



MACQUARIE
University

Short-term and Long-term Experiences of Study Abroad in Australia

Presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for Master of Research
in Applied Linguistics at Macquarie University, Sydney Australia

By

Yeong Ju Lee (M.A)

Department of Linguistics

Faculty of Human Science

Macquarie University

May, 2019

Table of Contents

Figures and Tables.....	iv
Abstract.....	v
Statement of Authenticity.....	vi
Acknowledgements	vii
Chapter 1. Introduction.....	1
1.1 Personal Statement	1
1.2 Study Overview.....	2
Chapter 2. Literature Review	4
2.1 Definitions and Dimensions of Study Abroad	4
2.2 Program Duration.....	6
2.2.1 Shorter programs: Study tours.....	7
2.2.2 Longer programs: International education	8
2.3 Study Abroad and Motivation.....	9
2.3.1 Motivational fluctuations in the context of study abroad.....	10
2.4 Motivation and Interactions	12
2.4.1 Qualitative research on motivation and interactions	14
2.5 Summary	15
Chapter 3. Theoretical Framework of Motivation	17
3.1 Theoretical Framework	17
3.1.1 Complex Dynamic Systems Theory.....	19
3.1.2 Directed Motivational Current	21
3.2 Summary	23
Chapter 4. Methodology	24
4.1 Research Design.....	24
4.1.1 Methodological approach: Narrative inquiry	26
4.1.1.1 <i>Analysis of narratives</i>	26
4.1.1.2 <i>Triangulation of multiple data sources</i>	27
4.2 Setting and Participants.....	28
4.3 Data Collection.....	30
4.3.1 Interviews	32
4.3.2 Journals.....	34
4.3.3 Classroom observations.....	35
4.4 Data Analysis	36
4.4.1 Thematic analysis	37

4.4.2 Qualitative computing: NVivo	38
4.5 Summary	40
Chapter 5. Findings	41
5.1 Differences in the Outcomes of Short-term and Long-term Study Abroad Experiences.....	42
5.1.1 Fluctuations of motivation.....	42
5.1.2 Interactions within or beyond the program	45
5.2 Motivational Factors	49
5.2.1 Beliefs about English learning: Reasons to learn English.....	50
5.2.2 Purposes and goals for study abroad	53
5.2.3 Expectations toward study abroad: Future selves	59
5.2.4 Previous learning experiences of study and travel abroad	63
5.3 Motivation over the Course of Interactions	66
5.3.1 Impacts of motivation on the types of interactions	66
5.3.2 Responsive actions to the limited learning opportunities.....	69
5.4 Summary	74
Chapter 6. Discussion	76
6.1 Complex Dynamic Systems in the Context of Study Abroad.....	76
6.2 The Dynamic Nature of Motivation.....	78
6.3 Interdependent Relationship between Motivation and Interactions.....	80
6.4 Summary	82
Chapter 7. Conclusion	83
7.1 Contributions.....	83
7.2 Limitations	85
7.3 Suggestions for Future Research.....	85
References	87
Appendices.....	99
Appendix A. Ethics Approval Letter	99
Appendix B. Recruitment Advertisement	100
Appendix C. Consent Forms – Students/Teachers.....	101
Appendix D. Interview Protocol – English/Korean	103
Appendix E. Journal Narrative Frame – English/Korean	109
Appendix F. Classroom Observation Protocol.....	113
Appendix G. Short-term Students’ Self-narrated Interactions in Learning Activities	114
Appendix H. Long-term Students’ Self-narrated Interactions in Learning Activities	115

Figures and Tables

Figure 4.1 Three Levels of Analysis of Narratives.....	26
Figure 4.2 Stages of Thematic Analysis.....	36
Figure 4.3 Case Classification.....	39
Figure 4.4 Matrix Coding Query (Example 1).....	39
Figure 4.5 Matrix Coding Query (Example 2).....	40
Figure 5.1 Fluctuations of Linguistic Motivation.....	42
Figure 5.2 Formation of Students' Beliefs.....	50
Figure 5.3 Changes in Long-term Students' Beliefs.....	52
Figure 5.4 Effect of Linguistic and Touristic Purposes on Motivation.....	58
Figure 5.5 Conceptualisation of 'Communication'.....	60
Figure 5.6 Development of Learning Expectation: Future Selves.....	62
Figure 5.7 Students' Self-defined Learning Contexts.....	67
Table 4.1 Participants' Background Information.....	29
Table 4.2 Data Collection Schedule.....	31
Table 5.1 Short-term Students' Reasons for Study Abroad Participation.....	54
Table 5.2 Long-term Students' Reasons for Study Abroad Participation.....	56
Table 5.3 Participants' Background of Previous Overseas Experience.....	63
Table 5.4 Classroom Observation Data (Example 1).....	70
Table 5.5 Classroom Observation Data (Example 2).....	71

Abstract

This study investigates language learning experiences of study abroad (SA) through a comparison between students of short-term and long-term programs in Australia. The study aims to examine how the programs influence their motivation, how their motivation influences their interactions with host nationals and integration into host communities, and how their motivation changes over the course of social interactions. Five students from short-term and another five students from long-term programs participated in this study over an eight-week period (a four-week period for each group). The study adopted narrative inquiry as a qualitative methodology, and utilised multiple data sources: interviews, journals, and classroom observations. Narratives were firstly collected from interviews and journals; secondly, compared against each source and with observational data; and lastly, synthesised into individual cases. The data were thematically analysed using NVivo, based on the theoretical framework of Complex Dynamic Systems Theory refined with Directed Motivational Current from a person-in-context perspective. This analysis procedure identified and categorised key motivational factors and behavioural patterns of motivation between the groups. The findings show that the participants' language learning experiences varied between the two programs, due to their motivation which led them to engage in different learning opportunities of social interactions. The findings also reveal that although the program features influenced their motivation to a certain degree, they had their own dynamics of motivation and complexities of social interactions even in the same program. This study therefore provides insights into the understanding of the dynamics of motivation in language learning experiences of SA.

Statement of Authenticity

I declare that this thesis entitled “Short-term and Long-term Experiences of Study Abroad in Australia” has not been submitted for any degree at any other university. I also declare that the thesis is an original piece of research written by me. The sources of information and literature used are all indicated in this thesis. Ethical approval from Macquarie University Human Science Subcommittee was obtained on 12th October, 2018.

(Reference number: 5201835024710)

Candidate: Yeong Ju Lee (Student ID: 44274823)

Signature of Candidate: *Yeong Ju Lee*

Date: 20th May, 2019

Acknowledgements

This thesis would not have been possible without the invaluable support and guidance from my supervisor, Professor Philip Benson. His constant words of encouragement kept me centred in a positive state of mind throughout the whole research journey. I am also thankful for Associate Director, Sandra Pitronaci and Senior Teacher, Philip Radmall, for their crucial contributions to the research process. Special appreciation goes to the teachers who enabled the classroom observations, and undoubtedly, to all the students who contributed to this research with their time and experiences. I would like to also wholeheartedly thank my parents who have unconditionally supported me along the way, and continue to believe in me, as I pursue my dream.

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Personal Statement

I have always been fascinated by the pursuit of language learning, and more specifically by individual differences in learning between learners. Being a second language learner, I was curious to understand the fundamental differences between the learners who vastly improve their English abilities after study abroad (SA), and the learners who made virtually no improvements even after SA, based on my observations at school. I was intrigued to understand what happened to individual learners when they were exposed to the context of SA. This interest led me on a journey of self-discovery where I began to reflect on the nature of SA experiences; that is, how learners interact with components of SA, and how they behave in these interactions.

As a consequence, I began investigating motivation as the source of interactions in the SA context, relating my personal feelings back to my own experiences. I had experienced both short-term and long-term SA programs which I interacted with in different ways. My experience with short-term SA in the Philippines served as a motivational catalyst influencing my decision to partake in SA again in the future; whereas long-term SA in Canada contributed more to my linguistic and intercultural development, as I was able to interact with my homestay family and local friends, and to learn about new cultures. After this long-term SA, I returned to Canada where I attended another short-term study tour program during my university studies. During this program, I was not able to improve linguistic abilities as much as I had been able to in the previous long-term SA. Nonetheless, I built confidence and independence which motivated me to participate in another SA, and which has now brought me to Australia.

The differences in the outcomes of my experiences ignited an interest for program features, as I had experienced their different ramifications first hand. For this reason, I became interested in studying the SA context, and specifically, the influences of the SA context on learners' motivation for language learning. I also realised the importance of researching the lasting effects of both short-term and long-term SA programs on motivation, as they seemed to have impacts on future SA experiences. This caused me to reflect on the diverse factors which influenced my motivation, such as parental influences, cultural experiences, personal interests and learning career. These factors, mustered throughout time in multiple settings, fostered changes in my motivation during my learning career, leading to a realisation of the importance of complex dynamic aspects of motivation.

With this research project, I wanted to obtain more insight into how language learners' motivation influences their SA experiences. I would hope that the research process would not only be beneficial to me, but also contribute to the understanding of individual differences of SA experiences and outcomes, and thus provide suggestions to assist future SA participants' learning.

1.2 Study Overview

The purpose of this study is to understand language learners' SA experiences through an investigation of their motivation, and a comparison between students of short-term and long-term programs. The study focuses on how the program features influence the participants' motivation, how their motivation influences their social interactions with host nationals and integration into the host community, and how their motivation changes over the course of interactions.

The thesis comprises seven chapters. Chapter 1 provides the context for the personal interest of the present study in investigating language learners' motivation in the context of

SA, and the objectives of the study. Chapter 2 reviews extant literature associated with the main research areas of motivation and outcomes of SA experiences. Based on the literature, Chapter 3 introduces the theoretical framework of motivation regarded as being specifically applicable to this study. Chapter 4 explains the research design and methodology adopted for this study, including the background of the participants, instruments used for data collection, and approach to data analysis. Chapter 5 presents the findings of the data analysis; and Chapter 6 further examines the findings based on the theoretical framework. Chapter 7 concludes with the contributions and limitations of this study, as well as suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

This chapter reviews the literature associated with the main research areas of this study. Section 2.1 identifies the definitions and dimensions of SA, which differentiate SA programs into shorter and longer terms. Section 2.2 justifies the significance of varying SA duration based on the specific aspects of program features rather than the duration itself. Section 2.3 links SA with motivation, by explaining the importance of investigating motivation in understanding individual differences of SA experiences and outcomes. Section 2.4 presents a relationship between motivation and social interactions, highlighting the importance of qualitative research. Section 2.5 identifies the research gaps, and concludes with the research questions posed.

2.1 Definitions and Dimensions of Study Abroad

In a comprehensive review of research, SA is defined as “a temporary sojourn of pre-defined duration, undertaken for educational purposes” (Kinging, 2009, p. 11). This definition differentiates SA from migration (temporary vs. permanent) and tourism (education vs. leisure); however, these differences are not always clear in practice (Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott, & Brown, 2013). For example, SA overlaps with migration when students move to another country for higher education without specific plans to return home (e.g. international postgraduate students in Australia: Groves, Verenikina, & Chen, 2016). It also overlaps with tourism when students participate in language learning programs which involve cultural tourism activities (e.g. a French learning program in New Caledonia for Australians: de Saint-Léger & Mullan, 2018), or when they travel overseas to improve language skills without signing up for formal programs (e.g. Spanish tourists, learning languages while travelling: Goethals, 2015). In these respects, migration might not be a permanent movement, and tourism may also involve language learning.

In practice, therefore, SA is situated in the spectrum of migration and tourism, and this position highlights the role of educational travel in global mobility (Benson et al., 2013). Murphy-Lejeune (2002) refers to SA as a temporary form of migration, introducing the European model of ‘student mobility’ or ‘residence abroad’ in which students benefit from experiences of living abroad in terms of language learning. Larzén-Östermark (2011) emphasises that experiences of residence abroad enhance students’ capability of living in different linguistic and cultural environments. This capability is often linked to their career prospects, as potential employers will be interested in what skills they achieved from SA (Trooboff, Vande Berg, & Rayman, 2008). However, Nerlich (2016) observes the growth of short-term ‘non-award mobility’ or ‘credit mobility’ – the terms used in relation to EU exchange programs – in which students enrol in SA programs for better employability; although the programs that they study do not result in the qualification of completing courses, they may accrue credit points. In this sense, SA is increasingly being viewed as a highly valued experience for students, inducing different types of SA programs to be designed.

Given this overview, Benson et al. (2013) propose dimensions of SA program variation which include: the educational level, organisation, learning opportunities, and purposes, in addition to the duration. These dimensions imply that although SA programs are often regarded differently from each other mainly based on their duration, differentiating program duration involves far more than dividing them into shorter or longer groups (i.e. from a few weeks to several years). SA programs serve students in different levels of education (i.e. from primary school to tertiary courses); have their own modes of organisations, in which they are designed (e.g. educational institutions, or sometimes participants themselves); offer diverse learning opportunities to help students to integrate into host communities or interact with host nationals; and aim for certain purposes. These purposes typically include education; nonetheless, the nature of educational goals may be

subject to dynamic interpretation. This means that even when the main purposes of SA are associated with improving language skills, programs can also involve opportunities to develop personal competence (e.g. self-reliance, self-confidence, maturity, or problem-solving ability), intercultural competence (e.g. mindfulness or flexibility toward different cultures), and academic competence (e.g. obtaining academic qualifications or credits) (Larzén-Östermark, 2011; Starr-Glass, 2016). Furthermore, if the designed purposes of programs are different to those of the participants, they may treat them less serious than the program's stakeholders do, which could result in less immersive learning experiences and ineffective learning outcomes (Goldoni, 2013).

It is thus clear that varying duration is not merely a matter of categorising programs into shorter or longer groups, but of understanding them within the context of specific combinations of the program dimensions. In particular, participants' purposes or goals count for a great deal in SA experiences. For this reason, Benson et al. (2013) emphasise that participants are the ultimate agents who determine their learning and even the nature of their programs within the frame of the dimensions organised by stakeholders. To understand SA experiences, therefore, it is necessary to focus on the duration as it clusters with other program features, as well as the individual participants.

2.2 Program Duration

The effects of varying SA duration on linguistic and non-linguistic benefits have been the focus in numerous studies which have proved the assumption, "more is better" (Dwyer, 2010, p. 151). Davidson (2007) claims, in his synthesis of research, that the development of linguistic and cultural competences is unlikely to occur for programs of less than six weeks. However, Dwyer's (2010) review of longitudinal studies about the impacts of motivation on non-linguistic outcomes reports that students in six-week programs had more impactful interactions with host nationals, although those in full-year programs showed the most

changes. She explains that this result is due to their intense motivation to achieve their goals within a shorter time. These inconclusive findings suggest the importance of examining what kinds of learning shorter and longer programs can realistically foster, considering that learning outcomes may also vary in the cases of long-term durations (de Saint-Léger & Mullan, 2018).

2.2.1 Shorter programs: Study tours

Beyond the drawback that short-term SA or ‘study tours’ are not long enough to make changes in linguistic and non-linguistic competences, they are criticised due to the way in which they are organised or designed (Douglass, 2007; Kinginger, 2008). For Allen (2010b), “the traditional configuration of ‘sheltered’ programs wherein students are grouped together” often isolates students from host communities (p. 453). She insists that this group orientation can result in ineffective learning opportunities arising from superficial contact with host cultures and inadequate language practice. Goldoni (2013) is also concerned that students’ recreation mentality may be derived from courses offered abroad that are academically less rigorous than those at home universities.

Despite such criticism, short-term SA of less than one semester is becoming popular among students, due to its intensive courses between semesters which provide a fast-track to their degrees (de Saint-Léger & Mullan, 2018). In fact, recent studies on short-term programs have presented their significant oral proficiency gains (Allen & Herron, 2003), personal benefits (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2009), and long-term motivational impacts on continuation of learning, travel abroad, and attending another SA (Galipeau-Konate, 2014; Ingram, 2005). Lee (2009) also observed valuable experiences from 15 student teachers, who deepened independence, self-reflectiveness, and awareness of different cultures through pre-organised fieldworks, homestay and excursions, during a six-week English course in Auckland. In addition, in de Saint-Léger and Mullan's (2018) study, 13 Australian students declared that

pre-organised tours provided daily opportunities for interacting with host cultures during a two-week intensive French learning program in New Caledonia.

These findings show that the important factor is “not the length of the stay but the organisation and learning objectives of the program that contribute to students’ learning” (de Saint-Léger & Mullan, 2018, p. 294). As Chieffo and Griffiths (2009) specify, therefore, even over shorter time, structured learning opportunities with host nationals and cultures, organised by the program, can ensure meaningful interactions.

2.2.2 Longer programs: International education

Long-term SA programs – those longer than one semester – are often referred to as ‘international education’ involving ‘student exchange’ (Starr-Glass, 2016). Studies on international education have insisted that students, immersed into the target language and host cultures for longer than one semester, are motivated to voluntarily seek language learning opportunities (Sasaki, 2011). However, recent studies have identified challenges for international students, which negatively affect their motivation, and result in less effective outcomes than those of short-term programs. Benzie (2010) argues, in her research on international postgraduates in Australia, that they have insufficient language skills at the start, but often fail to improve them due to the burdens of making connections with host nationals, forming friendships, and obtaining tertiary qualifications at the same time. Similarly, Yates and Wahid (2013) narrate the experiences of 10 international students in Australia, who expressed difficulties in achieving what they had expected, such as socially integrating into the host community and linguistically enriching their experiences. Groves et al.'s (2016) investigation on five male Saudi Arabians’ social interactions also presented limitations toward creating affordances to negotiate social roles when situated in less powerful positions, such as talking with their children’s teachers or immigration officers. In addition, Trice

(2007) points out that many international students suffer from loneliness and depression due to social exclusion.

These findings suggest that how SA participants integrate into the host community and interact with host nationals can influence their motivation, which will in turn facilitate or hinder their learning during stay (Allen, 2013; Kinginger, 2013; Rochecouste & Oliver, 2014). In this respect, there needs to be more focus on the nature of learning engagement and the motivational factors which constitute social interactions, to understand SA experiences. In short, the extent to which shorter or longer programs can foster language learning needs to be compared in the investigation of SA experiences (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2009); not to focus on the duration itself, but to focus on the learning opportunities offered by the programs.

2.3 Study Abroad and Motivation

Language learning outcomes of SA are typically attributed to enhanced learning opportunities from authentic interactions with native speakers (NSs). This dominant belief emphasises the significance of substantial ‘immersion’ with the target language which is simply unavailable in ‘at-home’ contexts (Gore, 2005). Furthermore, Allen (2010a) note that the research comparing language learning outcomes between students abroad and their peers at-home often highlights that SA offers successful or life-transforming experiences.

Despite these benefits, it is striking that students’ SA experiences and outcomes vary (Kinger, 2009), which has been shown in numerous studies to be influenced by motivational factors. Kinginger's (2008) case study of six Americans in France reports that some students limited their time spent with NSs in favour of using their own language with peers, which can be interpreted as being related to a lesser degree of motivation. Similarly, Benson et al. (2013, p. 128) narrate different stories of two Hong Kong students who participated in the same framework of programs in Australia and UK, identifying

motivational factors such as previous experiences, goals and expectations, which influenced their personal feelings toward English learning and shaped their motivation to interact with locals. Furthermore, in Menard-Warwick's (2004) study, two Latin American immigrants in California described their experiences of gender-related discrimination, which reduced their motivation to actively interact with host nationals. However, in Benson's (2012) case study, a Hong Kong student in Australia maintained considerable communication with her homestay family, because of incidences of sexual harassment she experienced in town and difficulties in interacting with NSs on campus, from which Benson concludes that “her agency came into play in response to the limited opportunities for interaction” (p. 234).

By showing individual learners' different behavioural responses in the same program or similar situations, these findings suggest that the ways in which individuals interpret shared contextual factors of SA can be influenced by reflective internal psychological depositions (Benson, 2012). In this respect, how individuals experience language learning is largely related to individuality, which is shaped by motivational factors and projected as motivated learning behaviours in social interactions. For these reasons, ‘motivation’ is of paramount importance which invariably causes individual differences in outcomes of SA experiences, and thus is an important issue to investigate in research on language learning in SA.

2.3.1 Motivational fluctuations in the context of study abroad

Investigating language learners' motivation and their motivated learning behaviours in the context of SA has attracted considerable attention for three main reasons. Firstly, SA is a critical change for learners in a language learning environment, in which their routines are temporarily modified or even replaced by new routines (Kashiwa & Benson, 2017). This environmental change can greatly impact the level of motivation, initiating a motivational force which energises their learning by providing excitement about new experiences (Muir &

Dörnyei, 2013), although it might be a different story for those who have never been abroad or have little anticipation of doing so (Ryan & Mercer, 2011). While adjusting to new routines, furthermore, learners invest their time to learn new patterns of living and using a language through the course of social interactions, in which they “analyse social dimensions of interactions” to fit into unfamiliar cultural practices or to select appropriate forms (Holmes & Riddiford, 2011, p. 377). This ‘investment’ in socialisation – a metaphor of Norton (2010) defining the extent to which learners’ motivational agency leads to social interactions – consolidates their motivation and shapes the types of motivated learning behaviours that will be presented in other interactions (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Lee, 2014).

Given this impact of environmental change on motivation, secondly, SA represents a clear starting point which encourages learners to commit to the goals created in advance (Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir, 2014; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). Within the SA context, learners carry out goal-oriented actions to find learning opportunities and resources relevant to their goals. In Allen's (2010a) study with six Americans in France, students whose purposes were related to linguistic goals made considerable effort in pursuing specific French learning opportunities, such as communicating with the host mother, listening to NSs’ conversations, and reading French magazines. However, those with pragmatic purposes, such as travel, abandoned their initial linguistic goals and spent less time interacting in French. This finding suggests that learners’ goals direct their effort towards goal-related opportunities, excluding irrelevant actions, which motivates them to search for strategies to facilitate goal-related actions in the context of SA (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013).

Lastly, through SA, the fluctuation of ‘motivational dynamics’ are observed, representing the motivational states whereby multiple factors are influencing each other, which thus are always changeable within an ongoing system (Waninge, Dörnyei, & de Bot,

2014). In detail, learners' imagined future selves which they wish to present in the host community are reinforced or modified in the SA context, as they develop specific motivated learning behaviours in the course of interactions (Alharbi, 2017; Dörnyei et al., 2014). Irie and Ryan (2014) investigated the role of SA context in motivation and self-concepts among Japanese students abroad (n=19). They observed that students sustained their language learning motivation by reorganising themselves, after removing unrealistic initial anticipations in response to components of SA, and deciding how to approach learning (evidently individuals' responses were diverse). This result implies that although individuals' future selves can be challenged by the need for achieving new or modified ones to adjust to unfamiliar components of SA, their motivation becomes stable after engaging in learning. This stability, in fact, has been observed in some studies to demonstrate a capacity for the conceptualisation of a structured sequence of motivated learning behaviours (Alharbi, 2017; Waninge et al., 2014).

Given these reasons, SA experiences involve consequences of individuals' attempts and efforts to engage in interactive learning opportunities. The evidence of this can be viewed in their social interactions, derived from their motivation for learning (García-Nieto, 2018). The engagement in learning can thus be defined by the cluster of motivational factors that learners bring, and modify in response to the context of SA, as a precursor to certain interactional patterns. Therefore, it would be of interest to gain more insight into the ways they interact with host nationals, cultures and communities, so as to examine the motivation which guides the ways in which they interact with the SA components.

