Chapter 1

Portfolio Introduction

Portfolio Outline Guide			
Chapters	**Timespan**		
	Phase 1 Prior to April 2010 Before SA (Japan)	**Phase 2** April 2011 to February 2011 During SA (UK)	**Phase 3** April 2011 to February 2013 After SA (Japan)
Chapter1: Portfolio Introduction	◎		
Chapter 2: Pre-university study of English in Japan: Exploring L2 motivation prior to entering university (Study 1)			
Chapter 3: Study abroad for Japanese students: Changing motivation (Study 2)			
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All human actions have one or more of these seven causes:
Chance, nature, compulsions, habit, reason, passion, desire.
Aristotle

1.1 Introduction

In Tokyo, an Australian tourist tries out her high school Japanese to find the nearest station. A Japanese businessman in England gives a PowerPoint presentation in English to explain his company's latest product to potential customers. A boy born in Australia to parents from an Italian background learns English at kindergarten. Schoolchildren around the world chant English irregular verb forms. Encounters with a second or foreign language (hereafter L2) are common experiences for many people, but the different reasons individuals learn a second or foreign language, how they approach this task, and the nature of their learning circumstances, vary greatly.

I teach English as a foreign language to students at a small private university in Japan. The students, who have usually completed six years of formal English language instruction at secondary school, participate in a ten-month study abroad program in their first year of university. The following vignette gives an account of my initial impressions of the students in my classes, impressions which led to the decision to study L2 motivation and its relation to study abroad.

April, 2005: *I walk into my first class at a small private university near Tokyo, Japan. The smiling but apprehensive faces of fifteen second-year students greet me, keen to speak English and still bursting with the memories of their ten-month study abroad stay in the United Kingdom during their first year of university study. I explain to the students that they should be able to keep, and even improve upon, their English skills, provided they make an effort in and out of class, and acknowledge that the learning environment in Japan is different. Comparatively, in the United Kingdom learning English may have seemed as*

simple as breathing, but back in Japan, they will have to find ways to maintain study momentum and to contribute to their own language learning.

Fast forward to 2006: *The same students are still in my class, yet something has changed. 'I miss the UK!', 'I have no chances to use English in Japan!', 'There aren't enough classes with native teachers of English!', and 'My Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) score has gone down.' Voices of dismay echo around the classroom, but among them are also comments like 'My TOEIC score improved!', 'I watched a movie in English last night!', 'I got an email from my UK teacher!' and 'My friend and I try speaking to each other in English out of class'.*

Fast forward to 2007: *Many students, who initially thought they wanted a career using English, have faltered or changed their career directions. English study has taken a backseat, as other aspects of everyday life in Japan take over their time. Others seem to have forgotten English. A minority of students is still as interested in English as they were back in second year and have kept on improving their English skills to a level where they are actively able to seek jobs involving the use of English.*

The above responses and impressions left me wondering about issues related to language learning in Japan. Questions raised for me by this experience included:

What do students do to maintain and improve their English skills after their return to Japan from the United Kingdom?

Are the successful students more motivated? Have they had more positive English learning experiences? Do they have a type of personality which allows them to seek out opportunities to use English?

How do individual students interpret their own English learning experience? How do they contribute to their own learning process? To what do they attribute their learning successes or failures?

How long and in what form does the effect of a study abroad program last?

What impact does the socio-cultural environment in Japan have on language learning? How can teachers of English support students learning in this environment?

With these questions in mind, I set out to discover more about second language acquisition (SLA), second language (L2) motivation and study abroad, and decided to commence doctorate-level research, with my workplace as the main setting. Rather than presenting the results of the research as a single paper, I felt that a multi-faceted and dynamic construct such as L2 motivation was best viewed from a multitude of perspectives over a longer period of time. This portfolio of thematically-linked independent studies, positioned within the Japanese socio-cultural environment and drawing from data collected over 34 months, is the result.

As a first step, it is worthwhile to pose the questions: Why is it important for people to acquire additional languages? Why is knowing just one's mother tongue considered insufficient? Speaking two or more languages has long been a necessary and useful skill for people who seek opportunities to communicate with other people outside their own cultural boundaries. As Ludwig Wittgenstein (2010) put it, 'The limits of my language are the limits of my world', or to quote the original German: '*Die Grenzen meiner Sprache bedeuten die Grenzen meiner Welt'* (p. 74). The Japanese, like people everywhere, learn additional languages and in particular English, in order to communicate with people beyond the borders of their own country, or with non-Japanese speakers within Japan.

While many countries share land borders, island nations like Japan have had comparatively less contact with other cultures, due to geographic conditions as well as, in Japan's case, a period of self-imposed isolation during the *sakoku* period (1633-1853), out of which the country was somewhat forcefully pulled in 1853 by the arrival of ships from the United States demanding trade. Although Japan has in many ways caught up with Western knowledge and even surpassed any number of economies, a cultural identity remains that is resistant to accepting different ways of thinking and protective of its autonomy. Being the third largest economy in the world, with a large, albeit shrinking population driving the domestic economy encourages this inward looking position, or *uchimuki* in Japanese. For example, while Japanese-made products are well known internationally, the country is not as globalized as China in terms of gross domestic product (GDP) generated from imports and

exports, which in 2006, for example, was 28% against 67% for China. In fact, not only is China Japan's oldest rival, it has also emerged as its newest competitor (Emmott, 2008, p. 116). This turning away from globalization is also reflected in the fact that many young Japanese remain unconfident speakers of English despite having learnt the language for six years; furthermore, recently the number of students studying abroad has also been decreasing. The results of a survey conducted by the Japan Productivity Center indicated that half the number of new recruits would decline to work abroad if given the opportunity, down from 4.9% last year, which has led Kameda (2014) to comment that young Japanese are shying away from challenging career options.

Nevertheless, the forces of globalization mean that for many people, learning a second or foreign language is not just of value intellectually or personally, but also as a practical skill. For speakers of a language such as Japanese, notoriously difficult to learn and only spoken in one country, there is added pressure, for example, from the government, to be educated to a globally competitive level as one means of maintaining the country's position in a world that is increasingly becoming borderless. While it can be argued that some Japanese will not need English skills in their future working lives, it can also be suggested that this line of thinking may in fact have a negative effect, not only on the future of individuals but also on the country itself in terms of global engagement, competiveness and overall world status as more and more multinational companies and multilingual speakers emerge from Asian economies.

Consequently, SLA research related to motivation and the effects of study abroad programs in Japan can be justified at many levels, ranging from the micro level (student, practitioner, researcher, individual institution), to the macro level where the future competitiveness of Japan in an increasingly globalized world also relies on the language skills of its population and, therefore, on the SLA research field itself.

This introductory chapter is divided into four main sections. The first section presents a brief situational analysis of English study in Japan, in this way providing a context for the research. The second section clarifies the aims of the portfolio, and introduces the analytical framework on which the studies in the portfolio were based. It also provides an outline of research literature related to SLA, individual differences and L2 learning environments,

followed by a preview of the research questions that shape the portfolio. The third section introduces the methodology underpinning each section of the portfolio, while the last section discusses the importance of the portfolio in terms of professional practice and outlines its overall organization.

The personal and professional experiences elaborated above and in the researcher background section have strengthened my belief that the *language learning environment* plays a significant role in L2 motivation. Learning a foreign language in the classroom as part of a set, formal curriculum is quite a different proposition to learning a language within the community where the language is spoken. A clear distinction between the two should be made in research focusing on the learning of additional languages. In each case, the reasons *why* one is motivated to learn an additional language are quite different. Nevertheless, the distinction between these different learning environments is often blurred because the popular terms for research concerning both is the same, that is, second language acquisition (SLA). The term SLA will be used to refer to the discipline, and L1 and L2 when discussing the acquisition of a mother tongue and additional language(s) respectively.

Students learning a foreign language in a classroom environment often view the language merely as a subject to be studied and passed, rather than a body of knowledge and skills to be used for communication with real people. While language educators may bemoan the lack of motivation in their students, all should reflect upon their own language learning experiences. Such reflection leads to the conclusion that opportunities to use languages for real purposes need to be part of the curriculum in order to increase student motivation.

Encounters with students of all ages have led me to the conclusion that L2 learners in a foreign language classroom setting have diverse reasons for studying a language. These reasons include an interest in the language and culture, and parental, school and company requirements, and are furthermore subject to change over time. Moreover, regardless of the reason for learning an additional language, interest fluctuates depending on affective, social and environmental factors.

An extended sojourn in a country where the L2 is the dominant language, for example during longer study abroad programs, overseas postings or immigration, requires changes to

the self in order to adapt to the socio-cultural customs of the country where one is now studying or living. Some people seek to fit in, and be accepted by, the local community whereas others remain with their own national group, by choice or default. Young people in particular, often try to fit in with the dominant social group, which may lead to tensions within their own family and friendship circles, and the rejection of their original cultural background. This in turn may lead to readjustment problems or reverse culture shock upon the return to their home countries.

As an educator focusing on the teaching of foreign languages, and therefore SLA, I am attracted to research in the field as a means of interpreting and understanding language acquisition. Furthermore, research findings can be applied as a possible catalyst for change. Through recalling my own experiences, relevant insights may be gained into what may motivate or demotivate Japanese L2 learners while studying English in a formal Japanese classroom setting and in a study abroad setting. These insights will be addressed in greater detail in each of the chapters that follow.

1.2 Research context

The context for the research comprises firstly a general overview of English education in Japan, and secondly a description of the specific setting in which the research has taken place.

1.2.1 English education in Japan

English as a foreign language has been taught in Japan since 1856. (Please refer to Appendix A for details of Japan's encounters with English prior to 1850.) Approximately one hundred years later, in the 1950s, English became a required secondary school subject. In the 1970s, prompted by the affordability of overseas travel, learning to use English for practical purposes became more popular, leading to the introduction of English conversation in secondary school and communicative language teaching becoming a recommended method for schools.

In the 1980s, the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program was established. Through the placement of assistant language teachers (ALTs) and the introduction of team teaching

in schools, this program sought to increase the motivation and opportunities for Japanese language learners to communicate in English, to promote cross-cultural understanding at the grass-roots level, and to provide on-the-job training for Japanese teachers of English.

The period from the 1990s to the present in Japan has seen a series of educational reforms. Nevertheless, education in Japan remains centralized and regulated by the Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Culture (MEXT). MEXT seeks to ensure a fixed standard of education from kindergarten to senior high school, based on national curriculum guidelines or *Courses of Study*, revised every ten years, and approved textbooks.

The analysis below will focus on developments in English language education in Japan from 1998, when the students in this study entered elementary school, until 2010 when they entered university.

In early 2002, changes in English education were generated by a MEXT initiative, *Regarding the establishment of an action plan to cultivate Japanese with English abilities* (MEXT 2002a). Key features of the plan were intensive training for English teachers (2002 - 2007), the promotion of study abroad among senior high school students, the promotion of Super English High Schools (from 2002), the addition of a listening section in the National Center Test for University Admissions (*daigakunyūshisentāshiken*) (from 2006), and the introduction of compulsory foreign language activities from Year 5 (2011). While the action plan was aimed at improvements in English education, it notably also included a measure to boost Japanese language skills.

Japanese secondary education is examination-driven, which impacts the teaching of English language. Schools tend to focus teaching on key university entrance examination subjects. Some schools have been known to by-pass teaching subjects such as world history, which, although also compulsory under MEXT directives, is not compulsory in entrance exams (Clark, 2006). The focus of English examinations is grammatical form, and listening and reading comprehension, with less emphasis on assessing speaking and writing skills. Despite the MEXT initiative of 2002 including measures for improving English skills across the four macro skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing), the focus of senior high school and university entry examinations remains on grammar and comprehension, and thus, these

continue to be the focus of English teaching in secondary schools. (Please refer to Appendix B for a detailed situational analysis of education and English education in Japan.)

1.2.2 Brief overview of the specific research setting: English study at a Japanese university and abroad

While the comments above apply to the general context of the series of studies reported in this portfolio, each inquiry must be considered in its own setting. The students who participated in this portfolio were all students at a small private co-educational liberal arts university (hereafter referred to as *the university*) located near Tokyo. The university was established in the late 1980s and is set on a large plot of land about twenty-minutes by bus from the nearest train station.

The university is part of a larger educational foundation, which also operates junior and senior high schools. Students attending these affiliated senior high schools are almost guaranteed admission to the university. In Japan, this system is referred to as 'elevator' or 'free pass' schooling. Students from non-affiliated high schools can enter three of the four faculties through an interview and/or examination process. These three faculties are: The Faculty of English and Information Technology (IT), the Faculty of Tourism, and The Faculty of Management. The Faculty of Education is more difficult to enter, and entry is not guaranteed even for students from affiliated high schools. Because of this varied approach to admissions, the student population exhibits a wide range of abilities, which has been both a limitation and a positive feature of the studies reported here, as this range of abilities is also present in the general population.

1.2.2.1 Student population

The student population of approximately 1300 undergraduate students is spread over the four faculties described in Section 1.2.2. Japanese students at the university come from across Japan, from Hokkaido in the north to Okinawa in the south. One seventh of the student population comprises international students, mainly from China.

1.2.2.2 English program at the university

The university offers a wide range of English courses, each focusing on different areas of English. The courses are taught by both native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and Japanese teachers of English (JTEs). Each semester-length course consists of fifteen, 90-minute classes each week. English for qualifications courses such as the TOEIC or EIKEN are popular with the students, as are general business or tourism-based English courses. The number and type of English credits required for graduation varies by faculty, but all students must successfully pass a minimum of eight credit points or four English courses in order to graduate.

1.2.2.3 The study abroad program

As explained in Section 1.2.1 above, Japanese English language education is still focused on comprehension and grammar. Communicative language use is less emphasised, especially as the examination season approaches in third year junior high school and in senior high school. In an effort to improve the communicative competence of their students, over the past 30 years the educational foundation that manages the university has established three educational facilities in the United Kingdom.

Since the early 1990s, the university has been sending first-year students to one of these facilities on an intensive ten-month study abroad program. All students in the Faculty of English and IT, and the Faculty of Tourism, in addition to secondary English education majors in the Faculty of Education, must complete the ten-month study abroad program. Interested students from the Faculty of Management can also participate in the program. Students entering the university as overseas students can choose to participate in the study abroad program from their third year, but since the students come to Japan to study Japanese, only a very small number of these students actually choose to do so.

While a number of universities in Japan offer study abroad programs, usually through partnerships or exchange programs between individual institutions, it is unusual for universities to send almost the entire first-year group on a compulsory study abroad program, regardless of prior English ability or interest in English. In addition, the first year study abroad program in the United Kingdom is credited towards their degree, and students who

participate in the study abroad program can graduate in four years, in the same way as those who do not study abroad.

In 2010, three study abroad programs of varying lengths were conducted by the university. The first, a two-year program, allowed students with satisfactory English language skills, as assessed by IELTS and course results, to enter mainstream universities in the United Kingdom from their third year. The second program was designed for secondary Japanese, maths, PE, science, and social studies majors and also elementary education English majors in the Faculty of Education. This four-week program included school visits in the UK and Europe as well as intensive English classes. The third program, the focus of this series of studies, lasted for ten months, and was designed for students who wanted to complete their studies at the university in Japan.

While most Japanese students, and therefore the participants in these studies, have studied English for six years in secondary school in accord with the national curriculum, their English proficiency on arrival at university varies dramatically. The situation at secondary school is discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

The effect of the ten-month program in terms of improving English skills also varies considerably. Even though some students may start at approximately the same proficiency as measured by their scores on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), it does not automatically follow that those students will complete the program with similar improvements in TOEIC scores. Conversely, there are also participants who start at different proficiency levels but complete the program at the same level as measured by the TOEIC test and language examinations conducted during the program. English teachers in Japan often wonder why some students return from study abroad motivated and with good English skills, while others do not.

While the effects of the study abroad program are generally positive, differences between the short-term and long-term effects of the program have emerged among the participants. Some students are very motivated to learn English throughout the initial study abroad period and remain motivated until they find a job and graduate. Others are motivated to learn English during study abroad, but become less motivated as they are more immersed in life in

Japan on their return, and there are still others who do not seem to benefit, nor want to benefit, from the study abroad program at all.

In 2011, the length of the study abroad program was reduced to five months due to changes to visa regulations by the UK Border Agency; consequently some of the contents of the program had to be adjusted. In 2012, other changes were implemented, such as offering an additional five months study abroad option in the second semester of second year. In addition, changes that will enable students to choose whether to participate in the five-month program in first, second or third year, in addition to extended pre-study abroad guidance, are currently being put into place for the 2015 academic year.

1.2.3 Summary

The analysis above has shown how the study of English has been changed and adapted to the needs of the Japanese population and economy over the past 160 years. At the macro-level, while there is no obvious need for the entire population to be fluent in English even in modern Japan, many voices at the government and local community level advocate for students to possess proficient English language skills, suggesting that the current *status quo* of English education is insufficient to serve the future needs of the Japanese society and economy. At the micro-level, the university, while placed in an advantageous position due to the in-built study abroad program, must take steps to re-evaluate the program at UKC to ensure students are given the opportunity not only to study, but also to use English intensively during their stay in the United Kingdom. In summary, positioning the study of English in Japan to promote the needs of individual, national and international interests remains a challenge.

Further details about the setting and participants can be found in Section 1.6.

1.3 The aims of the portfolio

The overall aim of this portfolio is to contribute new perspectives to the field of L2 motivation research in Japan, while tracking and discovering various changes in, and aspects of, the relation between SLA and motivation over an extended period of time in university students at a private Japanese university. The findings will contribute to the enhancement of

language teaching practice in the Japanese EFL setting, in particular at this university and universities with similar student populations.

The research reported in this thesis is presented in the form of a portfolio of small individual exploratory studies. Together they provide a comprehensive, longitudinal exploration of L2 learning as experienced by a group of Japanese university students. The data collection period encompasses both the study abroad programme in the United Kingdom in the students' first year of university study, as well as the following two years of subsequent English study in Japan. The portfolio of individual studies has been designed to address three main aims.

The *first aim* is to link the studies thematically in order to integrate three themes that recur in SLA literature. The three themes are *L2 motivation*, *study abroad*, and the *socio-cultural environment*. This approach brings together aspects of SLA research previously addressed in isolation, as will be illustrated in the overview in Section 1.4 below. Even though there is a considerable body of research on these three themes, there seem to be fewer studies that examine them in combination in one study.

What is meant by the term 'motivation' is not universal. While theories of motivation are enlightening in many ways, they are often born of Western minds and educational practice and do not necessarily take cultural differences into consideration. Thus, SLA and motivation cannot be researched in isolation; they need to be researched within specific socio-cultural and environmental settings. Examples of cultural differences that can impact motivation can be found in both the following literature review and the relevant chapters.

The *second aim* relates to the research design. Utilizing a longitudinal mixed-method approach, this portfolio undertaken as part of a Doctor of Education program at an Australian university, was an attempt to gain insights into the L2 experiences of Japanese learners of English through a research design that has not been frequently used in EFL research in Japanese settings.

According to Ortega and Iberri-Shea (2005), and as indicated in Section 1.5 below, there is a general lack of longitudinal research in SLA. Yet motivation is understood by the majority of researchers to be dynamic, fluid and susceptible to change; thus, it is a construct in which

'time' plays a major role. A longitudinal approach to L2 motivation research can tackle topics such as chronological development during a study abroad, and the effect of the environment in which an additional language is being learnt (Nakata, 2006, pp. 182-183). The term *longitudinal* in SLA research is used for studies from as little as six weeks in length, whereas in other fields three years is considered to be a short longitudinal study.

The temporal aspect of this portfolio not only provided insights into student views of English study prior to university and the study abroad experience in the students' first year of study, but it also tracked the same cohort of students and their L2 experiences up and including to their fourth year of study. While official data collection was completed in February 2013, some more recent information has been included for participants in the multiple-case study presented in Chapter 5. Thus the students' entire university English experience in the United Kingdom and in Japan, from university entrance to the graduation ceremony, is documented by real-time data.

The need for conducting longitudinal mixed-method studies in the field of Japanese L2 motivation research is supported by Kikuchi (2013, p. 220). The reason for choosing a mixed-method and case study approach based on data gained from questionnaires, interviews and observations was, first to give participants a voice. This was achieved by integrating quantitative analysis with qualitative methods. Interviewing and observing students over a longer period of time resulted in a multi-faceted view of L2 motivation, study abroad, and the socio-cultural Japanese university setting, and thus provides more than '*snap shots'* of their L2 learning experience. Rather than relying on theoretical inference for the likely future motivation patterns of students, the portfolio offers a description of what happened during L2 experiences at university. In particular, the multiple-case study reported in Chapter 5 provides insights into how students react during and after a study abroad program. Furthermore, the quantitative results may offer a point of comparison with other studies related to tertiary English language study in Japan.

The *third aim* is to explore existing knowledge from a fresh, and longitudinal, perspective in an attempt to bring new knowledge to the field of SLA research, and to find ways of improving practice. In particular, the portfolio of studies aims to investigate the degree to which students' first hand experiences in an English speaking country during the study

abroad program enhances motivation to learn English, and for how long; and, furthermore, how the opportunities and possibilities of the study abroad experience might be exploited to enhance the learning of English. This additional information and these new perspectives could add to the existing body of practitioner knowledge. The individual studies in the portfolio each contribute to knowledge about the temporal and socio-cultural aspects of SLA in both the Japanese study abroad and EFL settings. Furthermore, the findings could serve as a jumping-off point to open up the field for further research into the benefits and challenges of study abroad programs.

The focus of this portfolio is thus the contribution the studies can make to *communities of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991) rather than to *communities of academia.* The overarching purpose is to initiate improvement in professional practice in a real context of direct relevance to the Japanese EFL field. The potential contribution of this portfolio can be divided into two main focus areas: the people involved in foreign language education, both students and teachers, and the programs and curricula.

