 1).

Recordings of students' discussions

The results of analysis on students' discussions for making vocabulary-learning plan on Day 1 indicate that the discussion is enjoyable and can help learners sophisticate their VLSs (See Excerpt).

Excerpt

A: Let's buy some snacks and make a rule of rewarding oneself (when getting a good score in the vocabulary test).
B: How about bringing snacks...
C: It sounds good!
D: You are smart!
(snip)
B: Let's compete against each other, and the winner will take all of them.
C: Oh, good idea!
A: This could be unexpectedly good!
D: I'm sure it is motivating me. I'll do my best to win!

Note. The discussion was translated into English by the authors.

Survey B

According to Survey B, 75% of the participants deepened their confidence in vocabulary learning through the training. However, it also revealed that about 52% of the participants did not use new VLSs voluntarily after the training. Moreover, though a VLS of using apps was used by five participants, self-motivating strategies and cooperation strategies, which were common strategies in the training, were not used at all afterward.

Discussion

The results suggest the following: (1) the training seems to be interesting and helpful for learners, (2) the training helped learners regulate their motivation, (3) the training enhanced learners' confidence in vocabulary learning, (4) learners were able to consider various VLSs based on what was introduced in the lecture, (5) more continuous intervention is needed to let learners voluntarily use VLSs (e.g., vocabulary learning report after each in-class vocabulary quiz), (6) many learners are interested in using apps for vocabulary learning, and (7) teachers should encourage learners to collaborate with each other in learning even outside classes.

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Part 2
The Self and Identity in Language Learning

CHAPTER 22

Motivational Variables in Students of Translation & Interpretation Studies

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In recent years interest has grown in understanding more about cognitive processes in translation and interpretation bringing the relevance of individual differences and personality variables in the figure of the L2 translator to the fore (e.g. Hubscher-Davidson, 2016; Muñoz Martín, 2016). For instance, various studies have honed in on the role of creative intelligence and how this might affect the quality of the translated product (Rojo & Ramos, 2016). This present study focused on exploring the motivation of the English/Spanish translator from the dual perspective of this figure as a language learner and a translating professional. The intent was to explore translators' dual roles from the view of the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009). To do so, a motivation factors questionnaire (Brady, in press) that had been designed to study EFL learner motivation in Spain was adapted and piloted with 40 students studying for a degree in Translation and Interpretation. This paper mentions some aspects of the questionnaire design process and comments on the issues that arose in dealing specifically with Spanish-English Translator focused L2 learners as opposed to general language learners. Through 10 individual interviews and one focus group to the quantitative findings of the pilot study, I examined the interrelationship between a specific professional interest in L2 achievement in English and variables of self-efficacy, instrumentality and international posture among other variables.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

- Ideal selves of translator trainees and L2 learners? Are they one and the same? How might they differ?
- How does self-efficacy affect L2 motivation in T & I students?

Mixed Methods

Qualitative instruments

A focus group and several interviews were held with Translation and Interpretation Degree students in order to inform the questionnaire. One of the issues that arose in the interviews was that many students had actually chosen the degree more for the foreign language component than for the translator-interpreter profile. Indeed, a few professed interest in language teaching but had avoided the less practical English Philology Degree.

Quantitative instruments

A MFQ for L2 motivation (Brady, in press) was adapted to the translator-interpreter context and this involved the creation of a psychometric scale targeting the *Ideal professional translator self*. The composite items were:
- When I think of my future, I see myself in situations in which I translate
- I can't imagine my future without being involved in translation as a profession

- When I visualize my future, I feel very capable of entering into the world of translation
- To me translating is not just a job, it's a pleasure

We also included questions on students' professional intentions:

- I chose the T & I Degree because I want to become a translator-interpreter.
- I feel I have a vocation as a translator-interpreter
- I chose the T & I Degree because I like languages but I am not sure what profession I will chose in the future
- When I finish my T & I Degree, I would like to be a language teacher

These items and items referring to a sense of L2 self-efficacy, interest in the L2, International posture and instrumentality were rated on a 6 point Likert scale of 0 to 5 (totally disagree to fully agree).

Results Summary

The results regarding graduate profiles showed, of the 40 participants, approximately a third with a clear intentions to become translators or interpreters, another third professing interest in FL teaching and the remaining one third as being unsure of their professional future.
- The Ideal Translator Self figure was rated at $M=2,8/5$ (SD ,765) which does not indicate a clear and detailed Ideal self professional guide. Translation students have certain difficulty in seeing themselves clearly as translators.
- The Ideal L2 self on the other hand achieved a mean of 4,1/5 (SD ,425) showing that the participants have a much more detailed vision of themselves as L2 users than as translators.
- L2 learning self-efficacy was rated at $M = 3,9/5$ (SD ,60), which is on the positive side of the scale and denotes certain confidence in L2 learning abilities.
- Regarding relationships between variables the strongest correlations were found between the Ideal L2 self and a) interest in the language ($r = .68$) and b) instrumentality (promotion r = .63, and prevention, r = .65). Self-efficacy at r = .62 was also strong.

Conclusions

There are indications that a high percentage of Translation and Interpretation undergraduates may be currently intending to enter the teaching profession which has implications for stakeholders in Translation and Interpretation studies, especially teachers and researchers. This might also affect for instance studies targeting only translation trainees. Teachers may wish to examine students' intentions more closely to inform their teaching.

As regards L2 learning motivation we detected a moderately motivated sample with low levels of L2 use anxiety and with strong correlations of intrinsic enjoyment of the language and the Ideal L2 self figure. Instrumentality is strong in both its promotion and prevention dimensions which corresponds with the energizing properties of the L2 MSS (ideal and ought L2 selves).

There are of course limitations in this study making as this was a relatively small pilot exploration and the results are not considered at all generalizable even within Spain. Further exploration of the Translator and Interpreter trainee profile could yield interesting insights into this L2 learning figure.

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CHAPTER 23

Exploring Pre-Reflective 'Use of Self' in L2 Learning: Vermersch's Explicitation Interview Technique

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With or without the help of teachers, people from around the globe strive in their own unique ways to achieve success with foreign languages (L2). What they accomplish in the domain depends on the quality of their personal experiences, not only what they do to learn, but how they *learn* to learn, and learn to reflect on the role they play in their own learning endeavors. This contribution proposes to 'stretch boundaries' in the study of L2 learning psychology by exploring individuals' pre-reflective 'use of self'.

Pre-Reflective 'Use of Self'

Pre-reflective refers to the fact that much, if not most, of our subjective experience occurs through nonconscious, automatic processes and guidance systems that serve to connect us to our world in ways we are largely unaware of (Bargh & Chartrand, 1999). Human learning is no less rooted in this dimension of experience that operates outside of conscious awareness. Although we may have the impression we know how we learn–be it memorize new information, physically train to acquire new abilities, study academically to improve our mastery of disciplines, or simply participate in social practices that support learning–, in effect, we have only very limited awareness of how we perform such tasks in order to 'learn'. As Petitmengin (2006) writes, "we make use of [cognitive] processes that are precise, but which largely elude our consciousness" (p. 234).

The notion 'use of self', originally introduced by the specialized pedagogue F. M. Alexander (1932/2001), refers to a central concept found in Dewey's *Somatic Philosophy* (cf. Shusterman, 2008) emphasizing the importance of mind-body unity in educational experience. L2 learning can be viewed as a competence acquisition process that involves complex 'combinatorial skill' (Johnson, 1996). It is also a kind of learning where individuals may experience difficulty bringing into alignment their mental intentions and physical acts. The gap between what one knows about a language in theory and can do in it practically can be enormous. Experiencing coordination difficulty in task execution in the early stages of a student's language learning career may lead to a debilitating sense of personal inefficacy and undermine motivation to learn.

Vermersch's Explicitation Interview Technique

The Explicitation Interview Technique (EIT) was developed by the French psychologist Pierre Vermersch (1994) as a means to investigate the internal states, mental events, and cognitive processes that underlie situated functioning-in-action. What do people actually think and do when they undertake to accomplish various tasks in the world? The technique gets its name from the idea that, as we saw above, all human action entails a particular kind of implicit experiential knowledge that escapes our conscious way of knowing ourselves. EIT offers an interview method that enables researchers to bring a person, regardless of his training, to the point where he becomes conscious of his subjective experience and able to verbalize, describe or 'explicitate' it in great detail.

The first functional objective of an EI is to help the interviewee recall a particular occurrence of the cognitive process to be explored. After a specific past experience has been selected, the interviewer's task is to ease the subject into rediscovering his own experience by evoking various images, sensations and sounds associated with it. If the techniques used are effective, the interviewee gradually enters into an 'embodied discourse position' (*position de parole incarnée*) whereby the past experience he is 'reliving' becomes more present for him than the actual situation of being interviewed. There are a number of indicators that allow the interviewer to verify if the subject is really reliving an experience, including a slowing down of his speech, dropping eye contact with the interviewer, or use of the present tense.

The second objective is that once the interviewee's embodied discourse position is sufficiently intense and stabilized, it is key to redirect his attention from the content (the 'what') of his experience to the internal processes (the 'how') that enable him to achieve the action he is carrying out. Reconnecting with the experience as a process can be addressed both synchronically and diachronically, that is, by viewing the process either in its various configurations at given points in time or as a succession of actions, perceptions and inner states. An EI provides a rich, iterative structure that invites the subject to evoke his experience several times until the required level of detail is reached.

