

4-7-2017

The Relationship Between Trait Emotional Intelligence and L2 Motivation

Jelena Vuksanovic
University of South Florida, jvuksano@mail.usf.edu

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.usf.edu/etd>



Part of the [Linguistics Commons](#), and the [Other Education Commons](#)

Scholar Commons Citation

Vuksanovic, Jelena, "The Relationship Between Trait Emotional Intelligence and L2 Motivation" (2017).
USF Tampa Graduate Theses and Dissertations.
<https://digitalcommons.usf.edu/etd/6775>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the USF Graduate Theses and Dissertations at Digital Commons @ University of South Florida. It has been accepted for inclusion in USF Tampa Graduate Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons @ University of South Florida. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@usf.edu.

The Relationship Between Trait Emotional Intelligence and L2 Motivation

by

Jelena Vuksanović

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Second Language Acquisition & Instructional Technology
College of Arts & Sciences and College of Education
University of South Florida

Major Professor: Amy Thompson, Ph.D.
Camilla Vásquez, Ph.D.
Wei Zhu, Ph.D.
Nicole Tracy-Ventura, Ph.D.

Date of Approval:
March 7, 2017

Keywords: ESL, L2 motivation, individual differences, affect, personality

Copyright © 2017, Jelena Vuksanović

DEDICATION

To,

My sister and parents for their endless love and support. I appreciate your sacrifices, and I would not be where I am today without you!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project would not have been possible without the people in my life who have selflessly been there for me throughout this journey. Most importantly, I would like to acknowledge my sister, Jasmina Vuksanović, for her patience and support since the beginning of this project. I would also like to acknowledge Tank for his never-ending love.

I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to:

- My committee, Drs. Thompson, Vasquez, Zhu, and Tracy-Ventura, for your invaluable guidance, feedback, encouragement, and support. You all have played a vital role in this project and in my life as an academic; I have learned so much from you during my doctoral studies.
- The participants of this study who have graciously agreed to share their experience with me. Without you, I would not have been able to complete this study.
- My SLA/IT friends for their continuous support, encouragement, and friendship over the past few years.
- To all my family and friends, I am grateful to have you as a part of my life.

Thank you very much, everyone

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables.....	iii
List of Figures.....	v
Abstract.....	vi
Chapter I. Introduction.....	1
Background of the Study.....	1
L2 Motivation Models.....	3
Rationale for the Present Study.....	7
Purpose of the Study.....	12
Research Questions.....	13
The Significance of the Study.....	13
Definition of Terms.....	14
Chapter Summary.....	15
Chapter II. Literature Review.....	17
Theoretical Framework.....	17
Overview of the L2 Motivational Self System.....	22
The L2MSS and its Dimension.....	23
Possible Selves Theory and Self-discrepancy Theory.....	25
Explanatory Power of the L2MSS.....	31
The L2MSS vs Socio-Educational Model.....	32
Extension to the L2MSS Research.....	38
The L2MSS and Motivation Literature.....	42
Emotions Overview.....	46
Emotions in Second/Foreign Language Learning.....	49
Personality.....	60
Trait Emotional Intelligence.....	64
Chapter Summary.....	70
Chapter III. Methodology.....	73
Research Design.....	73
Research Setting and Participants.....	75
ELP context.....	75
Participants.....	77
Data Collection Instruments.....	78
Background Questionnaire (BQ).....	79
Possible Selves Questionnaire (PSQ).....	79
L2 Learning Experience Questionnaire (L2LE).....	81

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire SF (TEIQue).....	82
Piloting of Survey Instruments.....	84
Data Collection Procedures.....	85
Data Analysis Procedures.....	87
Validity and Reliability.....	88
The Researcher’s Role.....	89
Chapter IV. Results.....	91
Demographic Information.....	91
Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	93
Research Question 1.....	102
RQ1a.....	103
RQ1b.....	104
Research Question 2.....	107
Multiple Regression Assumptions.....	109
RQ2a.....	114
RQ2b.....	116
RQ2c.....	118
Research Question 3.....	121
Chapter Summary.....	123
Chapter V. Discussion and Conclusion.....	125
Discussion of Findings.....	125
Research Question 1.....	127
Research Question 2.....	131
Research Question 3.....	137
Limitations of the Study.....	141
Implications of the Study.....	143
Recommendations for Future Research.....	146
Concluding Remarks.....	148
References.....	149
Appendices.....	177
Appendix A: Trait Emotional Intelligence Facets.....	177
Appendix B: Background Questionnaire.....	178
Appendix C: Possible Selves Questionnaire- Participant Version.....	180
Appendix D: L2 Learning Experience Questionnaire.....	183
Appendix E: Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire SF-Participant Version.....	184
Appendix F: Pilot Study Descriptive statistics.....	186
Appendix G: Revised Questions from the Piloting of Instruments.....	187
Appendix H: Possible Selves Questionnaire- Researcher Version.....	189
Appendix I: TEIQue SF- Researcher version.....	191
Appendix J: Homogeneity of Variances.....	193
Appendix K: IRB Letters.....	195
Appendix L: Copyright Permissions.....	199