The insights gained as the portfolio evolved have the potential to improve and contribute knowledge to practice in the following ways. First, the studies in the portfolio had a substantial impact on my *own practice*, through extended research of the literature, self-reflection as a language learner and teacher, and the sometimes eye-opening answers and comments given by the participants throughout the duration of the series of studies. At the same time, the participants in these studies may also have benefitted by being able to voice their opinions and confront their own feelings about English study.

In addition, insights related to student L2 motivation gained over this time were subsequently shared, and are continuing to be shared, through language education-based English courses for future teachers, in presentations and workshops for current teachers, and in regular faculty meetings. These contributions to practice in terms of the effect of study abroad programs, and how students actually view various aspects of this experience, can help improve the study abroad program at this university as well as becoming a guide and comparison for other Japanese universities contemplating a similar program.

This longitudinal mixed-method research project can be expected be of value to students, practitioners and researchers by adding to and complementing existing knowledge about study abroad and Japanese university students' motivation to learn English both during a study abroad program and after they return to Japan.

1.4 Brief overview of relevant SLA research literature

An interest in exploring how students feel about studying English from the time they enter university to the time they graduate can give tertiary educators insights that help with answering questions related to how students maintain motivation and what educators can do to support them. In the search for answers, the SLA literature on motivation, individual differences, cultural differences, and study abroad provided the starting point

This section aims to present a brief overview of the SLA research literature informing this portfolio, highlighting key theories and concepts directly related to the studies in the portfolio. It has been organized under the following headings:

- SLA: A brief introduction
- the complex nature of L2 motivation
- the L2 learner and learning environment
- the impact of culture.

In the first section, SLA is introduced briefly in order to synthesize the contextual information. The second section explores the changing conceptualizations of motivation, and the key motivation constructs. The third section focuses on research related to learning environment and learner contribution. The fourth section addresses the importance of taking socio-cultural perspectives into account when conducting SLA research. These four sections are followed by a concluding rationale, which foregrounds relevant gaps in research and practice, and which explains how the design and execution of the studies in the portfolio were informed by the critique of existing research, leading to the research questions presented in Section 1.5.

1.4.1 SLA: A brief introduction

Learning a foreign or second language (L2) is a task tackled by many individuals; it has been an essential part of human interaction and communication for thousands of years. For people who live in areas of high linguistic diversity, the usage of tribal, regional and official languages in their daily life is the norm; in fact this is the case for over half of the world's population (Grosjean, 1989). Others live in countries where two or more languages have official status. Some people spend extended periods of time in different countries from those in which they were born; and they learn new languages as they move from country to country. Then there are those who must master a foreign language as a school subject in a classroom environment and who may also seek out opportunities to study abroad. In fact, how individuals encounter languages may be a combination of any of the above. This portfolio focuses on L2 learners in the last category, more specifically Japanese university students for whom English is the first foreign language learnt in a country where there is only one official language, Japanese.

The field of SLA research since the 1960s has often been scaffolded using three main frameworks; *linguistic frameworks*, focusing on language competence and use; *psychological frameworks,* exploring neuro-linguistics, learning processes and learner differences; and *socio-cultural frameworks,* concerning the social context of SLA such as identity, status, values, and socio-cultural knowledge (Saville-Troike, 2012, pp. 25-29). These three major frameworks focus on answering the following basic questions:

What does the learner know?
How does the learner acquire the language?
Why are some learners more successful than others?

The questions above are practical in nature and reflect the real-life impact of SLA on students, parents, policy makers, and of course language teachers. The studies in this portfolio relate primarily to the psychological and socio-cultural frameworks and to the question about what learners know and why some learners are more successful than others. Moreover, the studies aim to explore the relationship between individual differences, in particular motivation, the socio-cultural dimension and language competence.

Within the last two decades, the dominance of cognitive theories (see Krashen, 1985; Schmidt, 1990) in SLA research has been challenged by research related to socio-cultural perspectives (see Norton Peirce, 1995). Viewed from a socio-cultural perspective, language learning is a blend of cognitive and socio-cultural acts (Gao & Zhang, 2011, p. 25). Knowledge and an understanding of different learning styles and ways of learning embedded in a culture are also helpful for learners and educators in order to work toward a positive learning environment. In other words, a motivated student in an optimal learning environment will most likely be a successful student.

Generally speaking, English language classes at schools in Japan tend to focus primarily on the learning of grammar and vocabulary, while L2 competence is evaluated through formal testing. In contrast, a stay in the country where the language being studied is the local language also allows for opportunities for the acquisition process to take place without an emphasis on formal testing. Just being in the language classroom or country, however, does not automatically imply learning will take place. What the learner notices, or takes in from the available input, referred to as the *noticing hypothesis* by Schmidt (1990, p. 139), controls actual language intake. Thus a blend of cognitive and socio-cultural theories, in addition to individual differences, as discussed in the next section, is required to research SLA in an L2 classroom environment and during a study abroad program in a target language environment.

Learners are individuals, all bringing their own unique set of personal characteristics to the learning situation. These characteristics, referred to as *individual differences* in SLA literature, can influence the way in which an individual approaches learning (Van Patten & Benati, 2010, p. 94). *Motivation, ability, aptitude, personality, learning styles* and *language learning strategies* are considered to be core individual differences in SLA (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 7). Individual differences can also relate to cognitive styles or environmental preferences as well as many kinds of personal differences such as *ego* (Pellegrino Aveni, 2005, p. 3). This portfolio of studies focuses in particular on the relationship between L2 motivation and SLA, and the role of the learner.

1.4.2 The complex nature of L2 motivation

Contemplating why humans act the way they do is certainly not a new idea, as the quote by Aristotle on the title page of this chapter indicates. The psychological definition of 'motivation' as 'inner or social stimulus for an action' dates from 1904 ("motivation", n.d.). Motivation shapes everyday life, whether at work, in education or during casual conversation and beyond. It is the driving force behind learning any subject or gaining knowledge or expertise successfully over an extended period of time.

Why do we learn another language? The reasons or motives depend on many factors, such as a liking of the language and culture, to gain personal satisfaction, a need to integrate with the culture where the language is spoken, utilitarian purposes or just the fact that the studying of a foreign language is part of the formal curriculum prescribed by individual countries or states (Lin, 2011). L2 motivation is then the stimulus that is responsible for initiating and continuing language learning.

An understanding of why and how students are motivated when studying a foreign language is important for educators, as motivation may be one of the reasons some people learn a language successfully, while others fail to do so. Research on L2 motivation gives insights into the why, how and with how much effort the task at hand is approached by individuals, and furthermore, it attempts to offer ways of understanding and enhancing motivation, leading to the creation of motivation theories, frameworks and constructs. Theories are a conceptual representation that attempt to explain a certain phenomenon across a variety of situations using a network of constructs (Graham & Weiner, 1996, p. 64). A framework or model is used to represent the relations between the constructs.

L2 motivation research has been approached from a number of perspectives, and the adaptation of existing mainstream research and additions of L2 specific features have resulted in L2 specific theories, frameworks and constructs. Research literature focusing on the theoretical study of the relation between SLA and L2 motivation grew out of the seminal research utilizing the *socio-educational model of SLA* conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1959) as well as a number of mainstream motivation theories including *self-determination theory* (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002; Deci & Faste, 1995; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000), *attribution theory* (Weiner, 1972), *self-worth theory* (Covington, 2000),

goal related theories introduced by Locke and Latham (2002) and Pintrich and Schunk (1996), *self-efficacy theory* (Bandura, 1989, 1991), and *expectancy-value theory* (Brophy, 1999). Each theory answers some questions about motivation in SLA, and therefore is a part of the jigsaw puzzle that is L2 motivation and, for that reason, informs the design of the data collection instruments used in this study. The selection of specific items in the questionnaires used in this portfolio will be justified and elaborated in the chapters for each study.

L2 motivation is multi-faceted and subject to individual difference; it is also affected and influenced by the surrounding environment. Fifteen key motivational constructs or 'rocks' on which motivation research rests have been identified by MacIntyre, Noels and Moore (2010). The 'rock' analogy was inspired by *Ryoanji temple* in Kyoto, which features an exquisite raked sand and rock garden. The beauty of the Ryoanji temple garden lies in the *whole* garden, composed of the complex placing of the rocks, the patterns of the raked sand and the 'borrowed scenery' outside the garden, the latter changing the image of the garden according to the seasons. Each of the fifteen individual rocks in the garden has been placed with such care that only fourteen of them can be viewed from any vantage point on the ground, indicating that viewing the complete picture all at once is an impossible task. In a similar way, researchers aiming to investigate L2 motivation must first take an aerial look from a distance to obtain a view of the whole motivation 'garden' and the relationship between the 'rocks' and their surroundings, before zooming in on individual 'rocks'.

Figure 1.1 Ryoanji temple garden

In terms of L2 motivation research, the problem is that each construct is but one part of the motivation picture, and we need to capture the whole complex image of motivation in order to understand it. Yet, a super-motivation theory covering all of the main constructs has still not been devised (Dörnyei, 2011, p.4). Thus, we need to continue to combine a variety of theories and constructs in an attempt to gain a more complete picture of motivation.

The '*rocks*' of motivation are outlined in Table 1.1. The table first lists (in the left hand column) key motivational concepts, the original research or main researchers, and an example of research that has been conducted in Japan or with Japanese participants.

Table 1.1 Key motivational constructs

Construct	Original research / L2 context	Research in Japan context
Acculturation*	Schumann (1974, 1978, 1986)	Inose and Yeh (2002); Nippoda (2012)
Complex dynamic systems*	Thelen (2005); Larsen-Freeman (2007)	Nitta (2013)
Integrative/ Instrumental motivation*	Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972); Gardner (1985); Dörnyei (1990)	Berwick and Ross (1989); Kimura, Nakata, and Okumura (2001); Nakata (2003)
International orientation/ International posture*	Nakata (1995, 2006); Yashima (2000, 2002, 2009)	Nakata (1995, 2006); Yashima (2000, 2002, 2009)
Investment*	Norton Peirce (1995) ;	Kanno (2003)
L2 motivational self-system*	Dörnyei and Csizér (2002);	Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009)
Learner autonomy	Ushioda (2001)	Aliponga, Johnston, Koshiyama, Ries, and Rush
Process model*	Dörnyei and Otto (1998);	Koizumi and Matsuo, (1993); Tachibana, Matsukawa and Zhong
Self-determination*	Deci and Ryan (1985); Noels et al. (2001)	Carreira (2012)
Self-confidence*	Clement (1986)	
Willingness to communicate*	MacIntyre, Babin, & Clement (1999); McCrosky and Baer (1985)	Yashima (2002)

Note. Adapted from MacIntyre, Noels and Moore (2010, pp. 2-3). The original list also included**: Action control (**Kuhl, 1994), (MacIntyre & Doucette 2010); **Ethno-linguistic vitality (**Giles & Byrne, 1982)**; Physiological approaches** (Schumann et al. 2004) and **Task motivation** (Julkunen, 2001).

The concepts marked with an asterisk are particularly relevant to this portfolio's study abroad setting, including *acculturation*, *international friendship*, *investment, self-confidence* and *willingness to communicate*, *complex dynamic systems*, *the L2 motivational self-system* and *process model.* Furthermore, the concepts *autonomy* and *self-determination* can also help explain why some students are able to maintain L2 motivation upon their return to Japan, whereas others lose L2 motivation. In order to avoid repetition, each construct is discussed in detail in the individual studies in Chapters 2 to 5.

1.4.3 The learner and the learning environment

SLA and motivation is not just a one-way street. While SLA research often focuses on the impact of the L2 environment on the learner, at the opposite end of the SLA spectrum are the learners themselves. L2 acquisition does not only involve the provision of comprehensible input, but also what the learner actually does with the input. Learning strategies employed by individuals can be affected by attributes such as personality and social identity, which in turn may impact motivation, attitude and beliefs (Larsen-Freeman, 2001, p. 13). In response to this two-way process, research from the 1990s onwards has addressed the role of the learner in SLA: Larsen-Freeman (2001), Wenden (2001) and Norton (2001) all point to the importance of accounting for learner contribution, as learners themselves are contributors to the SLA process in myriad ways, and should not just be considered passive bystanders in the learning process.

While SLA has been shown to be a two-way process, learners and researchers may not conceptualize this process in the same way. Using metaphorical constructions, Ellis (2001) examined how SLA researchers have viewed L2 learners in their studies: they have been likened to containers, machines, negotiators, problem solvers, builders, investors, and strugglers, while the learners saw themselves as sufferers, problem solvers, travellers, strugglers, and workers. In other words, the SLA process is viewed differently depending on whether it is from the researcher's or the learner's perspective, with some overlap between the two.

The degree to which learners actively contribute to the learning process is important for the present study for two reasons. First, if the students do not actively seek opportunities to contribute to the learning process through participation in both the formal and informal

learning situations offered during the study abroad, their communicative English skills are not as likely to show substantial improvement. Second, upon their return to Japan, the degree to which the students choose to contribute to the English learning process outside of formal classes is also an individual decision. Thus, considering the dual nature of the learning process, the choice was made to investigate L2 motivation and study abroad as a two-way, multi-faceted phenomenon in the individual studies that make up this portfolio.

1.4.4 Study abroad

Several terms can be used to define a stay in a different country to the one in which a person was born and raised. *Immigration* is the most permanent level, while a *vacation* is the least permanent. *Sojourn abroad* is used to describe any temporary stay abroad, while *study abroad*, the term used in this study, is defined as a sojourn abroad incorporating a formal language learning component.

New arrivals in any culture often experience culture shock, frequently depicted in literature as a U-shaped curve of adjustment.The curve begins with a honeymoon or euphoria period, which then falls during a stage of culture shock, when the culture is experienced as foreign or annoying. As the new arrivals become familiar with the culture, they begin to internalize and understand it better, and either they begin to like it more, returning to the top of the U-curve, or remain disenchanted with it (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p. 384). While this model is often visualized as a diagram, the original study by Lysgaard (1955) did not include one; furthermore Lysgaard acknowledged that the hypotheses required further testing. In the 65 years since the emergence of the hypothesis, some studies have partially supported the hypothesis (Markovizky & Samid, 2008; Ward, Okura, Kennedy & Kojima, 1998) while others (Berardo, 2012; Black & Mendenhall, 1991) commented that complete support or dismissal of the hypothesis is premature, referring to the possibility of over-generalization and the possible existence of a variety of patterns among individuals.

Adapting to a new culture is referred to as *acculturation*, and the *acculturation model* (Schumann, 1974, 1986, 2001) focuses on both social and psychological factors. Social factors determine the degree to which L2 learners identify themselves with the target language group. Psychological distance determines the degree to which L2 learners are at ease with L2 tasks, thus inhibiting or promoting the language learning process. Thus, both

social and psychological factors are implicated in the inhibition and promotion of the language learning process.

Study abroad has been researched from a number of perspectives. These include improvements in language competence, personal development and identity (Coleman, 1997; Ellis, 2003; Freed, 1998; Fryer, 2012a, 2012b; Jackson, 2008; Pellegrino Aveni, 2005; Sakai & Koike, 2007; Sasaki (2002). Other studies have focused on cultural differences (Nippoda, 2012), and emotional and motivational impact (Fukuchi & Sakamoto, 2005; Greenland & Brown, 2010; Inose &Yeh, 2002, Markus & Kitayama, 1991).The complex dynamic relationship between oral, cognitive and contextual variables in both a study abroad and home university setting was investigated by Segalowitz and Freed (2004). Other notable topics of research are the effects of extracurricular activities (Toyokawa & Toyokawa, 2002) and the varying impact of a study abroad program on individuals (Wilkinson, 1998a, 1998b; Diao, Freed, & Smith, 2011). Thus, similar to L2 motivation, research on study abroad programs also requires a multi-focus approach in order to provide a complete picture, taking into account social, cultural and psychological factors.

1.4.5 Socio-cultural perspectives and SLA

According to the popular media, we are a part of a global community. The fact remains, however, that the people living within any local community have a specific mental programming based on their socio-cultural and socio-environmental experiences (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p. 3). Socio-cultural and socio-environmental differences can relate to behaviour, beliefs, customs, practices and values. Learning is one component, rich in practices, which is encapsulated within these experiences, varying according to '….historical time, cultural space and institutional context (Rohlen & LeTendre, 1998, p.1). Socio-cultural theory (SCT) is grounded upon the Vygotskian principle that human learning and an individual's reaction with their environment is mediated by culture (Aimin, 2013). Thus, learning a language is not simply a behaviouristic exercise, where learners react to stimuli, or a cognitive exercise where learning is a mental process, but rather a dynamic interaction of three factors, namely cognitive, behavioural and socio-cultural. While some of the socio-cultural aspects of SLA have already been foreshadowed as part of the key motivational constructs in Table 1.1, three further dimensions are introduced in

this section: *Japanese cultural values and beliefs regarding learning*, *dimensions of culture* and *Confucian values*.

1.4.5.1 Japanese cultural values and education

The teaching of Japanese cultural values is embedded in the compulsory education system, with each level focusing on distinct cultural values. Incorporating a holistic approach, elementary education in Japan focuses on social and emotional development and the notions of friendship and cooperation. Furthermore, goals related to persistence, responsibility, enthusiasm, healthy habits and academic striving are also placed at the forefront of elementary education. These values are explicitly outlined in classroom banners and reinforced not only in moral education classes but also in all aspects of school life (Lewis, 1995, p.94).The shift toward hierarchical organization, adult patterns of teaching and learning, and cultivation of citizenship occurs in junior high school. While these also form a part of elementary school education, the transition for students, who are used to a more relaxing learning environment at elementary school, may be quite abrupt. The three years of junior high school act as an important stepping stone in educating students for becoming adult Japanese, a process legally completed when Japanese people turn 20 years of age. At senior high school, teacher-centered instruction, involvement with the school and senior to junior guidance becomes the norm (LeTendre, 1995, p.289). The six years of high school, and the years spent at university, focusing on the academic and non-academic curriculum, can thus be seen as a period of training to prepare youngsters for full entry into Japanese society, where being an individual means existing in a complex interrelated and connected social world.

A number of themes can be identified in the Japanese culture of learning. In the early years of education, the concepts of *asobi* or play, *akarui* or brightness and *genki* or vitality dominate (Rohlen & LeTendre, 1998, pp.369-371). At the same time, the importance of socialization, group cohesiveness and collective learning are emphasized, and repeated from childhood onwards whenever a new member joins a group or organization. For example, most new workers will complete a training period referred to as *kenshū* when they join a company. Often this training includes shared accommodation facilities to encourage group cohesiveness before, during and after work. While social hierarchies can

lead to tension and competition, individual benefits (or punishment) may affect the entire group. As part of the social hierarchy system, length and quality of experience are prized in schools and companies, giving authority to individuals according to age, year level and length of service.

Imitation, repetition of basics and attention to form are three themes in which socio-cultural differences between American and other Anglophone cultures and Japanese education are highlighted. Imitation, often seen as being inferior to creativity by Americans and attention to form, patterns of behavior perfected over many years by generations of teachers, as, for example, in judo, are seen as a suitable and essential way of learning in Japan (Rohlen & LeTendre, 1998, p.371). Basics are learnt through repetition and attention to form, truth or wisdom are only gained once the forms have been mastered through repetition. Lastly, effort and perseverance, exemplified by physically tiring repetition or long hours of study, underpin notions of learning in Japan. It is these, rather than ability, which lead to success, and thus they are an important part of education in Japan.

Learning and teaching are social activities in Japan, and an understanding of the above-mentioned themes can assist in developing teaching approaches in English language classes that first of all take these themes into consideration, and secondly make use of them in order to assist or improve L2 motivation.

1.4.5.2 Dimensions of culture

Dimensions of culture refers to the basic areas which are common to all societies (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Four of the dimensions are of interest for the studies in this portfolio as they can be related to the two L2 learning environments which the students in this study have experienced. An indication of the differences between Japan and the United Kingdom, in terms of four dimensions of culture is presented in Table 1.2 below. In this table, *rank* refers to the relative position of the country in terms of each dimension among the 76 countries which were a part of the survey by Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010).

Table 1.2 Dimensions of culture based on Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010)

Dimensions of culture	Japan: Rank (1-76)	UK: Rank (1-76)
Power distance (PD) refers to the distribution of influence or strength of social hierarchy within a culture. A low PD rank indicates that the unequal distribution of power is accepted, whereas a high PD rank indicates that power is shared and well dispersed, and that society members view themselves as equals.	49-50	65-67
Group or individual (IDV) refers to the strength of the ties people have to others within the community. A low rank indicates cultures favour a loosely structured society whereas a higher rank indicates a preference for a tightly integrated culture.	35-37	3
Masculinity (MAS) A low MAS score indicates that a culture's dominant values are assertive and a high MAS score indicates a nurturing society. Low MAS scores also indicate strong traditional gender roles. The higher the MAS scores, the more gender roles become blurred.	2	11-13
Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) relates to how much a culture can tolerate ambiguity. A low rank indicates a fear of the unknown, a preference for structure, different modes of address, and one correct answer, whereas a high rank indicates an 'adventurous' culture with less strict rules.	11-13	68-69

Note. Other dimensions include *long term* versus *short term orientation, exclusionism* versus *universalism, indulgence* versus *restraint* and *monumentalism* versus *flexhumility.*

Table 1.2 above gives an indication of the differences teachers and learners may encounter in the two cultures, in addition to explaining why Western-based educational concepts may not align smoothly with traditional Japanese concepts. For example, high PD is related to a teacher-centred education system where students have less experience or opportunity to act autonomously while high UAI is manifested in a preference for structure and a collectivist

outlook in a reluctance to voice contradictory opinions. Further educational implications related to dimensions of culture can be found in Appendix D. Some aspects of the above-mentioned dimensions of cultures in Japan are related to the legacy of Confucianism.