Further Information and Conclusion

The *Groupe de recherche sur l'explicitation* (GREX) has been exploring explicitation as a verbalization of situated action for several decades. Many articles about the method are available in French on the group's website (www.grex2.com). English-speaking researchers interested in finding out more about the technique can consult the recent translation of Vermersch's 1994 publication as well as several in-depth articles by C. Petitmengin available online. EIT training in English is also available by contacting A. Cazemajou, member of the GREX, at annecazemajou@yahoo.fr.

Data on language learners' pre-reflective 'use of self' may be an important source of information that so far has not received the attention it deserves. Such data can increase our understanding of the quality of people's personal and social L2 learning experiences 'from within' and thus provide novel insights into ways we undertake to teach them.

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CHAPTER 24

Raising Metacognitive Awareness Using Ideal Classmates

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As teachers, we spell out for our students how we want them to act in class and what we want them to do. But students are often unaware and unsure how they should act with their classmates, especially if they do not know each other. In a communicative-based EFL class, having students establish awareness of what they want and need (or don't want and need) from their classmates has had positive results in JHS English Conversation classes in Japan.

When student-generated ideas about how their classmates could help them learn were shared across the classroom, university EFL students in Japan became socially motivated by their own metacognitive discourse to become each other's Ideal Classmates (Murphey, Falout, Fukuda, & Fukada, 2014). This means that students perceived their classmates and themselves as displaying the same socially-supportive learning behaviors they mutually validated. With similar procedures, the same results were also found at a private language school in Indonesia among EFL classes for children and for adult learners (Murphey & Iswanti, 2014). While the university students from Japan were taking compulsory or elective classes, the learners in Indonesia were not taking classes as a requirement for graduation.

From these past studies, sharing student-generated metacognitions about mutually-supported learning seemed to have promoted positive socio-motivational mindsets. The same procedures were replicated in a Japanese private junior high school with 482 students (7th, 8th, and 9th grade) with similar positive results as the previous studies. The procedure for raising students' metacognitive awareness using Ideal Classmates can be replicated easily in any classroom.

Procedure

The first step was to have students "describe a group of classmates you could learn English Conversation well with. What would you all do to help each other learn better and more enjoyably?" The prompt was given in both English and Japanese, and students could answer in either language, but were encouraged to use English. This action was taken in the university-level research as well. Students' written responses were collected, photocopied, and looped back anonymously to each class respectively for their consideration. After reading their classmates' responses individually, students discussed the responses in small groups and reflected on how they could support their classmates' needs. Throughout the school year, students were reminded to reread and reflect on the images of their own Ideal Classmates. The second and final step was to have students reflect on their changes in behavior and attitude. At the end of the semester and again at the end of the year, students were asked to "describe any changes you have made during the semester (year) in your behavior or attitude toward your classmates. What influences do you think these changes may have had on your classmates, relationships in and out of class, and your English learning?" This prompt was also given in both English and Japanese.

Results

Qualitative observations found a high number of self-reported changes in behavior and attitude by students across all three grades both at the end of the semester and the end of the

year (See Table 1). For both J1 and J2, a slight increase in reported changes occurred between the end of the semester and the end of the year. Moreover, the majority of reported changes in behavior reflect the positive effects of raising students' metacognitive awareness through Ideal Classmates (See Table 2).

Table 1. Self-Reported Changes in Behavior

		End of semester July 2017		End of year March 2018	
J1 (7th grade)	Reported changes in behavior	145	93%	146	94%
	Reported no changes in behavior	11	7%	10	6%
		N=156		N=156	
J2 (8th grade)	Reported changes in behavior	144	89%	146	94%
	Reported no changes in behavior	17	11%	9	6%
		N=161		N=155	
J3 (9th grade)	Reported changes in behavior	149	90%	135	84%
	Reported no changes in behavior	16	10%	26	16%
		N=165		N=161	

Table 2. Students' Reported Changes in Behavior

Most Frequently-Reported Changes in Behavior
- ❖ My friends and I cooperated and taught each other.
- ❖ I got to be friends with more people.
- ❖ Studying English became more enjoyable for me.
- ❖ I could talk with people who have different opinions.
- ❖ I started to have a positive attitude toward English.
- ❖ I understood English better and became more interested in it.
- ❖ I could think about others more.

Other Meaningful Reported Changes in Behavior
- ❖ I started to think I could do this before thinking I couldn't.
- ❖ I started to mimic the good parts of others.

Conclusion

Raising metacognitive awareness using Ideal Classmates helps students create a cooperative learning environment through positive socialization. Knowing what their classmates want and need in order to learn better and more enjoyably can be facilitated readily through the use of the Ideal Classmates procedures. Positive behavioral changes towards their classmates and positive changes in individual attitudes towards English can be realized to help seed a classroom environment with roots to grow.

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CHAPTER 25

Socio-motivational Effects of Visualizing Ideal L2 Classmates:
A Randomized Treatment Study

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The rationalization for doing randomized control studies, as elucidated in *Redirect* (Wilson, 2011), persuaded us to try our own action research with a randomized control group for Ideal Classmates (e.g., Fukada et al., 2017a; Murphey et al., 2014). We decided to randomly place whole classes into either a control group or experimental group for the purpose of evaluating the impact of visualizing Ideal Classmates on the learners' EFL motivation. We thought it unjust or ethically incorrect to simply give Ideal Classmates treatments to some classes, and nothing to the control classes. So for the other randomly assigned classes we chose to do Future Selves treatments. Later we realized we did not have a pure control group, but simply two groups with different treatments. Thus our attempts pushed us to think that perhaps two or more randomly placed treatment classes can establish a research framework from which a valid comparative analysis can be made while still fulfilling the ethical criteria of teaching something potentially important or useful to students. In this paper, we give a brief theoretical background of our Ideal L2 Classmates concept, outline our two treatment groups, and offer preliminary results.

Background and Methodology

In a recent study (Fukada et al., 2017b), our classes used a mixture of activities in which students shared their EFL motivations relating to their past-, present-, and future-selves—which are holistically conceived of as Present Communities of Imagining (PCOIz; Falout et al., 2013; Murphey et al., 2012; Murphey & Falout, 2013). Using pre- and post-semester measurements, we found that our students' past-selves, present in-class and out-of-class investments, and future-selves had increased in positivity over one semester. Moreover, the relationships between these temporal selves became stronger, implying that they became more resonant in self-consistency.

In other studies (Fukada et al., 2017a; Murphey et al., 2014), we asked students to write what their Ideal Classmates would do to help the students learn and enjoy EFL. We then shared these writings, or summaries of them, with whole classes. We found evidence that by reading their classmates' visions of Ideal Classmates, students could better understand how to help each other learn and enjoy English, and become more like their own descriptions of Ideal Classmates. However, we wondered, would this simple treatment stand up to a more rigorous test? For the present study, we therefore randomly assigned about half of our classes to Ideal Classmates treatments, and the other half to Future Selves treatments, in which students shared their views of their future-selves. For students in both groups, we measured their pre-semester and post-semester levels of PCOIz motivation by using the same 6-point Likert scale questions. The pre-survey at the beginning of the semester included an open-ended question which prompted students to imagine either their Ideal Classmates
(see https://drive.google.com/file/d/1T_GA52QC2dmhfL OAdflracJU7gF-xtIx/view?usp=sharing) or their Future Selves (see https://drive.google.com/

file/d/15YroT74tKoOiMqsWXDT0WZfDnPEkhmmH/ view?u sp=sharing), depending upon the treatment in which the classes were randomly placed.

The students' answers to these prompts were gathered and shared back with their respective classes, making this the initial step in the treatments, i.e., their shared visions of either Ideal Classmates or Future Selves. As the semester progressed, just a few short activities encouraged the students to revisit and reflect upon these imaginings. At the end of the semester we gave both groups the Ideal Classmates survey using 6-point Likert scale questions (1 as the most negative and 6 as the most positive). This survey measures the degree to which students find their classmates and themselves to be behaving toward each other in helpful and enjoyable ways for learning English, i.e., the degree to which they find their classmates to be Ideal Classmates.

(see https://drive.google.com/file/d/1uYsvsOCzvN4GPaeW2zYdvuYi74nCosIX/view?usp=sharing)

Results

The internal consistency of the surveys was investigated with Cronbach's alpha, which was 0.91 for Ideal Classmates, and 0.93 for the PCOIz motivation survey. The four components of the PCOIz survey—past-selves, in-class investments, out-of-class investments, and future-selves—showed alphas of 0.80, 0.75, 0.90, and 0.91 respectively. Thus, the items in the two surveys and in the PCOIz components were found to be internally consistent.

The results of the PCOIz survey show that both of the treatment groups' PCOIz motivation increased overall across the semester. The mean scores of the Ideal Classmates treatment group went up from 3.08 to 3.40, and those of the Future Selves treatment group also went up from 3.24 to 3.56, as did the mean scores of each of the four components for both treatment groups. However, the comparison of the means in the future-selves component in the PCOIz motivation survey revealed that the Ideal Classmates treatment group improved by 0.10 (from 3.33 to 3.43), while the Future Selves treatment group improved by 0.19 (from 3.42 to 3.61). This difference may indicate that the activities in the Future Selves treatment group influenced the perceptions of the students' future-selves.

The mean scores from the Ideal Classmates survey for the Ideal Classmates treatment group was 4.15, while that of the Future Selves treatment group was 3.98. A comparison of the two means with an independent-samples t test showed that the difference was statistically significant at t=4.10 (p. <.000). This might indicate that the Ideal Classmates treatments influenced students' perceptions of classmates positively, if not their actual pro-social learning behaviors.

Educational Implications and Conclusion

The Ideal Classmates treatments seem to have stimulated our students to help one another a little more, and to become more like their own Ideal Classmates, than did students with the Future Selves treatments. However, classes with Future Selves treatments seemed more likely to envision their future-selves with English a little more positively than did classes with Ideal Classmates treatments. We can therefore tentatively conclude that both treatments are recommendable for language classrooms, but with motivational effects suitable to each treatment.