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	Dimensions of the L2MSS	23
Table 2:	Sample Item from the Possible Selves Questionnaire	81
Table 3:	Sample Item from the L2 Learning Experience Questionnaire.....	81
Table 4:	Sample Item from the TEIQue SF	83
Table 5:	Timeline for Data Collection.....	86
Table 6:	Relationship between Research Questions, Analysis Procedures, and Data Sources.....	88
Table 7:	Descriptive demographics	92
Table 8:	Removed Items from the Possible Selves Questionnaire.....	96
Table 9:	EFA- Eigenvalues and Variance Explained by the 3 Factors.....	98
Table 10:	Descriptive Statistics of the Three-factor Scores	98
Table 11:	Reliability for Three Factors.....	99
Table 12:	Factor Correlation Matrix.....	99
Table 13:	Pattern Matrix for the Factor Loadings for L2 Motivation.....	100
Table 14:	Summary of the Research Questions	101
Table 15:	Correlation between the Three Selves and Global Trait Emotional Intelligence ...	104
Table 16:	Correlation between the Possible Selves and the Four Factors of Trait EI... ..	105
Table 17:	4-predictor Model of Multiple Regression of Ideal L2 Self.....	115
Table 18:	Correlation between the Ideal L2 self and the Four Factors of Trait EI.....	115
Table 19:	Multiple Regression Solution for a 4-Predictor Variable Ideal L2 Self Model	115

Table 20:	4-predictor Model of Multiple Regression of Ought-to L2 Self.....	117
Table 21:	Correlation between the Ought-to L2 Self and the Four Factors of Trait EI	117
Table 22:	Multiple Regression Solution for a 4-Predictor Variable Ought-to L2 Self Model.....	117
Table 23:	4-predictor Model of Multiple Regression of Anti-ought-to L2 Self.....	119
Table 24:	Correlation between the Anti-ought-to L2 Self and the Four Factors of Trait EI	119
Table 25:	Multiple Regression Solution for a 4-Predictor Variable Anti-ought-to L2 Self Model.....	120
Table 26:	Correlation between the L2 Learning Experience, Possible Selves, and Trait Emotional Intelligence	122

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1:	Factors and facets of the TEIQue.....	20
Figure 2:	Self-guides and their associated emotions.....	27
Figure 3:	Future Self Guides.....	29
Figure 4:	Possible Discrepancies.....	29
Figure 5:	Gardner’s Socio-educational Model of SLA.....	33
Figure 6:	“I”/Own dimension of self-discrepancy theory.....	41
Figure 7:	“Other” dimension of self-discrepancy theory.....	41
Figure 8:	Scree Plot for the Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	95
Figure 9:	P-P Plots for Ideal L2 Self.....	110
Figure 10:	P-P Plots for Ought-to L2 Self.....	110
Figure 11:	P-P Plots for Anti-ought-to L2 Self.....	111
Figure 12:	Scatterplot for the Ideal L2 Self.....	112
Figure 13:	Scatterplot for the Ought-to L2 Self.....	112
Figure 14:	Scatterplot for the Anti-ought-to L2 Self.....	113

ABSTRACT

Motivation is considered an important factor in initiating and sustaining the second language (L2) process. Since learning an L2 can be seen as a lengthy process, one that needs sustained motivation over a long period of time, learners need to be able to successfully deal with their and others' emotions in order to generate and sustain their motivation for learning. The role of learners' emotions and trait emotional self-efficacy, or trait emotional intelligence (EI), in L2 motivation and language learning has been a relatively unexplored area. To fill this gap, the current study posed three research questions that addressed the relationship between L2 motivation and trait EI, which is based on the trait EI theory (Petrides, 2001) and deals with emotion-related self-perceptions, such as emotion control, emotion expression, empathy, and emotion perception (Petrides, 2001). As Dörnyei (2009) proposed the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) in response to the need to further develop the socio-educational model, the current study further tests the validation of a modified version of the L2MSS by investigating intermediate and advanced international English language learners from diverse backgrounds. Using a quantitative approach, this study examined (a) the relationship between the possible selves (the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to) and trait emotional intelligence, including the four broader factors: sociability, emotionality, well-being, self-control; and (b) to what extent can the four factors predict the three different selves, and (c) the relationship between L2 learning experience, possible selves, and trait EI. A total of 143 international ESL students enrolled in an English Language Program in the United States participated in the study. A *possible selves questionnaire*, *L2 learning experience questionnaire*, and *trait emotional intelligence questionnaire* (TEIQue SF) were administered. The