1.4.5.3 Confucian cultures

Cultures such as China, Japan, and Korea continue to be strongly influenced by Confucian ethics, which permeate all levels of society (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). In Japan, these can be observed in schools, company structures and in society as a whole. These teachings, foregrounding three principles and five relationships (Appendix E), shape the way of life, relations between people, and protocol and customs in Japan.

Community virtues, social conduct, appropriate behaviour as a member of a group and the importance of harmony within society are taught and passed on to children in families and in educational institutions from as early as kindergarten, blending academic learning with moral education (Reid, 1999, p.196). Schools and many companies in Japan are structured hierarchically, as are social groups. This vertical relationship and adherence to formalities have a substantial impact on the way human relations are conducted. Examples include the teacher-centred approach to teaching and the junior-senior distinction in educational institutions as well as companies. Furthermore, form-focused course content and a predisposition to reactive autonomy, which refers to students taking control of their own learning once a person in authority has set out the direction for learning, are linked with a Confucian approach to education and learning (Littlewood, 1999). Confucian relationships are closely related with dimensions of culture. Both can assist in the explanation of issues which may arise when English is studied by Japanese university students in two learning environments.

1.4.6 Concluding rationale

A brief outline of the interrelated nature of SLA, and a selection of the literature which informed this project, were presented in Section 1.4. The main gap identified in the literature centres on the need for longitudinal, multi-focus research to understand the diverse changes and elements involved in learning a foreign language in two contrasting learning

environments: classroom-based English study in Japan, and learning English by immersion during a study abroad program in the United Kingdom. The university years are a time of change and personal growth; thus, the relationship between L2 motivation and SLA, and the involvement of the learner in the learning process, are also likely to vary. Furthermore, a combination of quantitative and qualitative data appear to be well suited to the type of studies envisioned, allowing for quantitative data on the target issues to be supported, explained and expanded by subsequent qualitative data. Finally, a compulsory study abroad program as an integral part of a four-year university degree in Japan is rare; thus, some fresh insights into the language learning process of Japanese university students may also be gained.

1.5 Research questions

The studies in this portfolio were designed around four central issues that emerged from the researcher's initial experience of the study abroad program, specifically multiple observations of students in the United Kingdom, and the teaching of students who participated in the program in Japan. The studies aimed to address the following research questions:

Study 1: *How do the participants evaluate their pre-university English learning experiences in Japan?*

Study 2: *How does participants' motivation to learn English change during a study abroad program in the United Kingdom?*

Study 3: *Do the realities of the formal/prescribed components of the study abroad program match students' expectations?*

Do the realities of the informal/incidental components of the study abroad program match students' expectations?

What opinions do Japanese university students express about the L2 learning experience in the United Kingdom compared with Japan?

What kinds of motivators and demotivators do the students identify in both environments?

Study 4: *How do three individual students who participated in the study abroad explain and interpret their involvement with the formal and informal components of the program?*

How do the three individual students adapt to changes in L2 learning situations?

How do the three individual students maintain L2 motivation in the years after their return from the time abroad?

What is the relationship between goals and the L2 learning situation for each participant?

In order to answer these questions, it was necessary to examine the relation between the individual, motivation and successful SLA. *Dynamic System Theory (*hereafter DST*)*, developed by Thelen (2005) is a possible match for visualizing this relationship, as the theory attempts to encompass all possible factors, whether constant, emergent or non-linear, at any given moment without attributing causal priority (Spencer & Thelen, 2003). A system can change from within itself or through interaction with external forces, making change a fundamental part of DST (Kimura, 2014, p.312). An image used as a metaphor to conceptualise and structure the dynamic process of L2 motivation in this study involves revolving, multi-faceted crystals, suspended within a contained self system in the socio-cultural environment of the L2 learner, affected by the passing of time, past and present learning experiences, socio-cultural expectations, and future career choices. The crystal facets represent aspects of L2 motivation, as identified in Section 1.4. As the

crystals revolve in the system, the internal and external influences will thus act on SLA output via learner contribution and learning processes in a positive, negative or neutral manner. Thus, as suggested by Kelly (2011, p.432) the metaphor is used as a means of reinforcing the conceptual and structural links between the studies presented in the following chapters.

The answers to the research questions are significant for professional practice, as they may help explain, and add to, the body of knowledge about the impact of study abroad programs on SLA in terms of motivation, at a time when the number of programs and students studying abroad are likely to increase due to the continuing impact of globalization.

1.6 Overview of methodology

This section introduces the overall methodological approach, beginning with a rationale for the research design chosen as the most suitable to explore the research questions presented in Section 1.5. This is followed by an outline and justification of the key methods employed in the portfolio, including questionnaires, interviews and participant essays, succeeded by a section addressing the validity of the instruments. The subsequent section explains the overall data collection procedures, and introduces a general outline of the analytical processes employed for data analysis. The latter is further expanded in the individual studies that follow. The final two sections relate to ethical considerations and limitations of the study respectively.

1.6.1 Rationale for educational inquiry

A long-running, circular debate has centred on the value, advantages and disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative methodologies in social research. The researcher's worldview can be likened to the ground, in which a research idea takes root (Egbert & Sanden, 2014, p.10). Quantitative researchers believe in the existence of a singular, unproblematic, and value-free reality. Qualitative researchers on the other hand, believe a singular reality does not exist. Instead, it is shaped in the minds of individuals and through social dynamics, discourse, and power relations, and that furthermore, any inquiry cannot be objective. Deemed incompatible due to seemingly opposing worldviews in terms of ontology, and

epistemology, researchers in applied fields have advocated for the polarization of the methodologies to give way to pragmatic choice when searching out ways to answer research questions efficiently. Thus, pragmatic researchers choose a methodology for its use and aptness, as part of the researcher's toolkit rather any pre-existing worldviews (Glokowska, 2011). If individuals are seen as existing within a greater existential sphere where many systems interact and which can affect their reality, this approach is complementary to the tenants of Dynamic System Theory (DST) including its non-linear nature and the importance placed on the integration of social, cognitive and behavioural aspects surrounding an individual.

The aim of educational inquiry should be a gain in usable knowledge. For language educator-researchers, the main direction of inquiry is to design research around an educational problem or concern, and, subsequently, to explore ways of understanding it, with the ultimate aim of informing and improving practice and making a practical difference in their professional environment. In order to do this, pragmatism, in which practical consequences are the essential criteria in determining meaning, truth, or value ("pragmatism", n.d.), is an appropriate approach, as it allows the intrigued researcher to search for practical answers (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010, p.86).

At the same time, the research environment and structure also needs to be taken into consideration. As the data collection took place in the United Kingdom and Japan, the decision to collect the quantitative data first was related to a pragmatic approach to logistics, in addition to structural reasons. The logistic reason for collecting quantitative data was that the researcher could not be present in the United Kingdom for the ten-month of data collection, the structural reason was that the quantitative data results would partially shape the flow of the subsequent, main qualitative phase. Data measured quantitatively were used to explore L2 motivation at the cohort level, while the qualitative data were used to focus attention on L2 motivation at the individual level. In this study, the two methodologies are used to inform and supplement each other.

Finally, in this series of studies it is acknowledged that the complex characteristics of both human beings and of culture are experienced as reality by each of the individuals concerned with this portfolio: including participants, teachers, researchers and supervisors, as well as

examiners. For example, as a non-Japanese researcher, of German and Australian background, my knowledge base is grounded in Western concepts, even though I have lived in Japan for nearly fifteen years. The situational analysis (Section 1.2 and Appendix A) provides a general background to the Japanese EFL setting in order to ensure a shared understanding among readers of the portfolio.

1.6.2 Research design

The design of the studies presented in this portfolio integrates a quantitative and qualitative methodological approach. Quantitative strategies allow for the generalization of a sample, while qualitative strategies add detail (Creswell, 2003, p14). Originally, the polarized methodologies reflected the qualitative and quantitative inquiry stances; however, in recent decades, a third line of inquiry, *mixed methods research* has also gained acceptance. Studies in which the goal is to integrate qualitative and quantitative research strategies are often associated with the pragmatic approach (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Mixed methods research, as introduced by Creswell (2003), Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), and Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), has evolved as a research movement in social and educational research to the point where it is 'increasingly articulated, attached to research practice, and recognized as the third major research approach or *research paradigm*' (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007, p.112).

Mixed methods research is a synergy of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms. It is used by those who aim to bridge the space between the two, across all layers of a research project: ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological (Creswell, 2003, p.208; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.14; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010, p.4). While quantitative researchers are principally interested in the analysis of numerical data to investigate trends, and qualitative researchers focus on narrative data to conduct an in-depth and situated study of the research object, for example, a human participant or a specific phenomenon, mixed methodologists are interested in both kinds of data (Teddlie & Tashokkorri, 2010, p.4). The mixed methods approach was chosen for this project because it is pragmatic in nature, allowing the researcher to exploit the advantages of both quantitative and qualitative data to better answer the research questions.

In mixed method research, the terms 'Qual' and 'Quant' are used for qualitative and quantitative phases respectively. In addition, the use of upper and lower case letters (*qual/QUAL*; *quan/QUAN*) define which aspect of the design is dominant. The '+' and '→' symbols indicate whether the phases of the study were conducted simultaneously or sequentially. The terms *parallel, concurrent and simultaneous* are used by scholars to describe a design where qualitative and quantitative phases take place at the same time. In this portfolio, the term *parallel* is used because some of the data collection did not occur at exactly the same time (Teddlie & Tashokkori, 2010, p.4). *Nested* implies that a quantitative phase takes place within a larger qualitative design; hence the term *nested* is used in this study because the quantitative phase, consisting of the closed items in the questionnaires, is embedded in predominantly qualitative design. The terms *parallel* and *nested* are combined in the term *parallel nested*, indicating that some of the nested quantitative phase of the data collection did occur at exactly the same time as the qualitative phase.

In terms of this portfolio, the parallel nested mixed methods strategy is advantageous because this strategy:

1. allows for the possibility of triangulation to corroborate results and thus increase the reliability of the analytical instruments and their findings
2. gives complementary results from a range of data sets, allowing for a broader perspective
3. allows for the results of one data collection to inform and add to another
4. enables an expansion of the scope of the research
5. counteracts to some extent the inherent bias of each method, while utilizing the advantages of each.

The above advantages are outlined in Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989, p.259) as being common to all mixed methods studies. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2001a, p.194) refers to the mixing of qualitative and quantitative methods as a very 'fruitful' direction for L2 motivation research.

When designing the methodology used in this portfolio of studies, the first decision was to select a mixed methods parallel nested strategy approach with a focus on qualitative design,

in order to obtain a broad perspective on L2 motivation (Creswell, 2003, p.216) while retaining the epistemological understanding of multiple truths and knowledge production (Egbert & Sanden, 2013, p.6). The relation between qualitative and quantitative methods in the design of the portfolio is represented in Figure 1.2.

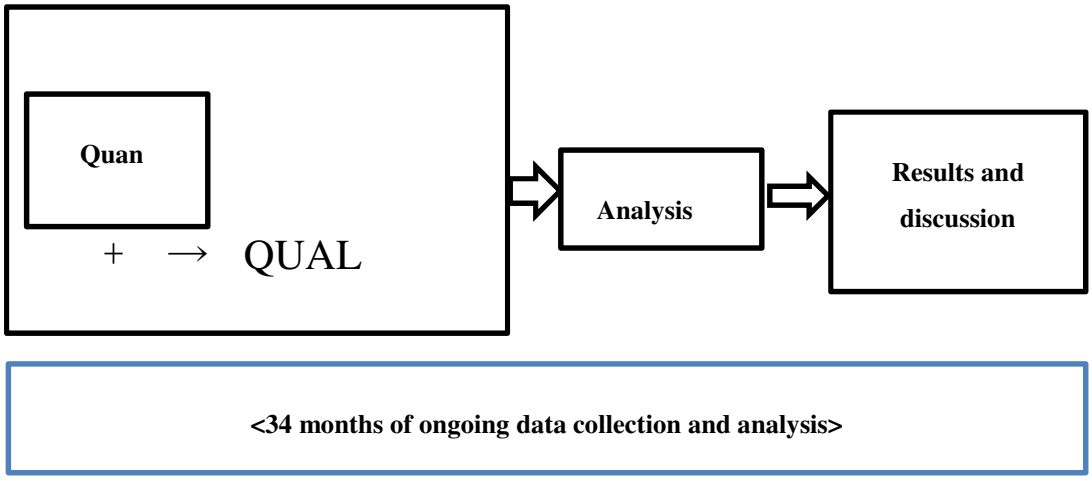


Figure 1.2 Parallel nested strategy featuring a longitudinal design

The design represented in Figure 1.2 was the one most likely to provide answers to the research questions outlined in Section 1.5. The combination of questionnaires using both open and closed items, interviews, observations and participant essays was chosen to utilise complementary methods of data collection. The closed items in the questionnaires, collected during the study abroad program, were nested within the remaining qualitative data, which was collected over the full 34-month period. The qualitative data were collected using open-ended questions and semi-structured interviews. The multiple case studies, focusing on three individual students, added to the findings at the micro level with further qualitative data, for example the pre-departure essays and class observations.

The research questions were explored by analyzing data obtained from questionnaires, interviews, pre-departure essays and class observations. These explorations in turn evolved into the portfolio chapters. The research methods used in this study, outlined in general in this chapter and in detail in each subsequent chapter, were chosen as they appeared to be the means best suited to obtaining the data which would make it possible to answer the research questions, despite the challenges of collecting data both in the United Kingdom and Japan. A similar two-phase mixed methods research explanatory design was used by Taguchi (2013)

in a study which commenced with a large-scale quantitative questionnaire (N=1534) followed by a small-scale qualitative interview phase (N=20). After using questionnaires as a starting point, Taguchi was able to uncover more detailed information about individual student motivation in the interviews. A two-phase mixed methods study was also employed by Nitta (2013), who explored L2 motivation through a dynamic system perspective. In that study, data collection, related to a one-year course, commenced with questionnaires (N=190) followed by retrospective interviews (N=25) conducted at the end of the course.

As introduced above, the second decision related to the design of the present portfolio of studies was to combine mixed methods research in a longitudinal design. Longitudinal research is defined by Salkind (2008) as '… studies that investigate change over time with the same cohort' (p. 617). In the current study, in order to obtain a trajectory of L2 motivation in one cohort of Japanese university students, three questionnaires were used to take measurements at three-monthly intervals during the study abroad period. The first three questionnaires were followed up after longer intervals of six and eighteen months by interviews and a fourth questionnaire respectively. In addition, class observations took place while the students were in second and/or third year. While the 34 months covered by this portfolio may not be considered a long time span when compared with longitudinal studies covering decades, it is comparatively long when compared to other SLA studies of a single cohort. The details of the timing of the data collection, and the types of data collected during the 34-month period of the study, are presented in Table 1.3 below.

Table 1.3 Data type and timing

Year of study	Location	Timing	Data description	Main data type
1	Japan	April 2010	Goals and aims expressed prior to SA	Qual
1	UK	April 2010 September 2010 February 2011	Questionnaires A, B and C	Quan
1	UK	April 2010 to February 2011	Teacher observations	Qual
1	UK	September 2010 February 2011	SA scores	Quan
1-3	UK/ Japan	Various points in time between April 2010 and February 2013	TOEIC scores	Quan
2	Japan	July 2011	Semi-structured interviews	Qual
2/3	Japan	1st and 2nd semester 2011, 2012	Class observations	Qual
3	Japan	November 2012 to December 2013	Questionnaire D	Quan
3	Japan	July 2012 to February 2013	Unstructured interviews (Japan)	Qual

Note.SA=Study abroad; UK=United Kingdom. 1st Semester: April to July; 2nd semester: October to February .

The depth of focus within the studies in the portfolio ranged from the macro level to the micro level. While the questionnaires were composed of mainly closed-question items, thus limiting responses to some degree, the qualitative phases encouraged the students to open up and provide their individual insights, allowing for data of an emerging and spontaneous nature to be obtained and analyzed.

In L2 research, motivation has been approached in many ways, ranging from studies that are purely quantitative (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Taguchi, Magid & Papi, 2009) to exploratory qualitative studies (Kanno, 2003; Kinginger, 2013; Jackson, 2008; Pellegrino Aveni, 2005). The debate in Section 1.4 regarding theories of motivation suggests that motivation is fluid, temporal, dynamic and complex, and varies from individual to individual; therefore motivation ideally should be examined from as many angles as possible over a period of time. This suggestion, supported by recommendations and identified gaps in motivation research over the past 20 years by Oxford and Shearin (1994), Ortega and Iberri-Shea (2005) and Nitta (2013), led to the decision to select a longitudinal mixed methods research approach for this portfolio, in which quantitative methods are embedded in order to analyze the questionnaire responses within an overarching longitudinal qualitative framework.

The longitudinal aspects of L2 acquisition and motivation were explored through the participants' past and present L2 experiences. The *retrodictive qualitative modelling* approach to studying L2 motivation, as proposed by Dörnyei (2014, p. 85), is a means of tracing the reasons behind particular outcomes in a dynamic system, with the aim of establishing ' a retrospective qualitative model of its evolution.' This approach, while used in the semi-structured interviews, is particularly foregrounded in the multiple-case study featured in Chapter 5. This study presents a trajectory of each student's personal L2 experience while also identifying *motivational transformation episodes* (Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2004, p.31). Even though a retrodictive approach which identifies motivational transformational episodes has less predictive power, as it concerns turning points in the past of the learners, establishing the nature of these episodes is important for its explanatory power and an understanding of emerging L2 learner patterns (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 89).

Mixed methods studies focusing on Japanese students and their English learning experiences have only recently appeared in the research literature. These include studies by Aubrey and Nowlan (2013), Hayashi (2013), Nitta (2013), and Taguchi (2013). The L2 motivation study in this portfolio complements these recent studies by following a mixed methods research approach, and adding a longitudinal and study abroad perspective to explore and interpret the students' motivation and learning experiences.

Language learning is a journey, and all learners travel along their own paths. Thus, a longitudinal multiple-case study research design, featuring multi-wave data collection, allows the researcher to capture the impact of the turning points. For example in the present study, the study abroad program, the return to Japan and the job-hunting period, were chosen for the multiple-case study presented in Chapter 5. The study design was used to capture the L2 journeys of three individual students through the use of rich data to highlight the complexity of the L2 learning process, including shifting learner participation and changes within time and context (Breen, 2001, p. 179; Jackson, 2008, p. 58; Ortega & Byrnes, 2008, p. 289).

In summary, the present study adopts a mixed methods research approach coupled with a case study approach. The portfolio design reflects the aim of narrowing the study perspective from student cohort level to individual level to permit both a wide and a deep understanding of the L2 motivation of Japanese university students.

1.6.3 Participants

The participant pool available for this research consisted of students from the 2010 student intake at a small private university in Japan. Due to the compulsory nature of the study abroad program (see Section 1.2.2.3), this intake included students who aspired to use English for their future careers, and/or who were interested in spending a year living in a different culture, as well as those who participated in the study abroad program by default, for example students majoring in information technology (IT), rather than in the English career course. This is because both the IT and English career courses are delivered by the Faculty of English and IT, and participation in the study abroad program is compulsory for all students in this faculty (see Section 1.2.2.1 for more general details of the student population).

All students who participated in the study abroad program were initially invited to participate in the study. Participant recruitment for the study took place in three phases. During the initial phase, Questionnaire A, the first questionnaire in a series of four, was handed out by a colleague in the United Kingdom to the entire cohort within the first two weeks of the study abroad program. An information form, explaining the study and the required commitment, and a consent form were also included. The first questionnaire was

returned within the first month of the study abroad period in the United Kingdom. The students who chose to complete this questionnaire were also given the second and third questionnaire while in the United Kingdom. However, while 72 students returned the first questionnaire in April 2010, by the end of the study abroad program, only 43 responses from the possible participant pool were eligible for stage one data analysis, comprising an analysis of all three questionnaires collected during the study abroad period.

Participants who completed the full series were eligible for recruitment for the second phase, consisting of the semi-structured interviews in second and third year. Participants who participated in the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, and who were also taught by the researcher were eligible for the third recruitment phase, leading to participation in the multiple-case study, presented in Chapter 5. Thus participant recruitment took place through a process of participation and elimination over the three phases of the data collection.

The student cohort (N=43) were Japanese nationals and aged between eighteen and twenty years at the time of admission into first year of university in 2010. All hold a Japanese passport or permanent residency and the majority (98%) were ethnic Japanese. Of the cohort, 63% were males and 37% female, with 9% having attended a private junior high school (JHS) and 63% a private senior high school (SHS). Of the participants, 14% had prior overseas experience, with a time frame ranging from five days to four weeks; this overseas experience had included sightseeing vacations with families, as well as short-term study abroad programs with homestays. Thus, this study abroad program in the United Kingdom was the first overseas experience for the majority of participants.

The cohort had started their formal English education at junior high school, studying a minimum of four classes per week, depending on the kind of school they attended; for example, some private schools teach six to eight classes of English per week. The frequency of senior high school English classes can again range in number from four to eight per week or more, depending on the school and the type of course the students choose to study. All students of the 2010 intake had studied English for six years before commencing university.

All of the participants (N=43) who completed questionnaires A, B and C were students in three faculties: English and IT, tourism, and education (Please refer to Section 1.2.2 for further details about the faculties). Because of both the United Kingdom setting, and the allocation of classes in Japan, for all stages the portfolio relied on convenience sampling.

1.6.4 Setting

The studies presented in this portfolio were conducted at a small private university (hereafter the university) near Tokyo, Japan, and its purpose-built campus belonging to the Japanese educational foundation of which the university is a part in the United Kingdom (hereafter UKC).

The study abroad program investigated in this series of studies is conducted on a purpose-built campus, located within the grounds of a large university near London (hereafter K-university). The campus is one of three facilities owned and operated by the educational foundation that runs the Japanese university, although it employs mainly UK-based non-Japanese staff. Hereafter the United Kingdom campus will be referred to as UKC. In their first year of university, approximately one week after the entrance ceremony, students participate in a study abroad program conducted at UKC, aimed at improving their communicative English and intercultural skills and complete the program as a group. This study abroad program falls into what Allen (2010) refers to as a 'sheltered' program because, during the day, the students study English in small classes as a mono-lingual Japanese group, and they also live on campus for the duration of the program, except for the four-week home stay. The students resume their studies at the university in Japan in the second year.