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CHAPTER 26

Dynamics of L2 Possible Selves of University Students in an EMI Preparatory Language Course

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This paper presents findings from an ongoing mixed-method study into learner choice and motivation in an English as a medium of instruction (EMI) university programme in Japan. It specifically focuses on one of the issues that emerged through our analysis of the data: the role an English proficiency target (TOEFL ITP 500) embedded into the EMI programme had on the study's three main participants' motivation.

The Study Context

This study is set in a programme that may represent many similar courses in Japan, which were started following several initiatives from the Japanese government to develop strong language skills and international mindset in undergraduates (see Bradford, 2018). In our program, undergraduates study English language in their first two-years, including one-semester study abroad, before taking EMI content courses to complete their degrees. The TOEFL ITP test is used as a screening tool for entry into the EMI content classes, and we identified this as potentially a key element in the students' learning context, and possibly a demotivator. Appropriate language assessment has been recognized as an issue facing such EMI programs (Bradford, 2015), so as teachers and curriculum designers, we decided to explore this facet of the learning context more closely.

The Test

We have found that the TOEFL ITP test, chosen for its measurement of academic English and its practicality, represents more than a simple screening tool. Firstly, the results are used by senior management to measure the effectiveness of the English language programme. Secondly, the test is the most visible goal for teachers and students of their English studies. For teachers, it is an easily available sign of a student's progress in English. For the students, it is a must-achieve for their survival in the programme. It also became apparent during the students' first year that there was a large gap between what TOEFL ITP measures, and the broader focus of our English language curriculum. Furthermore, the goal we set, TOEFL ITP 500, has proved too challenging for the majority of our student group. These factors reinforced our doubts about the impact the test would have on our students' motivation.

Data and Participants

Data has been collected since students' admission in 2016. Data sources include semi-structured interviews with three focal participants, their responses to an adapted L2 Self Questionnaire (Irie, 2011), digital learning records, class grades, and the TOEFL ITP test data. The participants were selected from 45 respondents to an online adapted version of Irie's (2011) L2 Self Questionnaire, given to all 258 English majors in the programme. Kenta and Haruna were from our highest of three proficiency bands, while Chiaki represented the majority of our students, being placed in the middle proficiency band. The three shared positive experiences

with English before entering university, and we characterized them as studious learners with high motivation to study English.

Findings

After analysing the interview data specifically for references to the TOEFL ITP test, we found the students perceive the test in four different ways. Firstly, it is a marker of their current proficiency and achievement: Haruna, for example, says that her proficiency is getting credit when she gets a high score, while admitting that TOEFL is not perfectly compatible with her personal goals. Secondly, it is a stimulator for their study: Haruna described talking with her friends about upcoming tests and how much studying they had or had not done. Thirdly, it acts as a goal that is consistent with larger L2 learning goals: Kenta acknowledges that studying for the reading and vocabulary helps him achieve his main goal: i.e., improving his general English competence. Fourthly, the three students are trying to make positive sense out of TOEFL ITP as a means to an end in their journey through their English studies. Chiaki, for example, acknowledges the usefulness of TOEFL as a study requirement, saying, "If I didn't have to study TOEFL, I would only be studying what I like."

Discussion

Listening to the students, we realized that the proficiency score is not simply an external target imposed on each student for them to study towards; instead, it has been internalized by each student, with each rationalizing it in their own ways. This picture seems consistent with the claim made by Mercer (2016) about the self and context. That is, we should not see the self being simply situated within contexts. Contexts are not just external variables, but they make intrinsic, fundamental parts of the self. The ways that our three participants made sense of the TOEFL ITP seem to illustrate how a context is embedded and continually developing in the network of complex and dynamic relationship within individuals. This finding, along with the three students' resilience with the TOEFL ITP target, gives us valuable theoretical and pedagogical insights into their motivational experience.

As we continue the study we hope to address some of its limitations, including the fact that we have listened in depth to students who were already positively-oriented towards the programme but not to the silent majority of students, who may have very different views about the test. Besides, the researcher positionality is another issue, and we recognize that being their teachers may have affected the interview data.

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CHAPTER 27

Stretching the Boundaries of Learner Identity in Interlanguage Development

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A learner log is a personal space (digital or analog), a mental sanctuary, where learners can feel safe when expressing themselves in their interlanguage. Writing in a foreign language demands a high degree of intentionality and metalinguistic awareness about linguistic categories and functions. A log can elevate the acquisition of grammar in a way that oral exercises cannot, by providing room for active self-correction and deeper reflection on syntactic, morphological and semantic aspects. Individual progress can furthermore be made visible, as linguistic forms are preserved.

A prerequisite for *writing* development is *writer* development (Krogh & Jakobsen, 2016, pp. 246). In the first stages of learning a foreign language, the interlanguage is rudimentary, challenging the learner's self-perception and sense of identity, but at a later stage, the interlanguage can become an integrated mode of expression, a new semiotic frame (cf. Vygotsky, 1976), affording a means of reinterpreting personal experiences. The foreign language can thus be appropriated in the students' identity construction, generating a new self, seizable in a personal log, and stretching the boundaries of identity in the foreign language learner.

Just as foreign language learning to a large extent depends on students' willingness to identify with a culture and their motivation to interact with its speakers (cf. Gardner, 1985), it is important that students identify with and assume ownership of their writing projects. The aim of this paper is to argue for the benefits of implementing a personal learner log in foreign language teaching, as this method can stretch the boundaries of identity in the development of the interlanguage and compel students to implicitly assume ownership of their own language learning process. A personal log is particularly useful in this context because it allows students to structure content in a way that transforms it to a personal narrative, thereby activating the students' identity work in the language learning process.

Pedagogical Intervention Study

In a pilot intervention study, the effect of implementing a personal learner log was examined in a class of 20 students in upper secondary school (Danish *gymnasium*), all native speakers of Danish on their third year learning French as a third language (English their second). In a course on gender roles (titled *Les rôles des deux sexes*), expected to strongly engage personal attitudes, the students were asked to reflect in writing on their learning outcome during the last 10-15 minutes of each course module. Even though the teacher was allowed access to the personal logs via Google Docs (in order to keep the students accountable), no corrective feedback was provided on the reflections in the log. The logs were, however, explicitly framed as *strategic note-taking,* as the students were expected to write a synthesis of their reflections at the end of the course (a graded take-home assignment), which boosted motivation. In addition, the personal log was employed as a means of *self-scaffolding*, such that the entries in the previous class were used as a point of departure for conversation in the following class.

In the following sample from the personal log of student "Annie", her identity is clearly engaged and interacting with the material. This, however, appears to be at the expense of the formal, grammatical aspects of communication:

J'ai fortement en désaccord avec Simone de Beauvoir! Je suis née en tant que femme. Mon sexe est biologiquement déterminée. C'est ni économiquement ou socialement déterminé. Ma sexe est une partie de mon identité, mais il ne me définit pas.

In an anonymous end-of-course evaluation, quite a few students expressed having experienced an improvement in the fixation of new vocabulary (e.g. this student comment translated from Danish: *You remember the vocabulary better, because you use them in several different contexts*), and others highlight metacognitive benefits (e.g. [*The log] makes it easier to remember what you thought about during the course and invited you to reflect more deeply*; *the opportunity to formulate your very own sentence concerning the subject matter ... makes it easier to remember main points [for the exam]*). Thus, the implementation of a learner log favors both linguistic and extralinguistic processes at a cognitive level.

Cognitive Aspects of Language Learning

The input that students are exposed to in their learning processes should ideally be directed to the prefrontal cortex where it can be transformed into long-term memory. In order for this to happen, the "reflective brain" must communicate effectively with the "reactive brain" (cf. Willis 2009). A high stress level will affect the amygdala such that the flow of information to the prefrontal cortex is inhibited, as illustrated in a simplified manner here:
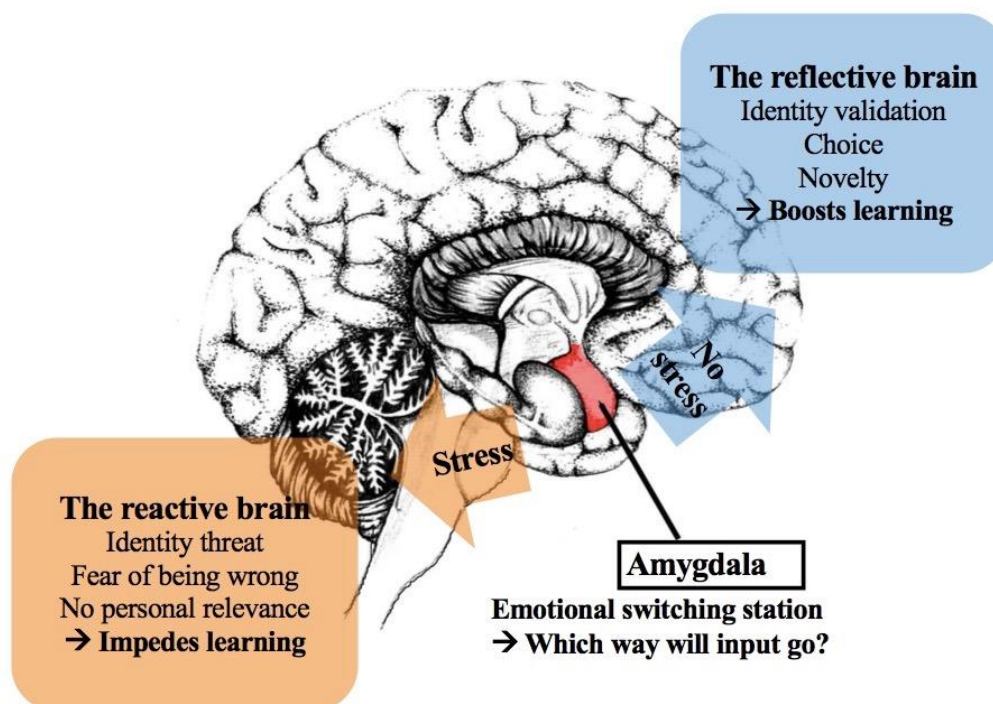