underlying factors from the exploratory factor analysis performed on the possible selves questionnaire responses were ‘the ideal L2 self’, ‘the ought-to L2 self’, and ‘the anti-ought-to L2 self.’ The correlation analysis showed significant correlations between (a) trait EI and ideal/ought-to L2 self; (b) ideal L2 self and emotionality/sociability/well-being; (c) ought-to L2 self and emotionality/sociability/well-being; (d) anti-ought-to L2 self and emotionality; (e) L2 learning experience and trait EI; (f) the L2 learning experience and the ideal/anti-ought-to L2 self; (g) L2 learning experience and emotionality/sociability/well-being. A four predictor standard multiple regression model revealed that the trait EI sociability factor was the only significant predictor of the ideal L2 self. On the other hand, the trait EI emotionality factor was the only significant predictor of both the ought-to and anti-ought-to L2 selves. This study illustrates that there are important associations between L2 motivation and constructs of positive psychology, especially emotional intelligence, and that positive psychology might stimulate future L2 motivation research. Lastly, this study offers a number of implications for use of positive psychology in the SLA classroom.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Understanding a person's motivation to learn a second or foreign language has been at the center of research in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), specifically the research on individual differences (IDs). Individual differences (e.g., motivation, personality) are said to be the most important predictors of second language (L2) learning success.

Motivation was defined by Dörnyei (2000) as “the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates and evaluates the cognitive and the motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out” (p. 524). Although there is a plethora of research on individual differences in SLA and particularly on L2 motivation, it has been said that “the greatest omission of the classic individual differences paradigm is that it barely acknowledges the central role of emotions in human thought and behavior” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 9).

Emotions are a vital component of *affect*, which is an acknowledged and integral component of IDs in SLA (Ellis, 1994). Affect is an umbrella term that describes not only feeling states, including emotions and moods, but it also covers other concepts such as attitudes and personality traits. Because second and foreign language learning is an ‘emotionally loaded’ experience, emotions need to be taken into account in order to examine the unique needs of each learner in the L2 learning process because “to some extent language learning itself is prone to

create intense emotion” (MacIntyre, 2002, p. 67). Foreign language learning is considered an emotional experience for several reasons. Learning a second language is much different than learning math, for example, because of the linguistic barriers students face. Students who are immersed in a new culture and social environment might become frustrated by simple things, such as ordering food at a restaurant. Students’ previous experiences as well as the social context could impact the emotional experiences of learning a second language. More so, the new learning environment could be very different than what learners might have experienced before. Both of these factors could cause an emotional reaction. Therefore, emotions (e.g., happiness, fear) need to be taken into consideration when investigating L2 motivation because they can be powerful and pervasive and can be considered a fundamental motivator of behavior, and are therefore a key part in the motivation system (MacIntyre, 2002). Emotional intelligence, or being able to understand and recognize own and others’ emotions and to use this awareness to manage behavior and relationships (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009) “in almost all its forms and guises, is hypothesized to encompass some form of emotion-related individual differences” (Petrides, Furnham, Mavroveli, 2007, p. 5). In that vein, emotional intelligence can have significant importance in language learning and L2 motivation as it allows learners to better handle the challenges of language learning in terms of the emotions and social interactions that take place. By being aware of their level of emotional intelligence, learners can adjust behavior and use this knowledge to have more meaningful relationships while learning the second language. Furthermore, emotionally intelligent learners can also deal better with the stress of new environment and might be more open to exploring new ways of learning (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008).

The lack of research on emotions in SLA is surprising, considering that emotions share a close relationship with motivation, and can be seen as “fundamentally important motivators” (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009, p. 47). Fortunately, the “affective turn” in SLA, which is seen as a change in paradigm that increased attention to emotions and on gaining a deeper understanding of emotions and cognition, has given rise to the study of emotions in SLA (Pavlenko, 2013). Despite the existing, yet limited, research on emotions in SLA and the abundance of research on L2 motivation, the relationship between emotions and motivation has received little attention in the SLA literature. It is therefore worth investigating this relationship as it is argued that both motivation and emotions are crucial in language learning success. Thus, the point of inquiry of the present study is to explore the relationship between the two constructs among adult English as a second language (ESL) learners.

L2 Motivation Models

There has been much controversy regarding the L2 motivation theories, and as a result of the abundance of empirical work on L2 motivation, many second language learning motivation theories have been developed, all emerging from three different periods of L2 motivation theory development: the social psychological period, the cognitive situated period, and the process-oriented/socio-dynamic period (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The theory that has received most attention and has advanced other existing theories is the L2 Motivational Self System (hereafter L2MSS), which is firmly rooted in the field of psychology (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). In order to fully understand how and why the L2MSS was introduced, it is important to provide a historical overview of the development of L2 motivation research, and to discuss the theories which came before and led to the development of the L2MSS.

