

Understanding the Importance of Role Models in L2 Motivation: Preliminary Results from a Mixed-Methods Study

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Abstract

This paper reports on the preliminary results of a research project investigating the significance of role models among L2 learners of English in three Japanese universities. At present, the prevalence and influence of role models has emerged as one of the most interesting, and potentially useful, areas of research in L2 motivation studies. This project aims to contribute to this area by reporting on the first phase in a research project that aims to explore the issue of role models in English language learning in Japan. It is argued that further qualitative inquiry has the potential to make a significant contribution to this research area. The paper proceeds from a brief discussion of the challenges of L2 motivation in Japan, specifically from the teacher-researcher's perspective, before turning to discuss role models in general psychology and education research, as well as research specifically in L2 contexts. Finally, the results of the first stage, in which the motivational profiles of learners at three different universities are compared, are given. These results will inform the next stage of the research, which is briefly discussed in the concluding portion of the paper.

Keywords: L2 Motivation, Role Models, EFL/ESL

I. Introduction

L2 Motivation is an established and core area of research in EFL/ESL teaching and learning, and surveys of the history of the development of the field are now widely available (e.g., Guerrero, 2015; Ushioda, 2019). Such surveys reveal substantial expansion over time in the complexity and range of concepts and models employed. From the earliest preoccupations with integrativeness and target communities (e.g., Gardner, 1985), to calls to properly allow insights from wider educational psychology and the reality of the pervasiveness of classroom-based EFL instruction as the typical L2 context to be acknowledged (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994), we have seen substantial change in two main areas. First, a number of imported

concepts and models from educational psychology saw a broad realignment in L2 motivation research with the insights and approaches occasioned by the cognitive turn, notably self-efficacy, goal salience, and attributions (e.g., Tremblay & Gardener, 1995; see Dörnyei, 2014 for an extensive review). Areas of research such as future selves and role models are prominent aspects of a body of more recent research that has sought to understand the role of self-understanding and the self-imaginary. Second, an ‘educational shift’ has occurred, based on acknowledgment that classrooms ought to be recognized as the primary sites of language learning, and also that, therefore, they are the principal contexts at which practicable insights, pedagogy, and other tools ought to be directed. In the last three decades, there have been other substantial developments, the most important of these being first, the focus on motivation as a process, leading to more ambitious longitudinal studies and models that look to capture motivation as an ongoing, usually non-linear, process (e.g., Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001). Some such research has been interested in processes of motivational self-regulation as a factor in the maintenance (or not) of motivation over time, raising interesting pedagogical possibilities for instructing students about motivation, through certain metacognitive learning and facilitation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 118). Second, the ‘social turn’ seen in many social sciences was echoed in language learning research by Norton (2013, see also 2016 for an interesting retrospective and update), and many researchers since, stressing the importance of complex individual identities and the deeply social-situatedness of both learners and learning. Finally, Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009, 2014) has led to a variety of ‘vision’ orientated research strands. This system represents the dovetailing of the throughline of integrative motivation that has been present since the outset of L2 motivation studies and a strand of research on the role and dynamic nature of self-conceptions and especially, possible future selves (Leary, 2007). A particular positive aspect of this last trend in L2 motivation research is the implementable practices, often metacognitive—i.e., teaching students about motivation as a way of cultivating and sustaining motivation, and supporting them in creating their own regulation strategies. These go some way to addressing what some have argued is a “yawning gap” between research and practice (Apple et al., 2013, p.xi), and is doubtless much-welcomed by many teacher-researchers. Much like the L2 Motivational Self system has led to practicable activities, accessible for teachers and teacher-researchers, the aim of the current research project is to look at the possibility of understanding role models in L2 motivation in Japan, and convert that insight into similarly implementable interventions.