Figure 1. Effects of stress level on learning

One way of reducing the students' stress level in foreign language teaching is to employ the method of the learner log, as it provides the students with a safe haven where their (self-)image is not in jeopardy and where they can play around with their foreign language identity. However, this is accomplished through a lack of feedback, not to mention corrective feedback, as the students are in principle writing to themselves like they would in a private diary. One way to counteract this is to have the students "pull out" material from the log and subject it to either oral or written corrective

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CHAPTER 28

Stretching Identity Boundaries through Study Abroad

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Introduction

Undeniable relationships between identity and second language learning are gaining increasing attention from the international academic community (Norton, 2014), as evident at the Psychology of Language Learning conference in Tokyo (PLL3). One arena to develop students' identities in tandem with their language skills is provided by study abroad programmes. In fact, since "globalization is a compelling force in universities worldwide" (Komisarof & Zhu, 2017, p. 1), studies investigating the cultural identities of students undertaking study abroad programmes are becoming more relevant. As Dolby (2004) explains, "study abroad provides not only the possibility of encountering the world, but of encountering oneself - particularly one's national identity - in a context that may stimulate new questions and new formations of that self" (p. 150). Further, Shaules (2015) illustrates how emotions felt through experiences overseas can spark changes that influence cultural identities on a deep level.

Background

The motivation for this study comes from the findings of the author's previous research. One particular study (Ogawa, 2016) produced interesting and significant results regarding correlations between overseas experience (of more than 6 months) and identity features, with gender differences. Specifically, those results showed males with overseas experience to have both stronger National identities as well as stronger Global identities than respondents who had not lived abroad, and females with overseas experience were shown to display even stronger Global identifications without the strengthening in National ties. That study was part of a doctoral research project which recommended, as an area of further research, examining a cohort of students before and after their first study-abroad experience. An opportunity to conduct such research arose a few months after graduation through the author's involvement in sending a group of students to Sydney for their summer holidays.

Methods

This study examines this group of language learners' identities both before and after they crossed national and cultural boundaries to explore new language and identity territories (See Ogawa, 2018, for a more comprehensive article). Using the methodological tool known as identity maps, which are pictorial representations or portraits of the respondents' own identities (See Sirin & Fine, 2008), this study aimed to reveal signs of possible changes in these students' cultural identities before and after their maiden study abroad experiences. Accordingly, two identity workshops were conducted by the author in July of 2017 before the participants went abroad for the first time and another two in September on their return from their three-week summer holiday study-abroad programme in Sydney, Australia. The identity maps drawn by 12 university students who met the criteria of Japanese nationality, lack of overseas experience, and participation in both a pre and a post workshop were chosen for this study. The control group was 11 students who met the same criteria but did not go overseas. Symbols in their identity maps were then tallied and compared.

Findings

Unlike the findings of Ogawa (2016), overseas experience did not correspond to a higher Global score. This may be because the participants in this study were overseas for a mere few weeks, as opposed to the much longer average of approximately 30 months for those in Ogawa (2016). Further, each student in this study drew their second identity map less than a month after returning to Japan, whereas the previous respondents had typically been back in Japan for a number of years. In other words, there were major differences regarding the length of time respondents had lived overseas as well as the timing of data collection after their return.

In contrast to the many smartphones depicted in the identity maps of the previous study, there was only one smartphone in the 46 identity maps in this study. Perhaps Hopkins' (2010) claim that smartphones are an important source of identity for young people only holds true for those in metropolitan areas. Meanwhile, the area where the students in this study attend university is musically strong and that musical influence appears to have shown up in their maps, with many of them depicting symbols of music, such as musical instruments, (karaoke) microphones, and musical notes.

Conclusions

This study indicates that identity studies are context-dependent and emphasizes limitations in conducting research of this nature in which various factors, such as the length of time spent overseas, the timing of data collection, and geographical location, are likely to affect results. While the limitations of this study were largely inevitable due to the nature of the access to the study participants and the extent of their overseas experiences, as well as time and other constraints, these limitations themselves have clarified that both location (Hopkins, 2010) and timing (Pink, 2018) are important aspects of identity research.

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CHAPTER 29

Validating the Sojourner Self-Efficacy in Communication Scale (SSEC) for Japanese University Students

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Background

Need to assess learner communicative self-efficacy

Study abroad is generally considered a high-impact learning experience for cultivating more internationally savvy and linguistically proficient students. In Japan, study tours abroad lasting around 10-14 days are increasingly popular. Little is understood, however, about student self-perception of ability to communicate in the language of the host country, how that influences the decision to participate, and if it changes after participation. No instrument for assessment of learner perceptions seems to have been developed for the Japanese context. The Sojourner Self-Efficacy in Communication Scale (SSEC), an English-medium instrument developed by Peterson, Milstein, Chen, and Nakazawa (2011), appears to be a promising starting point toward this endeavor. Therefore, in this study we created a Japanese version of the SSEC and sampled university undergraduates in Japan to establish initial evidence of construct validity in the Japanese context.

Methods

Participants

We operationalized the Sojourner Self-Efficacy in Communication Scale (SSEC; 34 items, previously reported $\alpha=0.95$) in a group of undergraduate students (n = 147, M age = 19, 66.5% Female) from a national university in western Japan.

Procedures

The original English items from the SSEC were translated into Japanese, modified to specifically ask about self-efficacy in an English-speaking context, and then back-translated into English. The response scale ranged from 1 (*cannot do well*) to 6 (*can do very well*).

Statistical analysis

The original SSEC validation study by Peterson et al. (2011) reported that the 34 items represented a single construct. They used an exploratory factor analytic (EFA) approach with principal axis factoring first, determined inclusion of items based on Cronbach's alpha, noted that EFA is not capable of providing scale validation, but did not conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Therefore, our study began by conducting a CFA. Model fit (CFI = 0.757, SRMR = 0.075, RMSEA = 0.105, p < 0.0001) indicated extremely poor fit. The unfinished state of the original SSEC scale development, coupled with unsatisfactory model fit for the Japanese version, warranted reinvestigation. We used EFA, Rasch modeling, and CFA to begin validating the Japanese SSEC.

Results

Exploratory factor analysis

Three distinct factors emerged from an EFA of the 34-item data (SPSS, Version 21). We labeled these factors as:
1. Productive Skills Self-Efficacy
2. Receptive Skills Self-Efficacy
3. Engaging Challenging Interlocutor Self-Efficacy

Eight items loaded on Factor 3. We decided that the nature of this hypothetical construct strayed too far from communicative self-efficacy and therefore we removed this construct and its items from further analysis.

Rasch rating scale modeling

The technical quality of items was evaluated using Winsteps (Linacre, 2006; Version 3.73). Appropriateness of rating scale functioning was confirmed using Linacre's (2002) criteria for minimum number of observations (10), outfit mean square (< 2.0 at all levels), and level gaps (between .59 and 5 logits). We used the item fit criteria (Infit MNSQ ranging from .6 to 1.4) advised by Smith (2000) and methodically cut the worst fitting items until we had a parsimonious 12-item version of the scale. Rasch item separation (5.93) and reliability (.97), as well as person separation (2.65) and reliability (.88) were satisfactory for the *productive skills* factor. Item separation (4.84) and reliability (.96), as well as person separation (2.97) and reliability (.90) were also satisfactory for the *receptive skills* factor.

Confirmatory factor analysis

Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) (Arbuckle, 2014; Version 22) was used to test the two-factor, 12-item model (See Figure 1). Reliability (Cronbach's α and MacDonald's ω) for *Receptive Skills Self-Efficacy (F1)* (α = 0.904, ω = 0.905), and *Productive Skills Self-Efficacy (F2)* (α = 0.910, ω = 0.911) indicated high internal consistency.

Goodness of fit followed the criteria set by Hu and Bentler (1999). The finalized CFA fit indices were as follows: $\chi^2(52) = 100.735$, $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 1.937$, CFI = 0.958; SRMR = 0.055; RMSEA = 0.077. One modification index of the error variance on F2 was used to improve model fit.
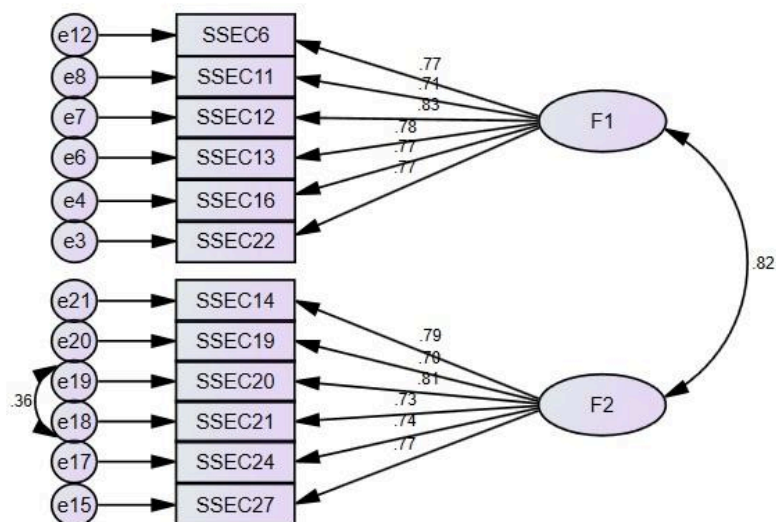
Figure 1. Final CFA of Two-Factor SSEC

Conclusion

Study tours abroad are increasingly popular at Japanese universities, but little is known about how student perceptions of communicative competence influence the motivation to participate in such study abroad experiences. The capacity to summarize individual differences in learner beliefs regarding perceived communicative competence makes it a plausible candidate outcome measure for understanding if this competence is enhanced by engaging in activities such as study tours abroad.