Prior to the introduction of the L2MSS, one of the most renowned theoretical frameworks on motivation in the SLA field was the socio-educational model (SE) introduced by Gardner (1985), which was the leading L2 motivation framework for decades. The model, which belongs to the social psychological period of L2 motivation research, posits that learners' L2 motivation is influenced by the sociocultural environment's impact on attitudes toward the target language community and culture, and that there are four elements that need to be present in order for a person to be considered motivated: a goal, a desire to achieve the goal, positive attitude, and effort. The two major components of the model are integrative and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation refers to a person's identification with the target community, and instrumental motivation includes pragmatic related motives, such as finding a job. However, contrary to its popularity, researchers began to notice the limitations of the SE model, including its predictive power with regard to achievement and its limitations with regard to measurement (MacIntyre, 2002).

Following the research by Gardner on the SE model, the cognitive-situated period emerged in the 1990s, which shifted away from social psychology and aligned more with the field of educational psychology (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). This period of research was characterized by a focus on non-L2 motivational concepts that were more cognitive in nature. Research during this period mainly focused on the various concepts of 'self' such as self-determination theory, which emphasized the extrinsic and intrinsic motives, and attribution theory, which states that learners' impression of past failure and success ultimately impacts future motivation. The concepts that were introduced during this period of research ultimately informed L2 motivation research. As such, researchers started to examine motivation in classroom learning situations, focusing on the instructed SLA context and contextual factors

such as the needs of students and the classroom (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 2000, 2002; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000).

The period of L2 motivation research that followed the cognitive-situated period is the process-oriented/socio-dynamic period, which focused on L2 motivation as a process, and currently has a growing focus on notions of self and identity. The L2MSS was introduced during this period of research as a way of expanding the previous theories, especially the SE model. The current literature on motivation applies the L2MSS framework. According to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) the L2MSS is considered to be the “most influential self-specific motivation construct...that drew on a specific aspect of self theory—possible selves” (p. 86). The L2MSS brought about a new wave of research that began at the beginning of the 21st century and has mainly focused on motivation change and the emergence of motivation between individuals and the context. The L2MSS is made up of three dimensions: *the ideal L2 self*, *the ought-to L2 self*, and *the L2 learning experience*. The learning experience is a part of the L2MSS; however, it does not focus on the aspects of self. Rather, it examines the immediate learning experience and its effect on the possible selves (Dörnyei, 2009). Out of the three dimensions, the ideal L2 self, whose central component is mental imagery and personal vision, has been found to be the most significant predictor of learners’ motivation because it involves having a self-image of an L2 user that one would like to become. It is considered to be promotion-based and involves learners’ own desires to change from the current state of identity to the future. The ideal L2 self has received the most attention in L2MSS research because of its predictive power and significance in learners’ motivation. The L2MSS has been investigated in various multilingual contexts, as well as with various participants from different language and cultural backgrounds. Studies have been conducted in North America (Kim, 2009b; Thompson & Vásquez, 2015), various countries

in Asia including Iran (Papi, 2010) and Indonesia (Lamb, 2012), as well as various countries in Europe, including United Kingdom (Busse, 2013), Sweden (Henry & Cliffordson, 2013) and Hungary (Kormos & Csizér, 2014).

There are several significant concerns with regard to the empirical work carried out using the L2MSS. One such concern lies in the research context and participants used in the studies. Currently, the majority of the existing L2MSS research has been conducted in English as a foreign language (EFL) settings, mainly Europe, where the English language is not perceived by learners to be attached to a specific English-speaking country (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Because the majority of research has been carried out in EFL contexts, the participants used in the studies are mainly EFL learners (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). The L2MSS research on ESL students is considered marginal when compared to the abundance of work carried out with EFL participants. ESL learners need to further examined because these students have different reasons for learning a language, and therefore might have different levels of motivation and might be motivated by much different aspects than the EFL learners. As their motivation is better understood, the instructors will be able to devise strategies to motivate learners. More importantly, as recent research has found yet another emergent dimension of the *psychological self* to be a significant motivator in language learning, it is suggested that there is room to refine the L2MSS framework by providing a more holistic view of learners' L2 motivational self system (Thompson & Vásquez 2015). Notably, the construct of psychological reactance was proposed as an extension to the L2MSS (Thompson & Vásquez, 2015). Thompson and Vásquez (2015) proposed the addition of the *anti-ought-to L2 self*, which is considered “a reaction to societal pressures in the opposite manner,” and was found to be a significant motivator for two of the three participants in their case study. The recent examination of the

L2MSS from the above perspectives has already contributed to the existing L2MSS literature, indicating that more research on L2 motivation and the possible selves has promising results and can further explain how language learners are motivated and how that motivation can change.