II. The Challenge of L2 Motivation in Japan

It is worth briefly addressing why teachers of English, as well as other teachers and institutions with a stake in their students' development of English, will likely be especially welcoming of strategies and interventions that boost motivation. In her introduction to *EFL Motivation in Japan*, Ushioda points out the stark language used to describe the stark language used to describe the experiences of students in education settings of all types, but especially high-school level education (Ushioda, 2013) subsequent to which, university life is frequently characterized as something of a well-earned break from "exam hell", with more or less guaranteed graduation (Berwick and Ross, 1989, p. 193; p. 207). She goes on to note three features of the overall research body that are pertinent: first, demotivation has (perhaps unsurprisingly given the tone of the above language) been a central strand of L2 research in Japan. Importantly, the role of teachers in Japan has been shown to be likely quite differentiated from that shown by research conducted elsewhere, and moreover, demotivation seems to have not only external factors but important learner-internal factors, underscoring the complex internal-external, learner-context dynamic nature of motivation, and highlighting the crucial need in Japanese contexts for strategies that focus on building internal meaning, self-regulation, and autonomy (Ushioda, 2013, p. 7).

Essentially, the research project outlined in this paper is motivated by an acceptance of all of the above, but further wished to investigate, given that the evidence that the role of perceptions of teachers in Japan is somewhat varied, that role models (peers or near-peers) are likely to be better candidates for supporting learners in these strategies. Further, regarding motivational trajectories, the perceived contrast in the stages of Japanese education has led to an interest in how initial motivational states are crucial in shaping overall trajectories. What is less clear is how to 'disrupt' the influence of these experiences, and reshape trajectories, which in contexts like Japan, and indeed anywhere else most likely, would be especially valuable. Finally, with respect to the role of meaning, Ushioda notes a tendency in research to question the relevance or applicability of notions of integrativeness, with a somewhat more abstracted (but still important) role for often idealized or even somewhat imaginary 'other' communities of English-speakers seemingly at play, sometimes characterized as an "international posture" (Yashima, 2013). This, tempered with the need to treat each learner individually and be appreciative of each context, also suggests a potentially positive role for exploring the use of role models.

III. Role Models in Psychology & Education Research

Role models can be “a person or group serving as an exemplar for the goals, attitudes, or behavior of an individual, who identifies with and seeks to imitate the role model” (APA, n.d.) Beyond being merely ‘good exemplars’ (although this is of course important), some seek to differentiate role models from mentors/sponsors (e.g., Gibson, 2004). There are also certain insights emerging from the literature as to the specific characteristics that effective role models need, which will be discussed in a later paper (as part of a training/preparation session used with near-peer role models as part of an intervention trial). In any case, the idea of role models has long been in common public discourse, and the prominence of the concept in multiple domains of human life has meant they have attracted much interest and research. Some look at extraneous role models, with interesting research showing how powerful role models can be in the internet and social media age (e.g., Boon & Lomore, 2001; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997). Still other research looks for evolutionary explanations for the profound extent to which role model, both positive and negative, are used to comprehend ourselves, actual and potential, to shape targets, and as a catalyst for change and development, noting how despite increasingly ‘individualistic’ cultures emerging, the very hardware, especially the nature of the tertiary neocortex segment of our brains, is designed precisely to interpret and emulate behaviours that we see in others (Murden, 2020). In educational research, the idea of role models has been an important aspect of understanding the student-teacher relationship (Goodlad, 1990; Holland, 1996), and importantly, as a way of addressing gaps in subscription, aspiration, and/or performance among different cohorts- typically, gender, race or age. Role model interventions are typically low-cost, and also flexible and adaptable to various research contexts, meaning it has been much-explored. However, the evidence for the efficacy of role models is quite complex and, in most cases mixed. Broadly, there are four basic theoretical approaches that tend to be utilised in exploring the potential for role models: social-cognitive theory, expectancy-value theory, mindset theory, and attribution theory.