We hereby present our preliminary results validating the Sojourner Self-Efficacy in Communication (SSEC) for use in the Japanese context. The SSEC appears multidimensional in the context of Japanese undergraduates, as our sample clearly delineated items into language skill domains. Researchers tracking changes in learner beliefs about communication may find this domain-specific self-efficacy scale useful.

Limitations and future directions

Future research in this area should consider the following:
- Concurrent and criterion-related validity has not yet been established.
- Comparison of SSEC factor scores with speaking/listening measures and another general self-efficacy scale is necessary.
- Many items relating to stress/conflict/intimidation/authority (the factor we termed "Engaging Challenging Interlocutor Self-Efficacy") might merit additional exploration.
- Corroboration with a larger dataset is necessary.

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Note

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Efficacy_Scales

CHAPTER 30

Boundary Crossing as L2 Learning Experience:
A Case of a Japanese Program at an Australian University.

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This paper presents two case studies in a Japanese Program at an Australian university (UNSW) in which the theory of Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) is applied to create Boundary Crossing opportunities that enhance L2 learning experience. We will discuss benefits of such boundary crossing experiences for L2 learning.

UNSW Japanese Program

UNSW Japanese program as Communities of Practice (CoP)

CoP are understood as "groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (Wenger-Trayner, & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, p. 1). The theory defines learning as learners' identity development through situated learning. A language program based on CoP shown in Figure 1 defines and develops boundaries such as core course communities (e.g. the Introductory Japanese Course) and sub-communities (e.g. a tutorial classroom community within the Introductory Japanese Course). This assists L2 learners to develop an identity through participation within their CoP.
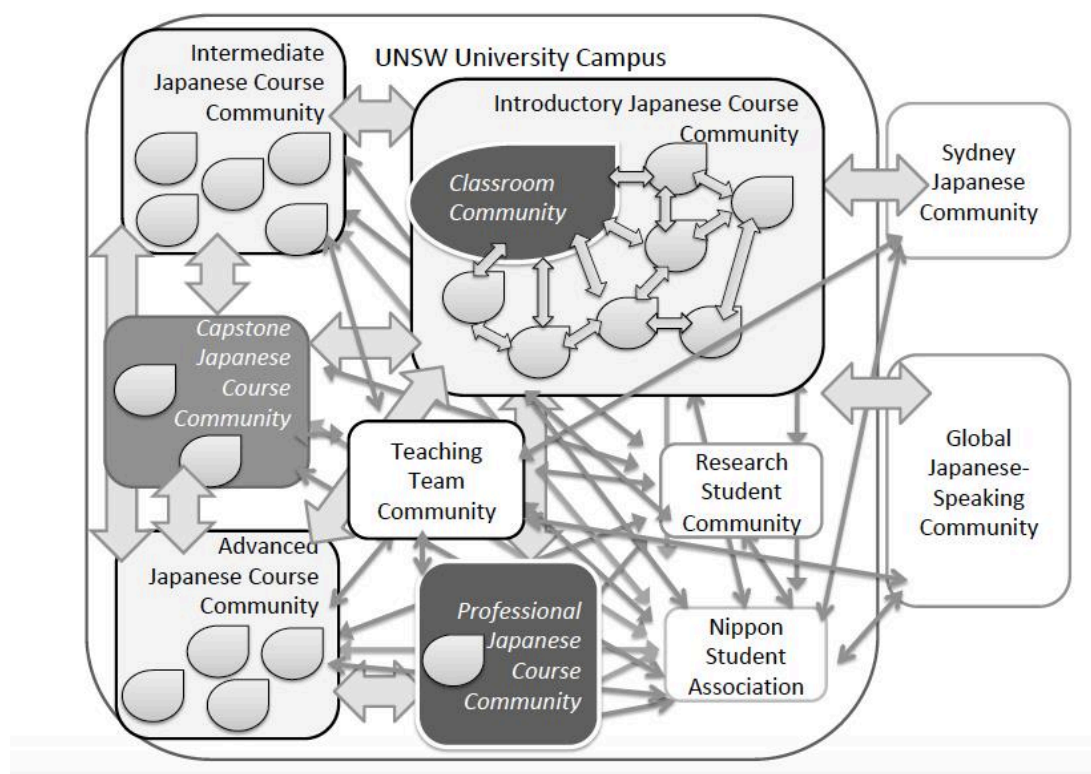

Figure 1. UNSW Japanese Communities of Practice

Boundary Crossing

At the same time, these multiple CoP, their boundaries and the links can create different kinds of situated learning, that is, Boundary Crossing. Boundary Crossing activates expansive horizontal learning through new connections, and vertical cumulative learning through new perspectives, which together enhance learners' identity development.

L2 Motivational Self System

L2 learners' identity, in particular, their future self-image, is a central tenet of the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009). The theory explains L2 learner motivation as a dynamic system that consists of three components. The first two, Ideal L2 Self (what they want to become) and Ought-to L2 Self (what they believe they must be), relate to L2 specific possible Selves. These interact with the third component, L2 Learning Experience to drive L2 motivation. The two case studies illustrate how the interaction of L2 Possible Selves and Boundary Crossing as L2 Learning Experience facilitated L2 learning.

Case Studies

Japanese Capstone course student conference[1]

The Capstone course is the final course for students majoring Japanese studies at the university. The course consists of students from both Advanced Japanese and Professional Japanese courses creating mixed-level class of about 25 students. These students at various proficiency levels form groups of five to organize and administer a mini-conference using the Japanese language. In the conference, each group must present research on a topic within the discipline of Japanese studies. As well as preparing the group presentation, the students work together towards hosting the conference, sharing workload such as inviting members of the Sydney Japanese speaking community, receiving the guests on the day, and sending thank you letters to participants afterwards.

The course offered various Boundary Crossing opportunities for the students. Within the program, they crossed their core course CoP boundary to a new Capstone CoP with mixed-level proficiency students including those with study-aboard experience in Japan. At the same time, they moved beyond the university boundary to interact with the local Japanese community using their Japanese skills in authentic situations. Both experiences seemed to activate the learners' possible L2 Self (i.e. want to become a L2 user), enhancing their L2 learning. Boundary Crossing opportunities were also offered to junior level students who participated in the conference on the day, triggering their L2 possible Selves in a form of seniors as their role models.

"Junior teachers"

Junior teachers are the students of the Professional Japanese Course who act as teacher's assistants in the Introductory Classrooms to earn points for their core course assessments. They regularly visit their assigned Introductory Classroom CoP to assist lower level students. Their duties include preparing the classroom setting beforehand, providing model conversations, and checking students' assignments while interacting with native speaker teachers. This Boundary Crossing experience forces the *junior teachers* to switch identities between an L2 learner in their core course and L2 user as a *junior teacher*. This seemed to activate their possible L2 Selves such as an Ideal L2 Self (want to speak more fluently to communicate with the teachers)

and Ought-to L2 Self (fear of losing face in front of lower level students) to promote their L2 learning. The effects of the Boundary Crossing went beyond *junior teachers* themselves. The experience of interacting with their role models, *junior teachers*, stimulated L2 possible Selves of the lower level students facilitating their L2 learning.

Boundary Crossing as a Way of Learning

As shown in the two case studies presented above, a language program based on CoP can create Boundary Crossing opportunities by defining and developing boundaries. Boundary Crossing opportunities in the program provided students with authentic situations to use Japanese skills. Further, lived experience of Boundary Crossing activated the students' L2 Motivational Self System to actualize their possible L2 Selves, assisting their identity development of becoming a language user. Aided by their Ideal/Ought-to Selves, students crossing boundaries underwent vertical learning and advanced their language learning. Boundary Crossing also enabled them to experience horizontal learning by connecting with a variety of people and situations.

The success of learning embedded in Communities of Practice and Boundary Crossing, however, doesn't come easily. It is essential to have a strong network that links each CoP and surrounding environments to make Boundary Crossing experiences to enhance L2 learning.

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Note

[1] Please follow this link for the one-minute video of the 2017 student conference. https://tinyurl.com/UNSWCapstone2017

Part 3
Language Teachers and Teaching

CHAPTER 31

Language Teacher Well-being

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Sarah Mercer, University of Graz, Austria
Elaine Horwitz, University of Texas at Austin, USA
Tammy Gregersen, American University of Sharjah, UAE
Peter MacIntyre, Cape Breton University, Canada
Phil Hiver, Florida State University, USA

Introduction and Rationale for Symposium

Teacher well-being has been shown to play a significant role in quality of teaching and student achievement (Day & Gu, 2009; Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Lüdtke, & Baumert, 2008). However, increasingly, teachers' report worse than average levels of job-satisfaction, physical health, and well-being (Johnson et al., 2003). This symposium aimed to trigger discussion about the need to empirically investigate and discuss the well-being of language teachers specifically. It brought together diverse perspectives from six international scholars on language teacher well-being, factors contributing to it, and possible interventions designed to improve it.