Rationale for the Present Study

Although motivation is crucial in the success of learning a language, learners' emotions and emotional well-being may also be a reason why some students encounter difficulties during the language learning process. This is because some emotions that are experienced could be debilitating. Emotional well-being, defined as "a positive sense of wellbeing which enables an individual to be able to function in society and meet the demands of everyday life" (Mental Health Foundation, 2015), is quite important to all individuals, especially language learners as these are the individuals who face many difficult challenges during their language learning experience. However, L2 motivation research, especially L2MSS research, has failed to investigate the relationship between emotions and motivation.

It is argued that emotion is multifaceted and dynamic, and is not only seen as an antecedent or an outcome of motivated learning behavior, but a part of a continuous, dynamic interaction, which along with motivation, drives language learning (Garret & Young, 2009 as cited in Dewaele, 2011). Motivated learning behavior was defined by Csizer and Kormos (2009) as "effort expended to achieve a goal, desire to learn, the language, and importance attached to the task of learning the language" (as cited in Dörnyei, 2005, p. 100). Since second/FL learning can be seen as a lengthy process, one that needs sustained motivation over a long period of time, learners need to be able to successfully deal with their and others' emotions in order to generate and sustain their motivation for learning. As the current L2 motivation theory centers around the

notions of self and identity, with that respect, emotions play a crucial role in such context. Maehr (2001) concurs by stating that “the focus on self and self-worth reinforces the need to rediscover the role of the emotions in motivation” (p. 184).

L2 motivation researchers have recognized the need to include emotions in L2 motivation research, and specifically in the L2MSS framework (e.g., Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; MacIntyre, Mackinnon, & Clément, 2009). However, L2MSS research has failed to consider and embrace the role and relationship of emotions and emotional intelligence to the psychological aspects of self. Some researchers attribute the motivational force of L2 selves to various types of emotions, such as joy (Teimouri, 2016). MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) have stated that in order to fully understand the motivational drive of L2 possible selves, we must also considering the emotional states that arise from different self-discrepancies or self-inconsistencies when it comes to people’s own beliefs because discrepancies that arise can lead to emotional states and vulnerabilities. Learners are more likely to experience dejection- related emotions, such as dissatisfaction, if they experience such discrepancies to a greater extent (Higgins, 1987). In second/foreign language learning, these self-discrepancies can be a source of different negative emotional states (Papi, 2010). Furthermore, with regard to the possible selves, both the ideal and ought selves prompt action and are thus said to be motivating by being used to evaluate oneself or to arouse emotions in a person (Higgins, 1987). Several assumptions exist with regard to emotions in language learning because the effects are likely to be bidirectional. While some researchers argue that L2 learning affects emotions (e.g., Pavlenko, 2013), others argue that emotions influence language learning and not vice versa (e.g., Swain, 2013).

The current study operationalizes emotions using the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) that belongs to the individual differences domain of positive psychology, which is the

scientific study “of the strength that enables individuals and communities to thrive” (University of Pennsylvania, 2017). The EI framework encompasses all possible emotional skills and feelings, and can determine one’s levels of motivation (Goleman, 1995, 2001). With regard to SLA, EI “claims to predict how learners will react to the demands of various second language learning and use contexts, which is crucial for their successful acquisition of the second language” (Shao, Ji, & Yu, 2013, p. 918). Furthermore, a person can recognize and control negative emotions and create different positive emotions that in turn can act as a catalyst for thinking (Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007; Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Goleman (2005) states that having high levels of EI can decrease stress and anxiety, as well as reduce conflict. Not only that, but higher EI levels can increase self-motivation, and individuals with higher levels of EI perceive themselves as being able to regulate emotional reactions over a span of time, as well as being more assertive and confident in their ability to effectively communicate in the L2 (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Shao, Ji, & Yu, 2013). Furthermore, it has been found that L2 learners who have higher EI can better control impulse, uphold positive attitudes when faced with challenges of learning a second language, and are said to be better at managing stress (Pishaghadam, 2009).

As the construct of EI gains attention in research, many models of it have been proposed. One such model that has gained much attention and has reconceptualized EI is the Trait Emotional Intelligence model, which deals with “emotion-related self-perceptions, such as emotion control, emotion expression, empathy, and adaptability” (Dewaele, Petrides, Furnham, 2008, p. 913). This construct places EI in the lower levels of personality hierarchy as trait EI consists of more specific traits and is not considered to be a supertraits, or a higher order personality dimension (Petrides, 2010); more information is provided in the literature review.

The current study uses the trait EI framework as an operationalization of emotional intelligence as it is the only existing model to consider the subjectivity of emotions. Trait EI consists of four broader factors (sociability, emotionality, well-being, and self-control) and many facets.

Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) also refer to trait EI as *trait-emotional self-efficacy* to reflect the self-evaluative nature of the construct. A person's global or overall trait EI is considered the general functioning of how emotionally developed one is (Petrides, 2001). It has been found that trait EI is implicated in numerous domains, one of which is academic performance in a university setting (Sanchez-Ruiz, Mavroveli, & Poullis, 2013). Research shows that trait EI can predict academic performance as it facilitates different emotion-related capabilities that are essential to stress coping or various demands of higher education (Sanchez-Ruiz, Mavroveli, & Poullis, 2013).

With regard to the educational domain, one important research question in the field of SLA has focused on the role of emotions in language learning. Only several studies have addressed this research question, and even fewer have investigated trait EI with second/foreign language learners (e.g., Abdolrezapour & Tavakoli, 2012; Dewaele, 2010; Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2012; Pavlenko, 2005; Shao, Ji, & Yu, 2013). Since trait EI is operationalized as part of one's personality and entails emotion related dispositions and self-perceptions, it is relevant to the language learning process as individuals who possess high levels of trait EI are apt to better handle the language learning environment and its challenges. Additionally, emotionally intelligent learners might also be more confident in their ability to use the L2 (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008). The focus of the majority of research on emotions in SLA has been on expression and experience of emotions (e.g., Dewaele 2010; Pavlenko, 2006). Very little has been done on the role of EI and trait EI in SLA as researchers are still trying to understand the

role of emotions in language learning. Although research on emotions in SLA has slowly gained some momentum, further investigations need to be carried out in order to understand how and in what way emotions and emotional intelligence connect to L2 motivation and the impact one has on the other.

Only two studies, to the researcher's knowledge, have addressed emotions and L2 motivation (Mendez-Lopez & Aguilar, 2012), and only one of them investigates emotions and L2 possible selves (Teimouri, 2016). There are no existing studies in the SLA literature that investigate the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and the possible selves, as far as the researcher is aware. Because trait EI deals with self-perception, in that vein, L2 motivation and particularly a learner's sense of self as a language learner might be influenced in several ways. Mainly, if learners perceive themselves as having strong emotion-related abilities in terms of understanding own and others' emotions and effectively dealing with own and others' emotions, they might have a stronger sense of self because their perceptions are strong and positive in terms of their ability. Therefore, this strong perception and awareness of understanding oneself as well as others might increase motivation during the language learning process as these learners are immersed in different and unfamiliar environments where social interaction is quite important.

Given the importance of emotions, emotional well-being, and emotional intelligence in learning a second language and due to a lack of research in the SLA field on this topic, this construct needs to be further investigated. Presently, the current SLA research is limited in its investigation of learners' emotions, and most of the existing literature focuses on negative emotions. While this is important, research should also aim to investigate positive emotions as such research could aid us in better understanding how such emotions influence the language

learners and the learning process. One way to begin the greater focus on positive emotions is to investigate learners' emotional intelligence. Therefore, the literature on L2 motivation could stand to be expanded as future studies shed more light on the relationship between it and the construct of emotions.

In the above sections, matters related to language learning motivation and the different L2 motivation models were discussed in brief. Additionally, issues related to language learners' emotions and the lack of this component of IDs research in SLA were also noted. Lastly, the above sections have highlighted the associations between L2 motivation and emotions, and how and why both are needed for successful language learning. Therefore, the researcher proposes that a further scientific investigation is needed in order to better understand the relationship between the two constructs.

Purpose of the Study

Utilizing a quantitative method of analysis, the overall purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between L2 motivation and trait emotional intelligence. In that vein, the goal of the study is twofold. First, a focus is placed on the relationship between the possible selves and trait EI. While the possible selves are quite important in examining future language learning motivation, in order to get a more holistic picture of learners' L2 motivational self system, the current study will also address learners' L2 learning experience. Therefore, the second goal of the study is to investigate the learners' L2 learning experience and trait EI. Accordingly, the study has two goals with regard to the L2 learning experience, which is concerned with the situated motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience. The first is to explore the relationship and interaction between the L2 learning experience and the possible

selves, and the second is to see how the L2 learning experience and global trait EI interact. As discussed earlier, trait EI is comprised of many factors and facets. While the researcher is interested in the global trait EI and different dimensions of the modified L2MSS model utilized in the present study, which includes the three selves and the L2 learning experience, there is merit in investigating the predictive power of the four factors that make up the global trait EI. The specific research questions that guide the present study are addressed below.

Research Questions

Accordingly, the following research questions are investigated in order to determine the relationship between trait EI and L2 motivation:

RQ1: *To what extent is there a relationship between trait emotional intelligence and the possible selves?*

- a.** To what extent is there a relationship between global trait EI and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?
- b.** To what extent is there a relationship between four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, self-control) and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?