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997, 2001) has had considerable influence on L2 motivation models/studies in general, and in particular, has tended to be the theoretical approach framing studies looking at role models. It is centred on the motivational construct of self-efficacy, Self-efficacy can be conceptualised as the belief in one’s own capacity to control and shape one’s own behaviour and life, and Bandura’s theory looks to understand how such beliefs are

brought about by and through experiences of mastery, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and emotion. There are three main factors governing the extent to which role models are seen as having potential to boost self-efficacy (and therefore, motivation) (Gladstone & Cimpian, 2021). Perceived competence, especially in the direct experience of observing others being successful in the target activities, is one way in which role models act as a positive influence. Usually, this is thought to encourage the belief that oneself could be similarly successful, although it may also be the act of physically manifesting the previously only theoretical behaviour being aimed at (i.e., addressing a failure of the imagination rather than any specifically lack of belief in oneself). Next, perceived degree of role model-self similarity and/or relatability is also an important factor (Schunk and Usher, 2019), and it is the strong evidence that degree of similarity/relatability can be a driver of efficacy in role model interventions that has motivated the studies into near-peers as potentially powerful role-models. Finally, perceived attainability, overlaps substantially with similarity/relatability, but is also driven by other factors, such as the clarity of steps to follow, intervention design, or the appropriacy of proximal goals (Gladstone & Cimpian, 2021).

Situated expectancy-value theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002, 2020) has been broadly successful in a range of educational and other settings in showing a link between belief in success or estimation of likelihood of positive outcomes (expectations) and the perceived value of and/or in the activity in question. Both value and expectancy can be influenced by social factors, including other people acting as role models. Gladstone and Cimpian (2021, p. 4–5) argue, convincingly, that although the model of motivation is substantially different, the functionality and relevant aspects (i.e., what constitutes an ‘effective role model’) are essentially the same as with the social-cognitive model. Mindset theory (Dweck, 2013, 2017) posits that a “growth mindset” is a positive disposition to frame oneself as being able to change abilities and behaviour, rather than as having more or less fixed ‘qualities’ (typically, self-beliefs such as *I am not good at languages*), and is often explored in terms of how learners perceive, talk (including self-talk) about, and frame failures/setbacks. Evidence shows that other people can be powerful influences on the formation and maintenance of mindsets (Cimpian et al., 2007). Moreover, role modelling understood through this lens has the potential to encourage the belief that target abilities/behaviour can be developed (Gladstone & Cimpian, 2021), a process that can be understood as operating similarly to the perceived attainability aspects previously mentioned. Finally, attribution theory (Graham, 2001; Graham & Foles, 2014) focuses on, essentially, the *stories* learners tell to comprehend, explain and reconcile with successes and failures. Gladstone and Cimpian (2021, p. 5) posit that

role models can be a positive influence if they narrate attributions in terms of internal factors, and in line with the insights of mindset approaches, that they ought to focus such attributions on the internal, malleable, and within-control features. In an upcoming paper, that addresses the results of the next phase of the current study the issue of what features are embodied by effective role models will be addressed.

IV. Role Models in L2 Motivation Research

Role models have been a somewhat salient feature of many models and approaches to language-learning motivation. However, in recent years, they have emerged as an area of particular interest. In a recent series devoted to research in Applied Linguistics, a text on language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2020) highlights role models as an area that ought to be capitalised on more. Murphey and Arao experimented with “near-peer” role models by preparing videos of slightly older, exemplary students to learners, first with English-major students (Murphey, 1998), and then other majors (Murphey and Arao, 2001), finding in both cases significant changes in reported self-beliefs (comparing pre and post questionnaires). They also, usefully, note that ‘nearness’ can be envisaged in a multitude of ways, but generally, are slightly older, successful/capable, and objects of respect and admiration. Frequency of contact, and social/geographical proximity can also be factors. Both their and other studies looking at role models in L2 motivation note how it coheres with principles such as ZPD (Vygotsky, 2012) (on account of the nearness in ability being in the goldilocks zone, so to speak). Three aspects emerge from their work that have informed the present study. First is the potential of coaching and preparing the peers, that is, in using near-peers in interventions, informing those volunteers about the metacognitive and theoretical aspects of motivation that have been used to shape and implement the intervention they are part of. Second, and as they point out in the concluding comments of their paper, there needs to be many more studies looking at different levels, contexts and the role of teachers (if any). It was mentioned in Section I that from early focus on integrativeness, new models emerged such as the L2 self. It has been argued that these are potentially complementary models, with integrativeness and the L2 self merely being external/internal locus, respectively, for identification, but with both referents essentially working in similar ways (Claro, 2019, p. 253)., or, put another way, using role models as a way of demonstrating future-self plausibility (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2021, p. 126). A question investigated in the second part of this present inquiry is