At UKC local staff manages day-to-day administration and the language education program, while the Japanese staff and Japanese university are responsible for the overall well-being of the students, acting *in loco parentis*. The students are only 18 or 19 years of age, so are still considered minors under Japanese law. UKC consists of an administration area, a teaching area with classrooms and a library, a large dining hall, a recreation area and a living area with individual rooms and shared facilities. In exchange for teaching English conversation classes to the Japanese study abroad cohort, students from K-university live on campus for a reduced fee.

The study program at UKC consists of both formal and informal components. The *formal components* are prescribed, and include the daytime intensive language classes, evening conversation classes, and a homestay. The *informal or incidental components* are centred on voluntary participation in social and sporting circles with students from K-university, an extensive volunteer program, and open days and local festivals in order to showcase Japanese culture. Thus, as a sheltered program, interactions with non-Japanese students studying at K-university and the local community take place outside formal classes.

For the first component of the formal study abroad program, the *intensive English classes* held in the daytime, students are divided, based on the results of an initial placement test, into small classes of ten to twelve. Students complete 23 hours of language instruction each week, taught by native English-speaking teachers (NESTs). The teachers, rather than the students, move classrooms, and, the classrooms are decorated with student work and posters during the course of the program, giving the students a sense of ownership and belonging. One afternoon a week, students could choose from a range of activities in the options program, such as golf, cooking and Spanish. They had free time on another afternoon. Supervised daytrips to nearby sightseeing areas rounded out the formal daytime aspects of the program. A sample timetable of the daytime program can be found in Appendix C.

Because the study abroad program is run by the Japanese university for their Japanese students, there are no opportunities to interact with non-Japanese students in the daytime English classes. Thus, the common language of the students in the class is Japanese, not English, and some students may feel it is of little benefit to practice English with fellow Japanese. The second formal component of the program, *evening conversation classes* are designed to compensate for this to some extent. These classes are led by K-university students from a number of countries, students who also interact with the Japanese students during meal times and free time. Unfortunately, K-university students are busy with their studies too; consequently opportunities for interactions between them and the Japanese students fluctuate, beyond meal times and the conversation lessons. As an additional evening activity, the Japanese students also watched the BBC news as a group two evenings a week.

The third component of the formal study abroad program is the *four-week homestay*, which for some students, commences within a month of arriving in the United Kingdom. Most of the local host families have had prior experience hosting Japanese students, and are paid a small reimbursement. Some host families live within walking distance of UKC, whereas others live further away, from where students need to commute by bus to UKC to attend classes.

The *informal* aspects of the ten-month study abroad program gave students the opportunity to interact with locals in a non-classroom setting. An extensive volunteering program, linked to the K-university program, was a popular option. In addition, students could join societies and circles run by the local university, or compete in sporting events. Students also participated in local cultural festivals, for example the *Will Adams Festival*. (See Appendix A for an explanation of the Will Adams link with Japan.) They demonstrated aspects of contemporary Japanese culture, for example, paper folding (*origami)*, Japanese writing *(hiragana, katakana and kanji),* and Japanese dance, and interacted with the local community. The public were also invited to open days and evenings on campus to experience Japanese culture. In addition, the UKC location allows easy access to continental Europe via ferries or trains.

Levels of participation in the *informal components* of the study abroad program vary among the student participants. These components include opportunities to join circles, clubs, and societies at K-university, to join a UKC soccer team competing in the local league, to participate in the UKC volunteer program, and to contribute to open days and festivals. Students on the program are informed about some of the informal components when they first arrive at UKC, and are made aware of further details and opportunities throughout the ten months. Moreover, the students are also encouraged to go shopping and sightseeing in their free time.

The opportunity to join K-university clubs and societies fulfils one of the expectations that the Japanese students have of study abroad programs; being able to spend time with fellow university-age students. Unfortunately, the Japanese students arrive in mid-April, when university activities are winding down toward the European summer vacation. For this reason, they are not able to join K-university clubs and circles until September, when the

academic year in the United Kingdom commences and the Japanese students can join the clubs and circles at the same time as commencing first year students. Nevertheless, not joining the clubs and circles until September allows the Japanese students to acculturalize to life in the United Kingdom and to improve their English skills and self-confidence for five months before taking part in these activities.

Opportunities to participate in the *UKC volunteer program*, linked to the K-university volunteer program, allow the Japanese students to gain points towards bronze (25 hours), silver (50 hours) and gold (100 hours) volunteer certificates of contribution. During the summer vacation the Japanese students can also participate in camps. These include the *community service volunteer heritage camps* during which students help to preserve historic buildings. Participating in these camps provides the Japanese student with an even greater chance of meeting students from all over the United Kingdom and the world.

Finally, contribution to *local festivals and UKC Japanese evenings* is encouraged, and are included as part of the program design. These events promote interaction with the local community and give the Japanese students opportunities to showcase their culture. At the beginning of the program students are asked whether they have any special talents they could, or would like, to contribute to open days or festivals. These might include, for example, writing names in Japanese script and teaching origami, performing traditional music and dances, and preparing and serving Japanese food. The informal components described above can be a very effective means of motivating the students to use English in authentic communicative situations, and have the potential to contribute to the students' enjoyment of the study abroad experience.

The study abroad program has proven to be quite successful in terms of giving students the opportunity to experience and use English as an authentic tool of communication, and to live and study in a different culture. Participants in the program improve their communicative English skills and exhibit increased confidence to interact using English. The majority of students who participated in the program also have significantly higher scores in the TOEIC when compared with the scores of students studying at universities with a student population of similar academic level but where a study abroad program is

not in place (Sekiguchi, 2006, p. 11). Thus the effect of the university study abroad program has been established as being a positive one overall over the past 20 years.

Upon their return to Japan, the students live at home if within commuting distance, rent an apartment near the university, or live on campus. The Japanese campus is located about 50 km east of central Tokyo, and is approximately twenty minutes by bus or car from the nearest station and a large shopping centre. While the Japanese university campus is larger than the UKC campus, and has more facilities, it is actually much smaller, and has fewer facilities than the K-university campus near UKC. Furthermore, the town in which the Japanese campus is located is not as compact, attractive and interesting as the town near UKC, leading to unfavourable comparisons being made by students.

English classes at the university in Japan continue to be compulsory in second year, and through to fourth year for some students. Students can take a maximum of 23 credit points or 10-12 classes per semester, with each class consisting of one 90-minute lesson per week. English classes usually account for four to eight credit points of a semester load in second year, depending on the faculty. Unlike English classes during the study abroad, English language classes in Japan can be much larger in size, with as many as sixty students, and also, unlike the study abroad classes, are not as strongly streamed according to English language skills. The intimate, at-home atmosphere of the small UKC classrooms, decorated with student work and posters, is replaced by larger classrooms with bare walls.

Students can take a variety of English-based classes, ranging in content from language test preparation to business and English conversation. Some classes are open to students in all faculties, whereas others have restricted entry. Classes are taught by a mixture of full-time and part-time NESTs, and Japanese teachers of English (JTE). While there are different levels for some English classes, the onus is usually on the student to choose their appropriate level, especially for elective classes. Unfortunately, often the level is of less importance than the timing of the class. A self-access English centre, surrounded by English teacher offices, is a space where students can do private study, or ask questions about their English study. Thus, upon their return to Japan students have some autonomy in choosing English classes, teachers and places to study English; however not all students appear to take full advantage of the curriculum or the facilities.

1.6.5 Main instruments and measures

In order to generate a broad variety of data, a mixed methods approach, through which a blend of quantitative and qualitative data could be collected, was selected. The two main methods were questionnaires and interviews. These methods were chosen in order to determine the attitudes, feelings and beliefs of the participants. Questionnaires and interviews are types of survey-based data collection used by researchers to obtain data regarding facts, behaviour or attitude (Gass & Mackey 2008, p.148). It is the latter that was the focus of this study, due to the researcher's interest in establishing learners' attitudes, beliefs and opinions with regard to motivation in English study.

Items in the questionnaires were comprised of both open-ended and closed items. Closed items in the main part of the questionnaires were based on current motivation theories and frameworks, specifically the items already used in the Japanese EFL context by Nakata (2006), Taguchi, Magid & Papi (2009) and Yashima (2002). The following chapters provide additional information about these questionnaire items. While data from closed items could be quantified easily, it was the open-ended items which gave the data its richness and depth, as they allowed for unrestrained and sometimes unexpected and revealing answers to be given by the participants.

The semi-structured interview is a tool that allows rich interactions and access to social relationships that cannot be revealed in a survey or formally structured interview (Dowsett, as cited in Nunan, 1992, p. 149). The semi-structured interviews in the studies in this portfolio consisted of open-ended, exploratory items in order to complement, extend and explore the knowledge about second language acquisition and motivation obtained in the questionnaires. Participants were asked whether they wanted to hear the questions in Japanese or English, and could also choose whether to respond in English or a mixture of both, in other words responses including code switching. All interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed by the researcher and then analysed for salient themes relevant to the research questions. In this study, utterances made originally in English may include mistakes in grammar or language; these were left intact. Utterances made originally in Japanese are followed by their English translations. The translations were made by the researcher, as my Japanese language proficiency is sufficient for conducting oral sessions,

writing and translation of transcripts and subsequent data mining. Some of the interview data has been reworded slightly in order to weave it into the sentence structure. The researcher is tagged as 'R' in dialogues, and the participants are identified with their pseudonyms. All interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed by the researcher

The focus of the interviews was, above all, to give each participant an individual voice, rather than presenting results of the studies as purely numerical values. Listening to our students' voices is essential as our individual worlds are constructed through social interactions. Moreover, how students perceive their learning environment can have a direct effect on learning (Oxford, 2001, p.86). In a student's life, social interaction occurs in the home, at university, with friends, at work, and while moving from one environment to another.

All written material directed at participants in the study was in both English and Japanese. While my Japanese knowledge and ability were sufficient for carrying out this task, all material was carefully cross-checked for accuracy by two native Japanese colleagues with a high level of English. Items on the questionnaires were trialled by non-participant students prior to the commencement of the study to ensure that both the meaning and the content of the questions were easily understood and relevant to participating students.

The multiple-case study presented in Chapter 5 focused on three participants, chosen from the group of students who had participated in both the initial questionnaire series and interviews, and whom I was able to observe in classes in 2011 and /or 2012. The aim of the case study is to illuminate motivation, SLA and language competence in detail through the experiences of three individuals.

1.6.6 Other Data

The data listed above were complemented by observations and informal discussions with participants over the research period and notes were made after classes as required, to minimize intrusion, both to the actual class as well as to non-participants. Digital audio-visual recordings of the classes were not made as this may cause students to behave in an unnatural and self-conscious manner. Making notes after classes is an acknowledged limitation that may have affected accuracy; however, those data were only used as a small

contribution to the overall portfolio to add to the holistic portrayal of the participants in the multiple-case study.

In April 2010, before the participants' departure to the UK, and again in February 2011, at the end of the study abroad program, the participants took the TOEIC test, and the scores were collected. Study abroad program results for September 2010 and February 2011, and a set of semi-structured questions answered by teachers at the UKC, were also collected. Furthermore, before departing for the United Kingdom, all students at the university wrote a short essay on their general aims and goals for the following four years, and extracts of these essays offered additional insights the L2 learning journeys of the multiple-case study participants.

1.6.7 Validity and reliability of questionnaire measurements

The validity and reliability of individual motivational variables in the questionnaires is underpinned through the use of multiple-item scales. The items chosen were adapted from existing questionnaire scales, with demonstrated validity and reliability within the Japanese EFL context (Nakata, 2006; Taguchi et al, 2009; Yashima, 2002). Some of the original scales were shortened slightly to allow for a wide range of motivational variables to be included in the questionnaires. The following chapters give detailed information about these questionnaire items.

Internal consistency reliability of the multiple-item scales was confirmed through the use of the Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The reliability coefficient threshold was set at the recommended .70 (Peterson, 1994.p.385). All scales used in this study are above .70; Cronbach's alpha results are shown within each relevant table in the individual chapters.

1.6.8 Data collection procedures

In order to obtain the required data for this longitudinal study, data collection needed to take place in the United Kingdom and in Japan. This fact dictated both the choice of the overall research design and the procedures for data collection.

Data collection was carried out over 34 months (April 2010 - February 2013) in two main phases. The first phase comprised the completion of three questionnaires, with both closed

and open items. These questionnaires, referred to as Questionnaires A, B and C respectively, were completed, with the assistance of Japanese staff at the United Kingdom campus of the university, by participants (N=43) at the beginning of the study abroad program (April 2010 – Questionnaire A), in the middle of the study abroad program (September 2010 – Questionnaire B), and again at the end of the study abroad program (February 2011 – Questionnaire C). The second phase of the study, carried out on the university campus in Japan by the researcher, and consisting of interviews and numerous classroom observations, aimed to explore the participants' beliefs and motivations in relation to learning English after their return to Japan. A fourth questionnaire (D) was distributed to obtain an L2 motivation trajectory the preceding over 32 months. The response rate for this last questionnaire was poor, however, with only 15 of the original 43 participants completing the questionnaire.

In total, both the scope and depth of the data emerged from the four questionnaires, from the fifteen interviewees, numerous classroom observations, comments from UK-based teaching staff, TOEIC scores and the study abroad results. The 34-month time span of the portfolio of studies, from April 2010 until February 2013, contributed to the longitudinal aspect to the study.

Originally, it was intended to make direct comparisons between two student intakes but this became impossible as the ten-month study abroad program was reduced to a five-month program from 2011 due to new visa regulations for entry into the United Kingdom. In addition, the data collection from the second intake would not have been as comprehensive, due to time constraints imposed by the submission date of the portfolio. A comparative study would make an interesting option for future research.

1.6.9 Data analysis

This section outlines the procedures used to analyse the questionnaire and interview data. These are referred to throughout the studies presented in Chapter 2 to Chapter 5.

The questionnaire data set consisted of closed items measured by six-point Likert scales, items made up of a choice of pre-determined categories, and open items requiring written responses. The quantitative data set consisting of items measured by Likert scales was

entered into Microsoft Excel 2010, and analysed in both Excel and SPSS 23 after undergoing data cleaning procedures. Due to the size of the sample (N=43), analysis consisted of both *descriptive analysis* and *frequency distribution* (Sarantakos, 1998, p.344) to enable a more nuanced reading of the results. Items measured in Questionnaire A, Questionnaire B, and Questionnaire C across the three time points underwent a non-parametric test (*Friedman test)* to determine whether statistically significant changes took place during the study abroad period. *Content analysis* was used for the open items (Sarantakos, 1998, p.279). Open items in Part 4 of Questionnaire C and Questionnaire D were coded into themes and analysed using a matrix (Appendix O). Please refer to Chapter 6 for further details regarding the limitations of the sample size.

A set of interview questions (Appendix L), consisting of open-ended items to elicit in-depth responses guided the semi-structured interviews. The interviews ranged in length from ten minutes to nearly fifty-three minutes. Details regarding the length and dates of the interviews can be found in Appendix N. The interview data were digitally recorded, transcribed and analysed for thematic and dialogic and performative content, part of the four-pronged typology of narrative analysis proposed by Kohler Riessman (2008), which also includes structural and visual analysis. A matrix (Appendix M) was utilized to code and analyse the interviews. While the interviews were semi-structured with a prepared list of questions and topics, the interviews were not linear in nature, as interesting and insightful utterances that may have aided in the explanation of the learner's L2 trajectory and feelings about L2 learning were explored in greater detail.

Further details regarding data analysis are provided in the *instruments and procedures* section of each individual study presented in the chapters below.

1.6.10 Ethical Considerations

Research ethics have their origin in *The Nuremberg Code* (1949) and the subsequent Belmont report (1979). Mackey and Gass (2005, pp. 27, 39) stipulate that, while L2 research generally poses minimal risk to participants, the notion of informed consent is essential, basically ensuring that all participants in a research study are able to choose what will, or will not, happen to them. Informed consent, as outlined by Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 27), refers to participants:

1. being given sufficient information and details about each stage of the study, including risk
2. comprehending the study
3. being able to participate voluntarily
4. being able to withdraw from the study at any time.

Approval to undertake this study was sought through the University of New England (UNE) Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) process. Approval was also sought from the university at which the research took place through a study proposal; verbal permission to proceed with the study was given by the university president in April 2009 and by the vice-chancellor of the UK campus in January 2010. Research ethics as outlined by UNE were strictly followed throughout the study and the final HREC report was completed, and accepted by the UNE Ethics Committee in November 2013.

Information sheets and consent forms in both Japanese and English were given to all participants at the commencement of the study (see Appendices F and G respectively). The participants in the study, especially in the interviews and case study, were also stakeholders, as they were asked to think about and discuss their own L2 learning experience while completing the questionnaires or interviews. Thus, an open, honest approach was used throughout the portfolio (Punch, 1999, p. 169). The nature of the research required identification of the students by the researcher, hence the questionnaires and interviews were not anonymous; however, students' actual names are changed in this thesis. The studies in the portfolio were constructed in such a way that participants were able to freely withdraw from the study at any stage.

Making use of both *emic* and *etic* perspectives is a challenge faced by researchers working in a different culture. The *emic* viewpoint is that of the insider, or Japanese in this study, whereas the *etic* viewpoint represents the outsider's or non-Japanese perspective (Sullivan, 2009). As pointed out by Agar (2011, p. 39), *emic* and *etic* are not fully separate ways of making sense of an issue; in fact, both contribute to achieving a deeper level of understanding. Thus it is a balancing act. The researcher is not Japanese, but has lived in Japan for 15 years and is married to a Japanese man. As a means of striking a balance, the

studies presented in this portfolio are conducted through an *etic* perspective tempered by an understanding of the *emic* viewpoint.

Lastly, every effort was made to conduct the research and present the portfolio using bias-free wording with regard to gender, sexual orientation, race, disability and age.

1.7 Portfolio and professional practice

The portfolio style was chosen as a means of integrating a number of aspects of SLA into a holistic study, including individual differences, the study abroad and foreign language classroom environments, and socio-cultural dimensions. Furthermore, this style was chosen over a traditional thesis, as it offers a link between the profession, workplace and the university, which in turn forms the main foundations of the professional doctorate, as argued by Lee, Green and Brennan (2000, p.127). Being foremost an educator, rather than a researcher, I was driven by the need to study SLA in context and to conduct the research at my workplace. This had the added advantage of exploring the reality of SLA in a concrete context, and not just as a theoretical phenomenon in isolation. The added flexibility of the portfolio approach was also appealing, as I continued to work full-time as a university lecturer throughout the period of the longitudinal study.

A series of studies presented as a single portfolio has been conceptualized by Maxwell and Kupczyk-Romanczuk (2009, p. 140) as a Greek temple, where the individual papers represent the columns and the linking paper the roof, in this way implying the need for coherence if the portfolio is to be recognized as having a stable structure. In this portfolio, the introductory chapter is viewed as the foundation and the conclusion as the roof. The individual studies form the columns of the portfolio, as they present results and implications with a view to capturing and illuminating longitudinal changes and perspectives, and establishing antecedents and consequences, with regard to student motivation in second or foreign language acquisition over 34 months. The conclusion, or roof, completes the temple by drawing together all the threads of the portfolio; it is supported by the insights and knowledge provided by the columns. Maxwell and Kupczyk-Romanczuk (2009, p. 141) also comment on the fact that a portfolio with a broad scope may not have the depth of a traditional thesis. In this case, as the very nature of the research demanded a broad and

holistic approach, presenting the research as a portfolio seemed to be a better match than a traditional thesis.

A portfolio prepared for a professional doctorate stands at the intersection between theory and practice, or between research and the workplace, and thus should not only be of academic value but also practical value. Just as artists exhibit their work, it is the responsibility of the researcher preparing a professional doctorate to 'get their work out there' (Maxwell, 2003). It is hoped that this study will be of value to both Japan-based practitioners, and educators who teach Japanese students throughout the world in study abroad or immigrant settings, for further understanding their students and their L2 learning experiences, in particular L2 motivation. Furthermore, the portfolio can offer educational researchers concerned with cross-cultural and motivation research a point of comparison.

In an effort to 'get the work out there' and reach a wider audience of individuals interested in study abroad and L2 motivation research, results of the studies in the portfolio were presented at two conferences in Japan in 2011 and 2013, organized by the Japanese Association of Language Teachers (JALT). In addition, the key results obtained during the course of the entire portfolio, and subsequent issues raised, formed part of an individual presentation at the International Association of Applied Linguistic (AILA) World Congress, held in Australia in 2014. Furthermore, selected results have been presented at in-house research presentations, public open forums, and at in-service teacher workshops held at the university. In this way, the insights gained and issues raised by the studies in this portfolio have been made public at the international, national and local level.

At the student level, participants in the research project were offered an insight into their own language learning, which may have assisted them in the recognition and utilization of possible strategies to increase motivation and therefore their own success in English language learning. This in turn could be beneficial for their sense of personal achievement as well as for their future careers. Knowledge gained through the studies reported in this portfolio has also been incorporated into approaches used in English language education at the university from where the participants were selected. It continues to be shared with student teachers through the teaching of language education classes and through students conducting SLA research at undergraduate level.

In summary, the forging of a link between theory and practice is at the forefront of this portfolio. The additional knowledge presented here about L2 motivation and study abroad could highlight possible differences, open new paths and areas to be addressed for practitioners, researchers and study abroad providers (both Japanese and non-Japanese), and improve L2 practice at all levels of education.