RQ2: *To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the three selves?*

- a.** the ideal L2 self?
- b.** the ought-to L2 self?
- c.** the anti-ought-to L2 self?

RQ3: *To what extent is there a relationship between the L2 learning experience, the possible selves, and trait emotional intelligence?*

The Significance of the Study

The present study fills a significant gap in the SLA and Applied Linguistics literature by integrating the most studied individual difference, L2 motivation, and a newly introduced construct in positive psychology, trait emotional intelligence. This study is of significance since,

to the researcher's knowledge, no previous study has specifically explored the relationship between these two psychological concepts using the L2MSS framework. As such, the study can shed light on how different factors of trait EI might affect learners' possible selves and therefore influence their L2 motivation. Above all, the study will add to existing, but limited, literature and empirical research on the L2 learning experience and both the anti-ought-to L2 self and trait EI. In that vein, examining learners' emotional intelligence will bring new light as to the connection between emotion-related self-perceptions and the L2 learning experience. Although there has been an increase in research studies that examine how emotional intelligence affects different variables in SLA, no studies have utilized Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) to investigate emotional intelligence and its effect on L2 motivation, and specifically L2 possible selves. Finally, the findings of this study will inform both researchers and practitioners in the SLA field of how positive psychology fits into and connects with the SLA and Applied Linguistics field, and what possible pedagogical benefits exist by integrating the construct of trait EI into the ESL curriculum.

Definition of Terms

Motivation - "Motivation refers to the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect" (Keller, 1983, p. 389).

Motivated learning behavior – "effort expended to achieve a goal, desire to learn, the language, and importance attached to the task of learning the language" (Csizer & Kormos, 2009, p.100)

Affective factors- "those that deal with the emotional reactions and motivations of the learner" (Scovel, 1978, p. 131).

Individual Differences- "attributes that mark a person as a distinct and unique human being" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 231).

Trait EI-Trait emotional intelligence, or trait emotional self-efficacy, deals with “emotion-related self-perceptions, such as emotion control, emotion expression, empathy, and adaptability” (Dewaele, Petrides, Furnham, 2008, p. 913).

TEIQue SF-Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (Petrides & Furnham, 2006).

The L2MSS- L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005): A theory of L2 learning motivation.

Possible selves- a person’s ideas of what they might become, would like to become, and are afraid of becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

L2 – Second/additional languages. In this study, the L2 is English.

ESL students- English as a second language; non-native English speakers in an English-speaking country where English is the primary language of communication

EFL students- English as a foreign language; non-native English speakers studying English in a foreign country where English is not the primary language of communication

Self guides-representations of the self, or desired self states that have motivational implications (Higgins, 1987)

Self-discrepancy theory - aims “to predict which types of incompatible beliefs will induce which kinds of negative emotions” (Higgins, 1987, p. 320)

Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the importance of further investigating L2 motivation in the field of SLA. The construct of L2 motivation has been greatly advanced in the last few decades, and as one of the most frequently investigated individual differences in foreign/second language learning, both L2 motivation and the theories behind the various motivational frameworks have been greatly developed (Dörnyei, 2009). In addition to L2 motivation, the current study also aims to investigate learners’ emotional intelligence using the trait EI framework. The role of emotions and emotional intelligence in second/foreign language learning is important and should be given more attention by SLA researchers. Therefore, further efforts need to be made in order to better understand this construct. Additionally, and most importantly, as both L2 motivation

and emotions are crucial to the learning process, and as researchers have argued that there is a relationship between the two, emphasis should be placed on investigating this intricate relationship.

In the following chapter, the theoretical framework and a review of literature for the present study will be provided. Additionally, an overview of the L2MSS framework will be provided, along with a synthesis of empirical work carried out using the L2MMS framework in various contexts. Lastly, emotion research in second and foreign language learning will be addressed along with a connection between emotions and personality, leading to the relevant empirical work on trait EI in the field of SLA.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter will first discuss the theoretical framework that the present study applies, which is twofold. First, the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009), and trait emotional intelligence theory (Petrides & Furnham, 2008) will be defined. Following that, the current literature in the SLA field in the abovementioned constructs will be synthesized, leading to the research gaps that motivate the current study.

Theoretical Framework

Language learning motivation was reconceptualized by Dörnyei (2005) with the introduction of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS), which consists of the ideal L2 self, the ought-to self L2 self, and the L2 learning experience. The L2MSS is based on self-discrepancy theory, which aims “to predict which types of incompatible beliefs will induce which kinds of negative emotions” (Higgins, 1987, p. 320), and possible selves theory, originally introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986), which states that “possible selves are the future-oriented aspects of self-concept, the positive and negative selves that one expects to become or hopes to avoid becoming” (Oyserman & James, 2009, p. 373). The current study attempts to use the L2MSS framework and adds another dimension of motivation to the framework, the *anti-ought-to L2 self* (Thompson & Vásquez, 2015).