2.4 Motivation and Interactions

In socially oriented SA research, learner's interactions have been examined in an effort to comprehend individual differences in motivated learning behaviours. Kinginger (2011) observes that studies have examined the amount of time students spend with NSs,

adopting quantitative research methods. The findings show that the longer time they spent, the better outcomes they showed, emphasising the significance of motivating students to interact with NSs. Although the assumption that immersion with the target language ensures effective learning still remains, they have brought the ‘quantity’ and ‘quality’ of immersion into question. Isabelli-García (2006) examined the role of social interactions in speaking performance of four students in Argentina, and found positive effects of motivation on their interactions, using quantitative data derived from Simulated Oral Proficiency Interviews (SOPI), to ‘measure’ the quality of interactions. Similarly, Hernández (2010a, 2010b) investigated the relationship among motivation, interaction, and oral proficiency with 20 students in Spain, by using questionnaire, SOPI, and Language Contact Profile (LCP). Although the study found that students who had most contact with NSs developed their speaking abilities more than those with less contact, it still focused on the total ‘amount’ of interactions. Due to its main focus on the quantity of interactions, such earlier work has been criticised by studies that have discovered an absence of correlation between time spent and linguistic gains (e.g. Ginsberg & Miller, 2000; Magnan & Back, 2007). In addition, some studies have considered the relevance of near-peers (Magnan & Back, 2007) and learning English as a Lingua Franca (Kalocsai, 2014; Kimura, 2019), providing insight that SA may be about more than negotiating access merely to NSs and thus, expanding the focus of research beyond Native-speakerism.

These findings suggest that “it is not the context that promotes various types of learning but rather, the nature of the interaction, the quality of the experience, and the efforts made to use L2 that render one context superior to another” (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004, p. 298). In this respect, SA is not perceived as an experience salient to individual differences in oral proficiency, but as the experience subject to individuals’ interactions.

Therefore, it is necessary to examine the quality of interactions through qualitative research, to better understand ‘who they meet’ and ‘what they do with them’ (Coleman, 2013, 2015).

2.4.1 Qualitative research on motivation and interactions

García-Nieto (2018) observes that qualitative research on language learners’ SA experiences has explored individual differences in their social interactions, based on ethnographic research or case studies. These studies highlight the importance of socialisation, whereby social and cultural factors enhance or prevent language learning (Coleman, 2015; DuFon, 2006; Kinginger, 2013). The main advantage of qualitative research is that it helps to examine SA in its complexity, demonstrating that participants engage in learning through recursive interactions of negotiating new social norms or cultures with their reflective personal traits (Goldoni, 2013; Groves et al., 2016). In this negotiation process, they create their own construal as an interpretive framework to perceive the SA components (Barkhuizen, Benson, & Chik, 2013), and choose their own ways to behave in social interactions, which will potentially present varied patterns of motivated learning behaviours (Dörnyei et al., 2014).

Considering that motivated learning behaviours are driven from this projection of negotiated interactions, it is necessary to analyse personal traits likely to influence motivation in SA, such as attitudes (Lasagabaster, 2017), expectations (Vince, Carston, Dean, & London, 2015), identities (Benson et al., 2013; Kinginger, 2015), and goals (Allen, 2010b; Chirkov, Vansteenkiste, Tao, & Lynch, 2007). The primary focus of this view has been fixated on how such traits shape the level of motivation, and facilitate or hinder language learning during SA (Allen, 2010a; Kim, 2009). In this respect, qualitative research explores interdimensional aspects of motivation in social interactions, from the individual and contextual dimensions, whereby micro-personal factors and macro-social factors are arranged. SA experiences are thus comprised of diverse factors simultaneously influencing motivation and interactions,

which can be ultimately presented as interpretative behavioural patterns. In the context of SA, motivation and interactions appear to be mutually interdependent in language learning; insofar that they are influences on SA outcomes, as well as outcomes of SA in itself.

Given the literature review, the individual variation in level of motivation has been identified as being influenced by the duration of SA, which clusters specific features of program dimensions (i.e. educational level, organisation, learning opportunities, and purposes); and the temperament of the learner, which will function as the ultimate motivational force for the subsequent transformations of motivation, setting the standard for social interactions within the pre-designed program context. This means that SA duration is an important factor to be considered, as it demonstrates interactions occurring within diverse kinds of learning fostered by the programs. Furthermore, varying SA duration reveals individuals as the motivational agents who actually define the extent to which their learning is involved in the program. In these respects, it is important to examine the interdependent relationship between the program features and individual learners' motivation, through a comparison between shorter and longer SA programs. This approach will present their motivated learning behaviours in observed interactions, thereby demonstrating the mutual influences between their motivation and SA outcomes.

2.5 Summary

The literature review has described the importance of understanding individual learners' SA experiences through an investigation of how their motivation fluctuates, and manifests as motivated learning behaviours in social interactions. However, it also has been identified that there are four main problems in SA research. Firstly, the focus on studies of SA programs has been on the duration itself, rather than the specific features of program dimensions, as influences on motivation and SA outcomes. Secondly, it is difficult to examine the dynamic nature of motivation, which fluctuates as an ongoing system. Thirdly,

there are limitations with quantitative research methods investigating the complexity of social interactions, which hinder researchers from identifying diverse motivational factors within both individual and contextual dimensions. Lastly, a bulk of the research has focused on motivation to learn languages other than English, involving the groups of anglophone students learning foreign languages. This highlights the importance of focusing on motivation to learn English for non-anglophone students. The following research questions are therefore raised in order to fill the gaps:

- RQ1 – What are the differences in motivation and interactions between students of short-term and long-term SA programs?
- RQ2 – What influences students' motivation for English learning during SA?
- RQ3 – How does students' motivation influence their interactions during SA?

To provide deeper understanding for these research questions, it is now necessary to identify which theoretical model best accounts for motivation in SA. In other words, there is a need for a theoretical framework which has the capacity to analyse how motivation fluctuates in accordance with interactions during SA, and to identify diverse motivational factors which enhance or limit motivation. Further exploration of motivation theories will be conducted in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3. Theoretical Framework of Motivation

This chapter analyses theories which can account for motivation in the context of SA. Section 3.1 outlines historical movements in motivation theory, and refines the prevailing research paradigm of Complex Dynamic Systems Theory with the concept of Directed Motivational Current from a person-in-context perspective, as a theoretical framework. Section 3.2 concludes with the significance of the application of this framework in this study.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

The literature identifies four historical phases in theories of language learning motivation (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011): (1) an initial stage based on social psychological perspectives, up to early 1990s; (2) the 1990s, during which this origin was extended into the perspectives of cognitive and educational psychology; (3) in the 2000s, a shift in conceptual focus from external into internal orientations of future ideal selves; and (4) since 2010, research interest being focused on the complex and dynamic aspects of motivation. Boo, Dörnyei, and Ryan (2015) highlight that although numerous studies fall into these categories, the reality in which “multiple motivation theories are arranged according to their conceptual pairings” is more complicated (p. 153). In this respect, there is a need to examine to what extent previous theories are still featured, and how new concepts can be reflected in the prevailing research paradigm. Thus, it is important to identify which theories can best define what motivation means in the context of SA, reflecting on this trend of changing theories of motivation.

The trend of changing theories of motivation has been prompted by changing contexts of language learning, which are much more oriented to long-term, out-of-class learning than to short-term, classroom learning (Benson, 2011). This orientation is the result of increased educational travel of SA in global mobility, in which students no longer learn a language within the physical setting of the classroom, and their learning becomes an ongoing action in

their learning career (Benson et al., 2013). For this reason, learning contexts become more complex, and in this complexity, SA participant's motivation is formed by dynamic interactions of continuous intercultural contact and adaptation to the components of the SA context (which involve integration into host communities and social interactions with host nationals) (Dörnyei et al., 2014; Mercer, 2014). Such complexity, furthermore, includes a multitude of interactions between the learner and the contexts of multiple settings where their previous learning took place (Benson et al., 2013). In these respects, diverse motivational factors engage in intricate modes of interactions in this complex and dynamic system. Therefore, a research paradigm has emerged attempting to conceptualise these dynamics of interactions within a theoretical framework, with the capacity to align diverse motivational factors; namely, Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

However, Muir and Dörnyei (2013) highlight that the multitude of interactions can be so chaotic that it may be difficult to present these as certain behavioural patterns. In fact, quantitative research methods, used in numerous motivation studies adopting CDST, have been criticised due to their limitation of examining immediate, changeable features of the context that are not predictable and observable, and their tendency to rely on linear rather than dynamic relations in terms of the feasibility of investigating practical interactions (Verspoor, de Bot, & Lowie, 2011). In addition, CDST circumscribes motivation within the temporal boundary of the learning context (Ushioda, 2014). According to Ushioda (2014), although CDST allows for enriched descriptions of physical and social settings for language learning, it hinders the identification of cognitive and affective factors of internal motivation which students bring into the context and may affect their motivation, such as attitudes, expectations, goals, and identities.

Theoretical development reshaping the understanding of motivational dynamics is required to refine CDST, so as to stimulate new investigations of motivation fluctuations in the context of SA. Ushioda (2009) approaches this from ‘a person-in-context relational view’ exploring motivational factors from participants’ own perspectives through narrative and observational data. From this view, CDST “define[s] and delimit[s] ‘context’ in relation to the learner”, thereby identifying the components of the context salient to individuals (Ushioda, 2014, p. 48). Moreover, Boo, Dörnyei, and Ryan (2015) observe a new theoretical concept in their dataset of research paradigms, namely, ‘Directed Motivational Current’ (DMC): a motivational drive which sustains learners’ behaviours, through its power to direct their actions towards their goals and future selves (Dörnyei et al., 2014; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). DMC was considered applicable to CDST as a supplementary theoretical concept in two main respects. Firstly, it helps to observe the dynamic system of motivation, energising sustained behaviours and therefore reducing its fluctuation; and secondly, it helps to capture certain behavioural patterns of motivation in observed interactions.

In the present study, CDST will be thus used as a theoretical framework in conceptualising the dynamic nature of motivation, through analysis of diverse motivational factors and observation of motivated learning behaviours, referring to DMC from ‘a person-in-context perspective’. This method grants the ability to conceptualise contextually sensitive motivational trajectories that are highly likely to vary in accordance with specific features of short-term and long-term programs. Therefore, it will contribute to a deeper understanding of SA experiences.

3.1.1 Complex Dynamic Systems Theory

CDST is often applied to the concept of motivation in the ways in which contextual dimensions of motivation are integrated into the analysis, and the context is regarded as an inseparable aspect for learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2014). This identifies the main advantage of

interpreting motivation from the perspective of CDST; that is, it views learners as fundamentally interdependent and social beings in their situated contexts, unlike Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) concept of ideal selves of L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS), which views learners as independent actors who are in charge of learning (Carolan, 2014; Daly, 2010; Mercer, 2014). This is where the situated and dynamic aspects of motivation are now being considered, providing insights into self-based studies that focus on partial accounts of motivation (Alharbi, 2017; Lanvers, 2016). This does not mean that CDST is superior to L2MSS as a theoretical framework; but in CDST, the realisation of one's self is different to that of L2MSS, in that some interactions with the context have stronger potential for the development of future selves. In the context of SA, therefore, the 'ideal self' is not a fixed attribute but an adaptable attribute convertible throughout the interactions with the context.

Given this overview, conceptualising motivation from the perspective of CDST represents an attempt "to interconnect internal, personal attributes and external, contextual factors into one integrated model indicating their mutually defining relationships as integral parts of the same complex dynamic system" (Mercer, 2014, p. 73). CDST highlights how individuals are embedded in complex systems of contexts and social relationships, and how their dynamic interactions with the contexts are conceptualised (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Within this social system of the learner and contexts, "learners are regarded as dynamic subsystems" (de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007, p. 14). Thompson (2017) emphasises that CDST produces "motivational profiles" of individual learners – motivational drivers, "indelibly influenced by their language learning experiences" (p. 42) – who are part of "the complex systems under investigation" where their learning experiences are taking place and of "the larger complex system where they find themselves" (p. 41). Consequently, CDST explores the relationship among the learners' motivational profiles, and their relationship with the specific learning context.

Adopting CDST as a framework, Papi and Teimouri (2014) align various motivational profiles of Iranian students, such as attitudes, cultural interest, or family influence. It is reported that the students' performance and participation were the results of interrelated aspects of these factors, which constantly interacted with their learning context. In addition, Yashima and Arano (2014) examined Japanese students' interactions with the context to capture the dynamics of motivation. They observed that the students' initial motivations transitioned into different phases after 'attractor states' – where “dynamic subsystems are settled” (de Bot et al., 2007, p. 8) – through dynamic interactions with the context. They concluded that these transitions influenced the level of motivation organising their motivational behaviour, and ultimately solidified their ideal selves. These findings clarify that from the perspective of CDST, 'motivation' comprises motivational factors (small subsystems) of the learner (a dynamic subsystem), who constantly engages with learning contexts (social systems) within the specific context (a larger system). Therefore, 'motivation' in the present study is the quintessential expression of motivational factors influencing a learner, who acquires these factors from complex systems of learning opportunities provided by the SA program and of interactions with host nationals and integration into the host community, within the large SA context of Australia.

3.1.2 Directed Motivational Current

DMC represents “a motivational drive which energises sustained behaviours, placing vision and goals as central components within this new motivational construct” (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 357). It also defines a heightened motivational period, in which individual learners present “their capabilities to align diverse factors that are simultaneously at work in complex systems” (Dörnyei et al., 2014, p. 96). Given these reasons, it is evident that a DMC is not only driven from L2MSS, highlighting the role of visualisation of future selves and its directed power of leading learners to focus on actions towards specific future targets, but is

also based on CDST, emphasising the significance of maintaining those selves through interactions with complex systems of the contexts (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; You & Chan, 2014).

In such DMCs, motivational factors are explored through narratives (e.g. interviews and journals) recounting the participants' perspectives, or certain behavioural patterns in specific settings (e.g. classroom). For instance, Campbell and Storch's (2011) interviews on motivation to learn Chinese among eight students in Australia revealed that those who had clear future images of themselves were motivated to continue learning, although some contextual factors, such as changes in teaching, demotivated them at some point. Similarly, Gregersen and MacIntyre's (2014) study with Spanish teachers (n=18) described motivationally salient aspects of future selves from their journals, final essays, and inner dialogues, while simultaneously negotiating their roles between the teacher and learner in the complexity of the learning context. In addition, DMCs have been found among future-oriented students from numerous disciplines, who perceived the given time as shorter in duration and exhibited a higher level of motivation (Chang, 2015; Harber, Zimbardo, & Boyd, 2003; Takahashi, 2018).

As such, DMCs occur when personal and contextual factors are combined together in a highly productive manner, in which goal orientations of future selves are manifested in learning (Dörnyei et al., 2014). In this manner, motivational fluctuations of dynamic systems are regulated, and thus can be observed (Henry, 2014). In this respect, the significance of adopting DMC as a supplementary theoretical concept for CDST is to align diverse motivational factors, and ultimately to highlight a structured sequence of motivated learning behaviours. Therefore, it will be useful to gauge how the participants respond to the learning opportunities provided by the programs, and how their motivational agencies are generated in order to source opportunities that are accessible only beyond the programs.

3.2 Summary

This chapter has introduced a theoretical framework incorporating CDST and DMC, showing the potential of this framework for analysing the dynamics of motivation and the complexities of multiple interactions. This framework will be applied to fill the research gaps posed in Chapter 2, by aligning diverse motivational factors and analysing motivated learning behaviours in observed interactions. It will thus define the learning contexts of SA in relation to the learners, examining the extent to which their learning is fostered within or beyond the program and therefore conceptualising contextually sensitive motivational trajectories between the short-term and long-term programs.

Chapter 4. Methodology

This chapter explores the methodology undertaken to collect the data for analysing the research questions. Section 4.1 accounts for the research design used to address the research questions, adopting narrative inquiry with key methodological approaches; namely, analysis of narratives and triangulation of multiple data sources. Section 4.2 provides the details of the research setting and participants' backgrounds. Section 4.3 outlines the three methods employed: interviews, journals, and classroom observations. Section 4.4 describes the procedure of thematic analysis of narratives, conducted using NVivo.

4.1 Research Design

This study aims to investigate language learners' SA experiences through a comparison of their motivational fluctuations in short-term and long-term programs. It also aims to define learning contexts in relation to the learner so as to explore stories of motivation salient to individuals, which could be difficult to capture in complex dynamic systems (Ushioda, 2014). Given these purposes, this study adopts narrative inquiry (NI) as a qualitative methodology. The main significance of using NI lies in its capacity to transform social interactions into narratives from the participants' own perspectives (Lewin & Somekh, 2011), offering opportunities for introspection and interrogation, "to reflect on their own practice" (Barkhuizen, 2008, p. 232). NI thus highlights individual differences when exploring shared elements in a collection of stories for a group comparison. Adopting NI, therefore, this study was designed as 'a multiple case study', treating each participant as a case, and 'a cross case analysis' in which each case was used to explore holistic experiences of short-term and long-term programs, ensuring a view of different dimensions of each program (Creswell, 2013).

NI was appropriate for investigating the research questions for three main reasons. Firstly, NI provides insights into the meanings of language learners' experiences through

articulation of their interpretations of those experiences, which are not directly observable and thus “are often suppressed by other research approaches” (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 12). In this respect, NI provides access to the cognitive dimension of language learning motivation, such as feelings about language learning, and emotional responses to linguistic achievements or failures (Barkhuizen, 2008; Benson, 2012). Secondly, NI involves the contextual data accounting for “learners’ experiences and their own construal of what is contextually relevant to their learning” (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 12). This means that narratives recount social and cultural factors through their plots and meanings, salient to individuals (Lewin & Somekh, 2011). NI thus integrates the individual and contextual dimensions of motivation, thereby aligning diverse motivational factors despite the dynamics of motivational fluctuations and the complexity of social interactions. Lastly, NI represents experience development in new settings, such as SA, by identifying different ways to use a language and adjust into social relations (Benson, 2012). This identification is plausible as NI produces retrospective data reflecting participants’ previous learning experiences which they bring into the SA context and which may affect their socialisation (Barkhuizen et al., 2013). This suggests that narratives address the systems of current SA learning contexts, and bring multiple systems from other settings, constructing a large system of the specific context. Consequently, NI uncovers perceptual shifts in environmental changes by comparison with the concurrent data (Kashiwa & Benson, 2017), which will potentially reveal the degree to which SA experiences impact motivation.

Given these reasons, NI has a strong potential for conceptualising contextually sensitive motivational trajectories representing how participants’ motivation fluctuates in accordance with their interactions in the context of SA. Therefore, narratives are seen as fundamental components of analysis.

4.1.1 Methodological approach: Narrative inquiry

This study adopts an analytical approach; namely, ‘analysis of narratives’ in which narratives are used as research data (Polkinghorne, 1995). Analysis of narratives, in this study, refers to the stage of thematic analysis through which narratives were reviewed in terms of the focal themes of language learning motivation, predefined based on the framework of CDST/DMC and refined throughout the analysis procedure. Thematic analysis, as a systematic procedure of thematic coding, was conducted at different levels, where the collected data from multiple sources (i.e. interviews, journals, and class observations) uncovered the ways that individuals make sense of their experiences. This approach enabled a synthesis of each participant’s stories from three sources into ‘cases’, as well as to mitigate concerns about reliability and trustworthiness of qualitative data.

4.1.1.1 Analysis of narratives

Figure 4.1 describes three levels at which narratives were designed to be analysed.

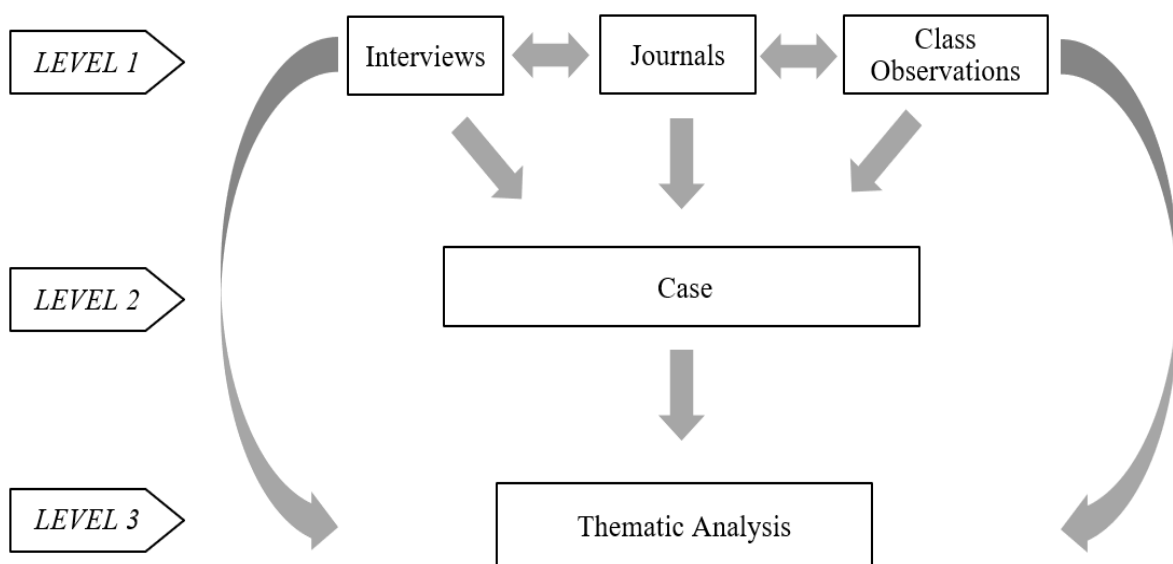


Figure 4.1 Three Levels of Analysis of Narratives

Narratives were gathered from interviews and journals as the main data. The narratives were compared against the data sources and with observational data (level 1). These comparisons

identified meanings or ‘themes’ within the data, so that data from multiple sources could be tested against each source (Benson, 2014) (level 3). These narratives were synthesised into ‘cases’ for each individual participant to arrange numerous stories into a sequential order (Benson, 2014) (level 2). The synthesised narratives were repeatedly analysed based on thematic analysis, relating the dynamics of motivational fluctuations to key themes of narratives (level 3). In this respect, thematic analysis was designed not only for the narratives gathered from interviews, journals, and class observations but also for those captured as particular experiences of individuals.

4.1.1.2 Triangulation of multiple data sources

A common concern of the findings of narrative studies, articulated in critiques of the interpretive nature of inquiring (or interviewing), is that narratives can be mistakenly treated as factual accounts (Pavlenko, 2007; Talmy, 2010). The narrative data, including qualitative data, “are never objective in this sense and there is, indeed, often an explicit acknowledgement that they are necessarily subjective” (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 88). This means that narratives exclusively recount ‘subjective reality’, rather than ‘objective reality’. In this respect, the quality and ethics of data analysis are often influenced by concerns of reliability and trustworthiness (Creswell, 2013). However, narrative research is considered reliable if participants’ accounts are interpreted from multiple standpoints in the way that data collection and analysis are carried out through a triangulation of multiple data sources (Benson, 2014).

Kashiwa (2015) collected narrative data on Chinese students’ conception changes after SA, through interviews, diary entries, and classroom observations. Ortaçtepe (2013) explored the identity reconstruction of Turkish students in USA, from language learning autobiographies, journal entries, and semi-structured interviews. Ellis (2013) investigated professional knowledge and beliefs of teachers in Australia, through the elicitation of a

language biography, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observations. Kim (2011) examined the development of language learning motivation of two Korean immigrants in Canada, using semi-structured interviews, autobiographies, stimulated recall tasks, and classroom observations. These studies have shown that “insights from one source can be tested in analysis of others or through different approaches to data collection and analysis” (Benson, 2014, p. 158). This advantage of methodological triangulation fills a gap in interpretation, which qualitative research mostly lacks. Therefore, the present study used three data sources: interviews, journals, and classroom observations.