1.8 Portfolio organization

The portfolio is divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 is preceded by acknowledgements, researcher background, a glossary of terms, and organizational details regarding content. It is followed by four chapters (Chapters 2-5) containing thematically linked independent studies, each addressing different research questions. Each study in the portfolio is an individual unit, with a separate literature review, methodology and results and discussion sections. As the information about the study participants, setting and main research instruments outlined in Sections 1.6.3, 1.6.4 and 1.6.5 respectively pertains to all the studies presented in Chapter 2 to Chapter 5, this information is not repeated in these chapters. Information and literature pertaining exclusively to the individual studies can be found under the heading of *Study context* in each chapter. Detailed participant information for the multiple-case study, however, is included in Chapter 5.

The studies are designed both to seek answers to different, although related, research questions, in addition to providing a different focus, ranging from the group (macro) level to the individual (micro) level. Due to the interrelated nature of L2 motivation constructs, there is some overlap of data and discussion presented in some of the chapters. Chapter 6 presents the Portfolio conclusion.

Questionnaire items, interview questions, descriptive analysis results of the quantitative data and additional background information can be found in the Appendices following the reference list. Interview transcripts and/or recordings are available on request.

Chapter 2

Pre-university study of English in Japan: Exploring L2 motivation prior to entering university (Study 1)

Portfolio Outline Guide			
Chapters	**Timespan**		
	Phase 1 Prior to April 2010 Before SA (Japan)	**Phase 2** April 2011 to February 2011 During SA (UK)	**Phase 3** April 2011 to February 2013 After SA (Japan)
Chapter1: Portfolio Introduction			
Chapter 2: Pre-university study of English in Japan: Exploring L2 motivation prior to entering university (Study 1)	◎		
Chapter 3: Study abroad for Japanese students: Changing motivation (Study 2)			
Chapter 4: Studying English in the UK and Japan: Exploring the expectations and reality of English study abroad and at home (Study 3)			
Chapter 5: Individual journeys: A multiple-case study (Study 4)			
Chapter 6: Portfolio Conclusion			

高校時代はテキストは習慣・・・
During high school years, textbook (study) was the norm …
(Miho).
In junior high school English was very easy (Chie).
本当に英語できなくて、嫌い・・・
I really couldn't speak English , disliked it … (Miu).

2.1 Study context

Past experiences, both positive and negative in nature, have a tendency to influence the present and the future. Second or foreign language (L2) learning experiences in the past, may shape how we approach L2 learning in the present and future (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Block, 2007). In other words, our current L2 self is a composite of our own past experiences, based on academic and every day experiences, and can influence how we interact with people around us such as teachers or other students, the learning material and the L2 environment in the future. Investigating antecedent conditions and exploring students' past experiences may allow educators to understand their present, and possibly predict their future, relationship with language learning. As Nobel laureate Pearl Buck said: 'If you want to understand today, you have to search yesterday'.

Although most Japanese university students have studied English for six years in secondary school, there are likely to be substantial differences regarding their feelings and experiences in terms of English language study. Existing attitudes, feelings, and opinions towards English language study may impact on how students approach the study of English at tertiary level. For example, past L2 learning experiences at high school in Japan may have left Japanese university students with a liking of English and English classes, and a sense of language competence. Students who enjoyed or were interested in English and regularly achieved good results are more likely to continue their language learning at university smoothly. Some students may have approached English study with enthusiasm in Year 7,

yet have lost the motivation to put an effort into learning for various reasons later on in secondary schools. Students may also have lost self-confidence and self-esteem in secondary school English classes; in fact demotivated students are a recognized problem in all levels of Japanese English education (Kikuchi, 2009, 2013; Nakata, 1999). Students who in the past struggled to understand English in class, disliked the subject, or were anxious about speaking up or making mistakes, have to go through a remotivation process (Falout, 2012; Ushioda, 1996, 2001) in order to overcome their negative experiences and to blossom in university English classes.

Using a retrospective approach, this study explores Japanese first year university students' views and experiences of English study prior to commencing the ten-month study abroad program, in order to gain an understanding of the students' past and current feelings about studying English. The study particularly examines past experiences in the educational environment which may provide some clues to understanding both the students' L2 developmental trajectory and their L2 motivation trajectory during the study abroad in first year, continuing after their return to Japan from second year onwards.

In this chapter, a review of research focusing on secondary English education in Japan is presented. This is followed by the results and discussion of Study 1: a small retrospective mixed methods study.

2.1.1 Pre-university English education in Japan

The majority of secondary students in Japan learn English as a foreign language in schools. The examination-driven educational system and lack of practical communicative applications for English often lead to stress and disenchantment with English language study. These in turn can have a negative impact on motivation to learn English, and many students become demotivated learners, who do not become competent speakers of English even after six years of formal study at secondary school. Thus English education in Japan is '…in a permanent sense of crisis' (Ushioda, 2013, p. 5), and compared to other Asian nations as such as Korea, Singapore and some areas of China, Japan's English education system is better known for its *lack* of success in producing high school graduates with solid communicative English skills. This in turn has led to a number of studies aiming to

investigate why the Japanese English education system continues to be unable to produce students with English skills comparable to those of other Asian nations, in spite of attempts by MEXT to resolve this issue. The focus of these studies ranges from how students feel about English education at Japanese junior and senior high schools, to how teachers feel about teaching in English.

This literature review will focus on selected studies of a representative sample of the various issues affecting Japanese English education at secondary school, beginning with studies addressing the socio-cultural aspects of Japanese education which can affect the introduction of communicative English teaching studies and thus have an effect on the actual content of English classes. This is followed by a discussion of studies which focus on the interrelated effect of the issues highlighted in the previous section on the learner, which may result in demotivated students or students who do not like to study English.

A number of barriers prevent the successful introduction of nation-wide communicative language teaching in Japanese secondary schools. Some relate to socio-cultural aspects of Japanese education, and the English teacher. For example, issues related to the importance of social hierarchy, the nature of the curriculum and textbook, the focus on examination-driven instruction and time constraints were raised by Dimoski (2006). Along similar lines, Burrows (2008) highlights problematic socio-cultural barriers to introducing task-based learning (TBL), an offshoot of communicative language teaching (CLT), and which involves the setting of meaningful tasks in the target language. These barriers were seen to include the learning style of Japanese students, student and parent expectations and socio-cultural differences, all of which make it more difficult to introduce TBL into English classes in Japan. Furthermore, the difficulty teachers have in implementing CLT in Japan has been noted. In a longitudinal qualitative study of junior and senior high school teachers, Sakui (2004) found that in spite of MEXT directives to include CLT, grammar instruction remains the foremost focus of English instruction in order to prepare the students for high school and university entrance examinations. A quantitative study (N=139) by Nishino (2011) revealed that while high school teachers held positive beliefs about the inclusion of CLT in English classes, actual classroom practices indicated a gap between beliefs and practices. Moreover, Shimizu (1995) has commented that Assistant English Teachers (AETs) and Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) are treated differently by students, the

former being popular for game-like communication activities and the latter viewed as essential for formal language study and preparation for examinations. For issues related to socio-cultural aspects of the learning environment to be resolved with any success, they need to be understood by all concerned in the learning process, from MEXT to the educational institutions, teachers, parents and students.

Further issues in English education are the limited use of spoken English by the teacher, and the resulting limited use of spoken English by students in English classes, as well as the content of English textbooks used in secondary English classes. A MEXT survey conducted in non-international strand classes in 2007 indicated that the percentage of Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) who used spoken English for most of the class in senior high schools was reported to be between 20% and 27% in *Oral Communication I* and *II* and between a mere 0.5% and 1.5% in *Reading, Writing* and *English I and II* classes. In contrast, the equivalent percentages of spoken English use in international-strand classes were 47% to 51% (*Oral Communication classes*) and 4% to 10% (*Reading, Writing and English I and II* classes) (MEXT, 2008). Limited active use of spoken English was reported by students in *Oral Communication* classes at senior high school, around half the students spoke in Japanese rather than English (MEXT, 2008). In addition, Ogura (2008) found that ten of the textbooks used in *Oral Communication* classes at senior high school related mainly to strongly-structured communicative language practice, where students either read or simply replaced words and phrases in situational dialogues, whereas only 1% of the content focused on non-structured authentic communication in spoken English.

Furthermore, students are also unhappy with the content of English classes at secondary school. Studies by Kikuchi (2006) and Kikuchi and Browne (2009) reveal that many students feel that there is a gap between the *course of study guidelines* and the actual English lessons delivered in secondary schools. For example, according to the MEXT guidelines, the subject *English I* is required to focus on the four macro skills: reading, writing listening and speaking. In practice, however, the respondents in the questionnaire stated that the class in fact resembled a reading class only. Similarity, another class, *Oral Communication,* in spite of its title, also seemed to ignore the spoken communicative goals set by MEXT, focusing on reading skills instead (Kikuchi & Brown, 2009, p. 188). Thus, it appears clear that English subject names and their actual content do not necessarily align in

Japanese secondary schools, with the result that students may feel disillusioned with an English subject that does not match their expectations.

Disenchantment with the lesson content and teaching style of English classes at secondary school may lead to demotivation and a dislike of English study in students. Frequently cited demotivators are the grammar translation teaching method (Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Kikuchi, 2009), and the emphasis on teaching for examinations, rather than teaching for communication (Kikuchi, 2009). English is often considered important by students, but this does not always imply a liking of English as a subject in schools. Results in Rapley (2010) indicated that English was unpopular, and students wanted to learn English mainly in order to pass senior high school entrance exams. This was followed by a wish to accomplish active communicative speech acts such as greetings, self-introductions and talking about daily life. Writing emails in English and being knowledgeable about other cultures were ranked the lowest. In this study, 50% of participants thought they would need English skills for the future, while 20% did not. Similarly, a survey conducted by Benesse educational research and development institute (2011) found that English was disliked by 30% of junior high school students, and furthermore, 60% of the students thought they were poor at English. While Rapley's (2010) study and the Benesse survey (2011) provide interesting information on learning factors and classroom processes based on their quantitative results, a greater understanding of such factors and processes may be achieved by collecting more extended longitudinal data using open-ended items or interviews in different school settings.

Thus, students entering university, while appreciating the value of English in a globalizing world, often appear disenchanted or demotivated when it comes to English study, and many students in fact dislike English and /or have low confidence in their English skills. Focusing on the prior English experiences of first year university students, Falout and Maruyama (2004) found that both the teacher and the course content were sources of external demotivation for students with lower proficiency, moreover, this led to a loss of self-confidence, making English study even more of a challenge. Furthermore a causal relationship between students' past demotivation at secondary school and their present feelings about English was found. Studies such as Sawada (2003), point out that students lose motivation to learn English from as early as the second year of junior high school. Since these students have an additional five years of English study at secondary school

ahead of them, this is an issue which needs to be addressed at an early stage of English study. Once students become demotivated in class, a mindset and behaviours may emerge, including loss of self-confidence, sleeping in class, or refusing to take part in the class, which work against the student becoming motivated to study English once more. One consequence of the loss of motivation in the early years of formal English study may be the fact that demotivated students with low confidence and low interest in English are commonly present at the tertiary level, where an additional two years of English study is required.

The above discussion of issues in secondary English education in Japan highlights the interrelated nature of the L2 learning environment. There is a definite gap between, on the one hand, what the students would like to learn and what motivates them, as well as what and how MEXT would like the teachers to teach and the students to learn, and, on the other hand, what actually happens in the classroom. The teachers, students and parents, who aim for their students, themselves and their children, respectively to do well in entrance examinations, are unlikely to want to change the status quo, unless changes in the entrance examinations for senior high schools and universities also shift towards assessing communicative English skills. The present style of English education in senior high schools does not provide for students who do not intend to use English examination scores for university entrance, as examinations are not always the sole admission criteria, which may also include interviews, essays and recommendations. This type of English education does not cater for students who will not continue to tertiary education, nor is it successful in producing students with strong communicative English skills. A further MEXT directive, implemented in the 2013 fiscal year stating that 'classes, in principle, should be conducted in English in order to enhance the opportunities for students to be exposed to English (MEXT, 2011), is likely to be the subject of further research in the future. It would be of interest to compare such results to those of the survey conducted by MEXT in 2008 cited in the section above.

Thus English education in Japan remains, at upper-secondary level in particular, focused on teaching students the necessary English skills to pass the English examinations for university entrance rather than on teaching communicative language skills. Some students give up on learning English and become demotivated learners of English as early as Year 7,

often displaying a dislike of English; others lack confidence in their own English skills, while yet another group of students, even though they are able to follow the curriculum and obtain good results, feel that the purpose of learning English for examinations does not align with their expectation of learning English to communicate or for real-life applications.

Consequently, by the time students enter university, they may already have forged an opinion of English and English study which may either assist or hinder them in any subsequent attempts at studying the language. Students who enter university and participate in a study abroad program may therefore have prior experiences at secondary school which can affect their learning of English at tertiary level. The effect of a study abroad program at tertiary level, however, can only be fully understood if antecedents are taken into consideration and used as baseline data for the cohort. Thus, before commencing research focusing on study abroad at university, potentially a new chapter and turning point in the students' L2 acquisition, information on the students' English experiences at secondary school, and an identification of prototypes in a cohort of participants, can also assist in understanding, and possibly predicting, how their English study at university is likely to evolve.

2.2 Aim and research question

The aim of Study 1 was, first, to explore how participants recalled their English learning experiences in junior and senior high school English classes, prior to entering university and taking part in the study abroad program, and subsequently to use the results to construct learner trajectories and learner prototypes. As reviewed in Section 2.2 above, many issues exist in secondary English education in Japan. Thus, the central research question explored in Study 1 asks:

How do the participants evaluate their pre-university English learning experiences

2.3 Instruments and procedures

Study 1 employed a mixed methods approach, comprising a questionnaire consisting of open and closed items in the first phase, and semi-structured interviews conducted during the

second phase, six months after the students' return to Japan. The questionnaire data (N=43) used in this chapter were a part of a larger questionnaire, Questionnaire A. Questions in the questionnaire comprised single items, and asked participants about their impressions of, and feelings about, English classes at junior and senior high school. The actual items can be found above the relevant tables and figures in the results and discussion section.

English learning experiences prior to study abroad were discussed as part of semi-structured interviews conducted in Japan. Out of the 43 participants, 15 fifteen students were interviewed about their prior SLA experiences between July 2011 and February 2013. This was a retrospective study, which meant that participants were asked to comment and reflect on their past experiences of English in both the questionnaire and interview. (Please refer to Section 1.6 4 for interview protocol followed in Study 1, to Appendix H for the complete version of Questionnaire A, and to Appendix L for questions used in the semi-structured interviews.)

2.4 Results and discussion

In this section, data collected during the university students' first month of the study abroad program, and interview data obtained in the second year of study at university are discussed in relation to previous research, and placed within the Japanese socio-cultural setting. Please refer to Appendix P for further descriptive analysis results of items presented in Table 2.2, Table 2.3 and Table 2.4.

Supplementary education is a common experience for students in Japan. Cram schools, or *juku*, are educational facilities that provide extra tuition in all subjects including English; teachers at *juku* often go over the same content covered in daytime classes, and prepare students for school tests and entrance exams. Children may attend a *juku* from as early as elementary school. Home tutors offer the same type of education as a *juku*, with the difference that instruction takes place at the students' homes. Another type of after-school facility is the English conversation schools, or *eikaiwa,* focusing on teaching English for communication.

Supplementary education, or trips abroad, were possible sources of additional English experiences for the students, adding to their daytime English studies; thus, an item asking about whether the students experienced English study outside of school was included on Questionnaire A. Of the cohort, 19% learnt English at a *juku*, 4% from home tutors and at 4% at *eikaiwa* prior to entering university. As a result, positive or negative L2 experiences could have occurred in daytime classes or as part of supplementary education for 27% of the students. Of the cohort, 14% had travelled overseas. For 44% of cohort, the sole English experience prior to university related to the formal study of English in elementary or secondary schools.

The participants' impressions of English classes at junior high school and senior high school are presented in Table 2.1. (Details of Questionnaire A, part B can be found in Appendix H.) Participants were able to choose any of the options and/or add their own. None of the participants added any further comments to Questionnaire A.

Table 2.1 Students' overall impression of English classes at JHS and SHS (Percentage)

Overall impression of English	JHS	SHS
Interesting	*16.2%*	*18.6%*
Boring	*23.2%*	*25.5%*
Average	*39.5%*	*27.9%*
Easy to understand	*4.6%*	*16.2%*
Difficult to understand	*13.9%*	*16.2%*
Made me sleepy	*20.9%*	*20.9%*
Just right	*6.9%*	*6.9%*

The most striking result presented in Table 2.1 above is the fact that less than 20% of students described their English classes in junior and senior high school as *interesting*, a mere 16% in junior high school and a slightly larger 18% in senior high school, and only 7% described these classes as *just right*. Nearly 40% of participants indicated English classes were an *average* experience in junior high school, and 27% felt the same about English

classes in senior high school. For both junior high school and senior high school, over 20% of the students reported that *English was boring* and *made me sleepy*. Sleeping is a common 'switch off' response for students who feel that classes are boring or beyond their understanding. A study by Steger (2006) reported that teachers in Japan often accept this behaviour, as it is preferable to students being disruptive; the students say they sleep because classes are boring or teacher-centred. Furthermore, the author states that within Japanese society, *inemuri*, or sleeping in public places, is accepted in situations where one's presence is required, but active participation is not. Recently, concern is also increasing about students who continue to use their mobile phones in classes to play games or communicate with friends via LINE, an instant messaging application in Japan, or Facebook, rather than concentrate on the class itself. It is unfortunate to note, from the perspective of an English teacher, that responses such as *English classes were boring* or *made me sleepy* outweighed interest. Hence, it can be said that the participants' English experience at secondary school was generally average or nearly negative.

The results presented in Table 2.1 are very similar to the results presented by Rapley (2010) and the Benesse Survey (Benesse, 2011) reviewed in Section 2.2. As a means of explaining the current state of English education in Japan, Nakata (2013) argues that learning and teaching in the Japanese EFL school context is restricted in terms of curriculum by the textbook on the one hand and the focus on exam-based learning and assessment on the other. Furthermore, as the class size limit in Japanese schools is 40 students, the amount of time a teacher can devote to each student in terms of help or discipline is restricted.

How students judged their own English competence at secondary school is documented in Table 2.2a and 2.2b below, which summarises responses to the following items:

- I was not good at English at JHS (75)
- I was not good at English at SHS (76)
- Learning English is difficult for me (74)
- I have always found English easy to learn (77)

Table 2.2a Own perceptions of English study (Frequency)

Item(s)	Q	Frequency (%) for Likert scale items							
		SD	D	DS	Disagree Total	AS	A	SA	Agree Total
75	**A**	*14.2*	*14.2*	*4.7*	*33.1*	*4.7*	*9.5*	*52.3*	*66.5*
76	**A**	*7.1*	*16.7*	*0*	*23.8*	*16.7*	*16.7*	*42.9*	*76.3*
74	**A**	*4.8*	*9.5*	*4.8*	*19.1*	*28.6*	*14.3*	*38.1*	*81*
77	**A**	*21.4*	*14.3*	*26.2*	*61.9*	*16.7*	*9.5*	*9.5*	*35.7*

Note. One participant did not complete these items, and one did not complete item 77 so this table is based on the responses of 42 participants for items 74-76 and 41 for item 77.
Q: Questionnaire; SD: strongly disagree; D: disagree; DS: disagree slightly; AS: agree slightly; A: agree; SA: Strongly agree.

Table 2.2b Own perceptions of English study (Mean, SD and range)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
75	**A**	*4.38*	*2.01*	*1*	*6*	*5*
76	**A**	*4.48*	*1.72*	*1*	*6*	*5*
74	**A**	*4.52*	*1.51*	*1*	*6*	*5*
77	**A**	*3.07*	*1.56*	*1*	*6*	*5*

Note. SD=standard deviation

Even though some students had an initial interest in or liking for English, or found the classes enjoyable, and therefore were willing to study the subject, this experience was challenged as they progressed and found the subject harder to master. The range of responses in Table 2.2a and 2.2b also indicates the differences in opinion among the cohort regarding the difficulty of learning English. For some students, the challenge ignited further effort, whereas other students just gave up and seemed to lose confidence as their understanding of English and subsequent test results continued in a downward spiral.

More importantly, if students are not good at a subject they will lack self-confidence and self-esteem. Self-esteem and self-confidence are essential in order to build up L2 skills, as they are the foundations on which further study rests (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p.120). If the foundations are not solid, any subsequent study is built on a very unstable platform, which is far more likely to topple at a future point in the students' L2 experience.

Enjoyment of a school subject is likely to lead to students motivated to learn in that subject. Table 2.3 summarises the responses to the following items:

- I did not enjoy English at junior high school (82)
- I did not enjoy English at senior high school (87)
- I have never enjoyed learning English in the past (86)

Table 2.3a Lack of enjoyment of English at JHS, SHS, and in general (Frequency)

Item(s)	Q	Frequency (%) for Likert scale items							
		SD	D	DS	Disagree Total	AS	A	SA	Agree Total
82	A	*23.3*	*9.3*	*7.0*	*39.6*	*14*	*16.3*	*30.2*	*60.3*
87	A	*23.3*	*7*	*4.7*	*35*	*25.6*	*18.6*	*20.9*	*65.1*
86	A	*27.9*	*7*	*9.3*	*44.2*	*32.6*	*7*	*16.3*	*55.9*

Note. Q: Questionnaire; SD strongly disagree; D disagree; DS disagree slightly; AS agree slightly; A agree; SA Strongly agree.

Table 2.3b Lack of enjoyment of English at JHS, SHS, and in general (Mean, SD and range)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
82	**A**	*3.81*	*1.99*	*1*	*6*	*5*
87	**A**	*3.72*	*1.85*	*1*	*6*	*5*
86	**A**	*3.32*	*1.79*	*1*	*6*	*5*

Note. SD=standard deviation

Unfortunately, over half of the participants stated that they have never enjoyed English study in the past in Table 2.3a. In fact, 60% of the questionnaire participants did not enjoy English study at junior high school; and even more (65%) did not enjoy English at senior high school. Also highlighted in Table 2.3.a and Table 2.3.b is the polarized nature of the responses. Similar to the results in Table 2.2b, the opinions of the cohort as to whether learning English is enjoyable or not were sharply divided.