whether role models can be external guides in shaping more positive internal referents. Additionally, given that research into student-teacher relationships and their impact on motivation reveals the especially powerful role of “special moments of close personal contact” (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2021, p. 116; see also Henry & Thorson, 2018), it seems reasonable to assume that role models need not only have potential as somewhat distant ‘target manifestations’, but rather, there is much to be explored about what conditions can help to promote such moments and cultivate effective and positive role model-learner relationships. Third, the emergent potential for technology to assist in these goals, something perhaps especially useful given the recent pandemic-related changes all educational institutions, teachers, and learners have found themselves subjected to, with approaches such as *video-self modelling* used to expose learners to something resembling highlight reels of themselves (Adolphs et al., 2018). Indeed, it doesn’t seem at all fanciful to think that the next few years might utilise AI generated videos learners themselves speaking English, as virtual Ideal Selves. In addition, as will be seen in a forthcoming paper, the present research has aimed to build on recent efforts such as that of McCarthy and Farr (2022) in undertaking more qualitative research into role models, and especially, as part of evaluating interventions.

A recent, large-scale study has, in my view, made a major step forward in understanding the prevalence of English language role models (Muir et al., 2021). They were able to gain data from large numbers of respondents (more than 8,000), from throughout the world, and collected information related to the prevalence, type/archetypes, variance by subgroup (gender, age, country of origin), and the specific aspects of role models that people look to or are attracted by. The first phase of the research project being reported here is largely a replication of their study, but focused on three universities in Japan, and gleaning some additional data about the relation between their role model, English, and their study/work aspirations. Using prior research (Adolphs et al., 2018) they had identified a list of likely aspects and asked those with role models to rate which were most relevant to their role model. They also collected open ended answers which were thematically analyzed. They found that more than two-thirds of respondents had a role model, but they also acknowledge that the self-selected sample is likely not representative of English-language learners broadly. The type of role model varied, but native speakers accounted for 64.2%, persons older than the respondent 78%, and there was an approximate 8:11 ratio of persons known to the respondent to famous persons (see Muir et al., 2021 for more details). Interestingly, they found that female, non-native, same-nationality proficient speakers were an

emergent archetype of known-role models. They also found significant variance in whether role models were native or non-native speakers between certain regions, with data from China and India indicating a much more prevalent role of ‘local heroes’ (Muir et al., 2021). Also, they found younger respondents were more likely to have same-nationality role models, especially those that can be classified as near-peer. All of the above raise the interesting possibility of the potential for role-model interventions by near-peers in Japanese contexts. Finally, regarding the specific characteristics of role models identified by respondents, they were able to factor-analyze four emergent categories: overall command of English; paralinguistic features; demographic features; and accent/variety of English (Muir et al., 2021). Looking at their qualitative data from the perspective of these factors, where personality and appearance also emerged as factors. As readers will see, these were abridged as basic prompts in the open-ended portion of the present study.