4.2 Setting and Participants

The study was set in English Language Centre (ELC) at a university in Sydney, Australia. ELC offers different types of SA programs, in accordance with the duration (short-term vs. long-term); educational level (undergraduate vs. pre-postgraduate); organisation (ELC vs. ELC and another foreign university); learning opportunities (varied based on duration, i.e. short-terms have pre-organised activities wherein students of the same nationality are grouped together, e.g. excursion, buddy program; whereas long-terms have activities in which individuals can independently join, e.g. workshop, conversation group); and learning purposes (general vs. academic English). Ten international students, who were taking either short-term or long-term SA programs, participated in this study (see Table 4.1). The short-term group refers to those who were going to receive English education in Australia for less than a semester (i.e. four weeks), and the long-term group refers to those who were aiming to study for longer than a semester (i.e. ten to twenty weeks + two to three years).

Table 4.1 Participants' Background Information

Name	Gender	Status	Ethnicity	Program	Previous experiences	
					Study abroad	Travel abroad
Cindy	Female	BA	Korean	4-week EC (Study Tour)	√	
Eileen	Female	BA	Korean	4-week EC (Study Tour)	√	
June	Male	BA	Korean	4-week EC (Study Tour)	√	√
Lina	Female	BA	Korean	4-week EC (Study Tour)		√
Taylor	Female	BA	Korean	4-week EC (Study Tour)		
Isabella	Female	Pre-MA	Iranian	20-week EC + 2-year MA		√
Sandy	Female	Pre-MA	Nepali	10-week EC + 2-year MA		
Sue	Female	Pre-MA	Chinese	10-week EC + 2-year MA		√
Veronica	Female	Pre-MA	Taiwanese	15-week EC + 3-year MA	√	√
David	Male	Pre-MA	Korean	15-week EC + 3-year MA		√ (China)

BA = Bachelor's Degree, MA = Master's Degree, EC = English Course

Note. Pseudonyms are used to identify the participants.

Five of the participants were taking a four-week study tour program, an English course for general purposes. The program was co-organised by ELC and the universities in their home country, Korea, configured to a sheltered format, as students were not mixing with the whole population of the university in the classroom and were grouped together in pre-organised activities outside of the classroom. However, they stayed with a homestay family where they were free from this group orientation. All of them started learning English in primary school; and they had previous experiences of study (Cindy, June, Eileen) and travel abroad (June and Lina), except for Taylor.

The other five participants were taking a 10-to 20-week direct entry program, which provides English for academic purposes to students whose levels of English proficiency are 0.5 to 1 bands below the required IELTS scores for university entrance, as a conditional offer to continue two or three years of Master's degree. They were from Iran, China, Taiwan,

Nepal, and Korea, studying at ELC with peers of diverse nationalities. Three of them lived in shared accommodation, and the others lived with relatives (Isabella) or a spouse (Sandy). Similar to those in the former group, they had studied at schools and universities in their home countries; and they had previous experiences of study (Veronica) and travel abroad (Isabella, Sue, Veronica, David), except for Sandy. However, David barely used English during his visit to China, unlike others who used English to communicate with people in English-speaking or European countries.

All participants were studying from 1:00 to 5:15 pm during weekdays. This 20-hour week 'intensive' course with homework left little time for interactions outside of the classroom. Although they were all adults, they were in different stages of life (i.e. undergraduates vs. pre-graduates), which possibly shaped different fundamental dispositions for the two groups toward such situational limitation of learning. Their English levels were approximately of the same level of competence which sufficed to answer interview questions and write journals in English, although Taylor and Lina preferred to use Korean.

The participants' recruitment was undertaken in different sessions for the two groups. The recruitment involved 10 minutes of verbal advertisements with written flyers handed out (see Appendix B), in the classes where teachers had agreed to opt in. They were self-selected, possibly with higher levels of motivation than other students. They were informed of the aims of the study and activities that would be involved during their participation, based on the written consent (see Appendix C).

4.3 Data Collection

Data collection was conducted in two sessions over an eight-week period. The first four-week session focused on long-term students, and then the second four-week session for short-term students followed. This enabled a concentrated focus on individuals before

aggregating commonalities. In each session, time triangulation, whereby multiple data-gathering occasions are arranged (Flick, 2018), was applied to examine the temporal aspects of motivation (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Data Collection Schedule

Session 1 (long-term)	Interviews	Journals	Classroom observations
Week 1	√	√	
Week 2	√	√	√
Week 3		√	√
Week 4	√	√	
Session 2 (short-term)	Interviews	Journals	Classroom observations
Week 1	√	√	
Week 2	√	√	√
Week 3		√	√
Week 4	√	√	

Among the three data collection sources, interviews and journals were the main narrative data sources, through which the participants shared their learning in linguistic and non-linguistic activities, and their conceptions about those experiences. Interviews focused on diverse motivational factors, from which they developed their motivational agencies to engage in such activities; while journals aimed to illustrate specific accounts of what they actually did based on the provided narrative frame. These data were supplemented with critical observations of classroom situations. In addition, Korean versions of the interview questions and journal frame were used for Taylor and Lina (see Appendices D and E), and translated into English for data analysis afterwards.

4.3.1 Interviews

Interviews “investigate and prompt interviewers’ thoughts, values, perceptions, and feelings”, so as to “elicit their version or account of situations” (Wellington, 2015, p. 137). Interviewing is thus “suitable to be used for accessing personal perspectives on language learning” (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 16). In particular, semi-structured interviews, in which “follow-up questions are formulated relative to what interviewees have already said”, were chosen to generate additional data difficult to predict (Flick, 2018, p. 2). Furthermore, face-to-face settings were selected as they produce insights about interviewees’ emotional states through the observation during interviewing, compared to other telephone- or Internet-based settings (Flick, 2018).

The interviews were designed to elicit individual narratives directly from the interview questions, and to synthesize independent narratives in a sequential form of stories. Firstly, the interviews involved pre-set questions and follow-up questions, guiding them to add content relevant to the questions in instances of misalignment (see Appendix D). Secondly, the interviews for each participant were conducted three times, at the beginning, middle, and end of the four-week data collection. In this way, narratives of each participant were sequentially organised, demonstrating their adjustment to new linguistic and sociocultural environments, and changes in their motivation towards learning (Barkhuizen et al., 2013). Each interview was conducted for approximately 30-45 minutes, audio-recorded, and transcribed verbatim. Additional follow-up conversations via email were sometimes initiated for supplementary explanations.

Interview 1 focused on the participants’ initial motivations toward English learning in SA. It covered their previous in-class and out-of-class language learning in their home country or overseas (i.e. study or travel abroad), examining the language skills acquired, the resources used, and the activities engaged in. Motivational factors were the central datum of

the questions involving aspects such as reasons for applying for SA, feelings about learning English, and expectations and goals for SA. This structure of questioning demonstrated how these factors influenced their initial motivations. In addition, the participants often used retrospective accounts when describing such factors, which provided insights about the impacts of previous experiences on motivation.

Interview 2 focused on the participants' current motivations toward learning experiences of SA. They described in-class and out-of-class learning, resources utilised, and their impressions of learning styles, environments, and cultural differences. They were specifically asked about social interactions in out-of-class activities, such as those at homestay, work, or religious communities. This enabled an examination of how they developed their motivation to engage in these activities, satisfy their expectations, and achieve their goals. Furthermore, they compared their experiences with what they had initially expected, expressing satisfaction or concerns about current situations.

Interview 3 focused on the participants' motivations toward future learning. They highlighted how they adjusted to the learning environment, specifically in response to difficult encounters. In this sense, the concurrent interviews at different phases enabled them to recount their present learning experiences while reflecting on their past ones. They also shared overall feedback and their future plans for English learning after SA. This showed how their motivation was influenced by SA experiences, in terms of the continuity of language learning. Therefore, the three interviews allowed for a comparison between language learning during SA (interview 2 and 3) with initial motivation prior to SA (interview 1); and consequently, an examination of motivation over a period of data collection (all interviews).

4.3.2 Journals

The value of journal entries as narrative data is that they record language learning experiences from the learners' perspectives, providing a series of critical events "which really stick to their minds" (Wellington, 2015, p. 220). In other words, journals record writers' personal reflections upon significant experiences associated with perceptions, thoughts, or feelings about linguistic successes or failures (Barkhuizen et al., 2013; Wellington, 2015). Studies of such self-reflective journals thus provide an enriched understanding of language learning within both cognitive and contextual dimensions.

However, students, who are unfamiliar with self-reflective writing, may struggle to write journal entries (Barkhuizen et al., 2013). One way of overcoming this issue is to structure their writing in a narrative frame, "a written story template consisting of a series of incomplete sentences and blank spaces" (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 45). As Barkhuizen and Wette (2008) explain, narrative frames have guiding functions for writers "in terms of the structure and content of what is to be written", and for researchers in the sense that "the frames ensure the content will be what is expected to address the research aims" (p. 376). This means that "narrative frames encourage reflections, because of the nature of what is required to write" (p. 381).

Therefore, a narrative frame was designed to encourage the participants to express their own reflections, particularly aiming to record learning opportunities and resources they accessed in linguistic activities. Appendix E shows the narrative frame that was used. It was divided into *classroom experiences* and *out-of-classroom experiences*, and each section offered different options and sub-options, from which they could choose a scenario that represented their perceptions or emotions (e.g. *I enjoyed it because...* vs. *I didn't enjoy it because...*). It used combinations of diverse prompts, such as sentence starters, sentence connectives, and a sequence of time and place references (e.g. *Even though I couldn't solve*

it, I learned... and decided to... next time; After these experiences, I felt... about learning English), so that the prompts would be interpreted solely in an intended way (Barkhuizen et al., 2013). (The narrative frame will be italicised to distinguish it from the participants' written responses when presenting findings in Chapter 5.)

The participants were asked to write a journal entry every week for four weeks, and to share it via group email. They were allowed to write additional information, whenever they needed more writing space or preferred certain narrative structures incompatible with the content structure of the given frame (Barkhuizen & Wette, 2008). These entries elicited complementary introspective data on their current experiences (and retrospective data, as they were written after learning), and emotional responses during SA. They were also useful in capturing snapshots of an individual's life, along with others' stories in similar contexts (Barkhuizen & Wette, 2008), which helped to identify commonalities across the groups.

4.3.3 Classroom observations

The purpose of classroom observations was to gain a better understanding of the participants' classroom learning, based on the assumption that what students would do outside of the classroom could be influenced by what they experience inside of the classroom, or vice versa (e.g. impacts of exams). Five classes were observed twice at the beginning and middle of data collection, subject to class schedules. Each class was observed for 30-45 minutes, from a distance, without contact, to avoid pressuring the teachers and students (Lewin & Somekh, 2011). Field notes were recorded based on the observation protocol, designed according to three areas of focus: the learning activities, the participants' attitudes or responses to them, and their interactions with the teacher and peers (see Appendix F). The observations aimed to interpret observed patterns of behaviours in activities through a

reflection of the participants' impressions narrated in interviews and journals, and to discover the relevance of in-class interactions to out-of-class experiences.

4.4 Data Analysis

The methods for data analysis were chosen based on the purpose of exploring the participants' language learning and identifying behavioural patterns of motivation in social interactions between the two groups. The first data set gathered from multiple sources was synthesised into an individual case, forming the second data set along with other cases. In particular, the narratives from interviews, compared with the written and observational data, were used to explore RQ2; and those from journals, compared with the oral and observational data, were examined for RQ3. The cases in each group were compared, which generated the third data set to address RQ1. Each data set was analysed based on thematic analysis, using the qualitative data analysis software, NVivo.

Figure 4.2 illustrates three main stages of thematic analysis, in which themes related to the research questions were developed.

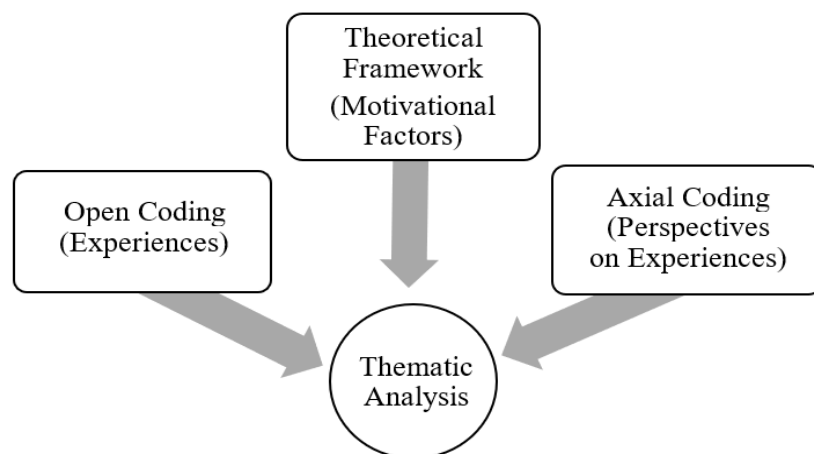


Figure 4.2 Stages of Thematic Analysis

Firstly, key components of motivational factors were identified based on the theoretical framework of CDST/DMC (e.g. students' beliefs about English learning, expectations toward

SA, purposes and goals for SA, and previous learning experiences of study or travel abroad). Secondly, themes for SA interactions were observed in the process of open coding, by which specific codes of learning opportunities or resources (e.g. program activities, other interactive or non-interactive ones, and unexpected learning situations) were linked to the general data set of interactions through defining and developing categories (e.g. classroom and outside of the classroom experiences; linguistic and non-linguistic activities) (Moghaddam, 2006). Lastly, sub-themes were added into categories to represent individuals' perspectives of their experiences (e.g. satisfactions about linguistic improvements, or concerns about situational limitations) in the process of axial coding, by which main themes were further divided through relating codes to each other (Moghaddam, 2006). These stages were repeatedly executed to refine themes and theoretical relationships within the framework (Barkhuizen et al., 2013).

This analysis procedure presented shared impacts of changed learning environments for the two groups, highlighting individual differences in motivation fluctuations, and thereby addressing RQ1. It specifically provided an opportunity to observe the participants' modified or reinforced linguistic motivation based on pre-decided motivational factors, exploring RQ2. It also presented certain patterns in social interactions within an individual's narratives elicited from the data collection, which led to an investigation of RQ3.

4.4.1 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis identifies patterns across data through categorisation, "in which particular instances of phenomena are linked to more general concepts" (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 74). The focus of thematic analysis was based on analysing particular instances while classifying them into general concepts derived from data, and discovering commonalities and disparities among the distribution (Clarke & Braun, 2017). This approach investigated the changes to linguistic motivation in the same period but in different contexts

of SA programs. This elicited the influence of the program types and the effect of their own construal, by which they perceived and interpreted their learning environment within or beyond the program. By using thematic analysis in this multiple case study, “it open[ed] up the possibility of comparing the narratives in a data set, of establishing shared themes, as well as highlighting individual differences” (Barkhuizen et al., 2013, p. 77). This approach examined the social and interactional contexts of SA when combining shared elements from a collection of narratives; and it distinguished the accounts influenced by other contexts of interactions (i.e. previous learning contexts).

4.4.2 Qualitative computing: NVivo

The efficiency of using software for analysis of qualitative data is based on “the computer’s capacity for managing data by organising raw data files” and “managing ideas to assist researchers in answering their research questions” (Bazeley, 2013, p. 3). As Bazeley (2013) explains, using NVivo ensured an enhanced data set for thorough interpretations of individuals’ language learning experiences, in three main ways. Firstly, “improvement in recording, sorting, matching, and linking” (p. 3) provided ample capacity for balancing between coding narrative texts and reflecting theoretical and conceptual ideas derived from the theoretical framework of CDST/DMC. Secondly, creating a ‘case’, “definable unit of analysis, rather than concept” allowed the research to code different sources of data (i.e. interviews, journals, and class observations) in a particular case, instead of just having the data in coded themes (p. 123) (see Figure 4.3).

		A : Gender ▾	B : Duration ▾	Attributes
Cases	1 : Cindy	Female	Short	Value
	2 : Eileen	Female	Short	
	3 : Ieren	Female	Long	
	4 : June	Male	Short	
	5 : Lina	Female	Short	
	6 : Sandy	Female	Long	
	7 : Sue	Female	Long	
	8 : Taylor	Female	Short	
	9 : Veronica	Female	Long	
	10 : Yohan	Male	Long	

Figure 4.3 Case Classification

Thirdly, a procedure of ‘matrix coding queries’, “pairs of items are cross-tabulated and displayed as a matrix” (p. 250), enabled the research to compare short-term and long-term students across the data set with every coded instance of a concept (see Figure 4.4).

		A : Participants:Duration = Long ▾	B : Participants:Duration = Short ▾	Attribute (Duration)
Nodes (Sub-themes)	1 : Communication ▾	6	2	Values (Detailed content and numbers)
	2 : Further study ▾	4	0	
	3 : Future jobs ▾	4	5	
	4 : Global language ▾	3	8	
	5 : Personal interest in language learning ▾	4	4	

Figure 4.4 Matrix Coding Query (Example 1): Students’ Beliefs about English Learning

The queries were specifically helpful to define the levels of the students’ linguistic motivation between the two groups (i.e. ‘higher’ vs. ‘lower’), through ‘values’ of the codes, associated with motivational factors, as indicators for fluctuations in motivation at three different phases (considering the span of the three interviews). The higher level of linguistic motivation refers to specific linguistic purposes with detailed plans to engage in linguistic activities and clear imaginative ideas of future selves relating to realistic or actual accounts;

whereas the lower level refers to purposes with no specific linguistic plans and vague ideas of future selves. As presented in Figure 4.5 depicting the initial phase, for instance, long-term students displayed higher motivation as ‘values’ indicate between 15 to 20; whereas ‘values’ for the short-term students indicate between 4 to 7.

	A : Participants:Duration = Long ▼	B : Participants:Duration = Short ▼
1 : Linguistic purposes ▼	20	7
2 : Future selves ▼	15	4

Figure 4.5 Matrix Coding Query (Example 2): Values Indicating Linguistic Motivation Levels

The results of such queries were saved for further interrogation, moving back and forth between specific excerpts and general attributes as an ongoing enquiry process. This mitigated concerns about oversimplification of using software, and in turn, contributed to a more rigorous analysis.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined in detail the research procedure used in the present study. The data reliability and trustworthiness of the interpretative nature of narrative data were achieved through a triangulated approach to data collection. The interviews and journals collected narratives recounted from the perspectives of the participants, who reflected on their own learning and defined their learning contexts; and the classroom observations provided a complementary understanding of other narrative data. The data were analysed by repeatedly refining themes and subthemes based on the theoretical framework, and by open and axial coding processes, using NVivo. This thematic analysis presented the motivational dynamics of each participant and the structured motivational sequence of interactions for each group. The relevant findings will be addressed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5. Findings

This chapter presents an analysis of narrative data, which were firstly gathered from interviews and journals; secondly, compared against each source and with observational data; and lastly, synthesised into individual cases. The analysis aims to address the research questions:

- RQ1 – What are the differences in motivation and interactions between students of short-term and long-term SA programs?
- RQ2 – What influences students' motivation for language learning during SA?
- RQ3 – How does students' motivation influence their interactions during SA?

Section 5.1 provides descriptive findings outlining the differences between the outcomes of the participants of the short-term program (hereinafter STs) and those of the long-term program (hereinafter LTs) (RQ1). Sections 5.2 and 5.3 explore the reasons behind these differences more in-depth, identifying the influences on motivation (RQ2) and the influences of motivation on interactions (RQ3). Each section has a structure illustrating commonalities and disparities between the two groups, highlighting individual differences under the coded themes. In addition, it follows a sequential order to track the changes in motivation after engaging in SA experiences, considering the span of the three interviews (i.e. three phases: the beginning, middle, and end of the data collection).

Through thematic analysis, narratives across the data revealed varied patterns of motivated learning behaviours emergent in the course of interactions between the two groups; nonetheless, it was also clarified that individual participants had their own dynamics of motivation and complexities of social interactions, even in the same program.

5.1 Differences in the Outcomes of Short-term and Long-term Study Abroad Experiences

RQ1 considered how the level of motivation towards English learning and the quality of interactions were influenced by the duration of SA that clusters the specific features of program dimensions (i.e. educational level, organisation, learning opportunities, and purposes). Based on particular narratives of individual participants, commonalities and disparities were distributed into general identifications for a group comparison. In this way, contrasting results were distinguished in the outcomes of SA experiences between the two groups.

5.1.1 Fluctuations of motivation

The main differences observed between the two groups were in the fluctuations of motivation, and the degrees of its changes over the four-week period. Figure 5.1 shows the varied states in the fluctuations, at which their linguistic motivation remained stable at a point in time within certain phases. The states do not define the precisely ‘measured’ levels but the levels illustrated based on the ‘coded’ motivational factors, associated with specific linguistic purposes and clear ideas of future selves. In other words, these are not quantitative measurements, but qualitative judgements based on the researcher’s interpretations of the narrative data.

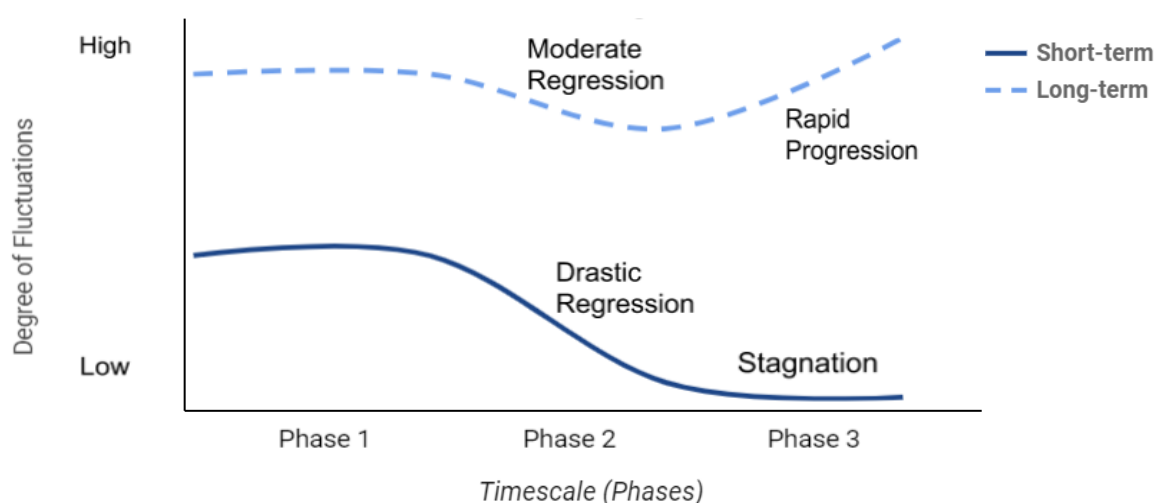


Figure 5.1 Fluctuations of Linguistic Motivation

Phase 1: The participants had different levels of initial linguistic motivation. The differences were associated with the SA duration itself as well as the purposes of the program or of participants themselves (or both). All STs considered that it would be difficult to attain drastic improvements in their English abilities within a short period, despite the increased ‘immersion’ in the target language. Given this reason, their motivation for linguistic purposes merely focused on general aspects of speaking skills without any specific plans or goals. They instead developed strong motivation for travel.

By contrast, all LTs expected that lessons and activities involved in the course would be related to academic English because the course was conditionally offered as a direct entry program to a Master’s degree. They devised learning goals in accordance with this academic purpose. This was the point where the participants’ learning purposes were aligned with those of the program, whereby they produced specific linguistic goals as the result of the higher level of motivation (e.g. having developed academic writing skills, mastering grammar, and speaking fluently). Furthermore, they showed strong motivation for academic success in terms of continuation of their Master’s degree, which served as a motivational drive to maintain linguistic goals. In addition, they expressed a long-term desire to work and stay in Australia, which later reinforced their linguistic motivation to a stronger degree, except for Sue who planned to return to China. (Details of purposes and goals will be elaborated in Section 5.2.2.)