Quite often students dislike subjects they consider difficult, and subjects which focus less on written assessment tasks are more popular; for instance, physical education, art and music (Rapley, 2010). In English classes in Japan, the emphasis is on grammar, and being able to translate passages and give correct answers, rather than on learning to communicate and convey meaning. The Questionnaire A results presented in Table 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 and the interview excerpts that follow corroborated the results reported in Rapley (2010), showing why Japanese students do not generally rate English among their favourite subjects and as an enjoyable experience.

The interview data further supported results from Questionnaire A and provided students with the opportunity to voice their feelings about English at secondary school. A number of students reported 'being lost' or 'out of their depth' in high school English classes, and evaluated their proficiency as 'terrible', and some had even been in the bottom class for English. In addition, other students attributed their lack of English skills and dislike of the subject to the teacher, implying that if the teacher had been better, then their experiences in secondary English classes would have been more positive. In contrast, other students liked junior high school English and, as they realized they were good at the subject, grew to like it even more, while still other students believed that the challenge of learning English as it became more difficult was in fact responsible for raising their interest in the subject. One student commented that she had been terrible at English at junior high school, but she gradually improved her English language skills in senior high school due to attending cram school *(juku)*, foregrounding the effect of the supplementary schooling system that exists in Japan, and indicating how enjoyment of a subject can be brought about by a teacher.

In spite of the general lack of enjoyment of school English classes, there is an acceptance among Japanese people that English is an international language and an important subject at school. Table 2.4 summarises student responses to the following items:

- I think English is an international language and we should be able to speak it (21)
- Being fluent in a second language is to be a cultured person (22)
- Studying a foreign language is an important part of a person's overall education (23)

Table 2.4a English as an international language and English as a sign of being an educated and cultured person

Item(s)	Q	Frequency (%) for Likert scale items							
		SD	D	DS	Disagree Total	AS	A	SA	Agree Total
21	**A**	*0*	*0*	*4.6*	*4.6*	*2.1*	*16.2*	*74.4*	*92.7*
22	**A**	*2.3*	*16.2*	*20.9*	*39.4*	*16.2*	*23.2*	*20.9*	*60.3*
23	**A**	*4.6*	*0*	*11.6*	*16.2*	*13.9*	*37.2*	*32.5*	*83.6*

Note. Q: Questionnaire; SD strongly disagree; D disagree; DS disagree slightly; AS agree slightly; A agree; SA Strongly agree.

Table 2.4b English as an international language and English as a sign of being an educated and cultured person (Mean, SD and range)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
21	**A**	*5.58*	*0.85*	*3*	*6*	*3*
22	**A**	*4.04*	*1.47*	*1*	*6*	*5*
23	**A**	*4.76*	*1.28*	*1*	*6*	*5*

Note. SD=standard deviation

As Table 2.4a indicates, the overwhelming number of agree responses for items 21 and 23 in particular, seem to highlight the overall importance accorded to English skills among the Japanese university students at the beginning of the study abroad program. Closer agreement about *English being an international language* (item 21) among the cohort is also indicated

by the range of results in Table 2.4b, which differs from other items measured in this study. The results in Table 2.4a and Table 2.4b are similar to those found in other studies, such as Yoshida et al (2012, p.124), in which 76% of university students surveyed indicated that learning English is important for Japanese people.

Yet a positive belief in the value of English is not sufficient on its own to encourage a liking of English language classes taught at secondary school. If we consider the results presented in Tables 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, and 2.4 above, the belief that English is an international language and contributes toward being seen as a cultured and educated person in modern Japanese society does not necessarily mean that students liked or enjoyed English classes at secondary school, echoing the results in Rapley (2010). Consequently, believing that English is important does not necessarily imply that students enjoy English, but rather see learning the language as a necessary skill to be acquired by Japanese. Globalization has also resulted in a shift from intrinsic to extrinsic motivation when it comes to learning English worldwide (Ushioda, 2013b). Thus, the nature of the results in this study appear to indicate a similar extrinsic form of motivation related to expectations of young people within Japanese society as observed worldwide.

A strong motivating force in language learning is the combination of a positive human role model within a supportive socio-cultural environment. Parents can be an important motivating influence, in particular in the developmental stages of education (Dörnyei, 2001, 2011, p.30). The friendship group can also influence motivation. Three items (83, 84 and 85) in the main section of the questionnaire with a respective mean of result of 4.2 for friends, 2.1 for fathers and 1.8 for mothers, illustrate the relatively high impact of the peer group as role models, compared to that of parents in terms of English study among the participants in this study. While some students said in the interviews that one or both of their parents spoke English, many parents in fact were not role models for English study. Murphey and Arao (2001) have shown that near-peer role models can be motivating to students and increase their investment in language learning. Near-peer role models are defined as people with whom students are in frequent social contact, are near to the students in age, ethnicity, gender or interests and have shared similar past or present experiences.

Whether the perceptions regarding parents as role models for language learning will change in the future remains to be seen. This will partly depend on whether MEXT initiatives, including the latest Execution Plan for the Reform of English Education in Response to Globalization (MEXT, 2014) at the primary, secondary and tertiary level are successful in producing more confident and competent speakers of English. This in turn may lead to more parents able to use English in daily life in such a manner as to provide a positive role model for their children.

A final aim of the first study was the identification of learner prototypes among the participants at the commencement of tertiary study. This was achieved by analysing typical outcome patterns and signature dynamics among individuals. Understanding the development of different learner prototypes in L2 classes, and the acknowledgement that not all students will come to language classes with a positive attitude towards English study, can assist the manner in which educators in the new learning environment approach the teaching of the L2. Emerging from results of the questionnaire and interview analysis presented in Tables 2.1 to 2.4, at least four learner 'prototypes' could be identified among the students commencing the study abroad program at the university. The first prototype, the *confident/ positive experience prototype*, had started to enjoy English study more at secondary level, as they realized they were quite good at English or gained confidence in their own English skills. In contrast, the second prototype, the *low-self-confidence / negative experience prototype*, in the study had some negative 'baggage' that initially accompanied them on their study abroad experience. The third prototype, the *study abroad inspired prototype*, were interested in participating in the study abroad program, no matter whether their experiences at secondary school had been positive, negative or neutral. The fact that the students had chosen to enter this particular university seems to indicate for most an interest in study abroad, and through default, English, in all prototypes regardless of previous experience. Nevertheless, there were also some students in the present study who only completed the study abroad program because it was compulsory. These students comprise the fourth prototype, the *reluctant participant in the study abroad program prototype*. The degree to which students belonging to each prototype category were able to make use of the ten months in the United Kingdom, and to what extent and for how long negative experiences were overcome (or not) during study abroad seemed to depend on individual factors, as

discussed in further detail in the subsequent chapters.

2.5 Conclusion and preview

The aim of Study 1 was to investigate the prior learning experiences of participating students in order to provide baseline information about the participants and to identify learner prototypes. The findings revealed participants' mixed perceptions and experiences of English study in the past. Many young Japanese people were motivated to learn English by the sense that being a member of a global community required English skills. However, despite MEXT directives to improve the communicative competence of students in secondary schools, the continuing requirement to teach English to pass examinations, with a focus on grammar and reading comprehension, possibly contributed to the negative or average opinion of six years of English classes at secondary school expressed by half the participants in this study. As some students also commented on the fact that they could not speak English at the beginning of university, it is apparent that MEXT directives for the improvement of communicative skills had not been effective for these students. Many students also lacked confidence in their English skills. Furthermore, the results also indicated friends, rather than parents were generally seen as a motivating influence. The study was also able to identify four learner prototypes in relation to attitudes to English language study: positive, negative, and willing participant due to study involving travel abroad.

How students of each of the four prototypes approached English language study upon their return to Japan is the focus of the discussion in Chapters 4 and Chapter 5. The subsequent study, presented in Chapter 3, explores a number of key motivation constructs particularly relevant to the ten-month study abroad period, and discusses changes observed in the students during this experience.

Chapter 3

Study abroad for Japanese students: Changing motivation (Study 2)

Portfolio Outline Guide			
Chapters	**Timespan**		
	Phase 1 Prior to April 2010 Before SA (Japan)	**Phase 2** April 2011 to February 2011 During SA (UK)	**Phase 3** April 2011 to February 2013 After SA (Japan)
Chapter1: Portfolio Introduction			
Chapter 2: Pre-university study of English in Japan: Exploring L2 motivation prior to entering university (Study 1)			
Chapter 3: Study abroad for Japanese students: Changing motivation (Study 2)		◎	
Chapter 4: Studying English in the UK and Japan: Exploring the expectations and reality of English study abroad and at home (Study 3)			
Chapter 5: Individual journeys: A multiple-case study (Study 4)			
Chapter 6: Portfolio Conclusion			

現地の外国人と触れ合う機会があった。

I had opportunities to meet foreigners (Yuta)

買い物する時としても日常としても英語を使っている。

I could use English when shopping and for everyday conversation (Ryo)

3.1 Study context

Every year, a large number of university students across the globe leave their home countries to study abroad. In the case of Japan, five of the top ten most popular study abroad destinations in 2010 were in English speaking cultures, such as the USA, Canada and Australia (MEXT, 2012). Study abroad programs in English speaking countries at the university level in Japan offer L2 learners the opportunity to make use of, and build upon, the English language skills and cultural knowledge they have learnt in formal classes at secondary school or in supplementary schools for future use in their chosen careers, for travel or personal interest. During the study abroad program, the students are able not only to study English in a formal, classroom-based learning environment, but also to use English informally outside the classroom in the local community. In this way, it is assumed that students will be able to enhance their cultural awareness and language learning process during a stay abroad more easily than in a foreign language classroom. These benefits will enable students to interact more in English and to become more interested in the cultures of English speaking countries, which in turn will enhance their motivation to learn English.

L2 motivation is a fluid, multi-faceted and dynamic construct, influenced by the passage of time, and the environment in which language learning takes place. Consequently, it seems likely that variation in relation to the L2 motivation constructs, introduced in Chapter 1, will be observed during a study abroad period. Furthermore, the comparative ranking of

each type of motivation may also change during the time spent abroad. While on a study abroad program, students are able to 'live', rather than just 'imagine', the English learning experience; they can use English in everyday situations in the local community, for travel, to make friends and be active participants in authentic acts of communication while shopping, sightseeing, and on the homestay. Furthermore, students experience visual (written) and aural language input in the immediate learning environment, for example in menus, posters and announcements. This in turn is likely to awaken or enhance the students' *future selves* while also raising *integrative motivation* (Gardner & Lambert 1959, 1972), *international posture* (Yashima, 2002) and *willingness to communicate* (MacIntyre et al, 1998), some of the key, or 'rock', motivation constructs introduced in Chapter 1. Thus, study abroad programs seem to be able to provide an ideal English learning environment for Japanese university students.

While Study 1 explored Japanese first year university students' views and experiences of English study prior to commencing university and provided an overview of their past L2 experiences, Study 2 takes a further longitudinal step and examines L2 motivation of students at university level.

In this chapter, the review of literature focusing on the changing nature of motivation relevant to the research question addressed in the study is followed by the results of a small mixed methods study, designed to collect data towards answering the research question.

3.1.1 L2 motivation: Multi-dimensional and fluid

Our understanding of L2 motivation as a multi-dimensional and fluid phenomenon comprises a growing number of interrelated constructs, fifteen of which were introduced in Chapter 1 as the 'rocks' or key constructs of L2 motivation. Recent research in SLA continues to confirm that L2 motivation is not a simple universal cause-and-effect linear process, but rather a context-based, cyclical and dynamic process (Dörnyei, 2001, 2011). Individuals undertaking the study of foreign languages are exposed to a variety of motivational influences, both motivating or demotivating, throughout the L2 learning period. Furthermore, the relative strength of these influences also seems to undergo constant change (Johnson, 2013; Ushioda, 2001). Consequently, external influences, for

example changes in the learning environment, or internal influences, for example confidence gained by the learner from using the L2 in authentic situations, are likely to contribute to the dynamic profile of L2 motivation.

The literature review below focuses on the motivational constructs most likely to be influenced by a study abroad experience and briefly highlights relevant aspects of each construct. As this chapter intends to explore changes over time, the review concentrates on studies which incorporate a temporal exploration of L2 motivation in their design. The first section discusses *intrinsic*, *integrative and instrumental motivation*, based on Gardner and Lambert's socio-educational model (1959, 1972), and is further expanded by reviewing research undertaken in the following decades. This section also includes the hybrid type of motivation referred to as *English for personal use*. The second section focuses on the international aspect of learning English as a foreign language using the construct *International orientation or international posture*, put forward by Nakata (1995) and Yashima (2000). This section is followed by an exploration of the *L2 motivational self system* (Dörnyei, 2005) in a study abroad setting.

From the late 1950s onwards L2 motivation research was dominated by the socio-educational model developed by Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972).This model provides two orientations to L2 motivation: *integrative,* motivation to learn a language in order to integrate into the target culture and *instrumental*, motivation to use the language for a practical purpose. Despite waves of criticism since the 1990s, this model continues to evolve, and maintains strong support among researchers (MacIntyre, 2010). *Intrinsic motivation* and *extrinsic motivation* are also common terms in L2 motivation research. For learners who are intrinsically motivated, the activity itself is rewarding, whereas learners who are extrinsically motivated need an external reward (Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996). Schmidt et al (1996) note that most language learners are motivated by a combination of the above types of motivation. Furthermore, Deci and Ryan (1985) and Noels et al (2000) investigated intrinsic, integrative, instrumental and extrinsic motivation within the framework of self-determination theory and added further types of motivation, including *amotivation*. Thus, researchers continue to redefine and specify intrinsic, extrinsic, integrative and instrumental motivation. This set of terms is confusing, for practitioners, as noted by Brown (2007).

A number of studies have observed how intrinsic, integrative and instrumental motivation change in the Japanese EFL context. Koizumi and Matsuo (1993) found a decrease in intrinsic motivation after the initial interest in studying English at junior high school wore off. Instrumental motivation is high at secondary school as the need to prepare students for, and subsequently pass examinations, dominates English study. Yet this motivation disappears after entering university. Berwick and Ross (1989) found while the examination-based instrumental motivation disappeared upon entering university, by the end of first year of study, university students had developed an experiential dimension, defined as the appearance of a desire to study overseas and to broaden one's horizons through English. In a more recent study, Johnson (2013) documented changes in the L2 motivation of Japanese university students over two years. The results of this qualitative study showed that first year students appeared to be more motivated than second year students, mimicking the junior high school result in Koizumi and Matsuo (1993). Thus, first year students in this study are likely to be motivated learners of English, and, moreover, a budding experiential motivation is most likely to increase during a study abroad program, when opportunities to interact with locals in the L2 and to experience life within the culture first hand are provided by the university.

A large-scale study by Kimura, Nakata and Okumura (2001) found that aspects of integrative and instrumental orientation varied according to university major; students wishing to become English teachers or use English in their future careers were motivated by a combination of intrinsic, integrative and instrumental motives, while engineering majors were more likely to study English for extrinsic and instrumental reasons. Brown (2004) indicates that Japanese students lean towards external motivation due to the perceived impact of internationalization, and because English is considered necessary and useful for job hunting, while liking the language or the culture was not rated strongly as a reason. Brown concluded that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can result in successful language learning; however, students who were interested in the language tended to be more diligent at out-of-class study and so their achievement levels were higher (Brown, 2004, p.8). Consequently, different faculty majors in the student cohort may show different patterns of motivation, depending on their career destination upon graduation.

English for personal use is a type of motivation that is also commonly seen in Japanese students of English. This type of motivation does not quite fit into integrative, intrinsic, instrumental or extrinsic categories, and blurs the boundaries between them. Reading a book or surfing the Internet for information or enjoyment does not require communication with another party, nor is there any external pressure to succeed at the task. Yet there is a reward, personal satisfaction, but this reward is similar to intrinsic motivation. Focusing on adult international learners in the USA, Weger (2013, p. 13) found that English for personal use, private entertaining or enrichment purposes ranked second as a motivation factor to the utilitarian value of English.

As English has increasingly become an international language, researchers have begun to focus on English usage and L2 motivation. Two Japanese researchers, Nakata (1995, 1996) and Yashima (2000) found that a construct they have named respectively, *international orientation* and *international posture*, was a good fit for students studying English as an international language (EIL). As Nakata (2006, p.170) and Ryan (2009, p. 125) argue, *international orientation* may be a more appropriate way in which to study the English L2 motivation of Japanese students of English rather than the purely integrative motive proposed in Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972).Similarly (Yashima, 2002; 2009) argues that *international posture* influences motivation, which in turn influences English proficiency. The addition of this variable is a good fit for the Japanese EFL situation, as the status of English has become that of an international language, and it consequently mainly used as a tool of communication. Yashima (2002) found that international posture reflected the possible selves of a future English-using learner in an international community, and hypothesized a link between international posture, willingness to communicate, and language proficiency. In two further studies, Yashima (2009, 2013) reported a strong correlation between the *ideal L2 self* and international posture, motivation, and argued for a cyclic conceptualization of L2 motivation encompassing international posture and *willingness to communicate* respectively, supporting the notion of the multi-faceted nature of L2 motivation.

While not featuring a study abroad experience, an ongoing mixed methods study by Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) is examining the effect of intercultural contact on L2 motivation at both an international and a non-international university in Japan. The study confirmed that

international posture is apparently becoming a key motivator for Japanese university students, regardless of the learning environment. In other words, the study of the English language is no longer tied to English culture, but has become a communication resource for an 'international' global culture. It is this use of English as a communication resource in the global context, so they can be members of a global community (Ushioda, 2013b, p. 9), that appears to be motivating Japanese students to learn English, rather than learning English to become part of a specific English-speaking culture. Thus, placing too much emphasis on an intrinsic interest, or lack of interest, in learning about or living in English-speaking cultures, may give misleading results.

One of the most recent developments in L2 motivation research is the proposal of a new construct: the *L2 motivational self system*. The L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2005) has been widely applied in L2 motivation research worldwide. The system comprises three elements: *ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self* and the *learning situation*. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, pp. 83-84), an unclear and hazy future self cannot exert influence on L2 motivation. The ideal L2 self requires a self which is different from the present self, can be vividly imagined, has attainable but challenging goals, and has effective strategies. The ideal L2 self also needs to be 'switched on' regularly, and be counterbalanced by a feared self.

A number of researchers have investigated the L2 motivation self system in the Japanese EFL context (see for example Irie & Brewster, 2013; Munezune, 2013; Taguchi, 2013; Taguchi et al, 2009). An ongoing real-time longitudinal multiple-case study is currently being conducted in Japan by Irie and Brewster (2013). Focusing on the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005), preliminary findings confirm that the trajectory of SLA is non-linear and cannot be adequately understood in simple cause-effect relationships. Irie and Brewster (2013, p. 123) refer to the unpredictable effect of diverse variables affecting the nature of L2 motivation as the *butterfly effect*, referring to how difficult it is to predict whether events have a motivating or demotivating effect. The butterfly effect is also a characteristic of dynamic systems, and has been referred to as '… the sensitive dependence on initial conditions' (DeBot, Lowie & Verspoor , 2007, p. 15).

Initial results of the research by Irie and Brewster (2013) indicate that the years at university are a time for students to develop emerging identities as Japanese adults and to imagine their

future careers more vividly. *Experiential capital*, a term coined by Carroll (2009) for business managers to develop projects which not only increase tangible financial returns but also expand employees' experience, was identified as something that could be gained at earlier stages of their L2 experiences. Munezane (2013) focuses on the changes in the L2 motivation of Japanese university students studying science over six months. Echoing the results of Brewster and Ross (1989), this study found that student identities go through a transitional period from child to adult at university, and that a higher interest in international affairs, non-Japanese people and cultures, and careers using English (international posture) could predict a stronger ideal L2 self. At the same time, socially-constructed expectations, related to the ought-to L2 self, were also found to lead to a higher *international posture*, suggesting a link between the two constructs. The complex interactions of L2 selves in the Japanese EFL context were also commented on by Taguchi (2013).

The increase in studies focusing on the L2 motivational self system has resulted in a rising awareness that the relationship between the three components is highly complex, and is often mediated by temporal, social or environmental factors (Islam, Lamb & Chambers, 2013). Furthermore, the L2 motivational system has been shown to work in accord with different motivation constructs, signalling the dynamic complexity of L2 motivation. While the ideal and ought-to L2 self has been explored in a number of studies, the exploration of their initial and further changing formation rests within the third component of the L2 motivational self system, the L2 learning experience. The construction of the individual self is closely tied to both internal forces and prior learning experiences, where language learning has taken place within a community of practice (Miyahara, 2014, p.208). Highlighted is the necessity of taking into account the socio-cultural environment in which the students are learning English, and focusing on how the self is constructed and transformed during the L2 learning experience. Thus, the prior L2 experiences of the cohort presented in Chapter 1 can be a factor in the development of L2 motivation during a study abroad program. Revealing the complex nature of L2 motivation therefore requires multiple data sources, in particular qualitative data.

Links between motivation and study abroad have been found in a range of studies. Coleman (1995), for example, found shifts in motivation with significant changes occurring before, during and after residence abroad, and that psychological factors impact on the learning

process and affect motivation. In a later study, Coleman (1997) considered motivation in relation to study abroad to be subject to individual variation. According to Habu (2000), Japanese women were likely to study abroad for cultural reasons, such as being taught by native speakers, travel and a liking of the United Kingdom. A study of Irish university-level learners of Spanish during a lengthy in-country stay revealed both an increase in intrinsic motivation and an improvement in communicative competence (Singleton & Singleton, 1992). An overseas experience was shown to have a substantial impact on motivation and self-belief in Fukuchi and Sakamoto (2005), who also commented on the fact that there is a gap between learner needs and English language programs. Gardner (1985), Kanno (2003) and, Norton Peirce (1995) also investigated the links between lengthy stays abroad and L2 motivation. The results of these studies point towards the changing nature of L2 motivation, investment, and social identity among the participants in the study. *Investment* in L2 acquisition refers to the complex relationship between the language learners, the target language, power and social identity (Norton Peirce, 1995, p. 17). *Social identity* was seen as not something that belongs to the self, but rather is something that merges out of, and is shaped by, the learners' socio-cultural environment and context (Norton Peirce, 1995, p. 17).