V. Study Design

This paper reports on the first stage in an ongoing research project. Learners enrolled in three Japanese universities were recruited, and an overall motivational profile established for each group. These were achieved through an abridged version of the questionnaire used in Taguchi et al. (2009). Figure 1 below shows how the first stage fits into the overall research plan. The

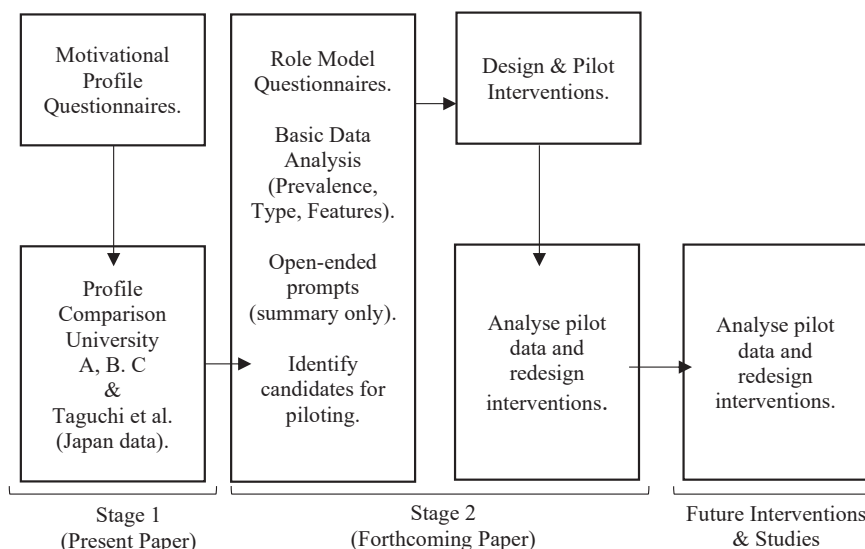


Figure 1 Study Design Outline

Table 1 Study Participants

	Group A		Group B		Group C		Total	
Participants	77		52		27		156	
Gender	m	f	m	f	m	f	m	f
	71	6	49	3	0	27	119	37
Age	M = 19.7		M = 18.9		M = 19.7		M = 19.4	
	SD = 1.40		SD = 0.78		SD = 1.22		SD = 1.25	
Majors	Social Sciences		Science & Engineering		English & EMI			
Level	A2-B1		A2-B1		A2-B2			
exc. outliers	Mdn A2		Mdn A2		Mdn B1			

first stage aims to come to an understanding of important similarities and differences between the groups as a whole and prior research on Japan. Table 1 shows basic data about the participants, including the number of participants for each group, their gender, age and range of English levels. Following this, the results of paired *t* tests by motivational factor construct (adapted from Taguchi et al., 2009) are given and discussed. Table 2 shows the results of between-group comparisons by factor, using one-way ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey tests. As readers will see, there are substantial differences between the overalls ample and prior research results, and interestingly, many differences between groups.

VI. Results & Discussion

Prior to the study, learners at three Japanese universities were asked to volunteer to take part in the study. The total number of learners completing the questionnaire was 156. As Table 1 below shows, around half were from a university where they majored in social sciences (Group A; *n* = 77, 71 males, 6 females). Group B were from another university, majoring in a range of science and engineering subjects (*n* = 52, 49 males, 3 females), and finally, Group C were from a women's university, majoring in English or in an English-medium Global Studies program (*n* = 27, 27 females). Table 1 below provides a summary of the subjects of the first stage of the research. For almost all participants, it was possible to ascertain their level of English by converting their best score in the last 24 months from either Eiken, IELTS, or versions of the TOEFL or TOEIC test into a CEFR level. This information will be useful in the interview/intervention studies in