Phase 2: The participants’ linguistic motivation fluctuated after they engaged in learning and realised difficulties (e.g. few opportunities for meeting locals, or struggles to progress in study). (Details of difficulties will be narrated in Section 5.3.2.) Both STs and LTs expressed dissatisfaction with their experiences and concerns about their current situations, at which their linguistic motivation became evidently lower. However, the degrees

of changes appeared to be different between the two groups: STs' linguistic motivation showed a 'drastic' reduction, whereas that of LTs decreased at a moderate pace.

The evidence was based on, firstly, the levels of initial linguistic motivation which defined the extent to which their motivational agencies drove them to overcome difficulties; secondly, the observed behavioural patterns of their responses to difficulties; and lastly, the origins of difficulties. STs, whose levels of initial linguistic motivation were lower than those of LTs, decided to focus on travel itself regardless of the language they would use (i.e. travelling with Koreans). STs found that difficulties they faced were caused by external components of the program, which they considered 'unlikely' to change (i.e. inefficiency of program activities, e.g. a busy lifestyle of homestay family, and limited time to befriend tour buddies). At Phase 1, in fact, Cindy made efforts to visit local markets to talk with locals, showing her personal interest in language learning, and Lina communicated with her homestay family, as they were always willing to spend time with her. Both of them nonetheless chose not to keep using such opportunities after realising that they had limited time to 'explore' Australia. By contrast, LTs' demotivation derived from the disappointment with their own efforts to progress their study. This internal cognitive process provided them with a certain degree of motivation to move forward, developing more detailed linguistic goals to satisfy both academic and linguistic purposes. In addition, LTs must have been active agents in English learning, presumably due to the higher levels of initial motivation than those of STs.

Phase 3: The participants' linguistic motivation once again fluctuated into different states. STs eventually 'abandoned' their linguistic motivation, staying at 'the state of regression' during which motivation receded into a lesser state. However, LTs were able to maintain and reinforce their initial motivation, fluctuating into 'the state of progression' where their motivation was observed to be 'the highest', in the sense that they presented

clearer imaginative ideas of themselves and future goals for English learning even after SA. Interestingly, all STs still showed interest in persistence with English learning, although the extent was much lower than that of LTs, considering the absence of future plans. This suggests that for all the participants, English learning was not an isolated experience of being abroad but an ongoing process, no matter how ‘successful’ their experience was (Detailed analysis of motivational factors will be presented in Section 5.2.)

5.1.2 Interactions within or beyond the program

The participants’ narratives showed that their social interactions (understood here as interactions with people, language, culture, and broadly, the context of SA) were largely associated with learning opportunities and resources involved in engaged learning activities.

Including classroom activities (e.g. group discussions), the ST program provided excursions with the teacher and classmates; buddy programs in which students’ tours were guided by Australian students from the program university; and homestays whereby students were staying with local families allocated by the organisations (i.e. ELC and the universities in Korea). The LT program offered classroom activities; excursions; academic English learning workshops in which students were assisted by lectures from teachers; conversation groups in which students practiced conversational skills with the leader and members; and additionally, iLearn, an online platform, where students discussed issues derived from extra materials posted by teachers. Besides the activities organised by the programs, the participants also engaged in learning through self-initiated interactive activities (e.g. a sports club), non-interactive ones arranged for themselves (e.g. listening to local news), and unexpected learning situations (i.e. learning English in daily life).

Appendix G shows details of what learning activities STs engaged in, how their interactions were undertaken, and how their experiences influenced the outcomes of SA in

terms of linguistic gains and cultural experiences. STs' interactions were mostly restricted to the program activities, which resulted in their English learning being especially influenced by the program features; that is, the ways in which program activities were organised, and the extent to which involved learning opportunities and resources fostered their learning. Classroom discussions, excursions and buddy programs did not result in positive interactions in terms of linguistic gains, due to the sheltered configuration of the program wherein Koreans were grouped together. In particular, classroom activities, in which they held high expectations for linguistic gains, did not satisfy their expectation of practicing English. This dissatisfaction was mainly due to the prevalent monoethnic nature of the classroom, in which 70-80 percent of the students were of the same nationality, making it difficult for Koreans to communicate with non-Koreans. This difficulty was further exacerbated by the lower level of English in the lessons compared to their actual capacity. Furthermore, host nationals (i.e. buddies and homestay families) did not always provide further learning opportunities or function as learning resources, due to temperamental and circumstantial differences with the students. Especially for Taylor, such differences turned out to be "the main reason" that she could not interact with native speakers as much as she had initially expected. Although June substantially interacted with buddies compared to the rest, it was difficult to maintain contact with them, as "it was just a day event".

However, Lina had numerous opportunities to interact with her homestay family, from which she benefited strongly in terms of both linguistic and cultural experiences. Eileen and Cindy endeavoured to participate in interactive linguistic activities. Cindy's efforts to visit local markets and travel alone served as opportunities to practice speaking and listening and to reduce fear of talking to strangers; however, Eileen's attempt to hang out with classmates did not result in positive outcomes due to different English levels, but rather provided her with an 'excuse' to 'stick' with Koreans. Although Lina and Cindy also started

spending time with Koreans to travel, this was not due to the program features but by their own choice (derived from their strong motivation for travel). (Details of impact of motivation on students' interactions will be addressed in Section 5.3.1.)

On the other hand, LTs' interactions were less influenced by the program features, due to a wider range of activities they engaged in (e.g. Isabella and Yohan: interacting with customers at work; Sandy: talking with strangers on the bus or street; Sue: attending a church and joining a choir; and Veronica: joining a sports club and volunteer work). Appendix H presents a summary of LTs' narratives about interactions in engaged learning activities and impacts of their interactions on the outcomes of SA. They had numerous choices of learning opportunities and resources beyond the program activities, in which they interacted with host nationals using the target language. Therefore, they were able to establish social networks and achieve deeper integration into the communities. They often had spontaneous interactions with locals in unexpected situations, in which they were able to learn English and understand their cultures. This means that the SA experiences of LTs were not merely about the language learning itself but about the target cultures.

In these respects, most of the engaged activities influenced them positively in terms of both linguistic and cultural experiences, even with the incidents of Sandy and Veronica (i.e. an awkward moment with a stranger on the train, and with "a creepy man" who approached her at work), which could have affected them negatively. Group discussions in the class did not lead to a satisfactory outcome in the cases of Sue and Veronica, as some Chinese classmates talked to them in Chinese; nonetheless, they still had other options which prompted positive outcomes and thus mitigated dissatisfaction. For this reason, Sandy also chose not to attend a conversation group, although it was helpful at first. In addition, Isabella and David experienced difficulties in balancing their study with work; however, they adopted their work as a means to improve their English skills in interactions with customers

(identified to be influenced by strong motivation for adjusting and integrating into the community). (Details of impact of motivation on students' interactions will be addressed in Section 5.3.)

Considering the designs of the programs and their durations, LTs had advantageous learning conditions in the sense that they were free from the sheltered configuration and had more choices to join linguistic activities requiring a longer time commitment (e.g. a sports club or a choir). However, the observed motivated learning behaviours of LTs were responsive as they developed strategic plans to interact with alternative activities beyond the program, as a means to overcome limitations in the classroom and further achieve linguistic gains. By contrast, STs succumbed to speaking their native language, which indicates that LTs thought more about these activities than STs did. (Detailed comparison of students' motivated learning behaviours will be conducted in Section 5.3.)

Regarding RQ1, the above description therefore reveals that motivation and interactions were influenced by the program duration that clusters other program features. The duration itself influenced the levels of the participants' initial linguistic motivation. STs' linguistic motivation was influenced by the concern that the duration of the course would not result in remarkable linguistic improvements; whereas that of LTs was skewed towards higher levels as a result of devising future goals requiring a longer time frame. Furthermore, the duration of the ST program was not long enough to offer an academic English course, but a general course, as English learning for academic purposes requires a deeper linguistic understanding. Given this reason, the ST program hindered STs from developing 'high' levels of linguistic motivation, but instead led them to focus on travel itself. By contrast, the LT program motivated LTs to devise specific linguistic purposes and plans which require a longer commitment. The short time frame also influenced the way the program was organised; that is, the sheltered configuration, wherein the students remained in monoethnic

interactions within the program activities. However, the LT program, which was free from such group orientation, resulted in more polyethnic interactions and thus increased the students' motivation for learning through interactions. Subsequently, LTs sought out more learning opportunities to interact with locals beyond the program, due to their motivational agency which drove them to expand their learning contexts to interact with locals.

Analysing the anomalies, Eileen, Lina and Cindy interacted with host nationals, although the effort of Cindy was not maintained due to limited travel time, and those of Lina and Eileen were still within the program (i.e. Lina: homestay family, and Eileen: classmates). Nonetheless, it is evident that the temperament of the learner came into play, functioning as the ultimate motivational agency deciding the activities to be engaged in and the responses to situational limitations. Therefore, an analysis of the influences on motivation in interactions will be further presented in Sections 5.2 and 5.3.

5.2 Motivational Factors

RQ2 was directed to an examination of motivational factors, identified based on theoretical and conceptual ideas of the framework of CDST/DMC, and refined in data analysis as themes. Identified themes involved students' beliefs about English learning (i.e. reasons to learn English), purposes and goals for SA, expectations toward SA, and previous learning experiences of study and travel abroad.

Based on the main narratives from interviews, reviewed by comparison with the written and observational data, it was revealed that the participants' linguistic motivation was affected by the factors which had been shaped prior to SA and brought into the context of SA, and were modified or reinforced during SA. Importantly, the narratives, synthesised into individual cases, highlighted the interrelationship of these factors.

5.2.1 Beliefs about English learning: Reasons to learn English

The participants' beliefs about English learning were the fundamental motives for their learning, from which the reasons to learn English transpired. It was identified that their beliefs were related to their future goals, specifically influenced by 'where' their goals would be achieved in the future. Figure 5.2 depicts how their beliefs were formed based on future goals for the two groups.

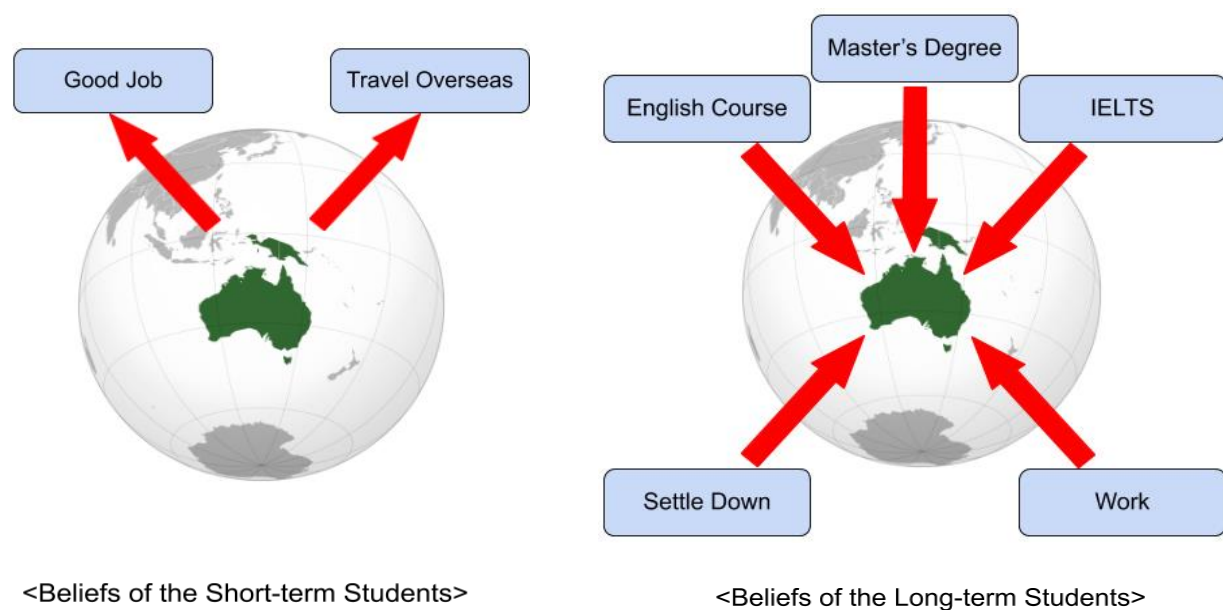


Figure 5.2 Formation of Students' Beliefs

Phase 1: Both STs and LTs believed that they were learning English for better positions in future occupations; nonetheless, their beliefs derived from varying perceptual focuses. All STs focused on general aspects of how important English is as a global language, specifically required for company employment and overseas trips. For them, thus, English was an 'essential' and 'must-have' skill for survival:

"English must be learned until your last breath. It means a lot for people living in this century. It's such an essential experience in life, like breathing." (June)

“Companies in Korea conduct English interviews to hire employees. When people go abroad, they will be in trouble if they don’t speak English. It’s related to my life [translated from Korean].” (Taylor)

However, LTs all reflected specific reasons for their further study and work in Australia. For LTs, English was “a tool” to achieve academic success and life goals, and ultimately to ‘settle down’ in Australia, except for Sue who was planning to return home:

“English is a great tool that can help me to finish ELC course, research in Master’s, and achieve my goal to work in Australia.” (Isabella)

“English course is the gateway for my Master’s degree. English will be a helpful tool to finish a Master’s and start my future here.” (Sandy)

Veronica used the metaphors of a farmer, crops and the land to describe herself, her goals and Australia, respectively, emphasising that English was a tool which would enable her goals to be obtained in Australia:

“Learning English is like learning how to use a tool. I am a farmer learning how to farm Australia. The first step is to find out how to use this tool adequately so I can grow great crops in this land.” (Veronica)

In addition, Sue (LT) and Cindy (ST) showed personal interest in language learning itself. Sue wanted to become an English teacher; and her motivation for English learning was in connection with her dream. Cindy was interested in learning English and other languages, as her “ambition”; nonetheless, she still considered English as “the most important language” to communicate with foreigners.

Phases 2 and 3: STs’ beliefs did not change; however, all LTs realised the importance of interacting with others in terms of linguistic gains (Phase 2), and aligned communicative purposes with their initial beliefs (Phase 3). Figure 5.3 is a visualisation of changes in their beliefs.

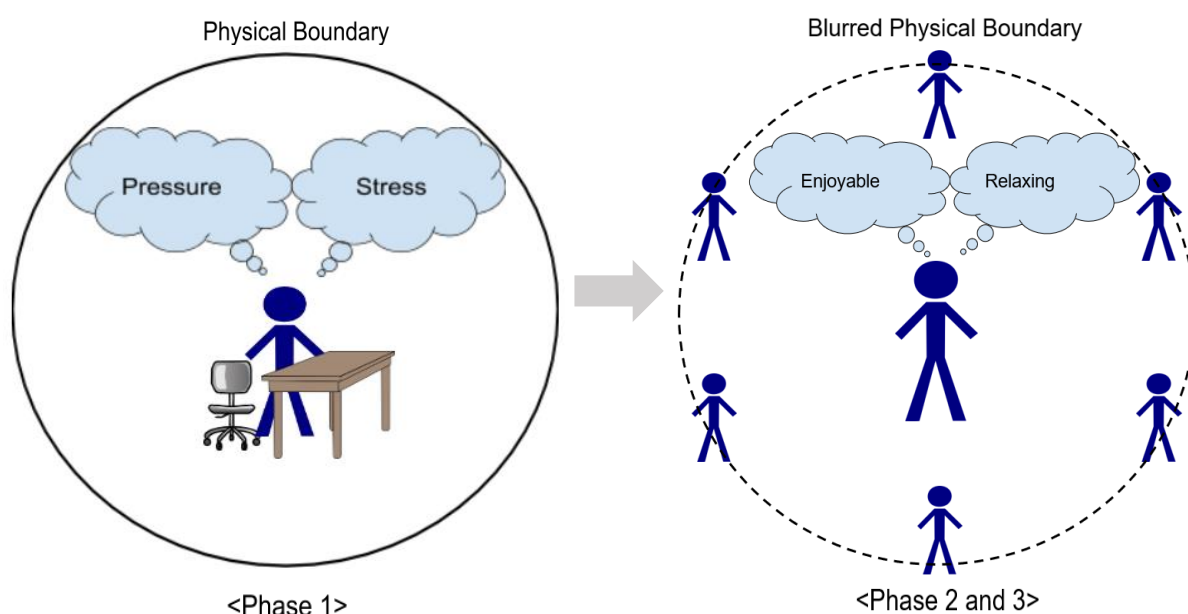


Figure 5.3 Changes in Long-term Students' Beliefs

Their beliefs changed according to this new conception of 'studying English'. This conceptualisation was initially restricted within the physical boundary of the classroom or "desk" (e.g. memorising vocabulary, writing essays, or reading articles), considered as 'pressure' or 'stress'. However, it started being acknowledged as a matter of learning in the course of "interactions with others" in the emotional states of 'relaxation' and 'enjoyment':

"I feel my English skill is improving by talking with people every day. I don't have to only look at textbooks on the desk, but I can study English by interacting with others. I used to feel pressured and stressed, but I enjoy studying English now." (David)

The most unforgettable episode or situation that I unexpectedly experienced was hanging out with Australians. I was at a spa with my cousins and their Australian friends. At that time, we chatted for hours. And relaxed! It was a great opportunity to practice English. His friend was familiar with my language level and kindly corrected my pronunciation. What I learned from this experience was I do not have to sit at the desk as English can be learnt in discussions with people in a relaxing place. This experience is really important for me because I learned I can learn English from people. (Isabella)

Unlike the other participants, Cindy (ST) mentioned the importance of communication at Phase 1, as she realised this from a year of her previous experiences of SA, during which she made significant improvement through communication:

“When I was in Australia, my English study was more related to real life, and improved a lot. When I went back to Korea, my English level decreased because I didn’t speak English with others. I thought I should learn English by communicating with people.” (Cindy)

Although Eileen (ST), June (ST) and Veronica (LT) had previous SA experiences, their experiences were not as influential as Cindy’s were in terms of their beliefs. This is presumably because Eileen and Veronica attended SAs for pragmatic purposes over shorter periods, and June attended a year of SA in primary school. (Details of the impacts of previous SA experiences will be narrated in Section 5.2.4.)

5.2.2 Purposes and goals for study abroad

Individual narratives showed that the participants’ purposes and goals for SA were mainly influenced by the reasons for participating in SA and coming to Australia. It was identified that such reasons varied not only across individuals but also between the programs. Table 5.1, firstly, illustrates details of STs’ self-narrated reasons.

Table 5.1 Short-term Students' Reasons for Study Abroad Participation

Cindy	She found difficulties in practicing English in Korea. She realised that her English level “suddenly” decreased after returning to Korea from Australia (previous SA), due to “zero chances of practicing English with native speakers”. In addition, there were fewer opportunities to practice “actual English” in the class, although her major was related to English. She preferably wanted to come to Australia, as she wanted to travel to Melbourne to visit her friends.
Eileen	She found difficulties in practicing English in Korea, even though her major was related to English (like Cindy). She gained confidence in English from her SA experiences in USA, which motivated her to seek further SA. In addition, she wanted to travel overseas, but she needed financial support from her parents who would do so only if she was going abroad for ‘study’ (i.e. study tour or exchange student).
June	He cited less opportunities to practice English in Korea as the main reason to participate in SA (like Cindy and Eileen). Moreover, he was motivated to attend a SA program, saying that he did not learn much when he lived in Canada for a year, as “[he] was too young”.
Lina	Her previous trip to Europe, where she used English to communicate with others, inspired her to come to Australia to practice English, and “more importantly to travel again”.
Taylor	She watched American dramas, in which she imagined herself travelling abroad and using English in her daily life, and wished to be in real situations.

Phase 1: Table 5.1 shows that STs shared linguistic purposes (i.e. benefiting from more opportunities for practicing English in an English speaking country); nonetheless, they all prioritised touristic purposes (i.e. recreation mentality). Compared to the rest, however, Cindy, Eileen and June showed higher levels of linguistic motivation, relating their experiences of previous SAs to need for improvement. Whereas Eileen and June did not develop specific plans to accomplish their goals, Cindy, who was interested in language learning, aimed to use English with locals while travelling alone and with her international friends in Melbourne. All STs also wanted to improve intercultural competence (i.e. experiencing different cultures), and personal competence (i.e. confidence, and independence

through travelling alone). They especially emphasised their pragmatic purpose to obtain the certificate in order to demonstrate it in their resume as part of their skill set. Due to this reason, June and Taylor even preferred the shorter duration:

“There’s a lot to catch up on after going back to Korea. No matter how long my study abroad experience is, it is the same sentence in my CV.” (June)

“I think the duration of study abroad experience does not really matter. It is better to have a short-term experience and go back. In this way, I can save time and money, but still have ‘the same experience’ of being overseas as other long-term students [translated from Korean].” (Taylor)

Compared to STs, who shared basic features in common, individual differences appeared to be distinctive in LTs, specifically regarding the decisions to choose Australia as a SA destination over other countries. This means that although STs and LTs are equally ‘individually different’ as people, the differences emerged to different degrees for the two groups. The details of LTs’ self-narrated reasons are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Long-term Students' Reasons for Study Abroad Participation

Isabella	She wanted to study abroad for Audiology. Among English-speaking countries, she preferred Australia because "Audiology is well developed here, and provides better jobs compared to Iran". She liked the living standard (i.e. the gun policy) and lifestyle of Australia, based on stories of her relatives who live in Canada, USA, and Australia. (Her relatives in Australia seemed to have more relaxing lifestyles.) In addition, her mother, who had visited Australia, recommended it. Importantly, her relatives, whom she wanted to stay with, were in Sydney.
Sandy	She wanted to study abroad for Conversation Biology because, in Nepal, "it is difficult to find a job relating to [her] major; its national qualification is not globally valued; and the courses do not offer practical trainings". Her preferred country was Australia among English-speaking countries because she wanted to find a place where she could be financially capable (i.e. Australia allows students to work while studying and acquire a working visa after a two-year Master's degree); and where she could be with her husband (her husband was interested in Australian culture, and working at an Australian travel agency).
Sue	She observed that many students struggled communicating in English despite years of school learning, while working as a trainer at an education institution in China. She also found the same problem during her visit to Australia. Thus, she wanted to learn how to teach practical English in an English-speaking country to help Chinese students. Her preferred country was Australia as it was her first overseas trip destination.
Veronica	She wanted to change her working environment from Taiwan. She had bad memories about losing her grandfather when she worked in the Taiwanese hospital; and she preferred the working environment of the Western countries, influenced by her medical training experience in Canada. Her preferred country was Australia because her parents recommended it over America and Japan (where they thought that there would be gun problems and natural disasters, respectively), from which she received an offer for a Master's degree. In addition, her auntie, whom she wanted to stay with, lived in Sydney.
David	He wanted to change his working environment from Korea due to its working conditions, and absence of a formal system for chiropractors. His preferred country was Australia as he knew that the government funds chiropractic study.

Phase 1: Table 5.2 reveals that LTs had several considerations before coming to Australia. Given the participants' beliefs about English learning (presented in Section 5.2.1), STs viewed this SA as one of the qualifications that they could demonstrate as part of their expertise. However, for LTs, SA was directly connected to 'their study' and 'their life in Australia' (except Sue), which meant far more than the English course itself:

"This English course is not just about learning English, but about my future degree and my life in Australia. It is like a test to show people that I have ability to live in this country." (Veronica)

"I had to consider many things before choosing the country for my study, because that country might be the place where I will have my life in the future." (Isabella)

Furthermore, the longer duration required for an understanding more aspects about the country, such as living and working conditions (all), financial issues (Sandy), or emotional support from family (Isabella, Sandy, Veronica). Sue even said, "I will go back to China, but I still have years to study abroad. I wanted to come to Australia, where I felt familiar after the last trip". In addition, LTs presumably had more responsibility and reasons to relate to future career and working environment, given that LTs were the group of older ages (i.e. STs: B.A. students, and LTs: pre-M.A. students), and different nationalities with diverse educational backgrounds.