In conclusion, the key point made by researchers undertaking longitudinal L2 motivation studies is the changing cyclic nature of L2 motivation, observed among both learners of foreign languages and, more specifically, Japanese learners of English. For example, even if initial intrinsic motivation is present in Japanese learners of English, this may slowly be supplemented by extrinsic, instrumental motivation or international posture as external goals, for example language tests or examinations, career opportunities or travel, related to English as an international language appear in the learner's environment. Furthermore, the ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self are also influenced and propelled by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Thus what has become clear is that learners of English in Japan are influenced by myriad factors which change according to an individual's past, current and future aspirations, social identity, and English-related self.

3.2 Aim and research question

This section reports on a small-scale longitudinal exploratory study focusing on first year Japanese students from a small, private liberal arts university. The students spent their first year at university studying abroad in the United Kingdom. This study employed a mixed methods research approach to examine temporal variation in L2 motivation related to key motivation constructs (as reviewed in Chapter 1) through the analysis of responses to questionnaires distributed at the beginning, middle and end of a ten-month study abroad program (N=43) in the first year of university study in the United Kingdom, and semi-structured interviews (N=15), conducted after the students returned to Japan for their second year of study at university.

The aim of this study was to explore how the L2 motivation of Japanese university students evolved and varied over the 10-month period spent in the United Kingdom. Drawing on research conducted in the research fields of L2 motivation and study abroad, the study sought to establish the comparative strength of each type of motivation and, furthermore, to chart the trajectory of changes in each type of motivation. The follow-up interviews in second year aimed to explain the quantitative data through the semi-structured interviews, where students were asked to recall their feelings about the study abroad in relation to the key constructs This study follows on from Study 1 in the previous chapter, in which the participants' prior learning experiences and feelings about English study at secondary school were discussed, echoing findings in the literature relating to the grammar and exam-focused nature of secondary education, which left many of the students with a less than positive view of English study and low confidence in their English skills. Considering the perceived benefits of study abroad, and the new study environment, the study reported in this chapter investigated how the L2 motivation of Japanese university students with low-to-mid level English skills evolved over the 10-month period spent in the United Kingdom. In particular, this study will examine the following research question:

> *How does participants' motivation to learn English change during a study abroad program in the United Kingdom?*

This study focused on the variation in types of L2 motivation while the students were staying at the custom built campus in the United Kingdom (hereafter referred to UKC) operated by the Japanese university. Prior to arriving in the United Kingdom, students may have imagined themselves informally engaging with the local students and population on a daily basis, but the nature of the 'sheltered' program places them in a classroom with fellow Japanese students, taught by native teachers of English and on a campus dominated by Japanese speakers.

In order to find the study abroad experience of their imagination, including interacting with locals and using English spontaneously, it is up to individual learners to venture outside the campus grounds. To facilitate this, students are encouraged to join circles and societies at a nearby university, and to participate in extra-curricular events such as volunteer activities or showcasing Japanese culture at local festivals. Participation in extra-curricular activities, however, is optional; consequently, there is a substantial degree of variation in participation in these activities among students.

In the United Kingdom the students' social and psychological friendship support systems are usually Japanese. In Japan, prior to leaving for the United Kingdom, students have a one-week orientation during which initial friendship groups are formed. These groups continue to evolve in the United Kingdom unless the students make an effort, or are able, to extend their friendship group to include non-Japanese.

3.3 Instruments and procedures

How students' L2 motivation, as measured by five key motivation constructs, varied during the ten-month study abroad program in the United Kingdom is the focus of Study 2. The study was designed using a two-phase mixed method approach. The first phase consisted of three questionnaires, (Questionnaire A, Questionnaire B, Questionnaire C), comprising both open and closed items, distributed at the beginning of the study abroad period (April 2010), the middle of the study abroad (September 2010) and at the end of the study abroad period (February 2011). Data collected during phase one were explained and complemented by qualitative data from semi-structured interviews conducted from July 2011, six months after

the students' return to Japan. During this second phase (N=15), students were asked to recall their experiences in the United Kingdom.

The full questionnaire comprised 87 statement items, presented in both English and Japanese with a 6-point Likert scale against each statement. Of the 87 items, 48 items were adapted for this study from motivation studies conducted in Japan by Ryan in 2005 and 2006, and Taguchi, Magid and Papi in 2006 and 2007. Both studies were strongly influenced by the work of Dörnyei (2003) and Dörnyei and his colleagues including Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), Dörnyei and Clement (2001), and Dörnyei and Csizér (2002). Ryan piloted the items thoroughly before the questionnaire was completed by 2397 participants from secondary and tertiary institutions (2009, p. 127). Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) conducted their study with university participants in Japan (N=1586), China (N=1328) and Iran (N=2029). Other items were adapted from Nakata (2006), Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) and Yashima (2009). As one aim of the present study was to gain a broad overall view of motivation concepts, some of the items on the original scales were deleted in order to reduce the overall length of the instrument. Items deleted were those not considered applicable for a study that included a study abroad setting and some wordings were changed slightly to fit this setting as well.

Participants were asked to rate each item on the questionnaire on a sliding scale of one to six, where 'one' equalled strongly disagree and 'six' strongly agree. The 6-point Likert scale was chosen to avoid the possibility of participants choosing the middle option by default. Of the 48 items, 35 were clustered into four key motivation constructs using existing scales. Above each table, there is a list of the individual items related to the construct represented by that table. The multiple item scales for each construct were tested for internal validity using Cronbach's alpha test. As all scales were relatively short (maximum of 5 items), the Cronbach's alpha was set at >.70. Item clusters with less than <.70 results were individually analysed. Continuing motivators and personal motivation comprised single items. (All questionnaires can be found in Appendix H to Appendix K.)

All students who participated in the study abroad program were initially invited to participate in the study. While 70 students returned the first questionnaire in April 2010, by the end of the study abroad program only 43 responses from the possible participant pool

were eligible for the stage one data analysis which comprised all three questionnaires collected during the study abroad period. By analysing all three questionnaires it was possible to obtain a trajectory of how the different types of motivation changed for the same cohort of students over the time period of the study. Quantitative data analysis, due to the small size of the sample, was restricted to the content for the open items and frequency for the closed items on the questionnaires. (Please refer to the limitations section in Chapter 6 for further details.)

Out of the 43 participants, 15 students were interviewed about their study abroad experiences in July 2011 and between July 2012 and February 2013. The interview data were digitally recorded and then transcribed and analysed for content.

Please refer to Section 1.6.3 and Section 1.6.4 respectively for a detailed description of the participants and setting and to Section 1.6 5 for questionnaire and interview protocol followed in Study 2.

3.4 Results and discussion

This section reports the results based on the questionnaire responses of 43 participants during their study abroad in the United Kingdom, and the interviews with 15 of the participants once they had returned to Japan. As will be shown in the following subsections, there were some changes to the following types of motivation: *motivating influences, integrative*, *intrinsic* and *instrumental motivation*, *English for personal use, the L2 motivational self system*, and *international posture.* These results will be discussed in relation to theories and relevant studies in the literature and situated within the current Japanese socio-cultural environment.

The results are divided into five main sections. The first section, focusing on *continuing motivating influences*, is a follow-up of the *initial motivating influences* discussed in Chapter 2. The second section discusses *intrinsic, integrative* and *instrumental* motivation. This section also includes the hybrid type of motivation referred to as *English for personal use.* The third section focuses on the international aspect of learning English as a foreign language using the construct *international orientation* (Nakata, 1995*)* or *international*

posture (Yashima, 2000). This section is followed by an exploration of changes in the *L2 motivational self system* (Dörnyei, 2005) in a study abroad setting. Please refer to Appendix P for further descriptive analysis results of items presented in Figure 3.1, Table 3.1, Table 3.2, Table 3.3, Table 3.4, and Table 3.5.

3.4.1 Continuing motivators

Continuing motivators were the focus of Part 3 of Questionnaires A, B and C (QA, QB, QC). In this part of each questionnaire, students commented on motivators that continued to influence them throughout the study abroad period. In each questionnaire, the statement '*I continue to be motivated to learn English because…*' was completed in relation to eight possible motivators. Students were asked to rate each motivator on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Students were also able to add their own motivating influences.

Changes in continuing motivating influences during the study abroad period are presented in Table 3.1.In Table 3.1 the motivators that continued to influence L2 learning throughout the study (and the related item numbers) are:

- English speaking friends (110)
- family who speak English (111)
- watching TV/movies in English (112)
- school and university (113)
- wanting to get good results on exams (114)
- job hunting possibilities (115)
- the English media and books/magazines in English (116)
- social expectations of (necessary for) young Japanese (117)

Table 3.1 Continuing motivators (Mean, SD and range)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
110	**A**	*3*	*1.81*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*3.35*	*1.76*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*3.41*	*1.56*	*1*	*6*	*5*
111	**A**	*2.2*	*1.49*	*1*	*6*	*3*
	B	*2.4*	*1.36*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*2.53*	*1.62*	*1*	*6*	*5*
112	**A**	*4.02*	*2.02*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*4.02*	*1.6*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.51*	*1.33*	*1*	*6*	*5*
113	**A**	*4.02*	*1.85*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*3.59*	*1.69*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.04*	*1.64*	*1*	*6*	*5*
114	**A**	*4.31*	*1.51*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*4*	*1.66*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.39*	*1.73*	*1*	*6*	*5*
115	**A**	*4.37*	*1.83*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*4.66*	*1.37*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*5.04*	*1.29*	*1*	*6*	*5*
116	**A**	*3.8*	*1.90*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*3.69*	*1.55*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.44*	*1.27*	*1*	*6*	*5*
117	**A**	*4.97*	*1.59*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*5.07*	*1.35*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*5.18*	*0.98*	*3*	*6*	*3*

Note. QA: N=35, QB: N=42, QC: N=43. SD=standard deviation. Due to the varying sample size, a Friedman test was not carried out.

As Table 3.1 above shows, as the study abroad period unfolded, variation could be observed among the measured items and the cohort. The belief that English is necessary for young Japanese (item 117) is the only item where increased agreement among the cohort can be observed by the end of the study abroad. The social expectations placed on young Japanese, and the possibilities of using English for job hunting indicating the belief that English skills will enhance job opportunities, continue to be the strongest motivating influences throughout the study abroad period. These results support the existence of the *ought-to-L2 self* discussed in Section 3.6.6 below, and reflect the pragmatic and utilitarian manner in which the Japanese students view English skills. The latter, indicating the motivating influence of possible future use and value of English, is related to both *goal setting theories* (Locke & Latham, 2002; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002) as well as the *ideal L2 self;* L2 motivation is stimulated by imagining a future self.

Watching TV and movies, relates to personal motivation, as discussed in further detail in Section 3.6.4 below; this became a stronger motivating influence towards the end of the study abroad program. Research has shown that students will be effective learners if they are active in the L2, independent of ability (Gardner, 1985). A study by Maynard (1997) further found that the *self-efficacy* of a learner can increase, for example, if they know just one song in the target language; this applies even to unmotivated students. Thus, if the activity is considered to be relevant to the self, then the possibility of harnessing motivating forces increases (Brophy, 1999, p.25).

Television programs or Internet-related writing activities could also foster the learners' sense of *self-relevancy* (Hasegawa, 2003, p.6). If indeed movies and music stimulate the students' interest in English, they are important learning tools, and could be more actively used in classes, and the number of related resources in the library and English centre at the university could be increased. Nevertheless, while watching English language movies subtitled in Japanese, or listening to songs in English do offer some language learning benefits, unless a conscious attempt is made by the students to improve their language skills, the positive effect of movies and music are diminished.

In terms of people as continuing motivators, the parental and peer influence on L2 motivation remained comparatively low throughout the study abroad period in comparison to the other motivators.

3.4.2 Integrative motivation

Whether students were being motivated to learn a language in order to integrate into the target culture was used to explore *integrative motivation.* This construct was divided into three sub-sections; items 1, 2, 3 and 4 were related to an interest in the English language, items 5, 6, 7 and 8 to an interest in the culture of English speaking countries and items 9, 10, 11 and 12 were related to the participants' attitude towards living and interacting with locals in English speaking cultures. The integrative motivation constructs and related items presented on Table 3.2a and Table 3.2b are listed below:

Interest in Language (Items 1-4):

- English doesn't interest me at all (reversed negative item) (1)
- I think learning English is interesting (2)
- I think English is an interesting language (3)
- I like English (4)

Interest in Culture (Items 5-8):

- I enjoy learning about English-speaking countries and cultures (5)
- I enjoy learning about the history and geography of English-speaking cultures (6)
- I enjoy learning about the people living in English-speaking cultures (7)
- I enjoy learning about the history and geography of English-speaking countries (8)

Interest in Integration (Items 9-12)

- I would like to live in an English-speaking country one day (9)
- I like native English speakers (10)
- I would like to take part in activities where English is the main language spoken by participants (11)
- I would like to be part of a cultural group in which English is spoken (12)

Table 3.2a Integrative motivation (Frequency)

Item(s)	Q	Frequency (%) for Likert scale items							
		SD	D	DS	Disagree Total	AS	A	SA	Agree Total
1-4	A	0	0	4.6	4.6	2	16.2	74.4	92.6
Language	B	6.9	0	2	8.9	9.3	9.3	72	90.6
	C	0	0	2	2	11.6	30.2	55	96.8
5-8	A	4.6	0	25.5	30.1	25.5	32.5	11.6	69.6
Culture	B	6.9	6.9	6.9	20.7	34.8	32.5	11.6	78.9
	C	2	4.6	11.6	18.2	37.2	27.9	16.2	81.3
9-12	A	2	0	23.2	25.2	23.2	30.2	20.9	74.3
Integration	B	4.6	0	13.9	18.5	23.2	41.8	16.2	81.2
	C	0	2	6.9	8.9	30.2	39.5	20.9	90.6

Note. Q: Questionnaire; SD strongly disagree; D disagree; DS disagree slightly; AS agree slightly; A agree; SA Strongly agree.

Table 3.2b Integrative motivation (Mean, SD, range, Cronbach's α and Friedman test)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
1-4 Language Cronbach's α: 0.84	**A**	*4.80*	*1.18*	*1.75*	*6*	*4.25*
	B	*4.64*	*1.33*	*1.19*	*6*	*4.81*
	C	*4.64*	*1.30*	*1.23*	*6*	*4.77*
Friedman test result for interest in language (items 1-4): x^2 =20.690, df=2, p=0.000						
5-8 Culture Cronbach's α:0.86	**A**	*4.43*	*1.13*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*4.36*	*1.11*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.45*	*1.14*	*1*	*6*	*5*
Friedman test result for interest in culture (items 5-8): x^2 =14.000, df=2, p=0.001						
9-12 Integration Cronbach's α:0.77	**A**	*4.73*	*1.09*	*1.75*	*6*	*4.25*
	B	*4.84*	*1.09*	*1.69*	*6*	*4.31*
	C	*4.90*	*1.06*	*1.61*	*6*	*4.39*
Friedman test result for interest in integration (items 9-12): x^2 =5.515, df=2, p=0.063						

Note. SD=standard deviation, χ^2 =Chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, p<0.05

The results presented in Table 3.1a and Table 3.1b above provide insights into the students' changing views and feelings about the English language and culture, and their interest in integrating with native speakers of English. One striking result of the frequency analysis presented in Table 3.1a above is that an interest and liking of English as a language rated the strongest (6) at the beginning of the study abroad and decreased by nearly 20% by the end of the study abroad program. This result is supported by a statistically significant change over the three time points as measured by the Friedman test. There are two possible explanations for these results. First of all, Japanese students of English may be heavily influenced by *images of study abroad* prior to actually living abroad, and imagine a *study abroad persona* and environment. This image may not actually match the reality; hence feelings of disappointment and disenchantment may affect L2 motivation in a negative manner. Furthermore, the 'novelty' factor of actually being in the United Kingdom can wear off over time. Many participants in the study, and students from the university whom

I have observed on other occasions while at UKC, mentioned a longing for Japan and Japanese food, and the latter, if considered a basic need, has the potential to affect every aspect of a stay abroad. It is actually not unusual for the students to make their own Japanese-style meals, or to seek out Japanese restaurants and supermarkets; in order to fulfil this need while in the United Kingdom. Lastly, the extended study abroad program on which this study is based is more likely to highlight this effect in comparison to research focusing on short-term study abroad programs of less than two months.

Table 3.2a and Table 3.2b also highlight that an interest in the English language outweighs an interest in the culture of the United Kingdom or integration with English speaking cultures overall. The integration item cluster provoked a stronger *agree response* than the items clustered in relation to the culture variable, possibly implying that students would like to live in a country where English is spoken, but according to the data in the table, this does not necessarily go hand-in-hand with an interest in the culture, history and geography of countries where English is spoken. A stronger interest in living in the countries where English is spoken is also indicated by the results from Questionnaire B and Questionnaire C. A dip for the culture item mean results, supported by a statistically significant difference across the data set by the Friedman test could be observed in the middle of the program. This dip is possibly due to students having a negative experience at the mid-point of the program, but overall the data indicate that participants reported a greater liking of the culture with fewer disparate opinions by the end of the study abroad program.

The semi-structured interviews added some insights to the information presented in Table 3.2a and Table 3.2b. A liking of, and interest in English was often related to being able to use it for communication, rather than a love of the language itself. Participants expressed a strong interest in communicating with people, showing their willingness to integrate with the local population. For these students, compared with the importance of using English for communication, English grammar and linguistics take a backseat. Participants who wanted to become teachers of English did express a greater interest in the language itself, than in its use as a tool for communication. This suggests that the future career choice of university students and English use in that career also has the potential to influence the L2 motivation type. This implies there is a need to vary L2 motivational support by teachers and institutions according to career choice.

Some participants limit their liking to English speaking cultures while others want to communicate with all foreigners and learn many languages. The following opinions expressed during the semi-structured interviews show how the participants felt about the English language, and English-speaking cultures and countries.

> In America since I was young. I like Hollywood movies ずっと好きだった (I have always liked), especially *Sister Act*. I want to speak English and listening (*sic)* English for my future (Chie, Interview 1, July 2011, original in English and Japanese, translation in parenthesis by researcher).

> 正直言うと英語大苦手なんて正直言うとやりたくなかったけど２ヵ月ぐらいしたらなれて、多少楽しく感じられるようになりました。一番最初本当にしゃべられなかった、外人とコミュニケーション取れなかったんですけど、勉強しているうちに時々バドミントンとか友達とサッカーをやったり、現地の外国人と触れ合う機会があって，そのとき片言ですけど、英語でしゃべれたのがよかったと思うし、それで少しやる気も出ました。
>
> Truthfully, I am really bad at English, to tell the truth, I didn't want to do English, but after about two months felt it became a little enjoyable. At first I really couldn't talk, communicate with foreigners, but as I continued to study and sometimes played badminton and soccer with friends and had the chance to interact with locals, from that time I could use English to communicate, even though it was just by stringing together words. I thought it was good to be able to speak English and through that also got a bit motivated (Yu, Interview 1, July 2011, original in Japanese, translated by researcher).

Wanting to communicate with other people or travel were also frequently mentioned reasons by other participants for being interested in English. More often than not, these participants would also express a dislike of grammar and teacher-centred, textbook- based approaches to learning, often because they found learning English at secondary school difficult and because it brought back a negative memory of these English classes. Being able to communicate in everyday activities, a feature of both *integrative* and *utilitarian motivation*, motivated the students in this study and provided a suitable L2 environment for *willingness to communicate* to flourish.

Other participants simply expressed a liking for English, with no particular reason given and a moderate interest in the cultures and countries. At the opposite extreme, as shown by the second comment above, there were also students who initially lacked interest in English as a language and culture. Moreover, at the beginning of the study abroad program, their self-perceived ability in English was low. Yet the outlook of even this type of student became more positive as the participant improved their communicative English skills and their language confidence grew, leading to increased instances of communicating with locals. For these participants, just going shopping and using their improved language skills was sufficient to make them feel happy with themselves. Other participants were quite happy to have enough English skills to get by, but did also feel a need to improve their TOEIC scores.

The above distribution of results is supported by observations in class that students seemed to know very little about the actual history and geography of England or other countries that they visited during the study abroad program. Overall, it can be observed from this data that through the study abroad, the participants' interest in culture and integration increased slightly compared to the beginning of the program, but that an interest in English as a language consistently outweighs both. As Table 3.2 in the next section will show, however, this interest in English is strongly related to external benefits or requirements, as well as personal use of English.

3.4.3 Instrumental motivation

High *instrumental motivation* implies that participants are motivated to learn English for an external benefit or requirement, such as finding a job or graduating from university. Dörnyei (2005, p.70) also refers to this as the practical or utilitarian dimension of L2 motivation. Table 3.2 presents results for two types of instrumental motivation: study related and career related.