Paper 1: Teacher Well-Being and Teacher Identity: How Language Anxiety Can Undermine Teacher's Well-Being and Language Teaching Effectiveness

Elaine K. Horwitz

Elaine Horwitz discussed the Language Anxiety that results from teachers' discomfort when they feel unable to express themselves fully and authentically in a second language. Among all content areas, she noted, second language teaching has the greatest potential to challenge a teacher's identity. She explained how anxiety can impact teachers' feelings of well-being and instructional choices, and explained that anxiety is not exclusive to L2 speakers of the instructional language. Rather, all language teachers can experience some form of anxiety ranging from general feelings of discomfort, which she likened to wearing an uncomfortable mask, to the actual choice of instructional approaches and classroom activities. Finally, she offered a practical suggestion that may help teachers feel more comfortable and authentic in their second language selves: be as kind to yourself as a teacher as you are to your students.

Paper 2: Teacher Well-Being, Exemplary Teaching, and the Social Ecology of the L2 Classroom

Phil Hiver

Phil Hiver presented a study examining how language teacher well-being, conceptualized through the construct of teacher immunity (Hiver & Dörnyei, 2017) is linked to multidimensional measures of effective classroom practice. The study he described involved

data collection from a stratified sample (N=900) of language teachers in diverse L2 learning contexts measuring their well-being through a language teacher immunity profile (i.e., teaching self-efficacy, resilience, coping, burnout, attitudes toward teaching, openness to change, classroom affectivity, and mental imagery). It also involved the administration of the 7Cs instrument—a data elicitation tool validated by the Measures of Effective Teaching project with over 100,000 teachers (Ferguson & Danielson, 2014)—to assesses specific broad aspects of exemplary teaching practice: personal support, curricular support, and academic press. The results of the study indicate that teacher well-being is associated with effective classroom practice by supporting quality use of class time and instructional feedback, professional reflection and learning, and supportive relationships with students.

Paper 3: Self-Regulation and Subjective Well-Being of University English Language Teachers

Kyle Talbot

Kyle Talbot reported on a co-authored study conducted with Sarah Mercer. The data in this study were 12 semi-structured interviews of university ESL/EFL teachers in Japan, the United States, and Austria. Specifically, the presentation focused on the emotional components of subjective well-being (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003), which are positive affect and lack of unpleasant affect, and the factors that influenced them for these teachers. Factors that were perceived as contributing positively to these teachers' emotional well-being included these teachers' students and the meaning and social impact they felt as contributors to the language teaching profession. Factors perceived as detracting from these teachers' well-being included the temporal nature of teacher stress, lack of student engagement, workload, and high energy costs due to the interpersonal nature of language teaching. To adapt to negativity these teachers reframed negative situations, compared themselves favorably to others, or made plans to act on future negativity. To lengthen positivity these teachers savored by attending to positive experiences and/or expressed gratitude about their lives. To conclude the presentation, he discussed the complexity of emotions experienced by university ESL/EFL language teachers and the key role of their cognitive perceptions in understanding these emotions.

Paper 4: The Wellbeing of First-Year EFL Teachers: Learning How to Flourish

Sarah Mercer

Sarah Mercer discussed a key challenge facing the profession which is how to support practising teachers in managing their stress and how to recruit and ensure the retention of early-career stage teachers (Cooper & Alvarado, 2006). As such, she reported on a study that focused on four EFL teachers who were working in secondary schools for their first year of teaching practice in Austria. Through a series of email journal entries and three in-depth, semi-structured interviews spaced throughout the year, the teachers reported on their perceptions of their professional wellbeing and self-regulatory strategies in managing their multiple commitments and stress. The data were analysed inductively revealing dynamism in their professional wellbeing across the year and generating a series of themes centering around the personal characteristics of the individual as well as contextual affordances. Interestingly, all four teachers not only survived but they thrived in their first year providing insights to the kind of contextual, social, and psychological support early-career stage teachers need to protect and promote their professional wellbeing.

Paper 5: Signature Strengths as a Gateway to More Effective Language Teacher Mentoring

Tammy Gregersen and Peter MacIntyre

Tammy Gregersen and Peter MacIntyre discussed the emotionally challenging transition new language teachers experience as they transition from student to teacher. They also discussed how support from experienced mentors has been shown to help with the transition. Gregersen and MacIntyre went on to explain their own study which tested a novel approach to connecting mentors and mentees based on capitalizing on strengths (as opposed to remediating weakness). Participants were three experienced mentors and six novice teachers. Mentors provided highly specific advice tailored to the strengths of the novice teachers (based on the Values in Action survey) who were asked to use their strengths in a new way every day for a semester. Results were positive. The 61 pieces of mentor's advice were categorized using a grounded theory approach. Advice included recommending specific classroom activities, strategies for a positive classroom atmosphere, and teacher self-care. Further, quantitative results from a post-test survey show that novice teachers reported greater relationship satisfaction, well-being, confidence, resilience and coping skills.

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CHAPTER 32

Transitioning in Third-age Language Teachers' Psychological Resilience Through Continuity

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The concept of psychological resilience is described as "an overarching construct [that] represents a common core and accounts for the functioning of a number of psychological resources" (Windle, Markland & Woods, 2008, p. 285). A set of psychological resources used as a framework in this study is known as psychological capital (PsyCap). PsyCap can provide a resilient basis in professionals and has been developed to discover and understand what sources of strengths people can draw from to manage stress and difficulties, and retain high levels of functioning across their professional life cycles (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017; Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015). PsyCap consists of four, HERO, states, namely hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism. The HERO states are measurable, theory and research-based, and open to development. They also share commonalities, operate better as a whole than individual constructs, and have a positive effect on work-related happiness and well-being (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015). As such, PsyCap provides a useful lens for viewing and exploring the well-being of professionals, in this case language teachers and/or teacher educators.

This study seeks to understand positive psychological resources that support third-age language teachers' and/or teacher educators' (TALTs and/or TATEs) personal and professional well-being, and gain an understanding of how these teachers transit from employment to retirement. Third age "describes relatively healthy 'young-old' people who are now retired, while feeling energy, excitement, purpose and well-being" (Oxford, 2018, p. 4). Third agers are "individuals at later stages of their career and the early stage of retirement" (Carr & Komp, 2011, p. 3). In respect to language teaching, TALTs and/or TATEs are teachers who are approaching retirement or have already retired but remain professionally active. The transition from employment to retirement can be seen as "a time for new beginnings, as well as a time for continuing well established patterns that are satisfying to the individual" (Dorfman & Kolarik, 2005, p. 346). This is especially true for tertiary-level TALTs and/or TATEs who more often than not continue with teaching practices long into their retirement.

Generally, there is an absence of research with language teachers and their professional well-being (Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018), especially with TALTs and/or TATEs. However, one notable exception can be found in the work of Oxford, Cohen and Simmons (2018) who argue that "the third-age concept does not seem to have been previously applied to studying teacher educators" (p. 291). Extending our understanding of TALTs and/or TATEs is important because these teachers, due to the longevity of their careers, may offer especially rich insights into the factors that encourage teachers to stay in the profession and flourish in their professional roles.

Methodology

This study aims to explore positive psychological resources that provide a resilient basis and support professional well-being of TALTs and/or TATEs. It also seeks to understand how these teachers have transitioned from employment to (active) retirement.

This study is a qualitative study that takes a holistic approach. Four semi-structured interviews were conducted with TALTs and/or TATEs, who were, at the time of the study,

living and working in Austria. They are all L1 speakers of English. For further information about the participants, please see Table 1.

Table 1. Participants' Demographic Information

Participant	Years of age	Years of teaching experience	Teaching contexts	Retirement status	Current teaching activities
Michael	69	48	Schools, universities, working with disabled	Retired	Teaching in-service course and working on international projects
Jackie	67	36	Schools, universities, companies	Retired	Teaching in-service courses, and English as a foreign language
Michelle	Over 60	38	Schools, universities	Soon to be retired. At the moment of the interview, one year to retirement.	Teaching four courses at a university
Samuel	65	42	Schools, universities, British council	Retired	Teaching seven courses at a university

All teachers were given an informed consent sheet explaining the purpose of the study and assuring the anonymity and confidentiality. Two copies of the informed consent sheets were signed. Each participant kept one copy, while the other one stayed with the author.

The interviews were transcribed for content and put in Atlas.ti for analysis. Inductive approach to coding was taken, followed the procedures laid out in Charmaz (2006).

Findings

In this study the teachers reported on their teaching trajectories, highs and lows, beliefs, emotions, self-esteem, interests, and, perhaps not surprisingly, strong intention to remain in the profession for as long as they can. It was found that although they have been occasionally exposed to challenges and set-backs, they have managed to "bounce back", nurture their sense of well-being, job and life satisfaction, and retain a positive sense of control and optimism. Maintaining enthusiasm for teaching, savoring, growth mindset, adaptive coping strategies, high self-esteem and self-efficacy are some of the positive psychological resources these teachers have nurtured across their professional life span. These resources seem to fuel and preserve their psychological resilience, leading these TALTs and/ TATEs to flourish in their professional roles.

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CHAPTER 33

Pre-service Language Teacher Noticing of Anxiety During Task-based Interaction

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Introduction

In pre-service language teacher training environments, tasks can be a context for noticing emotions. Language teacher noticing (Jackson & Cho, 2018) includes processes of attending to, interpreting, and acting upon phenomena that arise during engagement with learners. To work dynamically with tasks in the classroom (Samuda, 2015), teachers must learn to notice various facets of engagement, including its overlapping cognitive, behavioral, social, and emotional facets (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Teacher anxiety arises from internal or external situations which are subjectively experienced as being negative and can be addressed through various emotion regulation strategies (Gross, 2015; King & Ng, 2018).