Given this background, LTs shared strong academic purposes (i.e. successfully finishing the English course and starting a Master's degree), as well as linguistic purposes (i.e. having improved English abilities, especially writing skills that would help them to accomplish assignments in their Master's degree). They wanted to obtain high scores in IELTS (an exam, commonly used in Australia to test international students' English fluency), as they had plans for potentially working and staying in Australia (except Sue). David and Veronica in particular made long-term plans to get PR to work as chiropractors in Australia. All LTs also aimed for improving intercultural competence (e.g. understanding Australian

culture, slang and lifestyle by interacting with people), and personal competence (e.g. maturity, creativity and independence).

Phase 2: The participants' linguistic goals changed either regressively or progressively, in accordance with the levels of their linguistic motivation. After experiencing difficulties in learning English, STs' linguistic goals changed according to the regressive fluctuation of motivation dynamics, prompted by their touristic motivation, unlike those of LTs which were detached from touristic motivation (see Figure 5.4).

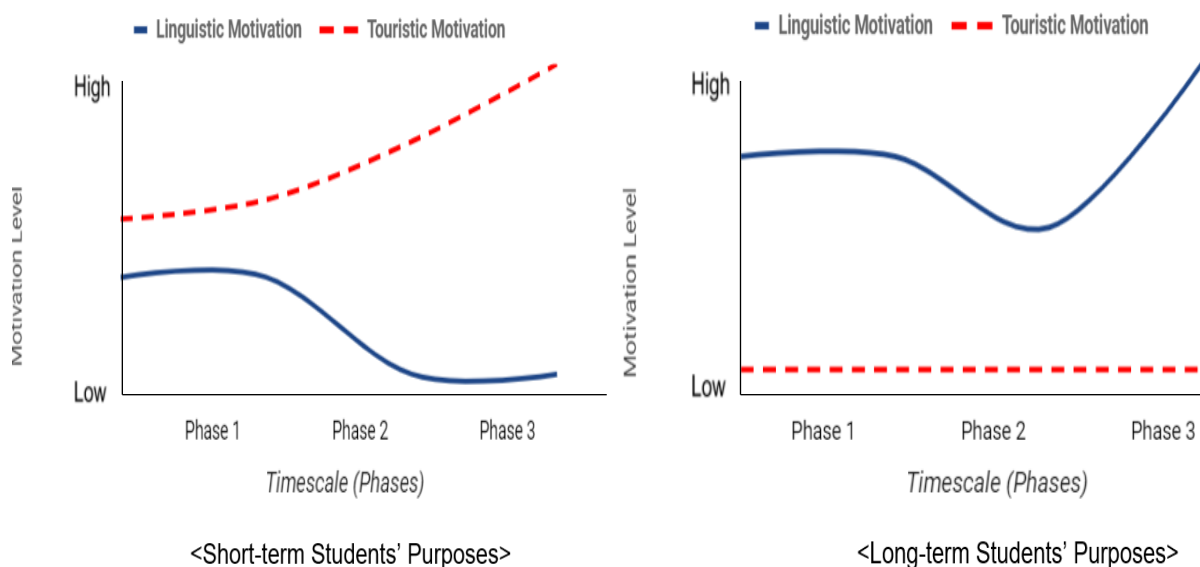


Figure 5.4 Effect of Linguistic and Touristic Purposes on Motivation

STs' linguistic motivation decreased as touristic motivation increased drastically. They spent more time with Koreans, even for Cindy, Eileen, and June, who showed higher linguistic motivation at Phase 1:

“If I don't think about English, it's better to go with Koreans. It's much easier to gather together and plan with them than other international classmates.” (Eileen)

“At first, I forced myself to avoid Koreans. But, being here with Koreans was helpful because they are always ready for anything. I don't need to waste my time finding others to travel with me.” (June)

However, LTs' linguistic goals gradually evolved, regardless of touristic motivation.

Although they struggled to progress with their study due to disappointment and demotivation with their own efforts (Phase 2), they were willing to overcome this by “pushing” themselves to achieve their goals, and thus developed sub-goals due to the extra motivation:

“I am demotivated, disappointed at myself. ‘You are not progressing.’ I am trying to solve this by writing stories and reading articles. I need to push myself.” (Isabella)

“My writing skill is not improving. I am stressed because I need this skill for university. I will study harder in class, and find high scoring essays in IELTS. I also made a summary for writing.” (David)

The findings on the participants' fluctuating motivation for linguistic goals provide insight into how motivation coincides with other variables in the context of SA, according to the direction of future goals.

5.2.3 Expectations toward study abroad: Future selves

The participants initially developed their imaginative ideas of future selves based on their expectations, shaped by the desire to overcome limitations of previous learning contexts in their home countries, e.g. exclusive focus on grammar and vocabulary, exam-oriented and one-way teaching style, and few native speakers. (They shared similar situational conditions, given that they were all from non-English speaking countries.) They reorganised their future selves after engaging in learning, especially in situations that were not comparable with their prior expectations, by which their motivational agencies arose to decide how to approach learning based on future goals. This reorganisation affected their motivation throughout their SA.

Phase 1: All the participants imagined their future selves as people who would be ‘fluent in English’, expecting to communicate with Australians. However, their conceptualisation about ‘communication’ varied between the groups (Figure 5.5).

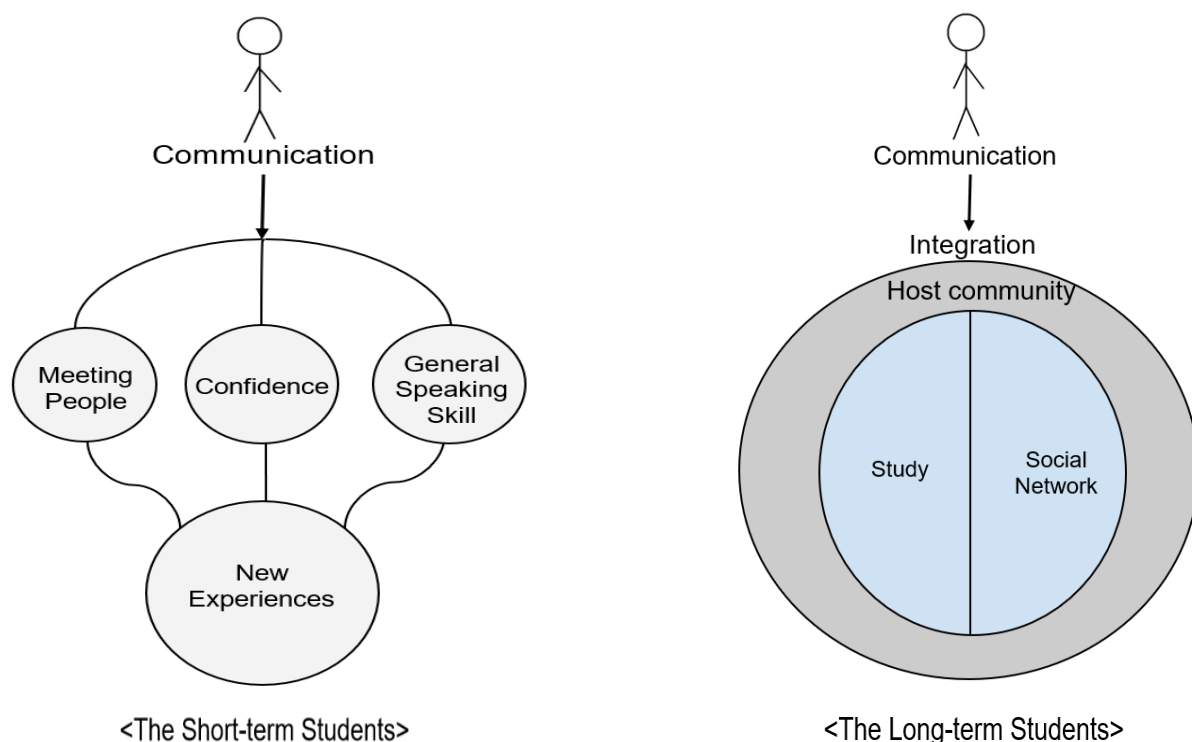


Figure 5.5 Conceptualisation of ‘Communication’

For all STs, ‘communicating’ meant ‘meeting people’ for “new experiences” and “confidence”, and if possible, talking with them for ‘general’ speaking skills. This conceptualisation was mainly based on the short duration itself and the strong priority of touristic purpose:

“I want to improve my English, but I don’t expect that it will happen in four weeks. I prefer to travel a lot to communicate with others for obtaining confidence and experiencing Australian culture [translated from Korean].” (Taylor)

For all LTs, ‘communicating’ meant practicing speaking not only for ‘their study’ but also for ‘integrating into this community and culture’, as they had strong expectations of “developing social networks”:

“I expect to have a deeper understanding of cultural exchange, and more knowledge about Australia. I expect to make friends and build social networks.” (Sue)

In particular, Veronica used the metaphor of “feeling different hearts” which she thought possible through communication:

“I expect to make friends and develop social networks through communication. I want to learn Australian cultural slangs, lifestyles, and personalities. I want to feel their different hearts.” (Veronica)

In this sense, LTs developed clearer imagination of future selves, describing certain linguistic parts that they expected to improve (e.g. learning Australian slang and accent), unlike STs who only addressed the surface level (i.e. speaking better English). They had more detailed plans to satisfy their expectations (e.g. interacting with customers at work, or talking with strangers on the street), compared to STs who had plans only to participate in pre-organised program activities (e.g. talking with homestay family). Among STs, June also expressed interest in learning the Australian accent; however, this initial interest turned out to be “a problem” that “[his] accents were getting weird”, saying “I need American accents to survive in Korea” (Phase 2).

In addition, those who had previous overseas experiences related them to their future selves, visualising themselves using English with locals “like what [they] did before”. (Details of previous overseas experiences will be narrated in Section 5.2.4.) Interestingly, Taylor, who did not have any previous experience of being abroad, imagined herself as “someone like the character” in American movies she had been watching, although her imaginative ideas were not as specific as those of other STs who had previous overseas experiences and of LTs who showed clearer linguistic goals, as her imagination did not involve the comparison with actual experiences and description about a certain English level to which she wished to reach.

Phase 2 and 3: The participants’ imaginative ideas of future selves became either vague or accurate (Phase 3), which were examined to be influenced by their experiences of social interactions, decisively arranged by their future goals in response to unexpected limitations in learning (Phase 2). Figure 5.6 compares the changed degrees of their future selves between the two groups.

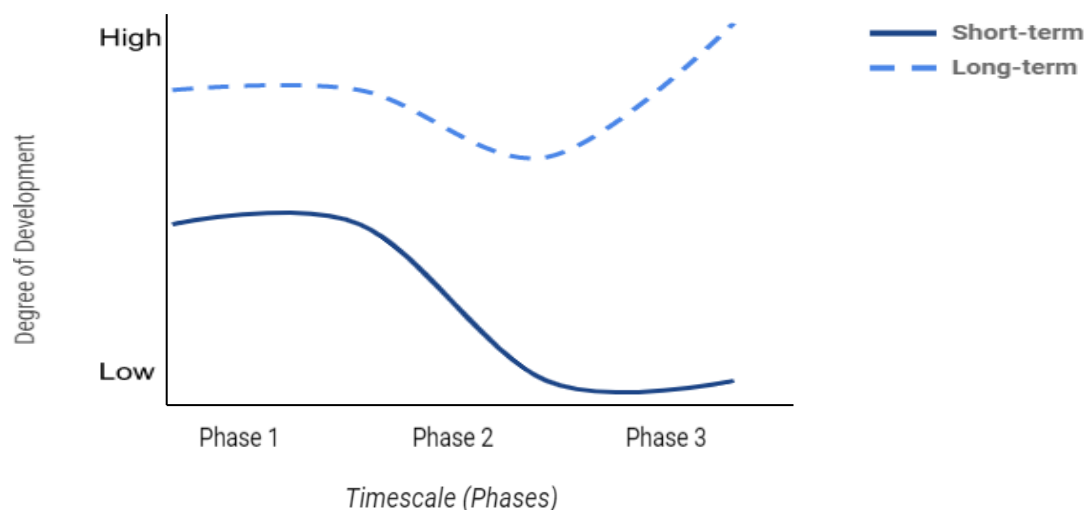


Figure 5.6 Development of Learning Expectation: Future Selves

At Phase 2, STs realised that they had unrealistic anticipations about classroom learning (i.e. limited situational conditions to practice English), and experienced difficulties in finding opportunities to talk with locals outside of the classroom (e.g. hesitation after experiencing racial discrimination; details will be narrated in Section 5.3.2). After experiencing such non-comparable situations, they no longer expected much from English learning, but instead preferred to travel. At Phase 3, as a result, they could not maintain their images of future selves of being fluent in English, except for Cindy who still wished to work at an international company in Korea where she would need to use English. All of them, nonetheless, emphasised that they gained confidence in speaking English:

“I am definitely more confident than before, but my English level would be similar to what it used to be [translated].” (Taylor)

By contrast, all LTs’ future selves became more accurate (Phase 3), after engaging in multiple social interactions in diverse learning activities (Phase 2), as they had planned (Phase 1). All LTs imagined themselves as “a bilingual” or “someone like a native speaker” who has “the same level of English with [their L1] level” and “barely makes mistakes” (Phase 3). In particular, Veronica described herself as one who would “understand their

humour, jokes and cultures, and become like an Aussie”. In addition, David compared his present role as a learner and future role as a teacher, saying “I want my English to be native level so that I can teach English. I want to become a teacher not a learner anymore”. Given the above comparison, it is a reasonable assumption that the more specific the learning goals are, the more accurate the future selves are, and therefore the more realistic they become.

5.2.4 Previous learning experiences of study and travel abroad

The participants’ previous experiences of study or travel abroad were influential in their expectations toward SA, specifically in their participatory decisions for another SA, and subsequently, in their present experiences of SA. Table 5.3 is a summary of the participants’ background of overseas experience.

Table 5.3 Participants’ Background of Previous Overseas Experience

Short-term	Study abroad	Travel abroad
Cindy	√ (a year English course in Australia, organised by herself in 2017)	
Eileen	√ (a semester exchange student in USA in 2017)	
June	√ (a year English course in Canada, organised by his parents in his primary school days)	√
Lina		√
Taylor		
Long-term	Study abroad	Travel abroad
Isabella		√
Sandy		
Sue		√
Veronica	√ (two months medical training course in Canada, organised by her undergraduate course)	√
David		√ (China)

The participants' previous SA experiences served as motivational drives which stimulated a desire to go abroad again. Cindy was motivated in terms of linguistic gains, due to her recent SA which resulted in self-realisation of her decreased English level after staying in Korea for a while. She said, "I was so shocked when I realised my English level decreased in Korea. I want it back". Although she did not plan to live in Australia, she was encouraged by "an English-speaking working environment where there is more freedom and flexibility", conceptualised by her realisation during previous SA that "Australians don't care about what others think about them". In addition, she had been motivated to a 'high' degree, presumably given that she organised that SA by herself. Eileen had a meaningful experience of making "a lifelong friend". She gained confidence about her English through this experience, which contributed to her decision to go abroad again, even though her purpose was in fact to obtain credits. June wanted to participate in another SA to recapture and improve what he missed before, saying, "I was too young to explore more than what I actually did or what I was supposed to do. I want to benefit more this time". Veronica specifically wished to work in a Western country, as she realised from her overseas training that there are "fewer patients for individual doctors compared to Taiwan, so doctors can take care of patients carefully", and "trustful relationships between doctors and patients, unlike Taiwan where people tend to follow folk remedies rather than scientific opinions". She said, "this experience strongly motivated me to decide to come to Australia when I wanted to change my working environment."

Furthermore, the present SA experiences of Cindy and Veronica were shaped by motivated learning behaviours influenced by their previous SA. At Phase 1, Cindy made an effort to interact with locals by visiting local markets alone rather than with Koreans (although this behaviour changed at Phase 3, after realising that she had limited time to travel at Phase 2). She thought that strangers would not approach her if she was in a group, as

experienced in previous SA. Veronica actively engaged in interactive activities besides the program activities (e.g. sports, volunteering work, and customer service work), saying, “I improved my English skills because I spent most of my free time with Canadian homestay family. I need to be with locals to improve my English”.

Previous travel abroad experiences, especially, impacted on the desire to experience different cultures, meet new people and see “the new world”. The participants gained confidence about their English through their experiences of interacting with foreigners in English, which inspired them to a large degree (except for David, who barely used English during his visit to China):

“I have been to Bali, USA, Germany, and Switzerland. I was scared of travelling abroad before, but these trips gave me huge inspiration to experience different cultures and confidence for solo travel.” (June)

In particular, Sue lost her confidence at first because of an episode at a restaurant in Australia; however, this eventually motivated her to consider participating in a long-term SA:

“Last year, I made my first overseas trip to Australia. There was a waiter at the restaurant who tried to talk to me when I ordered. I couldn’t converse with him. I was really shocked, and less confident at that moment because I learned English for many years but I couldn’t speak. I thought I should go to an English-speaking country again to practice in real situations.” (Sue)

It is thus certain that the student’s experiences, whether pleasant or regrettable, were meaningful, as those experiences were able to facilitate their learning by motivating them to seek for future overseas experiences.

The above analysis addressed RQ2 by aligning motivational factors which affected the participants’ linguistic motivation and showing the changes in each factor which occurred in response to the components of SA. The key aspects of the changes showed that the participants’ motivation fluctuated within the motivational dynamics, whereby such factors were influencing each other. Firstly, the participants reorganised their future selves,

modifying their learning expectations based on their learning goals. LTs' future selves were reinforced with linguistic goals, unlike the cases of STs, who were driven by touristic motivation (excluding Cindy). Secondly, their learning beliefs evolved depending on whether their goals would be achieved inside or outside of Australia. Within LTs' beliefs, interacting with host nationals was integral due to their strong desire to stay in Australia for a long-term (although Sue was planning to return to China, her course still aimed for a long-term stay). This allowed for more linguistically and culturally accurate improvements to future selves, compared to those of STs, which became vague. Lastly, both STs and LTs who had previous overseas experiences visualised clearer future selves, although LTs were more imaginative due to stronger goal orientations. This highlights the significant role of future goals in the dynamics of motivation development as a director for learning, which DMC emphasises as an important component within complex dynamic systems.

5.3 Motivation over the Course of Interactions

RQ3 led to an analysis of certain patterns of motivated learning behaviours, presented in the multitude of interactions. Based on journals, the participants' behaviours were reviewed in comparison with the oral and observational data, in terms of actual actions associated with motivational agencies which decided how to approach learning in the course of interactions. It was noticed that the participants' interactions were influenced by motivational factors, specifically by their future goals and expectations (identified to influence other factors, such as learning beliefs and future selves), which affected engagement in the given opportunities, and how to respond to situational difficulties or limitations.

5.3.1 Impacts of motivation on the types of interactions

The participants set clear goals and expectations for their SA experiences, and executed actions to search for learning opportunities which were solely related to their goals.

Their interactions were thus shaped by their intentions for engagement in learning, which decisively defined ‘a zone’ of learning contexts within or beyond the program. Figure 5.7 depicts the learning contexts, defined in relation to the participants of the two groups.

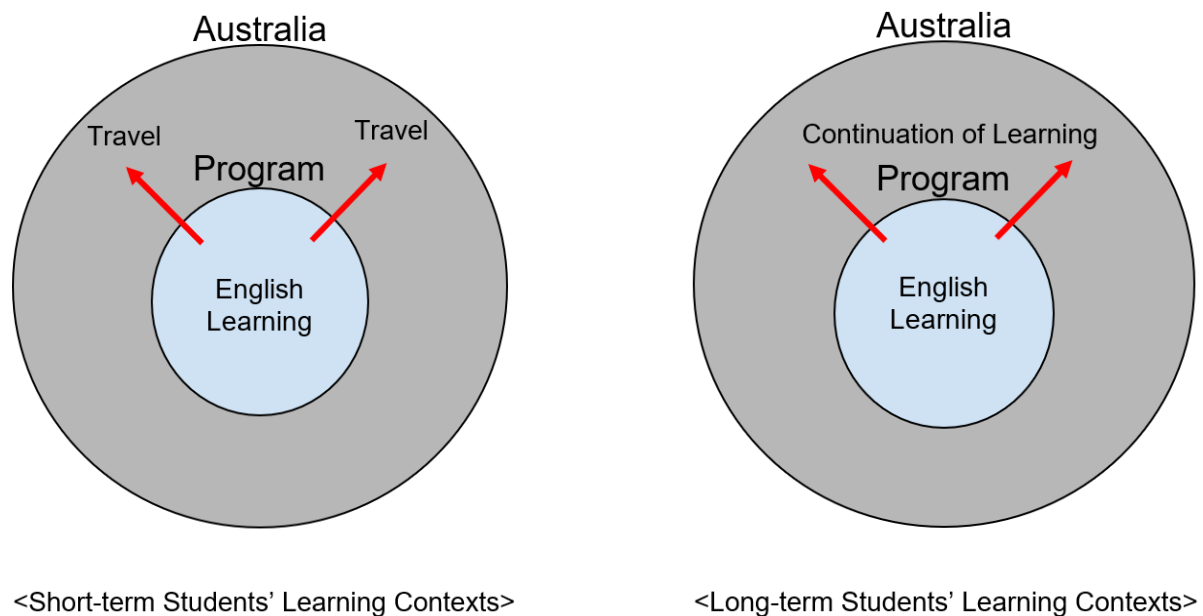


Figure 5.7 Students' Self-defined Learning Contexts

STs were observed to interact with learning opportunities and resources for linguistic gains within the program, and with extra-curricular activities beyond the program, to satisfy their touristic purposes. In other words, they engaged in program activities to the extent that they served as a means for improving their English, and remained clustered in monoethnic groups communicating in their native language as opposed to practicing English outside of the program (although this behavioural outcome may not have been their intention).

However, Lina was situated in a homestay situation with a family who constantly made an effort to speak with her, providing more opportunities to practice English, compared to the other STs. Nonetheless, her touristic motivation ultimately prevailed over her linguistic one, which resulted in a lapse in communication with her homestay family as she directed her attention towards tourism-based activities. In Eileen's case, she attempted to spend time with

Chinese classmates as a strategy to bypass the limited English learning opportunities of the monoethnic nature of the classes, these being predominantly Korean. In the end, this strategy was not as beneficial as she had expected, due to the different levels of English which did not sustain her motivation. As a result, she also became more interested in satisfying her touristic motivation. Cindy made an effort to visit regional markets in suburban areas by herself, so as to ensure that the probability of being approached by locals would be higher, believing that “people in rural areas are more approachable than city people” and that “people would not approach [her] if [she] was grouped with Koreans”. Cindy was approached by “a man who seemed interested in [her] and invited [her] for a coffee”. She accepted the invitation, making sure that they went to “an open area”, primarily as a means to further practice English, although she thought that the man was “creepy”. This suggests that Cindy’s motivational agency was triggered to a similar degree as one of the LTs, Veronica, who was in the similar situation of being approached by someone at work (as presented in Appendix H); although Cindy’s linguistic motivation was later reduced by touristic motivation due to the limited time.

By contrast, LTs were influenced by their goals to enhance linguistic skills, derived from a strong desire for academic success, which shaped their outside-of-classroom experiences accordingly. This means that they made more of an effort to practice English in situations which may not have necessarily required it. For instance, Isabella and David utilised work as an opportunity to further practice their English skills on their own accord, even though their primary purpose for working may not have been related to English learning. Sandy also engaged in conversations with strangers on the street and train for the purpose of practicing English. Furthermore, LTs engaged in activities which could help them to meet their future-oriented expectations of understanding the host cultures and of potentially integrating into the host communities. In this respect, Veronica participated in

volunteering work, a related occupation to medical assistant, for both linguistic and professional purposes; that is, communicating with people in medical areas not only to improve English skills but also to develop her professional networks. Sue attended a church and joined a choir as a means for attaining a higher English fluency, as well as social networks, although she was not religious. Given that she was planning to return home after her Master's degree, the LT program may have prompted a higher level of motivation, which could result in extra attempts to interact with locals due to the longer duration. Therefore, there is evidence that the participants' motivation gravitated not only towards the program features but also towards their personal dispositions, which guided their interactions to specific outcomes.