- If a foreign language was not a required course I would not study English (13)
- If I had the choice I would prefer to study other subjects than English (14)
- I need a foreign language to graduate (15)
- I want to try and find a job using English (16)
- I have to improve my TOEIC EIKEN etc. score so I can get a job in a particular industry (17)
- I need English to find a job (18)
- English is a requirement for the job I want to do (19)
- I think English will be useful for my career in the future (20)

Table 3.3a Instrumental motivation (Frequency)

Item(s)	Q	Frequency (%) for Likert scale items							
		SD	D	DS	Disagree Total	AS	A	SA	Agree Total
13-14	A	39.5	20.9	25.5	85.9	6.9	4.6	2	13.5
University Requirement	B	27.9	16.2	32.5	76.6	11.6	6.9	4.6	23.1
	C	32.5	32.5	20.9	85.9	6.9	6.9	0	13.8
15	A	2	0	11.6	13.6	20.9	18.6	46.5	86
Graduation Requirement	B	6.9	4.6	4.6	16.1	20.9	16.2	46.5	83.6
	C	2	4.6	4.6	11.2	16.2	32.5	39.5	88.2
16-20	A	0	2	13.9	15.9	25.5	27.9	30.2	83.6
Useful or required for career	B	2	2	11.6	15.6	20.9	32.5	30.2	83.6
	C	0	2	6.9	8.9	20.9	39.5	30.2	90.6

Note. Questionnaire; SD: strongly disagree; D: disagree; DS: disagree slightly; AS: agree slightly; A: agree; SA: Strongly agree. Items 13 and 14 were negatively worded items and results were reversed.

Table 3.3b Instrumental motivation (Mean, SD, range, Cronbach's α and Friedman test)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
13-14 University requirement Cronbach's α: 0.79	**A**	*2.40*	*1.35*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*2.43*	*1.32*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.42*	*1.33*	*1*	*6*	*5*
Friedman test result for university requirement (items 13 and 14): x^2 =4.667, df=2, p=0.097						
15 Graduation requirement	**A**	*4.95*	*1.17*	*2*	*6*	*4*
	B	*4.74*	*1.54*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.9*	*1.25*	*1*	*6*	*5*
Friedman test result for graduation requirement (items 15): x^2 =.218, df=2, p=0.897						
16-20 Useful or required for career Cronbach's α: 0.85	**A**	*4.99*	*1.00*	*2.20*	*6*	*3.80*
	B	*5.04*	*0.99*	*2.24*	*6*	*3.76*
	C	*5.03*	*1.00*	*2.09*	*6*	*3.91*
Friedman test result for useful or required for career (items 16-20): x^2 =.369, df=2, p=0.832						

Note. SD=standard deviation, χ^2 =Chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, p<0.05

Table 3.3a and Table 3.3b show the overwhelming, and expected response related to the utilitarian value of English study for its career enhancing possibilities. The fact that English would be useful or required for their careers appeared to be a strong, uniform and unwavering incentive to study English, and the lack of statistically significant change over the ten-month period is also supported by the result of the Friedman test. An exception is the result of one participant, who gave a minimum response of 1 (strongly disagree) for items 16-20 in Questionnaire B. This particular participant in the education faculty lost confidence in her English ability halfway through the study abroad and in fact recorded negative scores for most items in Questionnaire B. As she wants to become a teacher of English, this loss of confidence directly affected her job prospects. In this participant's case, the study abroad experience during the time Questionnaires A and C were completed was

positive, and she seemed confident, but at the time she responded to the second questionnaire, her experience with the study abroad and her own progress were negative. These results show the importance of a longitudinal approach to SLA research and the non-linear nature of L2 development, in this case affected by a seemingly internal change in the learner's confidence.

The high-level value placed on English as a job-hunting tool in Japan was illustrated in the interviews. A female participant (Ayumi) commented that English study is important for her in terms of its value for job-hunting and work only, and that she would not study English for any other reason. Other comments further highlight the career-fuelled L2 motivation among the cohort, such as the following comments:
'… if I couldn't speak English, 選択の幅は狭くなる(my (job) choices become narrower)' (Chie, Interview 1, July 2011, original in English and Japanese, translation in parenthesis by researcher) and '…it is great to know English, for self and work … it is connected' (Sachi, Interview 1, 2011, original in English).

The responses related to English as a graduation requirement remained quite stable over the study abroad period. Japanese students are likely to be externally motivated in this item because English language classes are compulsory for the first two years of study, comprising a graduation requirement of eight credit points towards their degree.

English as a means to improve career options rated higher in terms of 'strongly agree responses' than interest in the culture or integration. A possible interpretation of these results is that Japanese students want to use English for work or social purposes. The results presented above echo Koiso (2003), who also concluded that the appeal of English is its status as a lingua franca, and Fryer (2012a, 2012b) whose studies also found the tendency for Japanese students to value English for its career enhancing possibilities over integrative orientations.

In general, the results presented in Tables 3.2a and b, and Tables 3.3a and 3.3b above confirm that 'in country' study enhances L2 motivation. A study by Brown (2004) shows similar results for a Japanese group. This in effect means that study abroad can lead to increased integrative motivation for some participants, but even participation in a ten-month

study abroad program did not dilute the strength of utilitarian motivation when it came to learning English. It seems English, as it is being studied around the world now as an international language, is much less likely to trigger an interest in the language and culture for its own sake.

3.4.4 English for personal use

The following paragraphs discuss a type of motivation that is also commonly seen in Japanese students of English, namely *English for personal use*. This construct does not quite align with either integrative, intrinsic or instrumental orientations *per se,* blurring the boundaries between orientations, as there is sometimes neither a need to communicate with real people nor any external pressure or reward to be successful in obtaining English skills. The part of the questionnaire related to this construct was composed of items designed to indicate whether participants wanted to use English exclusively for their own benefit. Table 3.3 records frequency results for items clustered under English for personal use over the course of the study abroad program. These items included:

- I want to read English books, magazines etc. (29)
- I want to understand song lyrics in English (30)
- I want to use the Internet in English (31)
- I want to watch/listen to the news/movies in English without relying on subtitles (32)

Table 3.4a English for personal use (Frequency)

Item(s)	Q	Frequency (%) for Likert scale items							
		SD	D	DS	Disagree total	AS	A	SA	Agree Total
29	A	2.3	2.3	14	18.6	16.3	20.9	44.2	81.4
Reading	B	4.6	2	11.6	18.2	13.9	20.9	46.5	81.3
	C	0	0	4.6	4.6	20.9	16.2	58.1	95.2
30	A	0	2.3	4.7	7.1	11.6	11.6	69.8	93
Music	B	4.6	0	0	4.6	11.6	13.9	69.7	95.2
	C	0	0	0	0	9.3	30.2	60.4	99.9
31	A	7	4.7	16.3	28	32.6	14	25.6	72.2
Internet	B	4.6	2	16.2	22.8	16.2	18.6	39.5	74.3
	C	2.6	2	11.6	16.2	23.2	18.6	41.8	83.6
32	A	2.3	0	7	9.3	7	7	76.7	90.7
Watch TV and films	B	4.6	0	0	4.6	9.3	11.6	74.4	95.3
	C	0	0	4.6	4.6	16.2	20.9	58	95.1
Combined	A	2	0	9.3	11.3	27.9	34.8	23.2	85.9
29-32	B	4.6	0	4.6	9.2	13.9	48.8	27.9	90.6
	C	0	0	4.6	4.6	25.5	34.8	34.8	95.1

Note. Q: Questionnaire; SD strongly disagree; D disagree; DS disagree slightly; AS agree slightly; A agree; SA Strongly agree

Table 3.4b English for personal use (Mean, SD, range and Friedman test)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
29	**A**	*4.83*	*1.32*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*4.93*	*1.36*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*5.27*	*0.95*	*3*	*6*	*3*
Friedman test result for reading (item 29): x^2 =4.54, df=2, p=0.103						
30	**A**	*5.41*	*1.02*	*2*	*6*	*5*
	B	*5.39*	*1.19*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*5.51*	*0.66*	*4*	*6*	*2*
Friedman test result for music (item 30): x^2 =1.342, df=2, p=0.511						
31	**A**	*4.18*	*1.46*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*4.60*	*1.46*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.79*	*1.30*	*1*	*6*	*5*
Friedman test result for Internet (item 31): x^2 =8.589, df=2, p=0.014						
32	**A**	*5.46*	*1.14*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*5.46*	*1.18*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*5.32*	*0.91*	*3*	*6*	*3*
Friedman test result for TV and films (item 32): x^2 =4.301, df=2, p=0.116						
Combined 29-32	**A**	*4.97*	*1.00*	*1.5*	*6*	*4.50*
	B	*5.09*	*1.09*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*5.22*	*0.74*	*3.5*	*6*	*2.50*
Friedman test result for combined personal motivation (items 29-32): x^2 =5.752, df=2, p=0.056						

Note. SD=standard deviation, χ^2 =Chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, p<0.05

Application of the Friedman test indicates that there are some statistically significant changes in the questionnaire series for item 31 only. The combined result for changes over the three time points indicate a change close to statistically significant. Overall, the results

presented in Table 3.4a and 3.4b above seem to indicate that the Japanese students are very motivated to learn English for personal goals, for example wanting to watch movies without subtitles and understanding English lyrics. Furthermore, their interest in using English for personal reasons became more pronounced throughout the study abroad period. The results in this section also indicate that by the time Questionnaire C was administered at the end of the study abroad period, all participants believed that they wanted to use English for personal purposes. Interestingly, the Internet ranked the lowest of the four items measured, yet many students commented that they used Facebook in a later questionnaire. Comments in the interviews indicate that using the Internet as a platform for communication was preferable to using the Internet for study purposes, which may account for the low popularity of the Internet in this section.

It is a possibility that socio-geographical isolation from English speakers, and English speaking countries, may not have a detrimental effect on students motivated to learn English for the reasons given in Table 3.4. It is not clear here whether these results are due to an increased interest in English during study abroad or if this newly acquired type of L2 motivation would be maintained once the students return to Japan. If the students' language learning goals also include meaningful communication with non-Japanese speakers, then movies and music alone will not provide an adequate or satisfying means of studying English.

3.4.5 International posture

English has become the international language over the past 100 years and it is possible to communicate and interact with people from many different backgrounds, both with those who use English as a first language, and those who have learnt English as or second or foreign language. In this study, *international posture*, a cluster of five items, was one of the highest rated constructs in this study. In Questionnaire A, as in Questionnaire B, a small number of participants indicated disagreement, but they also changed to positive responses by Questionnaire C. The results for international posture related to the following items:

- I like using English to talk to people from different cultures (24)
- It is useful for international travel (25)
- If I spoke English well , I could get to know many people from other countries (26)
- I want to communicate with non-Japanese speaking friends in English (27)

- Studying English will broaden my world view (28)

Table 3.5a International posture (Frequency)

Items	Q	Frequency (%) for Likert scale items							
		SD	D	DS	Disagree Total	SA	A	AS	Agree Total
24-28	A	0	2	2	4	16.2	58.1	20.9	95.2
	B	2	2	2	6	20.9	46.5	25.5	92.9
	C	0	0	2	2	18.6	55.8	23.2	97.6

Note. Q: Questionnaire; SD strongly disagree; D disagree; DS disagree slightly; AS agree slightly; A agree; SA Strongly agree

Table 3.5b International Posture (Mean, SD, range, Cronbach's α and Friedman test)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
24-28	**A**	*5.31*	*0.74*	*2.60*	*6*	*3.40*
Cronbach's α: 0.84	**B**	*5.43*	*0.73*	*2.52*	*6*	*3.48*
	C	*5.38*	*0.78*	*2.42*	*6*	*3.58*

Friedman test result for *international posture* (items 24 to 28): x^2 =21.591, df=2, p=0.000

Note. SD=standard deviation, χ^2 =Chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, p<0.05

While it is acknowledged that the disagree responses in Table 3.5a for items 24 to 28 could have been the result of a simple mistake, the same participant as introduced in the previous section also chose the 'strongly disagree' option, as did a student who was planning to study in the UK after completing the study abroad program. Both participants chose 'agree' or 'agree strongly' options in Questionnaires A and C. In general, students who indicated participation in various out-of-class activities in Part 4 Questionnaire C, suggesting they had the motivation and confidence to be open to new experiences during the study abroad, also appeared to record a positive response in international posture. Enabling a more nuanced reading of the frequency results in Table 3.5a, Table 3.5b seems to indicate the uniform

nature of this construct with a comparatively low standard deviation result. Application of the Friedman test indicates a statistically significant change in the questionnaire series for international posture over the three measured points in time.

3.4.6 The L2 motivational self system

The L2 motivational self-system, introduced in *The Psychology of the Language Learner* (Dörnyei, 2005) is made up of three dimensions; the *ideal L2 self*, the *ought-to L2 self*, and the *learning environment*. The rationale behind including the motivational self-system in this study was to ascertain whether the students could come closer to envisioning stronger ideal L2 selves as their language skills improved during the study abroad. Table 3.5 below presents the results of how the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self changed over the study abroad period. The items clustered under this construct are:

- I can see myself using English in various situations abroad (63)
- If I get the job I want, I will speak English effectively (64)
- I will need English in the future as a global citizen (65)
- I often imagine myself to be someone who can communicate well in English (67)
- I can see myself using English in the future (68)
- I am learning English because it is expected of me by people around me (69)
- I will be more respected if I speak English (70)
- Not speaking English will have a negative impact on my life (71)
- I consider English important as people I respect think it is (72)
- I am learning English because people around me think that it is important (73)

Table 3.6 Motivational L2 self (Frequency)

Item(s)	Q	Frequency (%) for Likert scale items							
		SD	D	DS	Disagree Total	SA	A	AS	Agree Total
63-68	A	0	11.9	19	30.9	28.5	30.9	9.5	68.9
Ideal L2 self	B	7.1	9.5	23.8	40.4	33.3	23.8	2.3	59.4
	C	4.6	2	20.9	27.5	37.2	25.5	9.3	72
69-73	A	9.5	28.5	23.8	61.8	30.9	4.7	2.3	37.9
Ought to L2 self	B	6.9	30.2	23.2	60.3	30.2	9.3	0	39.5
	C	11.6	11.6	37.2	60.4	27.9	6.9	4.6	39.4

Note. Q: Questionnaire; SD strongly disagree; D disagree; DS disagree slightly; AS agree slightly; A agree; SA Strongly agree. Three participants did not complete all responses for Ideal L2 self (N=40). Two participants did not complete all items related to ought-to L2 self (N=41)

Table 3.6b Motivational L2 self (Mean, SD, range, Cronbach's α and Friedman test)

Item(s)	Q	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Range
63-68 Ideal L2 self Cronbach's α: 0.88	**A**	*4.46*	*1.13*	*2*	*6*	*4*
	B	*4.14*	*1.18*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	C	*4.29*	*.97*	*1.90*	*5.73*	*3.83*
Friedman test result for *Ideal L2 self* (items 63 -68): x^2 =3.597, df=2, p=0.166						
69-73 Ought-to L2 self Cronbach's α: 0.77	**A**	*3.33*	*1.17*	*1*	*6*	*5*
	B	*3.45*	*1.09*	*1.60*	*5.80*	*4.20*
	C	*3.50*	*1.30*	*1*	*6*	*5*
Friedman test result for Ought-to L2 self (items 69-73): x^2 =.204, df=2, p=0.903						

Note. SD=standard deviation, χ^2 =Chi-square, df=degrees of freedom, p<0.05

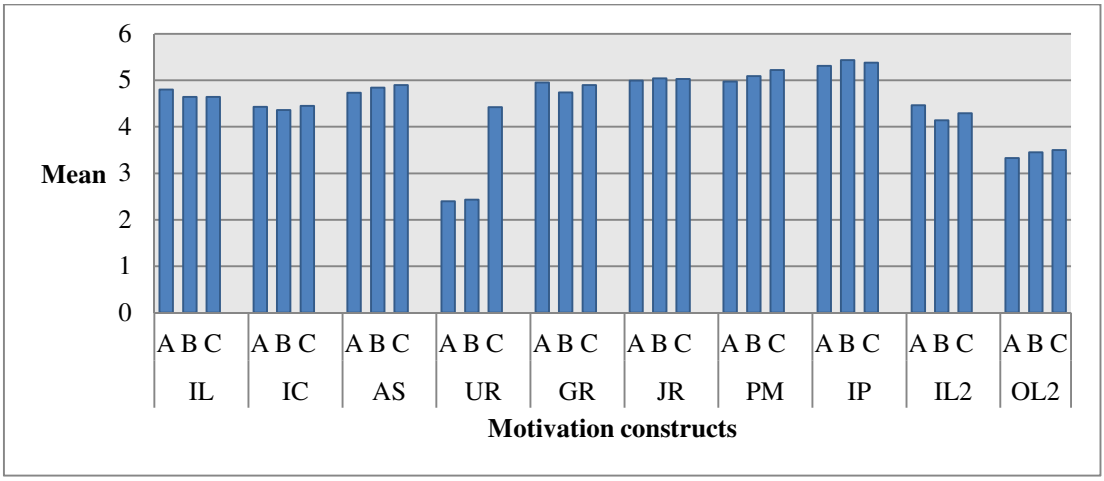
Table 3.6a and Table 3.6b reveal two interesting results. The first is the changing nature of the ideal L2 self as calculated by mean and frequency. However, the Friedman test result did not suggest a statistically significant change. The second one is the stability of the ought-to L2 self. While the ideal L2 self result for total agree responses is one of the lowest results for constructs discussed in this chapter, the data presented in Table 3.6a indicate that the study abroad program had an overall positive effect on the students in terms of visualizing a stronger ideal L2 self by the end of the time abroad. A mid-study abroad decrease in 'agree' responses and the mean could again be observed for the ideal L2 self. Comments in the interview included a participant who said she liked imagining things, so could imagine living in the USA or United Kingdom in five years' time. Many comments brought to light the emerging career-focused identities of students at the time of the interviews. These are discussed in further detail in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5.

Table 3.6a and Table 3.6b also show that the ought-to self does not seem to be as pronounced as the ideal L2 self for this group of participants, but appears to be stable. Losing respect or being worried about what others will think if they cannot speak English did not seem to be a concern for the students. This is not entirely surprising, as it is quite possible to live in Japan without having to speak English, especially if living in the countryside. It is only when interacting with foreigners in Japan or internationally through business or for pleasure, that not knowing English would result in less respect. On the other hand, learning English to be a member of the global community also appears to be associated with the ought-to L2 self, so it appears that diverse manifestations of the ought toL2 self may exist.

One motivating factor of the study abroad program related to the ought-to L2 self, which was not included on the original questionnaire items, came to light during the interviews. Participation in the study abroad program incurs an additional fee for accommodation, food and airfares. Even though parents are likely to pay a similar amount to support the students if they live away from home in Japan, some participants were extremely conscious of the fact that their parents paid this extra amount, and thus felt obliged to improve their English skills during the study abroad program in order to show gratitude to their parents. Considering that parents also usually pay for university tuition in Japan, it is interesting that a sense of obligation did not affect the students to the same degree for the remaining three years of study at university.

3.5 Implications

Two implications for L2 motivation are highlighted by the results presented in this study. First, the changes, in particular the dips recorded in the middle of the study abroad program in some constructs for the frequency, if not all mean results, support the need for longitudinal qualitative studies in SLA. Figure 3.1a and Figure 3.1b below provide a unified overview of 'mean' results for the ten constructs presented in the sections above.



Key: IL: Interest in language; IC: Interest in culture; AS: Attitude toward speakers; UR: University requirement; GR: Graduation requirement; JR: Job requirement/useful for career; PM: English for personal use; IP: International posture; IL2: Ideal L2 self; OL2: Ought-to L2 self

Figure 3.1 Overview of changes in key constructs (Mean)

While it is difficult to pinpoint the exact event which caused the dips in a number of the constructs, they can be interpreted as an example of the *butterfly effect*, where one event has a ripple effect within an individual's L2 environment. Identifying a list of these events may be a future direction for L2 research. Furthermore, although all students experienced the same study abroad program, a range of responses consistently occur in the Likert scale frequency results. Thus, further qualitative studies, using for example regular online interviews while students are abroad, may shed more light on these changes in L2 motivation.

Secondly, international posture and English for personal use, followed by English for career purposes were the three highest rated L2 motivation constructs for this cohort of

students during the study abroad period. Maintaining L2 motivation in Japan may thus require the continuing evolution of these three constructs. It is likely, however, that the study abroad environment provided ideal conditions for international posture to flourish. The challenge, therefore, is how to sustain a key motivation type whose strength as a motivating influence is likely to have peaked in first year for this cohort.

3.6 Conclusion and preview

Changes in participants' L2 motivation in relation to ten key motivation constructs have been presented in this study. These changes, as analysed by frequency of response, could be observed throughout the study abroad period; they confirm the importance of longitudinal research in SLA. English *the language* was seen as being more important than any cultural ties or interest in communicating with locals throughout the study abroad, although a heightened interest in English-speaking cultures and integrating with the community could be observed over the ten months. Overall results indicate that the study of English as a foreign language among the participants is mainly driven by motivation that is extrinsic or utilitarian in nature, due to the international importance of English as a *lingua franca*, and its value as a communication tool. International posture was confirmed as a possible key L2 motivation construct. Furthermore, thinking of English skills as a gateway to understanding movies and songs in the original was also identified as a key L2 motivation construct among this group of students.

The two components of the L2 motivational self system explored in this study showed that the ideal L2 self appeared to be a stronger self than the ought-to L2 self as measured by the items used in this study. The evolution of the ideal L2 self during the study abroad led to the formation of the career oriented future self, further discussed in Chapter 4.

The quantitative data in this study were based on a small sample, limiting data analysis to a study of the frequency of responses, mean results and Friedman test. Nevertheless, the combination of questionnaire and interview data offered some insights into changes in L2 motivation over the ten months the students spent in the United Kingdom.

Study abroad is seen as an effective means to improve communicative English skills and to learn about the culture through interactions with the local community. Participants, when asked to comment further on the study abroad in general in the interviews, explained that their preconceptions about study abroad, and the reality of the experience, differed. In particular, the 'little Japan' campus atmosphere, coupled with the difficulty in making non-Japanese friends and interacting with the local community affected satisfaction, and thus the value of the study abroad experience. These issues are discussed further in Chapter 4, which focuses on student expectations prior to study abroad, experienced realities during the time abroad, and the effect of another turning point in English language studies for the cohort: the return to Japan.