Based on a larger, ongoing study, this mixed methods case study investigated one pre-service teacher's noticing of anxiety during tasks carried out with a partner. The research question was: in what ways did the teacher notice her anxiety?

Participants, Tasks, and Procedures

The study used data from tasks, questionnaires, and stimulated recall interviews to focus on one participant (Table 1), who played the role of a teacher in a series of map gap tasks in which she interacted with a partner playing a student role. The participants were recruited from a teacher-training program in Japan.

Table 1. Teacher Participant Data

Gender	Female
Age	20
Year at university	3rd
Department	English
Target teaching context	High school

The procedures, carried out in an office, were as follows. Steps marked with an asterisk were repeated four times in total, using different map gap tasks:
1. Study overview
2. Informed consent
3. Assignment to student and teacher roles
4. Task performance*
5. Task questionnaire*
6. Stimulated recall training (teacher only)
7. Stimulated recall interview (teacher only)*

Findings

Questionnaire results and task completion scores

The teacher's questionnaire responses are displayed in Figure 1. She consistently reported feeling relaxed, based on high scores (9/10) on three of the four tasks. The only change in relaxation occurred during Task 2, after which relaxation decreased to 7/10. Overall, the figure shows that the teacher remained calm, but encountered varying levels of ease and success.
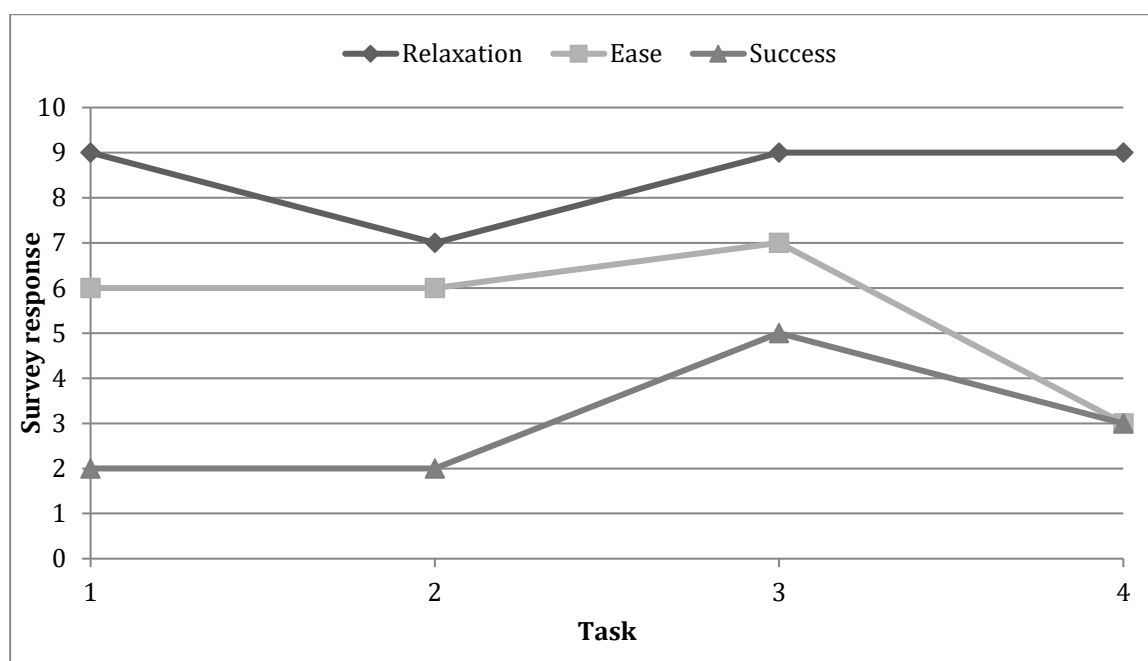

Figure 1. Teacher Responses to Questionnaire Items Across Four Tasks

Task scores were based on the student's completed maps. A scoring rubric was used to rate each map on a scale of 1-6, according to accuracy and completion. Based on the larger study, two independent raters' scores were found to be correlated ($r(14) = .94$, $p = .00$), thus inter-rater reliability was high. The scores assigned to tasks 1, 2, 3, and 4 were 1, 6, 4, and 1, respectively.

Task interaction and stimulated recalls

The teacher's comments during the stimulated recall interviews were transcribed, translated, and coded to identify instances of noticing. Coding led to 81% agreement between two raters.

The following excerpt illustrates one way in which the teacher noticed her anxiety. Task 2 was chosen because it constituted the teacher's lowest scoring task on the subjective, questionnaire measure of relaxation, yet was her highest scoring task on the objective measure of task performance (rater scores).

Excerpt from Task 2

		Task interaction	Recall comments
1	T:	please go out (.) at the ((laughs)) right=left side door	
2	S:	mm-hm	
3	T:	and <u>maybe</u> you can see some trees or flowers and plea::se walk on the street. You can see this street?	*I got anxious so I couldn't help adding "maybe"*
4	S:	besides the tree and flowers?	
5	T:	yeah, yeah, yeah. Tree and flower? I don't know. <u>Maybe</u> you can see the shape of the square street	
6	S:	ah: the little path?	
7	T:	yeah	
8	S:	okay	

During this interaction, the teacher encountered some difficulty giving directions. The recall showed that she had been aware of becoming anxious and that she consequently used *maybe* to describe the route (see lines 3 and 5), without intending to (*I couldn't help…*). In this way, the teacher noticed the emotional facet of task-based interaction. Furthermore, the uncertainty, or hesitation, expressed by *maybe* may have prompted the student's request for clarification in line 6, which led to mutual understanding.

Discussion

In this study, one pre-service teacher's relaxation fluctuated only slightly across four tasks, based on questionnaire data. However, additional questionnaire results and rater scores indicated greater variability. Regarding Task 2, after which the teacher's self-reported relaxation decreased, the interaction and recall data show that she experienced anxiety manifesting itself linguistically in the hedge, *maybe*. One could argue that, by hedging, the teacher modified the task from within (Samuda, 2015). Such language usage, embedded in emotion, is relevant to social interaction in the real world. Data also showed that the student used a clarification request to follow up on the directions, which highlights the complexity of interactions in which emotional and cognitive facets of engagement may be intricately interwoven (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). This willingness to engage cognitively appears to have contributed to successful task completion.

This study may not generalize to classroom settings and its methodology addressed only the anxiety that the trainee reported. Nonetheless, research on pre-service language teacher psychology can benefit the development of interactional abilities and nurture reflection on emotional, and other, facets of engagement in tasks. Future work is needed to develop a wide range of associated practical applications.

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CHAPTER 34

Effectiveness and Training of Student Teachers as Motivators for Low-level Language Learners

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The English education Japanese students receive throughout their schooling years typically involved cramming grammar points and were often designed to pass entrance exams for higher educations and for job opportunities (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009, p. 69). Due to minimal output-based English learning, students' interest, willingness, desire, and therefore motivation fade over time. This could be said about the university students that were observed for this study.

At this women's university, the overall students' English proficiency levels were low because many students believe that there is not a high demand for English outside the university settings. In addition, many students expressed their disinterest towards English language studies due to past experiences in junior and senior high school. At this university, there is a language learning center (LLC) where students could receive language learning support from language advisors and student-teachers. Students that frequented the LLC had various purposes for studying English from improving their English communication skills to getting better grades for their English class. However, there were students that frequented the LLC not by choice but by their teacher due to their low grades/proficiency and inability to keep up with the class. This observation targeted such students and their interactions with the student-teachers, documenting three common case studies at the LLC. Informal interviews were carried out to student-teachers and low-level students after sessions to obtain feedback of the interactions.

Student-Teachers

The student-teachers were selected university students with a passion for learning, using, and teaching the English language to their peers. To be qualified, students had to have good sociable skills; pass an English proficiency test; take on the *big sister role*; devote time to supporting the students; and have excellent communication skills to be able to build good interpersonal relationships. English skills were necessary but social skills were equally important because these student-teachers would be interacting with shy and/or unmotivated learners. The student-teachers had to take on the *big sister role* to their younger peers because the general university population liked to be taken care of rather than independently studying with a language advisor. This characteristic may be culturally unique to Asia.

The roles of the student-teachers were to provide learning assistance to lower-level proficiency students so that these students may become more capable. The idea is that of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD), Vygotsky defined ZPD as the:

> distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers".
>
> (in Cole et al., 1978, p. 86)

With the presence of student-teachers, the low-level students' attitude towards English language learning gradually changed into a more positive one.

Case Study 1: Eikaiwa

Eikaiwa, or speaking in English, is a popular skill students want to acquire. However, many low-level students who showed interest were very hesitant and extremely shy about sitting down with a language advisor alone. The student-teachers joined the group to mediate the conversation. The student-teacher led the conversation using simplified English and encouraged the low-level student for output. When interviewed after several sessions, the low-level students mentioned that they began looking up to the student-teachers as role models and got pronunciation help outside the conversation groups. The student-teachers observed that the low-level students' willingness to communicate got stronger after each session.

Case Study 2: Test Preparations

Like the low-level students, student-teachers were once struggling to pass English proficiency tests, therefore when the low-level students were struggling and losing interest and student-teachers stepped in and gave advice on how to study and prepare for the tests more effectively. The student-teachers often became study-buddies to the students and encouraged them throughout. At times, strict mentoring was observed, however the low-level students continued to meet their goals of passing. According to the low-level students, the student-teachers were very resourceful as they provided appropriate advice when needed. Student-teachers observed that low-level students gained confidence and kept challenging themselves even after making numerous mistakes.