5.3.2 Responsive actions to the limited learning opportunities

All of the participants encountered a limitation in English learning in the classroom, as the majority of ELC students were internationals. The main consequence of this limitation was that a lower level of English proficiency was articulated amongst students in the classroom, due to the absence of native speakers (besides teachers). Thus, all the participants had to produce certain efforts to engage in social interactions to practice English both in and outside of the classroom. However, their responses or reactions toward this environmental limitation in learning presented varied motivational patterns between the two groups.

Some ELC students, who struggled to interact with different accents of English articulated within the classroom, often lapsed into communicating with each other in their native language as a consequential behaviour. In response to others' language choice, STs engaged in intergroup discourses in Korean. Although they at least tried to use English with Koreans and interact with other Chinese and Vietnamese students (Phase 1), it was demonstrated that they did not maintain this effort, and eventually 'ended up' using Korean most of the time (Phase 2) (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Classroom Observation Data (Example 1): Class 1 – Eileen, Lina, and Taylor

Observation questions	Field notes
<p>3. How do students interact with peers?</p> <p>a. Are they motivated to talk with peers?</p> <p>b. Which language do they use when interacting with peers, and are they motivated to use English?</p> <p>c. How do they respond to their difficulties when communicating with peers in English?</p>	<p>- Lina and Taylor used English when participating in tasks, but they used Korean interpersonally.</p> <p>- Eileen started talking in English; but when her members answered in Korean, she reverted back to Korean.</p> <p>- Lina was asked about the meaning of '<i>bullying</i>' from her partner in Korean. She translated the word into Korean.</p> <p>- When Taylor struggled to make full sentences without grammatical errors, she asked her friends in Korean.</p>

By contrast, although Sue and Veronica were constantly approached by groups of Chinese students attempting to initiate dialogue in Chinese, they always responded in English. In addition, unlike STs, who had little interaction with the teacher, LTs actively interacted with the teacher (see Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 Classroom Observation Data (Example 2): Class 2 – Sue, and Class 3 – Veronica

Observation questions	Field notes
3. How do students interact with peers? a. Are they motivated to talk with peers? b. Which language do they use when interacting with peers, and are they motivated to use English? c. How do they respond to their difficulties when communicating with peers in English?	<p>- When Sue was doing group work, her two other members started discussing in Chinese. She stopped them, saying “<i>English, English</i>”.</p> <p>- When Sue’s peer asked the meaning of the word, ‘<i>alleviate</i>’ in Chinese, she defined it for him in English. He was struggling to understand the meaning, so she explained it several times for him with different synonyms, e.g. <i>reduce, ease, relieve</i>.</p> <p>- When Veronica discussed the concept of ‘<i>tariff</i>’ with her members, she started a discussion by asking questions, e.g. <i>I think ~, what do you guys think?</i> One student used Chinese, but Veronica and her members kept using English, making him use English at the end.</p>
4. How do students interact with teacher? a. Do they talk with teacher? b. Do they ask questions? c. How do they respond to difficulties when communicating with the teacher in English? d. Which language skills are their questions related to (e.g. questions on pronunciation or accent, vocabulary, grammar, or writing)?	<p>- Sue asked questions to confirm her ideas to other members, e.g. <i>what do you think?</i> and asked it again to the teacher for correction.</p> <p>- Veronica was likely to ask questions whenever finishing her tasks while waiting for others to complete, e.g. <i>do you think this is okay?</i> or <i>I got it but I made it in a different way ~</i>.</p>

Furthermore, unlike STs, who did not devise any plans to overcome these limitations, all LTs developed more detailed strategies comprised of actions to be executed in the classroom (e.g. interacting with teachers and international peers as much as possible), and outside of the classroom as alternatives to the limited opportunities for practicing English in the class (e.g. interacting with customers at work: Isabella and David; talking with strangers on the street, the bus, or at the park: Sandy; going to the church: Sue; interacting with people at work, volunteering work, and a sports club: Veronica; and reading and listening to Australian news: all), so as to accomplish their purposes of academic success and linguistic gains:

“I found it hard to practice speaking and listening only in the classroom. So, I will talk more with local customers at work to improve my pronunciation and accents. I will also read and listen to news so that I can get used to the Australian accent and speed. Of course, I will ask many questions to my teachers in the class.” (Isabella)

“Chinese people always talk to me in Chinese, and that is annoying. But I have some plans after class. I will join a volunteering group and a sports club to meet locals. I’ve also found a part-time job, so I can interact with customers. I expect to learn a lot from these activities.” (Veronica)

Among STs, however, Lina was in an ‘advantageous’ learning environment surrounded by a receptive host family, from which she could overcome classroom limitations by taking advantage of them. Nonetheless, her learning ‘zone’ was still limited to the classroom, which suggests that her motivational dynamics had always fluctuated towards her strong touristic intentions.

Outside of the classroom, all STs had limitations to interacting with locals due to their lack of participation in interactive activities beyond their program. They consequently chose to spend time with other Koreans not only for touristic purposes but also for emotional relief to mitigate the stress in dealing with these difficulties (except Cindy):

“Although I spoke Korean all day, I could share our thoughts about school and class. We felt empathy for each other, and I relied on them as emotional support.” (Eileen)

In particular, Taylor was additionally demotivated because of racial discrimination which she experienced in town, and was afraid of being alone outside of the classroom:

The most unforgettable episode or situation that I unexpectedly experienced was I was being racially discriminated on the bus. At that time, there was a local passenger who shouted at us, “Why only Asians here!” I was so frustrated, but one of my friends made me calm down. What I thought from this experience was it is better to be with Koreans so that I can get emotional support in such situations [translated from Korean].

Unlike the other STs, Cindy's reduced linguistic motivation came back to the initial level at the very end of her SA after she visited her friends in Melbourne, describing that "[she] used English more freely than [she did] in Sydney":

The main event that I joined to practice English was travelling to Melbourne for a holiday to meet my old friends. [Option 1-2.] From the beginning, I thought this event would be really helpful for me to use English more freely than in Sydney because I have foreign friends in Melbourne. That is why I tried hard to talk as much as I could. From this event, I realised that I forgot how important it is to keep using English to communicate regardless of the nationality.

Given that Cindy had personal interest in language learning and that she attended another SA recently and in the same country, Cindy must have been an active agent in English learning compared to the other STs. This means that although she was influenced by the program features, she still found extra learning opportunities through travel. This finding implies that each individual had different motivational dynamics which led them to different levels of motivation, even in the same program, and thus constructed their own complexity of interactions.

LTs also experienced struggles in progressing their study, but also received emotional support from people of the same nationality (i.e. relatives: Isabella and Veronica; neighbours: Sandy; flatmates: Sue; and work colleagues: David). Nonetheless, they wanted to be independent from them, and to continue seeking opportunities to ultimately integrate into Australia:

The most unforgettable episode or situation that I unexpectedly experienced was a surprising family dinner. I had just finished my exam and I was mentally exhausted. At that time, my aunt and cousin were waiting for me near the university to surprise me as they knew I had a tough week with work and exams. We went to the restaurant, and had a wonderful night. However, what I thought from this experience was if I am with my family, I don't practice English and I can't improve my English. I thought I must have such experiences not with my family but with my foreign friends, forcing myself to speak English and get involved in this society. (Isabella)

The observed interactions addressed RQ3 by showing that the participants' initial linguistic motivation influenced how they responded to learning opportunities offered by the program and how they planned to engage in such opportunities or find extra activities beyond the program. Their interactions with host nationals and efforts for integration into host communities occurred to different degrees due to the levels of initial motivation, which were modified or reinforced over the course of social interactions. During SA, their motivation decreased after experiencing difficulties in practicing English; however, the observed behavioural patterns in response to such difficulties showed contrasting results. The motivational agencies of LTs drove them to search for alternative learning opportunities, unlike the cases of STs, who focused solely on travel irrespective of the language they used. In this phase, such interactions ultimately affected their motivation throughout their SA (excluding Cindy, whose complexity of interactions was formed based on her own personal deposition).

In these respects, motivation appeared to be a mechanism of influence on the participants' interactions, due to the ways in which it was guided by their intentions. As SA experiences were comprised of a series of learning interactions within the learning contexts, selected by the participants themselves, motivation also influenced the outcomes of SA experiences. Therefore, the participants' interactions were mutually interdependent with their motivations, constantly fluctuating throughout their SA.

5.4 Summary

This chapter has presented key findings from the data analysis related to the research questions. This study confirms that the outcomes of SA can be different due to the program features, clustered based on duration. Furthermore, it suggests that learners' motivation fluctuates based on inter-related diverse factors which are likely to change in accordance with their social interactions in the learning contexts, decisively defined by the learners within or

beyond the program. In other words, learners' motivation and interactions mutually coexist in the context of SA; insofar that SA experiences are presented as motivated learning behaviours. Chapter 6 provides further discussion of these findings, based on the theoretical framework of CDST/DMC.

Chapter 6. Discussion

This chapter reflects on the findings presented in Chapter 5, with reference to the research questions based on the theoretical framework of CDST/DMC. The three main findings support the complex and dynamic aspects of motivation outlined in the literature review. Section 6.1 focuses on the learning contexts, particularly defined in relation to the learners within or beyond the program. Section 6.2 addresses the dynamic nature of motivation, constantly fluctuating in an intricate mode of interactions, whereby multiple motivational factors were influencing each other. Section 6.3 discusses the interdependent relationship between motivation and interactions, presented as certain patterns of motivated learning behaviours as the result of recursive contact with the components of SA.

6.1 Complex Dynamic Systems in the Context of Study Abroad

RQ1 addresses the effects of different SA durations on the outcomes of SA experiences, in terms of the level of motivation and the quality of interactions. Although the question itself implies that the program duration may condition the participants' learning, the findings suggest a more complex view that the participants defined their own systems of learning contexts in accordance with their motivation.

This study demonstrates the specific program features in which a program displayed its systems of learning contexts, based on the program dimensions proposed by Benson et al. (2013). This study in particular shows the importance of learning opportunities organised by the program based on educational purposes, like Chieffo and Griffiths (2009) and de Saint-Léger and Mullan (2018). Whereas those two studies focused merely on the programs of short duration, the present study highlights the effects of varying program durations by comparing the extent to which shorter and longer programs fostered learning. The findings further highlight the role of the participants' learning purposes, which functioned as motivational drives defining their own learning 'zones' within or beyond the pre-designed

systems of the program. In particular, LTs' interactions expanded beyond the program and integrated into the large system of Australia. This suggests that the alignment of the participants' purposes with those of the program led to SA experiences comprised of more opportunities for interactions with a target language, due to the higher levels of motivation for utilising resources in the context of SA.

This study thus enhances the understanding of Kashiwa and Benson's (2017) view of the SA context as a transition of learning environments, which energises the participants' motivational agency to construct their own learning environments. In this respect, the present study provides insights into the perspective of Muir and Dörnyei (2013) in that such environmental change in the systems of learning contexts energises the participants' learning by enhancing their motivation. Furthermore, the findings of this study confirm the observation by Lee (2014), by revealing 'investment-based socialisation' which the participants provoked in order to adjust to new systems in the course of social interactions. Nonetheless, the findings here differ from those of Lee in that they point to different degrees of investment, shaped by the different levels of motivation which were influenced by the program durations.

In addition, the observed anomalies indicate the range of interactions accompanying learning opportunities as emergent components which stem from the individual. In other words, the individual can be centred as the nexus within these complex systems. As was in the case of Cindy, the systems were extended to cover areas beyond the program (e.g. local markets where she practiced English with locals), unlike the other STs whose systems were confined to their program. This study thus reveals the different extents to which the participants integrated their learning into the programs according to their temperament. This finding displays the relativistic emergence of motivation in accordance with program features and learning temperaments. Therefore, the analysis of SA programs signifies duration as a

catalyst for motivation development throughout interactions, by shaping the levels of initial motivation that defined the range of learning opportunities, from which subsequent motivational trajectories emerged.

6.2 The Dynamic Nature of Motivation

RQ2 examined the influences on the participants' motivation for SA experiences of language learning. Previous studies have found that personal factors, such as attitudes, expectations or goals, shape students' linguistic motivation, enhancing or preventing their learning (e.g. Allen, 2010b; Kim, 2009). The contextual factors have been also confirmed by empirical studies as having impacts on motivation, being observed in recursive interactions of negotiating social norms and cultures (e.g. DuFon, 2006; Goldoni, 2013; Groves et al., 2016). However, the present study further synthesises motivational factors with personal and contextual dimensions in the course of interactions, by analysing individual narratives from a complex and dynamic perspective. For example, Sue's linguistic motivation was influenced by her dream to become an English teacher which triggered interest in English learning (i.e. a personal dimension), and interactions with locals at a church which energised her interest to a greater extent (i.e. a contextual dimension). This study also demonstrates Benson et al.'s (2013) explanation of integral dimensions of motivation development which include the multitude of interactions that took place in the previous learning contexts and are linked to the present context. For instance, Eileen's confidence (i.e. a personal dimension), attained from a previous exchange student program (i.e. a contextual dimension), inspired her to come to Australia and to interact with international classmates; but this motivation decreased due to difficulties in understanding those who had different English levels (i.e. a contextual dimension).

Furthermore, this study confirms Papi and Teimouri's (2014) findings on the relationship among factors and their relationship with the context of SA. However, the

findings of this study are further associated with the extent to which linguistic motivation evolved in response to SA components, as a result of the fluctuations of motivational dynamics whereby multiple factors were influencing each other. Interestingly, the findings point to contrasting flows of changes between the two groups, in which the participants began to reorganise their expectations toward English learning. In this respect, the results differ from those of Irie and Ryan (2014) in which students sustained their linguistic motivation by reorganising themselves after removing unrealistic anticipations, as STs in the present study could not maintain their linguistic motivation even after such reorganisations, due to strong touristic intentions (except Cindy). This study also presents the cases of LTs whose future selves were solidified, at which point motivation remained stable throughout a certain duration, as seen by Yashima and Arano (2014); nonetheless, contrasting results were also shown from the cases of STs whose future selves became vague.

From Muir and Dörnyei's (2013) perspective, LTs who had clearly defined goal-oriented future selves coalesced personal and contextual factors efficiently, as DMCs evoked goal related inclinations in learning. For this reason, LTs were able to continue learning even after experiencing negative contextual factors (e.g. limited opportunities for interacting with locals), as Campbell and Storch (2011) observe. The present study thus deepens the understanding of the role of future goals as a director for learning in the fluctuations of motivation, confirming DMC as an integral part of complex dynamic systems. In addition, this study supports DMC requiring a long-term period to occur. However, this study also discovers that imaginative future selves were clearer for STs with previous overseas experiences. This means that DMC is applicable to the ST cases, as future selves encompass a multitude of experiences throughout their entire learning careers. In other words, DMC in this context can be thought of as an ongoing complex dynamic system rendering the potential for its occurrence in future SA learning contexts, irrespective of the duration.

6.3 Interdependent Relationship between Motivation and Interactions

RQ3 investigates the influences of the participants' motivation on their interactions in the context of SA. This question relates to the observed behavioural patterns, associated with responsive actions, shaped by their motivation to engage in learning within complex dynamic systems of learning contexts. This study confirms the findings of Allen (2010a) that students' motivated learning behaviours are projected in contrasting ways depending on the focus of their motivation (i.e. linguistic motivation vs. touristic motivation). Nonetheless, this study is more related to programs of different durations which led the participants to view their SA in different ways (i.e. academic and life success vs. skillset building exercise), and thus to develop different types of motivation. Moreover, the findings are indicative of an initiation of motivational agencies to overcome situational limitations in the classroom, which was comprised of international students. In this respect, LTs sought out meaningful interactive opportunities to use English outside of the classroom due to higher levels of linguistic motivation; whereas STs did not engage in interactions with locals or non-Korean international students. However, this was not merely a matter of finding opportunities to practice English, but of integrating the importance of social interactions into the students' conceptualisation of 'studying'.

Furthermore, this study demonstrates Goldoni's (2013) findings that SA participants' learning experiences are based on their interactions with the components of SA. However, this study presents contrasting stories between the two groups, suggesting that the extent of linguistic and cultural integrative potential for SA students is contingent on the extent to which their motivational agency drove them to acquire opportunities for learning with locals, so as to become integrated into social communities. LTs made constant efforts to befriend locals, for example, by volunteering and joining a sports club (Veronica), or joining a religious community despite atheistic beliefs (Sue), for their purposes of establishing a social

network; whereas STs did not contact locals beyond program activities (except Cindy). In this respect, the findings strongly support the theoretical framework of CDST/DMC, presenting evidence of motivational impacts on social interactions within dynamic interactions between the learner and the context.

Importantly, this study highlights the impact of interactions on motivation. This study demonstrates the findings of Menard-Warwick (2004), in that STs were more reluctant to create interactive opportunities after encountering difficulties, especially in the case of Taylor, who was highly demotivated after experiencing racial discrimination. The study also observes that LTs' motivational agency prompted a reaction in response to limited opportunities, akin to Benson's (2012) case study. However, it also uncovers that STs exacerbated the decrease in their linguistic motivation by experiencing more interactions which contributed negatively to their motivational levels. In this respect, this finding correlates with 'learning plasticity' – ability to overcome limitations and innovate new systems of learning contexts – which was presented in the cases of LTs, with the relativistic emergence of motivation in accordance with the program. By contrast, the decrease in linguistic motivation in the cases of STs, who did not exhibit 'learning plasticity', created 'a motivational void' which they filled by cultivating touristic motivation, so as to enhance their overall SA experiences.

Therefore, this study indicates that 'motivation' and 'interactions' are mutually interdependent phenomena, in which the complex systems of learning opportunities provide the foundation for interactions. The participants decisively engaged in interactions in accordance with their contextually sensitive motivational trajectories, which adapted the participants themselves to the SA context and converted their SA experiences into 'motivationally guided interactions' within a large complex dynamic system of Australia.

6.4 Summary

This chapter has discussed the present study's findings in relation to each of the research questions, based on the theoretical framework of CDST/DMC. The findings have also considered relevant previous studies. The study confirms the importance of investigating SA programs based on the specific features of program dimensions, rather than merely on the duration itself, regarding motivational influence on the outcomes of SA. It also captures the dynamic nature of motivation fluctuations, identifying diverse inter-related motivational factors from the individual and contextual dimensions. Furthermore, it uncovers the interdependence between motivation and interactions, intertwined in complex dynamic systems, showing the appropriateness of the theoretical framework to analyse how motivation develops in accordance with interactions in the context of SA. Overall, the findings mainly confirm the importance of investigating 'motivation' in the experiences and outcomes of SA.

Chapter 7. Conclusion

In this chapter, Section 7.1 presents the contributions of the present study with reference to the key findings, as well as the methodology. Section 7.2 addresses the limitations of this study. Section 7.3 concludes with suggestions for further research.

7.1 Contributions

Firstly, the present study contributes to academic understanding of language learning in the context of SA. This contribution is made primarily through the employment of the theoretical framework of CDST, which was refined with DMC from ‘a person-in-context perspective’, proving to be an innovative research framework in the context of SA. This framework discovers, firstly, that DMC is pivotal to shaping motivation which is simultaneously influenced by the duration clustered with other program features; and secondly, that DMC drives students to expand their complex dynamic systems beyond their programs as a means to utilise resources within a broader SA context. This means that each learner has his/her own complexities which influence his/her motivated learning behaviours within a large complex dynamic system. This framework thus shows that the SA experience is not merely a matter of immersion into a target language but also an occurrence of DMC that defines learning systems. In addition, DMC is found to occur in future learning contexts among those who have previous SA experiences. This reveals that motivation is continually transmuted into motivated learning behaviours in a multitude of learning contexts as part of an ongoing learning career. Therefore, this study contributes a new research approach highlighting DMC as an innovative concept in CDST, even in short-term SA.

Secondly, the methodology used in this study, thematic analysis of narratives at three levels (i.e. triangulation of multiple sources, synthesis of narratives into cases, and comparison of the cases between the groups), offers an opportunity to thoroughly analyse motivated learning behaviours. This procedure contributes to provisional analysis on the

motivational fluctuations as a dynamic phenomenon from the perspectives of the participants. In addition, by analysing narratives from the participants' own perspectives, complex systems of their learning contexts were defined in relation to themselves; this involved the examination of individual and contextual dimensions of its development. The analysis was improved by rigorous examination using NVivo, which allowed for a continuous comparison of learners' accounts gathered from multiple sources and a display of these accounts in a sequential order. NVivo specifically assisted in the comparison of the attributes of the coded themes between the groups, through 'matrix coding queries'. In these respects, the study enhanced the reliability of data, which qualitative research mostly lacks. This study can thus guide other qualitative research in ensuring data reliability when addressing 'subjective reality'.

Lastly, the study itself has contributed to the students' motivation through orchestrating interview questions, related to the motivational factors they could identify within the learning process, offering them an opportunity for self-reflection and improving their overall SA experience. The study also employs journals which the students typically found to be useful participatory resources to record their experiences. Thus, this study offers a supplementary resource that English learners can interact with, to help them implement a framework to create more experiences, verify their own narratives of learning, and account for interactions and activities as a means of improving their learning experiences. Therefore, this study contributes to future SA research projects by being a useful resource which learners can leverage to enhance their SA outcomes, and by providing an in-depth research methodology for identifying, analysing and understanding learners' motivation.

Overall, this study contributes a holistic understanding of the individual factors within complex dynamic systems, by showing the experiences of students in a diverse range of activities over the course of SA. Throughout this process, this study provides a perception of

how learners ‘propagate’ motivation throughout their interactions within SA programs by assigning ‘cognitive weight’ to their experiences.

7.2 Limitations

Among the program dimensions adopted in this study (i.e. duration, educational level, organisation, learning opportunities, and purpose), it was difficult to examine the relationship between the educational levels and duration, as groups in both durations were of a similar educational level (i.e. STs: B.A, and LTs: pre-M.A). Furthermore, the study is limited by the duration of the data collection, as the participants could only be observed over a four-week period. Although STs were observed for the entirety of their four-week program, for LTs this was merely a partial time frame. It would have been beneficial if LTs were observed throughout the entirety of their program, so that more fluctuations in their motivation and diverse motivational factors could have been identified. It was also difficult to recruit ST participants of diverse nationalities, as there were only Koreans among study tour students during the data collection period. In addition, there was only one researcher’s interpretation of the data applied in this study, which could contribute to a limitation in terms of trustworthiness. However, through the systematic thematic analysis procedure, I consider that this research has offered provisional answers to the research questions, and therefore concerns about the subjectivity of the interpretation of data have been mitigated.

7.3 Suggestions for Future Research

As a benefit to future research on program features, further examination of the dimensions of the educational level and duration would reveal an in-depth understanding of the discrepancies between educational levels and motivation within specific durations. In order to further investigate the fluctuations of learners’ motivation, future research can also focus on the learners’ motivation throughout the entirety of their program, to unveil a clearer image of the dynamic nature of motivation, the multitude of interactions within SA, and the

close interrelationship between motivation and interactions. The theoretical framework which has been suggested in this study would also suffice as an effective tool to solidify the analysis of complex dynamic systems in different contexts. The research premise can be expanded beyond English learning by exploring the differences between English speakers in a non-English speaking country and non-English speakers in an English speaking country, so as to determine whether the universality of ‘the language status’ contributes to motivational fluctuations and, subsequently, to outcomes of SA experiences.