Table 2 Motivational Profile by Group

Factor	Group A	Group B	Group C	Japan*	AC:Japan* SD/M; <i>p</i>
<i>Criterion measures</i>	3.55 (1.02)	3.92 (1.35)	4.08 (0.96)	3.29–4.26	3.83/0.15; 3.71/0.31: <i>0.073</i>
<i>Ideal L2 Self</i>	3.46 (1.08)	3.49 (1.23)	3.84 (1.10)	2.90–4.45	3.48/0.15; 3.70/0.31: 0.06
<i>Ought-to L2 Self</i>	2.34 (0.98)	2.57 (1.16)	2.54 (1.20)	1.25–1.42	3.80/0.15; 3.84/0.30: <i>0.486</i>
<i>Family influence</i>	3.09 (1.02)	3.12 (1.10)	3.59 (1.29)	2.0–3.41	2.44/0.07; 1.34/0.04: < 0.001
<i>Instrumentality-promotion</i>	4.20 (1.02)	4.51 (1.07)	4.60 (1.02)	4.2–5.08	4.38/0.11; 4.60/0.32: 0.0031
<i>Instrumentality- prevention</i>	3.90 (1.05)	3.81 (1.38)	3.89 (1.03)	2.91–4.04	3.86/0.03; 3.45/0.35: < 0.001
<i>Attitudes to learning English</i>	4.37 (0.96)	4.14 (1.29)	4.6 (1.11)	3.65–4.32	4.38/0.14; 4.04/0.17: < 0.001
<i>Cultural interest</i>	4.93 (0.97)	5.14 (1.37)	5.14 (0.92)	3.73–4.69	5.03/0.05; 4.20/0.31: < 0.001
<i>Attitudes to L2 community</i>	4.94 (1.10)	4.68 (1.05)	5.2 (1.00)	4.52–4.86	4.84/0.11; 4.68/0.10: < 0.001
<i>Integrativeness</i>	4.28 (0.81)	4.28 (0.91)	4.5 (1.01)	4.06–4.84	4.39/0.06; 4.44/0.22: <i>0.204</i>

*from Taguchi et al., 2009

Stage 2, but excluding outliers (the top and bottom 5% in each group), readers will note the higher level range and median level in Group C. Otherwise, no significant differences were found between groups at this stage.

Table 2 shows the results of the motivation questionnaire, which is abridged from Taguchi et al.'s (2009) study (the final column gives the Japan-only portion of their study for reference, see Dormer, 2022 for details). Comparing the overall dataset for Groups A-C with the means from

Taguchi et al. (2009) by factor (unpaired t test), we see the following results. For *Criterion measures*, the difference is not quite statistically significant (A-C: $M = 3.83$, $SD = 0.15$; Japan: $M = 3.71$, $SD = 0.31$; $p = 0.073$). For *Ideal L2 Self* we see a significant difference, with the composite of participants from Groups A-C reporting lower values on average (A-C: $M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.15$; Japan: $M = 3.70$, $SD = 0.31$; $p = 0.006$). For *Ought-to L2 Self* there was no significant difference (A-C: $M = 3.80$, $SD = 0.15$; Japan: $M = 3.84$, $SD = 0.30$; $p = 0.486$). For *Family influence*, there was a large difference (A-C: $M = 2.44$, $SD = 0.07$; Japan: $M = 1.34$, $SD = 0.04$; $p = < 0.001$). For *Instrumentality-Promotion* there was a significant difference (A-C: $M = 4.38$, $SD = 0.11$; Japan: $M = 4.60$, $SD = 0.32$; $p = < 0.0031$). For *instrumentality Prevention* there was a large difference (A-C: $M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.03$; Japan: $M = 3.45$, $SD = 0.35$; $p = < 0.001$). For *Attitudes to Learning English*, there was a significant difference (A-C: $M = 4.38$, $SD = 0.14$; Japan: $M = 4.04$, $SD = 0.17$; $p = < 0.001$). For *Cultural Interest*, there was (A-C: $M = 5.03$, $SD = 0.05$; Japan: $M = 4.20$, $SD = 0.31$; $p = < 0.001$). For *Attitudes to L2 Community*, there was a significant difference also (A-C: $M = 4.84$, $SD = 0.11$; Japan: $M = 4.68$, $SD = 0.10$; $p = < 0.001$). Finally, for *Integrativeness*, there was no significant difference (A-C: $M = 4.39$, $SD = 0.06$; Japan: $M = 4.4$, $SD = 0.22$; $p = 0.204$).