Case Study 3: Preparing for Demo Lessons

This case study specifically observed the low-level students in the Education department who were required to prepare and present demo lessons in class. These students seek advice from the student-teachers especially because most of the student-teachers had gone through practical trainings at schools' prior. The student-teachers provided suggestions and feedback on students' lesson plans. They also provided their own experiences and understandings which gave low-level students insight and confidence. Half of the low-level students observed, however, waited for student-teachers to feed them with answers.

Conclusion

Through semesters of observing the interactions between student-teachers with low-level students, it was very clear that student-teachers had positive impacts on students. Student-teachers provided low-level learners how to find purpose in studying English and with continuous encouragements, low-level students reignited their motivation to learn. When these students began losing interest, student-teachers brought their interests back. They became role model figures to many low-level students which played a key role in their interest towards learning the language. Through every interaction, low-level students became more and more capable of what they could do which added to their confidence and therefore gradually solidifying their purpose and motivation in learning.

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CHAPTER 35

The Psychology of the Language Learning Classroom

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Education professionals have long been interested in what takes place inside of classrooms. These spaces for learning are highly complex systems and house learners, albeit temporarily, who are equally diverse and multifaceted. Attention has been paid to teaching methods and approaches, individual differences in learners, and issues pertaining to assessment and evaluation, among other burgeoning areas. While these foci are necessary constituents of a holistic view of language learning, the classroom itself has all but been overlooked in most published papers and manuscripts. This presentation argued that investigating the physical containers in which instructed second language acquisition occurs, and the resources present inside them, is worthwhile—an inevitable endeavor if we continue in our aspirations to make sense of the learners we as educationalists attempt to serve. To do so, I examined the *affordances*, which Williams, Mercer, and Ryan (2015) define as "the perceived resources in the environment that learners can interact with in order to learn" (p. 149), of primary level classrooms and compared them to classrooms at the tertiary level. The title of this presentation is, of course, a play on the title of Dörnyei's (2005) seminal text, *The Psychology of the Language Learner*. His influence on the field cannot be denied. However, even Dörnyei has written only briefly about the effects classrooms have on language learners, and it is with great respect that I borrow his phrasing in the title of my own paper. I hope he does not mind.

The presentation began with a few guiding thoughts. 1) Classrooms send messages to students about what they can do or use in the room (Townsend-Butterworth, 2015); 2) well-designed classrooms can help to motivate learners to think creatively and collaboratively, leading to an increase in positive interaction (Hare & Dillon, 2016); and 3) classroom design at the tertiary level can glean much useful information by examining the design, and rationale behind such design, of classrooms created and outfitted for young learners (Osment & Thomas, 2017). Thirty years ago, van Lier wrote that "we have failed to consider the communication potential of the classroom itself, and the authentic resources for interaction it has to offer" (1988, p. 30). Tudor (2001) built upon this idea in his notion of the classroom *as* communication in addition to its more commonly thought of role as a place for communication. Physical spaces communicate much in the same way humans do. They provide visual, auditory, and kinesthetic stimuli if furnished in such a way that multisensory affordances can exist. Barren rooms with plain white walls and desks in neat lines do little to stimulate the senses or encourage interaction. These rooms may appear unwelcoming, drab, or simply boring, sending similar uninviting and uninspiring messages to the students that inhabit them. There were patterns in the rooms I analyzed in preparing for the talk, most notably: the younger the intended group of students, the more affordances the room typically provided.

McIntyre (2016) argued that the physical systems in classrooms are directly connected to the social systems and may positively or negatively affect each other. With this in mind, and with a colleague of mine, we proposed the *Classroom Affordance Assessment Rubric (CAAR)* as a way to describe the current state of the classrooms we taught in, identify which areas needed improvement, and think of what specific items could be added to or rearranged in an existing room to improve its multisensory affordance potential. The CAAR consists for four aspects: *Affordance Noticeability*, *Affordance Accessibility*, *Affordance Transference*, and *Affordance Variety*. Each aspect is rated on a five-point scale. Bands range from 4-8 (Poor), 9-13 (Fair),

14-18 (Good), and 19-20 (Excellent) for the total score of a classroom (for a full description of the original rubric, see Osment & Thomas, 2017).

The CAAR was never intended to be anything more than a discussion starter. It is merely a tool for teachers and students to use to rate their own classrooms and encourage dialogue on the idea of learning spaces having a life of their own, a shared psychology if you will with the students that populate them. Rooms that score highly and, therefore, are affordance-rich, are typically specialized for the language being learnt , do not focus on expensive technology, and naturally cater to a wide-variety of learning styles. In these classrooms, learning can take place even when a teacher is not present due to the affordances the room has been outfitted to provide. Near the end of the presentation, there was a lively discussion between session attendees about experiences teaching in different classrooms. This discussion, along with other discussions and presentations at the conference, influenced the direction this project will likely take. It is still very much a work-in-progress and a side project. Nevertheless, I hope to report further on its new direction in an article I am currently writing. For a look at my main area of interest, language learning strategies and self-/other-regulation, please see Thomas and Rose (2018).

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CHAPTER 36

Teachers as People: Professional Pathways of Three Retired Language Teachers from Poland

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Introduction

Research on language teachers, their lives and emotions seems to be gaining in importance. After the focus on the language learner, it has been noticed that "language teachers do matter, and not paying enough attention to them is therefore a shortcoming" (Dörnyei, 2018, p. 23). This new research focus is mostly limited to pre-service teachers, the easiest object of investigation for university researchers, less often to in-service teachers and rarely, if at all, post-service or retired language teachers (RLTS). It should be noted, however, that studying third-age language teachers (Oxford, Cohen, & Simmons, 2018) may offer a wide professional perspective.

This chapter aims to report on a language–related biographical-narrative study on three Polish teachers of different foreign languages (English, Russian and German) who are now retired (a purposeful sample), and to propose an operational framework through which their professional pathways were investigated.

The Study

The study was designed upon a narrative inquiry approach focusing on the collection of RLTS' linguistic biographies. Three RLTS were requested to share their personal stories associated with language learning and teaching which they could recall. Anna, Berta, and Lena (pseudonyms) who taught English, German, and Russian in the past agreed to take part in individual two-hour in-depth interviews. They were all in their sixties and experienced the Polish transformation from a socialist to capitalist country through the language which they were teaching. Each interview started with the researcher's request: *Tell me how come you became a language teacher…* after which the researcher adopted the role of a friendly and sympathetic listener to each RLT's narration.

The Framework

The suggested framework for researching RLTS' professional biographies (c.f. Dubas, 2011; Werbińska, 2016) comprises general information about an RLT, followed by quantitative and qualitative analyses, an analysis of her biography, and the concluding part, as presented below:

General information

1. Presentation of an RLT: name/code; language taught.

2. Key statements which reflect an RLT's individual touch and serve as the essence of her professional biography.

Quantitative analysis (objective information reflecting an RLT's life history):

1. Facts: dates, places, people, names used in the narrative that situate an RLT in historical and objective (political, social, geographical) contexts.
2. Frequencies: words, expressions, parts of speech that define an RLT and point to her attitudes toward what is being described.
3. Semantic fields: keywords in semantic fields (e.g. choice of language studies, becoming a language teacher, turning points).

Qualitative analysis (subjective information reflecting an RLT's life story):

1. Universal themes related to her individual language-based experience:

   - feelings and emotions on language learning in childhood, school years, college;
   - motivations about the choice of language studies;
   - an RLT's personality traits recalled in her narrative;
   - an RLT's personality traits evidenced from the interview;
   - significant others;
   - important choices and their consequences;
   - aims, values and their hierarchy;
   - temporal orientations;
   - professional development;
   - attitude toward the related experiences, etc.

2. An RLT's biography:
   - language education (location in time and space, formal/ informal, public/private);
   - teaching successes and failures;
   - evidence of agency in the construction of her professional life.

Analysis of biography:

   - turning points, critical events, identity transformations;
   - central and peripheral themes;
   - stable and variable elements;
   - individual experiences vs. collective memories expressed by others representing her profession.

Concluding remarks:

   - the main results;
   - linking the results to SLA concepts;
   - practical implications.

Discussion and Conclusions

In this biographical-narrative study on the professional pathways of three RLTS two outcomes were pursued. First, the conception of language-based biography research in relation to language teachers' learning and development was described. It transpires that all the teachers seem to employ the same relevant categories, such as reasons for studying the language, teacher role models, or the external political events that exerted an impact on their job experience. Interestingly, all of them chose the language teaching job as a mere chance. The stories, however, show that their roles as teachers can vary. For example, Berta agrees to what her life brings, whereas Lena was a self-aware agent who influenced her professional situation.

As any life history is a product of context, the study provides insights into a concrete English, German, or Russian teacher's professional life in Poland before and after the time of political transformation. The relevance of the social, historical and political factors in an individual teacher's life story is evidenced in the status of a language they taught. Thanks to Lena's story, feelings and sensations about Russian can be vicariously experienced and her interpretations about the context and herself in that context well accessed. Anna's story is a case on the development of the teacher self. Her narration indicates what supports a teacher in reconstructing her previously negative into a positive teacher identity.

The second pursued outcome was the proposed framework on RLTS' life histories. The framework can serve as a pedagogic instrument for examining the process of becoming a teacher through the language taught at a certain time. As a pedagogic tool, the framework investigating RLTS' biographies may provide student teachers with pictures of real people in real situations and, perhaps, invite them to speculate what could have been changed and with what effect.

Overall, the findings yielded rich insights and detailed data that would have been hardly accessible otherwise, whereas the framework proved invaluable in illuminating the pathways through which the investigated third age teachers' identities were being developed.

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