In addition, the contrasting results in the outcomes of SA experiences between the two programs reveal the potential for a programmatic shift in terms of the designs for ST programs. The ST program in this study did not allow for outstanding linguistic achievements due to its sheltered configuration, which is likely to be found in investigations into other ST programs; nonetheless, this group orientation may be inevitable due to the short duration of the program itself. This highlights potential structural deficiencies within the short-term design which does not cater for optimal linguistic growth. Future research projects can focus on the program designs to investigate their effectiveness in terms of motivation (i.e. prolonged program activities including continuous interactions with the same buddies vs. minimal contact program activities including numerous buddies). Ultimately, this study benefits future research into SA programs as it functions as the framework for examining the relationship between the range of learning contexts and the linguistic and cultural opportunities; and subsequently, is the crux for deeper investigation into motivation in the context of SA.

References

- Alharbi, F. (2017). *The dynamics of the L2 motivational self system among Saudi study abroad students* (Doctoral dissertation). Florida, USA: University of South Florida.
- Allen, H. W. (2010a). Language learning motivation during short-term study abroad: An activity theory perspective. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(1), 27–49.
- Allen, H. W. (2010b). What shapes short-term study abroad experiences? A comparative case study of students' motives and goals. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 14(5), 452–470.
- Allen, H. W. (2013). Self-regulatory strategies of foreign language learners. In C. Kinginger (Ed.), *Social and cultural aspects of language learning in study abroad* (pp. 47–73). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Allen, H. W., & Herron, C. (2003). A mixed methodology investigation of the linguistic and affective outcomes of summer study abroad. *Foreign Language Annals*, 36(3), 370–385.
- Barkhuizen, G. (2008). A narrative approach to exploring context in language teaching. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 62(3), 231–239.
- Barkhuizen, G., Benson, P., & Chik, A. (2013). *Narrative inquiry in language teaching and learning research*. New York: Routledge.
- Barkhuizen, G., & Wette, R. (2008). Narrative frames for investigating the experiences of language teachers. *System*, 36(3), 372–373.
- Bazeley, P. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo*. London: SAGE.
- Benson, P. (2011). Language learning and teaching beyond the classroom: An introduction to the field. In P. Benson & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Beyond the language classroom* (pp. 7–16). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Benson, P. (2012). Individual differences and context in study abroad. In W. M. Chan, K. N. Chin, S. K. Bhatt, & I. Walker (Eds.), *Perspectives on individual characteristics and foreign language education* (pp. 221–238). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Benson, P. (2014). Narrative inquiry in applied linguistics research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34, 154–170.
- Benson, P., Barkhuizen, G., Bodycott, P., & Brown, J. (2013). *Second language identity in narratives of study abroad*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Benzie, H. J. (2010). Graduating as a “native speaker”: International students and English language proficiency in higher education. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 29(4), 447–459.
- Boo, Z., Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). L2 motivation research 2005-2014: Understanding a publication surge and a changing landscape. *System*, 55, 145–157.
- Campbell, E., & Storch, N. (2011). The changing face of motivation: A study of second language learners’ motivation over time. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34(2), 166–192.
- Carolan, B. V. (2014). *Social network analysis and education theory, methods, and applications*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Chang, Y. (2015). Science motivation across Asian countries: Links among future-oriented motivation, self-efficacy, task values, and achievement outcomes. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 24(1), 247–258.
- Chieffo, L., & Griffiths, L. (2009). Increasing acceptance of short-term study abroad programs. In R. Lewin (Ed.), *Handbook of practice and research in study abroad: Higher education and the quest for global citizenship* (pp. 365–380). New York: Routledge.

- Chirkov, V., Vansteenkiste, M., Tao, R., & Lynch, M. (2007). The role of self-determined motivation and goals for study abroad in the adaptation of international students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 31(2), 199–222.
- Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2017). Thematic analysis. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 12(3), 297–298.
- Coleman, J. A. (2013). Researching whole people and whole lives. In C. Kinginger (Ed.), *Social and cultural aspects of language learning in study abroad* (pp. 27–56). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Coleman, J. A. (2015). Social circles during residence abroad: What students do, and who with. In R. Mitchell, N. Tracy-Ventura, & K. McManus (Eds.), *Social interaction, identity and language learning during residence abroad* (pp. 33–52). Amsterdam: European Second Language Association.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Csizér, K., & Kormos, J. (2009). Learning experiences, selves and motivated learning behaviour: A comparative analysis of structural models for Hungarian secondary and University learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 98–119). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Daly, A. J. (2010). *Social network theory and educational change*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Davidson, D. E. (2007). Study abroad and outcomes measurements: The case of Russian. *Modern Language Journal*, 91(2), 276–280.
- de Bot, K., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2011). Researching second language development from a dynamic systems theory perspective. In M. H. Verspoor, K. de Bot, & W. Lowie

- (Eds.), *A dynamic approach to second language development* (pp. 5–23). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- de Bot, K., Lowie, W., & Verspoor, M. (2007). A dynamic systems theory approach to second language acquisition. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 10(1), 7–21.
- de Saint-Léger, D., & Mullan, K. (2018). A short-term study abroad program: An intensive linguistic and cultural experience on a neighbouring Pacific island. In C. Sanz & A. Morales-Front (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of study abroad research and practice* (pp. 293–307). Milton: Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9–42). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Chan, L. (2013). Motivation and vision: An analysis of future L2 self images, sensory styles, and imagery capacity across two target languages. *Language Learning*, 63(3), 437–462.
- Dörnyei, Z., Ibrahim, Z., & Muir, C. (2014). “Directed motivational currents”: Regulating complex dynamic systems through motivational surges. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 95–105). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P. D., & Henry, A. (2014). *Motivational dynamics in language learning*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. New York: Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow: Longman.
- Douglass, K. (2007). From the learner's perspective: A case study on motives and study abroad. In S. Wilkinson (Ed.), *AAUSC issues in language program direction: Insights from study abroad for language programs* (pp. 116–132). Boston: Heinle.
- DuFon, M. A. (2006). The socialization of taste during study abroad in Indonesia. In M. A. DuFon & E. Churchill (Eds.), *Language learners in study abroad contexts* (pp. 91–119). New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Dwyer, M. M. (2010). More is better: The impact of study abroad program duration. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 10, 151–163.
- Ellis, E. M. (2013). The ESL teacher as plurilingual: An Australian perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(3), 446–471.
- Flick, U. (2018). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data collection*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Freed, B. F., Segalowitz, N., & Dewey, D. P. (2004). Context of learning and second language fluency in French: Comparing regular classroom, study abroad, and intensive domestic immersion programs. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26(2), 275–301.
- Galipeau-Konate, B. (2014). *An investigation of the long-term impacts of a short-term education abroad program on global citizenship outcomes* (Doctoral dissertation). Virginia, USA: Shenandoah University.
- García-Nieto, N. C. (2018). Qualitative approaches for study abroad research. In C. Sanz & A. Morales-Front (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of study abroad research and practice* (pp. 58–67). Milton: Routledge.

- Ginsberg, R. B., & Miller, L. (2000). What do they do? Activities of students during study abroad. In R. D. Lambert & E. Shohamy (Eds.), *Language policy and pedagogy: Essays in honour of A. Ronald Walton* (pp. 237–260). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Goethals, P. (2015). Traveling through languages: Reports on language experiences in tourists' travel blogs. *Multilingua: Journal of Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Communication*, 34(3), 347–372.
- Goldoni, F. (2013). Students' immersion experiences in study abroad. *Foreign Language Annals*, 46(3), 359–376.
- Gore, J. E. (2005). *Dominant beliefs and alternative voices: Discourse, belief, and gender in American study abroad*. New York: Routledge.
- Gregersen, T., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). "I can see a little bit of you on myself": A dynamic systems approach to the inner dialogue between teacher and learner selves. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 260–284). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Groves, O., Verenikina, I., & Chen, H. (2016). Mapping participation in situated language learning. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 35(2), 267–281.
- Harber, K. D., Zimbardo, P. G., & Boyd, J. N. (2003). Participant self-selection biases as a function of individual differences in time perspective. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 25(3), 255–264.
- Henry, A. (2014). The dynamics of L3 motivation: A longitudinal interview/ Observation-based study. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 315–343). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Hernández, T. A. (2010a). Promoting speaking proficiency through motivation and interaction: The study abroad and classroom learning contexts. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(4), 650–670.

- Hernández, T. A. (2010b). The relationship among motivation, interaction, and the development of second language oral proficiency in a study-abroad context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(4), 600–617.
- Holmes, J., & Riddiford, N. (2011). From classroom to workplace: Tracking sociopragmatic development. *ELT Journal*, 65(4), 376–386.
- Ingram, M. (2005). Recasting the foreign language requirement through study abroad: A cultural immersion program in Avignon. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(2), 211–222.
- Irie, K., & Ryan, S. (2014). Study abroad and the dynamics of change in learner L2 self-concept. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 343–366). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Isabelli-García, C. (2006). Study abroad social networks, motivation and attitudes: Implications for second language acquisition. In E. Churchill & M. A. DuFon (Eds.), *Language learners in study abroad contexts* (pp. 231–258). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Kalocsai, K. (2014). *Communities of practice and English as a lingua franca: A study abroad of Erasmus students in a central European context*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Kashiwa, M., & Benson, P. (2017). A road and a forest: Conceptions of in-class and out-of-class learning in the transition to study abroad. *TESOL Quarterly*, 52(4), 1–23.
- Kashiwa, M. (2015). *Conceptions of language learning beyond the classroom: Exploring language learning ecologies and careers* (Unpublished master's thesis). Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia.
- Kim, T.-Y. (2009). The dynamics of L2 self and L2 learning motivation: A qualitative case study of Korean ESL students. *English Teaching*, 64(3), 49–70.
- Kim, T.-Y. (2011). Sociocultural dynamics of ESL learning (de)motivation: An activity theory analysis of two adult Korean immigrants. *Canadian Modern Language Review*,

67(1), 91–122.

- Kimura, D. (2019). “Seriously, I came here to study English”: A narrative case study of a Japanese exchange student in Thailand. *Study Abroad Research in Second Language Acquisition and International Education*, 4(1), 70-95.
- Kinging, C. (2008). Language learning in study abroad: Case studies of American in France. *Modern Language Journal*, 92(s1), 1–124.
- Kinging, C. (2009). *Language learning and study abroad: A critical readings of research*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kinging, C. (2011). Enhancing language learning in study abroad. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 31, 58–73.
- Kinging, C. (2013). *Social and cultural aspects of language learning in study abroad*. Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Kinging, C. (2015). Student mobility and identity-related language learning. *Intercultural Education*, 26(1), 1–10.
- Lanvers, U. (2016). Lots of selves, some rebellious: Developing the self discrepancy model for language learners. *System*, 60, 79–92.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2014). Ten “lessons” from complex dynamic systems theory: What is on offer. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 11–19). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larzén-Östermark, E. (2011). Intercultural sojourns as educational experiences: A narrative study of the outcomes of Finnish student teachers’ language-practice periods in Britain. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 55(5), 455–473.

- Lasagabaster, D. (2017). Language learning motivation and language attitudes in multilingual Spain from an international perspective. *Modern Language Journal*, 101(3), 583–596.
- Lee, E.-J. (2014). Motivation, investment, and identity in English language development: A longitudinal case study. *System*, 42, 440–450.
- Lee, J. F. K. (2009). ESL student teachers’ perceptions of a short-term overseas immersion programme. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(8), 1095–1104.
- Lewin, C., & Somekh, B. (2011). *Theory and methods in social research*. London: SAGE.
- Magnan, S. S., & Back, M. (2007). Social interaction and linguistic gain during study abroad. *Foreign Language Annals*, 40(1), 43–61.
- Menard-Warwick, J. (2004). “I always had the desire to progress a little”: Gendered narratives of immigrant language learners. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 3(4), 295–311.
- Mercer, S. (2014). Social network analysis and complex dynamic systems. In Z. Dörnyei & P. D. MacIntyre (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 73–82). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Moghaddam, A. (2006). Coding issues in grounded theory. *Issues in Educational Research*, 16(1), 52–66.
- Muir, C., & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). Directed motivational currents: Using vision to create effective motivational pathways. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 3(3), 357–375.
- Murphy-Lejeune, E. (2002). *Student mobility and narrative in Europe: The new strangers*. New York: Routledge.
- Nerlich, S. (2016). Counting outward mobility: The data sources and their constraints. In D. M. Velliaris & D. Coleman-George (Eds.), *Handbook of research on study abroad programs and outbound mobility* (pp. 40–65). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

- Norton, B. (2010). Language and identity. In N. Hornberger, & S. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 349–369). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Ortaçtepe, D. (2013). “This is called free-falling theory not culture shock!”: A narrative inquiry on second language socialization. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 12(4), 215–229.
- Papi, M., & Teimouri, Y. (2014). Language learner motivational types: A cluster analysis study. *Language Learning*, 64(3), 493–525.
- Pavlenko, A. (2007). Autobiographic narratives as data in applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 28(2), 163–188.
- Polkinghorne, D. E. (1995). Narrative configuration in qualitative analysis. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 8(1), 5–23.
- Rocheouste, J., & Oliver, R. (2014). English language growth and the international student. *HERDSA Review of Higher Education*, 1, 63–82.
- Ryan, S., & Mercer, S. (2011). Natural talent, natural acquisition and abroad: Learner attributions of agency in language learning. In G. Murray, X. Gao, & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Identity, motivation, and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 160–176). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Sasaki, M. (2011). Effects of varying lengths of study-abroad experiences on Japanese EFL students’ L2 writing ability and motivation: A longitudinal study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(1), 81–105.
- Starr-Glass, D. (2016). Repositioning study abroad as a rite of passage: Impact, implications, and implementation. In D. M. Velliaris & D. Coleman-George (Eds.), *Handbook of research on study abroad programs and outbound mobility* (pp. 89–114). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

- Takahashi, T. (2018). Motivation of students for learning English in Rwandan schools. *Issues in Educational Research*, 28(1), 168–186.
- Talmy, S. (2010). Qualitative interviews in applied linguistics: From research instrument to social practice. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 128–148.
- Thompson, A. S. (2017). Don't tell me what to do! The anti-ought-to self and language learning motivation. *System*, 67, 38–49.
- Trice, A. G. (2007). Faculty perspectives regarding graduate international students' isolation from host national students. *International Education Journal*, 8(1), 108–117.
- Trooboff, S., Vande Berg, M., & Rayman, J. (2008). Employer attitudes toward study abroad. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 15, 17–33.
- Ushioda, E. (2009). A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self, and identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 215–228). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Ushioda, E. (2014). Context and complex dynamic systems theory. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 47–54). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Verspoor, M. H., de Bot, K., & Lowie, W. (2011). *A dynamic approach to second language development: Methods and techniques*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Vince, S., Carston, C. S., Dean, Y., & London, C. (2015). Exploring the motivations, expectations, and experiences of students who study in global settings. *Journal of International Students*, 5(4), 368–382.
- Waninge, F., Dörnyei, Z., & de Bot, K. (2014). Motivational dynamic in language learning: Change, stability, and context. *Modern Language Journal*, 98(3), 704–723.
- Wellington, J. (2015). *Educational research: Contemporary issues and practical approaches*. London: Bloomsbury.

- Yashima, T., & Arano, K. (2014). Understanding EFL learners' motivational dynamics: A three-level model from a dynamic systems and sociocultural perspective. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 285–314). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Yates, L., & Wahid, R. (2013). Challenges to brand Australia: International students and the problem with speaking. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 32(6), 1037–1050.
- You, C., & Chan, L. (2014). The dynamics of L2 imagery in future motivational self-guides. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 397–418). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Appendices

Appendix A. Ethics Approval Letter

Human Sciences Subcommittee
Macquarie University, North Ryde
NSW 2109, Australia



12/10/2018

Dear Professor Benson,

Reference No: 5201835024710

Project ID: 3502

Title: Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia

Thank you for submitting the above application for ethical review. The Human Sciences Subcommittee has considered your application.

I am pleased to advise that ethical approval has been granted for this project to be conducted by Professor Philip Benson, and other personnel: Miss Yeong Ju Lee.

This research meets the requirements set out in the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research 2007, (updated July 2018).

Standard Conditions of Approval:

1. Continuing compliance with the requirements of the National Statement, available from the following website:
<https://nhmrc.gov.au/about-us/publications/national-statement-ethical-conduct-human-research-2007-updated-2018>.
2. This approval is valid for five (5) years, subject to the submission of annual reports. Please submit your reports on the anniversary of the approval for this protocol. You will be sent an automatic reminder email one week from the due date to remind you of your reporting responsibilities.
3. All adverse events, including unforeseen events, which might affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project, must be reported to the subcommittee within 72 hours.
4. All proposed changes to the project and associated documents must be submitted to the subcommittee for review and approval before implementation. Changes can be made via the [Human Research Ethics Management System](#).

The HREC Terms of Reference and Standard Operating Procedures are available from the Research Services website:

<https://www.mq.edu.au/research/ethics-integrity-and-policies/ethics/human-ethics>.

It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to retain a copy of all documentation related to this project and to forward a copy of this approval letter to all personnel listed on the project.

Should you have any queries regarding your project, please contact the [Faculty Ethics Officer](#).

The Human Sciences Subcommittee wishes you every success in your research.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Naomi Sweller".

Dr Naomi Sweller

Chair, Human Sciences Subcommittee

The Faculty Ethics Subcommittees at Macquarie University operate in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research 2007, (updated July 2018), [Section 5.2.22].

Appendix B. Recruitment Advertisement



Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.

You are invited to participate in a study investigating students' language learning experiences of study abroad programs in Australia.

Please join us if you:

- are over 18 years old.
- came to Australia through short-term study abroad program (shorter than 13-week) or long-term program (longer than 13-week).
- can participate for 4 weeks.
- can communicate with English or Korean.



What is involved:

- 3 interviews (each will take 30~45 minutes.)
- Writing 1 journal every week and sharing with us.
- Class observations (30~45 minutes of class observation will be conducted twice, but you will *NOT* be asked to do anything.)



You will be reimbursed \$60 for your participation.

(\$10 for the first interview, \$10 for the second interview, \$20 for the last interview, and \$10 for two journals)

If you are interested in joining us, please contact me.

yeong-ju.lee@students.mq.edu.au or 0403 242 358 (Crystal Yeong Ju Lee)

Appendix C. Consent Forms

Participant Information and Consent Form

Chief Investigator: Philip Benson, Professor of Applied Linguistics

Student researcher: Yeong Ju Lee, MRes student of Linguistics

Name of Project: Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.

You are invited to participate in a study of *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia*. The purpose of the study is to investigate individuals' language learning experiences of study abroad through a comparison of students between short-term and long-term study abroad programs in Australia.

The study is being conducted by Yeong Ju Lee to meet the requirements of Master of Research under the supervision of Philip Benson of the Department of Linguistics.

(contact telephone number: +61 2 9850 8756, email: philip.benson@mq.edu.au)

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to participate in this project over a 4-week period to share your stories of daily life experiences of English learning in and outside of the classroom during study abroad. You will be asked to participate in three interviews at the beginning, middle, and the end of the participation period. You will be asked to answer questions and add comments about your learning experiences and conceptions of study abroad. Each interview will take 30 to 45 minutes and that will be audio-recorded. You will be also asked to write one 2-page journal every week based on the given narrative frame, and return them through group emails. You will need to describe your learning opportunities and resources you use to practice English during study abroad. Your class will be observed twice to see your learning interactions with your peers and teacher. It will be observed only 30 to 45 minutes at a distance and without contact. You will be reimbursed \$60 for your participation, and it will be paid based on each participation (\$10 for the first interview, \$10 for the second interview, \$20 for the last interview, and \$10 for two journals). There will be no risks in participating in this project, and no disadvantages on your results and evaluations in the course at the English Language Centre.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential, except as required by law. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. Only the research team (Chief investigator and student researcher) will have the access to the data. A summary of the results of the data can be made available to you on request via email (Contact Yeong Ju Lee, email: yeong-ju.lee@students.mq.edu.au).

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, (participant's name) have read (or, where appropriate, have had read to me) and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name: _____
(Block letters)

Participant's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Investigator's Name: _____
(Block letters)

Investigator's Signature: _____ Date: _____

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics & Integrity (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

(INVESTIGATOR'S COPY)

Participant Information and Consent Form (Teacher)

Chief Investigator: Philip Benson, Professor of Applied Linguistics

Student researcher: Yeong Ju Lee, MRes student of Linguistics

Name of Project: Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.

You are invited to participate in a study of *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia*. The purpose of the study is to investigate individuals' language learning experiences of study abroad through a comparison of students between short-term and long-term study abroad programs in Australia.

The study is being conducted by Yeong Ju Lee to meet the requirements of Master of Research under the supervision of Philip Benson of the Department of Linguistics. (contact telephone number: +61 2 9850 8756, email: philip.benson@mq.edu.au)

If you decide to participate, your class will be observed twice to see students' learning interactions with you and their peers. Each class will be observed only 30 to 45 minutes at a distance and without contact. There will be no risks in participating in this project, and no disadvantages on your teaching career.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential, except as required by law. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. Only the research team (Chief investigator and student researcher) will have the access to the data. A summary of the results of the data can be made available to you on request via email (Contact Yeong Ju Lee, email: yeong-ju.lee@students.mq.edu.au).

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, (*participant's name*) have read (*or, where appropriate, have had read to me*) and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name: _____
(Block letters)

Participant's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Investigator's Name: _____
(Block letters)

Investigator's Signature: _____ Date: _____

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics & Integrity (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

(INVESTIGATOR'S COPY)

Appendix D. Interview Protocol – English

Protocol of the first interview

Research Project: *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.*

Date:

Time:

Place:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

Participant's profile

Gender	F / M	Nationality		L1	
Time of studying L2		Time in Australia		Program period	Short / Long (weeks)

1. Could you explain your study abroad program?
 - a. Which university or institution organised your program?
 - b. What are the activities or tasks you are required to complete, and resources you are provided through the program? (e.g., attending classes, excursions, buddy programs, or homestays)
2. Why did you apply for this study abroad program?
 - a. Have you ever participated in any other study abroad programs before?
 - b. What were your personal and external reasons? (e.g., motivation to make native speaker friends or to improve speaking skills, and graduation requirements or familial expectations)
3. Could you explain what you did in and outside of the classroom to learn English before you came to Australia, and what do you think about these experiences?
4. How do you feel about learning English, and why do you think you are learning English?
5. What do you expect from learning English in and outside of the classroom during study abroad?
 - a. Do you think your experiences in Australia will be similar or different to those in your countries?
6. What are the goals you would like to achieve from study abroad?
 - a. What linguistic skills do you want to improve, and why? (i.e., English skills)
 - b. What non-linguistic skills do you want to achieve, and why? (i.e., personal competence, e.g., global awareness, maturity, self-reliance, self-confidence, or problem-solving abilities; intercultural competence, e.g., mindfulness, flexibility, or empathy; academic competence, e.g., academic credits or qualification)
7. What can you imagine for yourself as a language learner in the future after study abroad?
8. Do you have any other comments that you would like to share?

Protocol of the second interview

Research Project: *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.*

Date:

Time:

Place:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

1. Could you describe what you tried to do to practice English in and outside of the classroom?
 - a. What activities and events did you join, and why? (e.g., conversation group, sports club, volunteering work, or bible study)
 - b. What resources did you use, and why? (e.g., native speakers, online messengers, movies, or music)
 - c. Were learning opportunities and resources provided in the program helpful?
2. Could you describe what you struggled with in practicing English in and outside of the classroom?
 - a. Have you been in a situation that hindered you from learning or speaking English?
 - b. Have you experienced difficulties in creating and finding your own ways of practicing English?
3. Could you tell me what you have done other than English learning?
 - a. Have you ever experienced an unexpected incident?
 - b. If so, who did you meet, and what did you do with them?
4. How do you feel about learning English, and why do you think you are learning English?
 - a. Did you realise any changes in your feelings about English once you arrived in Australia?
5. How relevant were your experiences to what you expected from study abroad?
 - a. What do you expect from the rest of your study abroad?
6. What are the goals you would like to achieve from the rest of your study abroad?
 - a. What do you want to mainly focus on between linguistic and non-linguistic skills during the rest of your study abroad, and why?
7. What can you imagine for yourself as a language learner in the future after study abroad?
8. Do you have any other comments that you would like to share?