Between-group differences were examined using a One-Way ANOVA, by factor, and then overall. Table 3 below provides a summary of those results. As can be seen, there were significant differences between groups in respect to several factors. Overall, a one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences between groups ($F = 7.2147$, $p = 0.007605$), but with a small effect size $f = 0.096$). A Tukey HSD analysis indicated no significant difference between Group A and Group B ($p = 0.99$), but significant differences between Group C and the other groups (A comparison, $p = 0.002529$; B comparison, $p = 0.0008496$). It is of course likely that the fact that Group C consists of people either majoring in English or studying in a mostly-EMI curriculum explains these differences.

VII. Concluding Remarks

This paper has reported on the results of the first phase of a research project that seeks to understand the prevalence and nature of English language learning role models in Japanese universities. We have seen that the sample of participants differ in interesting ways from previous results from Japan (*Ideal L2 Self*; *Family influence*; *Instrumentality (promotion)*; *Instrumentality (prevention)*; *Cultural interest*; *Attitudes to L2 community*), and that there are significant differ-

Table 3 Between Group Differences (A-C)

Factor	ANOVA			<i>f/p</i>	Post Hoc Tukey		
	Group A <i>M</i> ; <i>SD</i> ; ΣX^2	Group B <i>M</i> ; <i>SD</i> ; ΣX^2	Group C <i>M</i> ; <i>SD</i> ; ΣX^2		A:B <i>Q</i> ; <i>p</i>	A:C <i>Q</i> ; <i>p</i>	B:C <i>Q</i> ; <i>p</i>
<i>Criterion measures</i>	3.56	4.04	4.30	14.51963	4.59	7.05	2.46
	0.52	0.86	0.72	< .00001	0.00041	< .00001	0.19285
	996	886	512				
<i>Ideal L2 Self</i>	3.39	3.40	3.93	6.11705	0.13	4.92	4.79
	0.69	0.77	0.68	0.002781	0.99533	0.00188	0.00256
	921	633	428				
<i>Ought-to L2 Self</i>	2.43	2.56	2.30	1.38471	1.20	1.34	2.55
	0.60	0.64	0.91	0.253538	0.67718	0.60925	0.17246
	477	361	164				
<i>Family influence</i>	3.19	3.13	3.74	6.04282	0.51	4.60	5.11
	0.72	0.79	0.90	0.002979	0.93156	0.0399	0.00119
	826	543	399				
<i>Instrumentality-promotion</i>	4.19	4.52	4.60	6.23879	3.42	4.20	0.77
	0.65	0.61	0.57	0.02485	0.4387	0.0973	0.84795
	1387	1081	578				
<i>Instrumentality- prevention</i>	3.88	3.75	4.04	1.32838	1.06	1.47	2.53
	0.71	0.79	0.76	0.267943	0.73525	0.55312	0.17713
	1192	763	455				
<i>Attitudes to learning English</i>	4.48	3.92	4.48	11.84182	5.44	0.01	5.45
	0.60	0.79	0.64	0.000017	0.00052	0.99997	0.00050
	1573	832	553				
<i>Cultural interest</i>	4.96	5.13	4.89	1.44058	1.65	0.68	2.33
	0.64	0.81	0.58	0.239983	0.476.02	0.87910	0.22859
	1926	1405	654				
<i>Attitudes to L2 community</i>	5.03	4.77	5.37	6.7935	2.44	3.27	5.71
	0.76	0.61	0.63	0.001491	0.19932	0.5700	0.00025
	1989	1202	789				
<i>Integrativeness</i>	4.36	4.31	4.48	0.82799	0.65	1.36	2.01
	0.51	0.67	0.51	0.82799	0.89147	0.60111	0.33310
	1486	988	549				

ences between groups. While Groups A and B differed very little, there are substantial differences between Group C and the other groups. In a forthcoming paper, the results of the role model questionnaire will be provided, and combined with the information given here, the design of frameworks for semi-structured interviews and intervention trials will be discussed.

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