Protocol of the third interview

Research Project: *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.*

Date:

Time:

Place:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

1. Could you describe your classroom experiences?
 - a. What major activities and interactions did you experience with your teachers and peers?
 - b. How relevant were your experiences to what you expected from study abroad? Are you satisfied with your experiences?
2. Could you describe your out-of-classroom experiences?
 - a. What major activities and events did you join through the program?
 - b. What major activities and events did you find by yourself beyond the program?
 - c. How did you interact with people to learn more about the culture?
 - d. How relevant were your experiences to what you expected from study abroad? Are you satisfied with your experiences?
3. What are the improvements you have accomplished including both linguistic and non-linguistic skills during study abroad? Are you satisfied with your improvements?
4. How do you feel about learning English, and why do you think you are learning English?
 - a. Do you think your study abroad experiences influenced your feelings about English, and why?
5. What are your future goals and plans for language learning?
 - a. Do you think your study abroad experiences influenced your future goals, and why?
 - b. Could you provide one or two specific experiences that influenced your plans the most?
6. Would you like to continue learning English?
 - a. Do you think your study abroad experiences motivated you to learn English further, and why?
7. Could you provide overall feedback about your study abroad experiences?
8. Do you have any other comments that you would like to share?

Appendix D. Interview Protocol – Korean

Protocol of the first interview

Research Project: *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.*

Date:

Time:

Place:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

Participant's profile

Gender	F / M	Nationality		L1	
Time of studying L2		Time in Australia		Program period	Short / Long (weeks)

- 본인이 수강하는 유학 프로그램에 대해 설명해 주시겠습니까?
 - 해당 프로그램을 어느 대학 혹은 기관에서 주최하였습니까?
 - 필수 활동이나 과제가 있나요? 프로그램 기간 동안 제공되는 학습기회 혹은 자료가 있나요? (예시: 출석, 야외활동, 버디 혹은 멘토 프로그램, 홀스테이 등)
- 왜 해당 유학 프로그램을 선택하셨습니까?
 - 이전에 다른 유학 프로그램에 참여한 적이 있습니까?
 - 해당 프로그램에 참여하게 된 내적(개인적) 혹은 외적인 이유에는 어떤 것들이 있었나요? (예시: 원어민 친구를 만들고자 하는 동기부여, 영어 실력을 늘리고자 하는 목표, 대학 졸업 요건, 가족의 기대 등)
- 호주에 오기 전 영어를 배우기 위해 수업 시간(교실 안)과 방과 후(교실 밖)에 어떤 활동을 했나요? 그러한 경험에 대해 어떻게 생각하십니까?
- 영어를 배우는 것에 대해 어떻게 생각하십니까? 본인이 영어를 왜 배운다고 생각하십니까?
- 유학 기간 동안 수업 시간(교실 안)과 방과 후(교실 밖)의 영어 학습을 통해 배우고 싶은 것 혹은 이를 통해 이루고자 하는 바가 있습니까?
 - 한국에서 영어 학습을 위해 했던 활동과 경험이 호주에서의 영어 학습 활동이나 경험과 비슷할 것이라고 생각하시나요, 아니면 다를 것이라고 생각하시나요?
- 유학을 통해 이루고자 하는 목표가 무엇입니까?
 - 어떤 언어 능력을 키우고 싶으십니까? 그 이유는 무엇입니까? (예시: 스피킹 실력, 발음 정확도 향상 등)
 - 언어 능력 외에 성취하고자 하는 것은 무엇입니까? 그 이유는 무엇입니까? (예시: 개인적인 발전, 즉 세계관, 성숙함, 자립심, 자신감, 문제해결능력 등, 타문화 이해능력, 즉 현실감각, 유연성, 공감능력 등, 학업관련 능력, 즉 학점 혹은 자격증 등)
- 영어를 배우는 사람으로서 해당 유학 프로그램을 마친 후, 자신의 어떤 모습을 상상하시고 계십니까?
- 마지막으로 하고 싶은 말이 있으십니까?

Protocol of the second interview

Research Project: *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.*

Date:

Time:

Place:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

1. 영어 학습을 위해 수업 시간(교실 안)과 방과 후(교실 밖)에 어떤 노력을 했습니까?
 - a. 어떤 활동 혹은 행사에 참여했으며, 그 이유는 무엇입니까? (예시: 회화그룹, 스포츠클럽, 자원봉사, 성경공부 등)
 - b. 이용하신 자료 혹은 학습기회에는 어떤 것들이 있었으며, 이를 이용하게 된 이유는 무엇입니까? (예시: 원어민, 온라인 메신저, 영화, 음악 등)
 - c. 해당 프로그램에서 제공된 활동과 자료가 도움이 되었습니까?
2. 수업 시간(교실 안)과 방과 후(교실 밖)에 영어 학습을 하면서 힘들었던 점이 있었습니까?
 - a. 영어를 배우거나 사용하는 데 있어 장애 요소가 있었나요?
 - b. 영어를 배우기 위한 활동을 찾거나 스스로 만들어 가는 과정에서 힘들었던 점이 있었습니까?
3. 영어 학습 외에 다른 활동은 무엇을 했습니까?
 - a. 예상치 못한 사건이 있었습니까?
 - b. 만약 있었다면, 당시 누구를 만나 어떤 활동을 했습니까?
4. 영어를 배우는 것에 대해 어떻게 생각하십니까? 본인이 영어를 왜 배운다고 생각하십니까?
 - a. 호주에 도착한 후, 영어에 관한 본인의 생각이 바뀐 부분이 있습니까?
5. 본인이 기대했던 유학생들과 실제 경험이 얼마나 일치하나요?
 - a. 남은 유학 기간 동안 기대하는 점이 있습니까?
6. 남은 유학 기간 동안 이루고자 하는 목표가 있습니까?
 - a. 남은 유학 기간 동안 언어 능력과 그 외의 부분 중 어느 것에 집중하고 싶으십니까? 그 이유는 무엇인가요?
7. 영어를 배우는 사람으로서 해당 유학 프로그램을 마친 후, 자신의 어떤 모습을 상상하시고 계십니까?
8. 마지막으로 하고 싶은 말이 있으십니까?

Protocol of the third interview

Research Project: *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.*

Date:

Time:

Place:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

1. 수업 내(교실 안)의 경험에 대해 설명해 주시겠습니까?
 - a. 선생님 및 같은 반 학생들과 주로 어떤 활동이나 교류를 했나요?
 - b. 수업을 통해 본인이 기대했던 것과 실제로 경험한 것이 얼마나 일치하나요?
수업 활동에 만족하십니까?
2. 방과 후(교실 밖) 경험에 대해 설명해 주시겠습니까?
 - a. 프로그램 기간 동안 주로 어떤 활동이나 행사에 참여하셨나요?
 - b. 프로그램을 제외하고 본인이 찾은 활동이나 행사가 있었나요?
 - c. 문화 습득을 위해 사람들과 어떻게 교류하셨나요?
 - d. 방과 후 유학생활과 관련해서 본인이 기대했던 것과 실제로 경험한 것이 얼마나 일치하나요? 방과 후 활동에 만족하십니까?
3. 유학 기간 동안 어떤 언어 능력을 향상시켰다고 생각하십니까? 그리고 그 외에 다른 능력은요? 이 결과에 만족 하십니까?
4. 영어를 배우는 것에 대해 어떻게 생각하십니까? 본인이 영어를 왜 배운다고 생각하십니까?
5. 영어 학습에 있어 미래의 목표나 계획이 있습니까?
 - a. 이번 유학 경험이 미래의 목표를 세우는 데 영향을 미쳤다고 생각하십니까? 그 이유는 무엇입니까?
 - b. 본인의 계획에 가장 많은 영향을 끼친 경험을 한 두 가지만 이야기해 주시겠습니까?
6. 영어 학습을 계속 이어가고 싶으십니까?
 - a. 이번 유학 경험이 영어 학습을 계속 하고자 하는 데 동기부여를 했다고 생각하십니까? 그 이유는 무엇입니까?
7. 본인의 유학 생활에 대한 총평을 말씀해 주시겠습니까?
8. 마지막으로 하고 싶은 말이 있으십니까?

Appendix E. Journal Narrative Frame – English

Journal narrative frame

Research Project: *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.*

Direction: Describe activities, events, episodes, or situations you experienced in and outside of the classroom during a week (e.g., doing homework, writing diaries in English, listening to pop-songs, going to the beach with homestay family, making Australian friends at church, or going to the movies with classmates from Japan, China, and Peru). You can follow the narrative frame below and choose a scenario between options.

Writer: _____ Week: 1 2 3 4 (Please circle the week.)

Part1. Classroom Experiences

The main activity that I did to practice English was _____.

I used learning resources such as _____.

(Choose a scenario between Option1 and Option2.)

Option1. I enjoyed it because _____.

I had a meaningful time trying to _____.

This activity was really effective to motivate me to _____.

What I learned from this activity was _____.

Option2. I didn't enjoy it because _____.

I had a difficult time trying to _____.

The main reason for this problem was _____.

However, I tried to solve this problem by _____.

What I learned from this activity was _____.

Part2. Out-of-class Experiences

The main event that I joined to practice English was _____.

I went to _____ with _____.

I practiced English by _____.

_____.

The main reasons that I did it were _____.

(Choose Option1 or Option2, and then choose a scenario from sub-options.)

Option1. I enjoyed it because _____.

Option1-1. At the beginning, I realised that it was not easy to _____.

However, as time went by, I got used to _____ and

was able to fully enjoy the event. This event was really meaningful because _____.

From this event, I learned _____.

Option1-2. From the beginning, I thought this event would be really helpful for me to _____
because _____.

That is why I tried hard to _____.

Finally, I was able to have a meaningful time by _____.

From this event, I learned _____.

Option2. I didn't enjoy it at first because _____.

I had a difficult time trying to _____.

The main reason for this problem was _____.

Option2-1. I tried to solve this problem by _____ and I solved it.

What I learned from this event was _____.

Option2-2. I tried to solve this problem by _____.

Even though I couldn't solve it, I learned _____

and decided to _____ next time.

Option2-3. I gave up continuing this event because I realised/thought _____.

After these experiences, I felt _____ about learning English.

The most unforgettable episode or situation that I unexpectedly experienced was _____.

I was at _____ with _____. At that time, I _____.

What I learned from this experience was _____.

This experience is really important for me because _____.

Appendix E. Journal Narrative Frame – Korean

일기 용 이야기 틀

연구과제: 단기 및 장기 호주 유학 경험(Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia)

작성방법: 한 주 동안 수업 시간(교실 안)과 방과 후(교실 밖)에 겪은 일, 활동 및 행사, 상황 등을 서술하세요 (예시: 숙제 하기, 영어로 일기쓰기, 팝송듣기, 홈스테이 가족과 해변 놀러 가기, 교회에서 호주인 친구 사귀기, 다른 나라에서 온 같은 반 친구들과 영화관 가기 등). 아래 이야기 틀에 맞춰 주어진 선택지 내의 시나리오를 고르세요.

작성자: _____ 주차: 1 2 3 4 (해당 주차에 동그라미 하세요.)

파트 1. 수업 내(교실 안)의 경험

저는 영어를 연습하기 위해 주로 _____와 같은 활동을 했습니다. 제가 사용한 학습자료는 _____입니다. (선택지 1 혹은 2 중에서 원하는 시나리오를 선택하세요.)

선택지 1.

저는 위 활동을 재미있게 하였습니다. 그 이유는 _____때문입니다. 저는 _____하려고 노력하면서 뜻 깊은 시간을 보냈습니다. 이 활동을 통해 저는 _____을/를 하는 데 있어 큰 동기부여를 얻었습니다. 저는 이 활동을 통해 _____을/를 배웠습니다.

선택지 2.

저는 위 활동이 즐겁지 않았습니다. 왜냐하면 _____때문입니다. 저는 _____하는 데 어려움을 겪었습니다. 제가 힘들었던 이유는 _____때문이었습니다. 하지만 저는 _____함으로써 해당 문제를 해결하려 노력 하였습니다. 저는 이 활동을 통해 _____을/를 배웠습니다.

파트 2. 방과 후(교실 밖) 경험

제가 영어를 배우기 위해 주로 참여했던 행사는 _____입니다. 저는 _____와 _____에 갔습니다. 저는 영어 연습을 위해 _____을/를 했습니다. 제가 이 방식으로 영어를 연습한 이유는 _____때문입니다.

(선택지 1 혹은 2 중 하나를 선택하고 하위 선택지 중 시나리오 1개를 선택하세요.)

선택지 1. 저는 위 행사가 _____해서 재미있었습니다. 선택지 1-1. 처음 시작할 때는 _____을/를 하기가 쉽지 않았습니다. 하지만 시간이 지날수록 _____에 익숙해졌고 위 행사에 즐겁게 참여할 수 있었습니다. 이 행사가 정말 뜻 깊었던 이유는 _____했기 때문입니다. 위 행사에서 저는 _____을/를 배웠습니다.

선택지 1-2. 저는 처음부터 위 행사가 _____ 점에서 저에게 도움이 많이 된다고 생각했습니다. 왜냐하면 _____이기/했기 때문입니다. 그렇기 때문에 저는 _____하기 위해 열심히 노력했습니다. 결과적으로 저는 _____함으로써 행사를 뜻 깊게 보낼 수 있었습니다. 저는 이 행사를 통해 _____을/를 배울 수 있었습니다.

선택지 2. 저는 처음에는 위 행사가 즐겁지 않았습니다.

왜냐하면 _____ 때문입니다.

저는 _____하는 데 어려움을 겪었습니다. 제가 힘들었던 이유는 주로 _____ 때문이었습니다.

선택지 2-1. 저는 위 문제를 _____해서 해결했습니다. 저는 이 행사를 통해 _____을/를 배웠습니다.

선택지 2-2. 저는 위 문제를 해결하기 위해 _____을/를 했습니다. 비록 문제를 해결하지는 못했지만 저는 _____을/를 배웠고 다음에는 _____하기로 결심했습니다.

선택지 2-3. 저는 해당 행사에 계속 참여하지 않기로 했습니다.

왜냐하면 _____을/를 깨달았기/라고 생각했기 때문입니다. 이러한 경험을 하고 난 후 저는 영어를 배운다는 것이 _____라고 느꼈습니다.

제가 우연히 경험한 것 중 가장 기억에 남는 일 혹은 상황은

_____입니다.

저는 _____와 _____에 있었습니다. 당시에 저는 _____했습니다/이었습니다.

이를 통해 저는 _____을/를 배웠습니다.

이 경험이 저에게 중요했던 이유는 _____ 때문입니다.

Appendix F. Classroom Observation Protocol

Observation protocol	
Research Project: <i>Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.</i>	
Date:	Time: Place/Class (Level):
Observer:	Group: Short-term / Long-term
Observation questions	Field notes
1. What is the topic of the lesson?	
2. What are the themes of activities and tasks? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Are the themes authentic? b. What are the language focuses? (e.g. reading, listening, speaking, or writing) c. What types of activities are students most actively participating in? (e.g. individual, pair, or group works; reading, listening, speaking, or writing tasks; physical activities, etc.) d. Do they involve daily life languages? 	
3. How do students interact with peers? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Are they motivated to talk with peers? b. Which language do they use when interacting with peers, and are they motivated to use English? c. How do they respond to their difficulties when communicating with peers in English? 	
4. How do students interact with teacher? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Do they talk with teacher? b. Do they ask questions? c. How do they respond to difficulties when communicating with the teacher in English? d. Which language skills are their questions related to? (e.g. questions on pronunciation or accent, vocabulary, grammar, writing, etc.) 	

Observation protocol

Research Project: *Short-term and long-term experiences of study abroad in Australia.*

Date:

Time:

Place/Class (Level):

Observer:

Group: Short-term / Long-term

Observation questions	Field notes
5. Other general class factors that affect students' interactions and participations during the class (e.g. supplies or class layouts).	
6. Other students' interactions and participations that could possibly affect their motivation development.	
7. Other factors that may extend to learning experiences outside of the classroom, and how that could possibly affect their motivation development (e.g. homework).	

Appendix G. Short-term Students' Self-narrated Interactions in Learning Activities

Program activities				Personal efforts
Classroom activities	Excursions	Buddy programs	Homestays	Interactive & Non-interactive activities
- Peer/group discussions: Most interactions were with Koreans in the Korean language. (–)	- There was no need to use English as Koreans were grouped together. (–) - They were useful in terms of travelling and experiencing new cultures. (Ep. They visited Australian companies, in which they observed “flexible Australian working environments”, with office layouts arranged to maximize creativity.) (+)	- There was no need to use English as Koreans were grouped together. (–) - If buddies were interested in communicating with them, it was an opportunity to practice speaking/listening (+); otherwise, it was unhelpful (–).	- It was an opportunity to practice speaking/listening. (+) → Homestay families were sometimes busy, and it was always too late to have a long chat with them after class. (–)	* Eileen - Hanging out with classmates: It was an opportunity to visit local places. (+) → She stopped doing this, as it was difficult to understand each other, due to different English levels. (–)
			* Lina (+) - Her homestay family were willing to spend time with her (e.g. going to the beach, or going out for dinner). - As her homestay sister was interested in K-pop, it was an opportunity to share each other's culture, and practice speaking/listening. (Ep. The sister taught difficult insect names and corrected Lina's pronunciation, when watching a documentary together.)	* Cindy (+) - Visiting local markets to meet locals: It was an opportunity to practice speaking/listening, and reduce fear of talking to strangers. - Making Vlog about Australian life to upload to YouTube with English subtitles: It was an opportunity to record Australian life style and culture. - Visiting friends in Melbourne: It was good to meet old friends and practice English with them.

(+): Positive impact on the outcomes of SA experiences, (–): Negative impact on the outcomes of SA experiences

Ep.: Abbreviation of episode, *: Exceptional cases among the group

Appendix H. Long-term Students' Self-narrated Interactions in Learning Activities

	Regular activities			Irregular activities or Unexpected situations
Name	Given opportunities	Interactive activities	Personal efforts	
Isabella	<p>- Classroom activities (e.g. peer/group discussions, writing essays, and vocabulary competition, using a mobile application): She actively communicated with classmates, and with the teacher by asking questions. (+)</p> <p>- Excursion: She practiced speaking/listening with classmates, communicated with Australian tour guides, and learned Australian culture and history. (+)</p> <p>- Workshops, iLearn: She received extra materials for academic writing, and information about different mobile applications, and other resources. (+)</p>	<p>- Work (customer service at a computer shop): She practiced speaking/listening by talking with customers. (+) → It was hard to balance work with 'study'. (-) → She realised that she could use this as an opportunity to 'study' by 'interacting with local customers'. (Ep. She managed communicating with a lady who had "a thick Australian accent".) (+)</p>	<p>- Watching sitcoms, Ted-Talks, ABC news, Podcast. (+)</p> <p>- Reading newspaper. (+)</p>	<p>- Hanging out with classmates: She practiced speaking/listening, and shared different cultures (e.g. trying different cuisines, or visiting new places). (+)</p> <p>- She met an Australian lady during lunch break at work, and had a long conversation. It was an opportunity to practice speaking/listening, especially to listen to the Australian accent, which provided her with confidence in talking with "native strangers". (+)</p>

Sandy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Classroom activities: <i>same interaction</i> (+) - Excursion, workshops, iLearn: <i>same interaction</i> (+) - Conversation group: It was an opportunity to practice speaking/listening with Australian leaders. (+) → She said, “it is not worthwhile travelling from home just for it”. (–) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Talking with her husband in English: She practiced speaking/listening, and used vocabulary, which helped her to reduce time for translating Nepali to English “in [her] brain”. (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Subscribing to YouTube channels, and Facebook pages. (+) - Watching celebrity interviews without subtitles. (+) - Using a notebook every day to write new words learnt in any situations. (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hanging out with classmates: <i>same interaction</i> (+); Ep. She went out with friends in “inappropriate” outfits. She learned a new culture, which requires new outfits. - She helped an Australian lady, who fell down on the street. They were neighbours, so this provided her with chances to have chats. (+) - She talked to a stranger on the train unaware of the ‘quiet carriage’ sign. She “felt embarrassed as he was unnecessarily arrogant in teaching [her]”. (–) → She considered it as opportunity to learn “a new rule about Australian transportation”. (+)
Sue	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Classroom activities: <i>same interaction</i> (+); She sometimes had difficulties using English when other Chinese students talked to her in Chinese. (–) - Excursion, workshops, iLearn: <i>same interaction</i> (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Jogging at the park: She practiced speaking/listening with locals. (Ep. She met an old Finnish man, and shared different child education cultures.) (+) - Church: She practiced reading through Bible study, and built a social-network by joining a choir. (Ep. She met an Australian neighbour, and got invited for Christmas dinner.) (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listening to Ted-Talks. (+) - Chatting with an Australian Tutor in Cambly (an online platform where native speakers have video chats with English learners): She chose an Australian tutor, to practice the Australian accent, and learn the culture. (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hanging out with classmates: <i>same interaction</i> (+) - A local lady gave her a lift when she was lost after arriving at the airport. It was a positive impression about Australians, which gave her confidence in talking with strangers.

Veronica	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Classroom activities: <i>same interaction as Sue</i> (+); (–) - Excursion, workshops, iLearn (+): <i>same interaction</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aussie tag sports club: She learned the Australian accent, slang, and abbreviations. (+) - Volunteering at the hospital: She met different people in different medical areas, which helped her build a social-network. (+) - Work (customer service at a cosmetic store): She practiced speaking/listening, and learned technical terms (e.g. <i>moisture</i>, <i>hydration</i>, and <i>nutrition</i>). (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listening to BBC news. (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hanging out with classmates: <i>same interaction</i> (+) - She met a gentleman at the bus stop every morning. It was “the best” opportunity to practice speaking/listening, gain confidence in talking with strangers, and develop a friendship with him. (+) - She met an old Greek lady who spoke Chinese. They became friends and she taught Chinese. They shared different cultures, and she gained confidence in her English. (+) - She met an “over-romantic” French man at work. She “felt nervous when he kissed on [her] hand”. (–) → She realised that “[she] did not have to feel unsafe as it was public area.” She instead “took it as an opportunity to practice English”. (+)
----------	--	---	--	---

David	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Classroom activities: <i>same interaction</i> (+) - Excursion, workshops, iLearn: <i>same interaction</i> (+) - Conversation group: He learned “good” expressions (e.g. <i>Bless you, Give it a shot, I can feel you</i>). (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Work (customer service at a restaurant): He communicated with local customers (e.g. taking reservations on the phone). (+) → It was hard to balance work with ‘studying’. (–) → He realised that he could use this as opportunity to ‘study’ by ‘interacting with local customers’, and learned Australian cultures. (Ep. He was asked what plans he had for Christmas several times. This led to the realisation of the salience of Christmas.) (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Summarising notes on writing essays; searching for writing resources on the internet; reading articles every morning. These were helpful in terms of preparation for IELTS. (+) - Watching dramas and movies. (+) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hanging out with classmates: <i>same interaction</i> (+) - Visiting a local market alone: He communicated with locals. (+) - He had a conversation about a customer’s neck pain at work and used chiropractic knowledge. He gained confidence in his English, and communicating with locals. (+)
-------	--	--	--	--

(+): Positive impact on the outcomes of SA experiences, (–): Negative impact on the outcomes of SA experiences

Ep.: Abbreviation of episode