The anti-ought-to L2 self is based on the construct of psychological reactance, and consists of motives such as challenges involved in learning a language, or pushing back against any pressure learners are faced with when learning English. According to Brehm (1966) psychological reactance, on which the anti-ought-to L2 self is based, has to do with motivational factors that emerge when someone's freedom is threatened. In order to prevent the loss or regain the loss of freedom, a person may take part in range of behaviors. This reaction response has been broken down into two types: behavioral and verbal (Dowd, Milne, & Wise, 1991 as cited in Middleton, Buboltz, & Sopon, 2015). The former refers to actual behavior a person may engage in, while the later refers to only verbal attempts to regain control and freedom. Reactance response is influenced by a number of variables including a desire to achieve (Buboltz, Johnson, & Woller, 2003) and situational factors (El-Alayli & Messe, 2004). Although previous research has conceptualized it as a situation-specific construct, more recent research conceptualizes it as an individual difference, meaning that it is a characteristic of a person's personality (Buboltz et al., 2003). With regard to expressing reactance, there are several ways to do so, and it has been cited that "in addition to directly engaging in the prohibited behavior, reactance can be expressed by observing others engaging in the behavior, by engaging in the related behavior, or by engaging in the aggression against the prohibitor (Buboltz et al., 2003 p. 311 as cited in Dowd, 1999). Therefore, the first part of the theoretical framework for the current study uses the modified L2MSS, which consists of the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self and the L2 learning experience.

In addition to using the L2MSS, the present study also uses the construct of trait emotional intelligence (trait EI), which is a reconceptualization of emotional intelligence, and deals with "emotion-related self-perceptions, such as emotion control, emotion expression,

empathy, and adaptability” (Dewaele, Petrides, Furnham, 2008, p. 913). Trait EI theory can be defined as people’s self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. Although there are numerous measurements of trait EI, the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) is the most valid scientifically when compared to other measurements, and it is also the most widely used measurement of trait EI as it is designed as a gateway to trait EI theory (Petrides, 2001).

TEIQue is available in 25 different languages, and it comes in several forms: full form, short form, adolescent form, and child form. This measurement of trait EI is not language-specific. The global (overall) trait EI score consists of 15 specific facets, and measures the general emotional functioning of how emotionally developed one is (Petrides, 2001). These include *adaptability, assertiveness, emotion perception, emotion expression, emotion management, emotion regulation, impulsiveness, relationships, self-esteem, self-motivation, social awareness, stress management, trait empathy, trait happiness, and trait optimism* (see Appendix A). The TEIQue measures four factors of broader relevance in trait EI, including emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Out of the 15 facets, 13 make up the four broader factors. Self-motivation and adaptability facets do not belong to a factor; however, they do contribute to the overall, or global, trait emotional intelligence score. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the facets and factors in the TEIQue. The descriptions of facet are not considered cognitive abilities, rather they are self-perceived behavioral dispositions.

EMOTIONALITY	
Emotion expression	How well one can express their feelings accurately and unambiguously. People who score high on this facet are considered fluent in communicating emotions to others.
Trait empathy	How well one can understand other people's desires and needs, and are able to take viewpoints of those they are communicating with.
Emotion perception	How well one can understand their own feelings and can pay attention to various emotional signals while communicating with others. Therefore, this facets deals with emotion perception in one self and others
Relationships	How fulfilling personal relationships are, which can in turn affect emotional well-being. People who score high on this facet are said to know how to listen and be responsive to those close to them
SOCIABILITY	
Emotion management	Deals with the perceived ability to manage other people's emotions; people who score high can influence other people's feelings
Assertiveness	Deals with how self-assured and forthright one is
Social awareness	How well one is socially sensitive and what kind of social skills they possess
WELL-BEING	
Self-esteem	How one evaluates oneself; thus those who score high have a positive view of themselves
Trait optimism	Deals with how well one perceives the general psychological state, and is future-oriented. People who score high are seen as looking on the bright side
Trait happiness	How one feels about themselves in the present with regard to their emotional state
SELF-CONTROL	
Low impulsiveness	Measure unhealthy impulsivity; people who score low give in to their urges and desire immediate gratification
Emotion regulation	Measure short/medium/long-term control of one's feelings
Stress management	How well one can handle pressure calmly and effectively
INDEPENDENT FACETS	
Adaptability	How flexible people are in their approach to life
Self-motivation	How driven and determined are people by a need to produce high quality work

© K.V. Petrides 1998 - London Psychometric Laboratory. All rights reserved. Used with permission.

Figure 1. Factors and facets of the TEIQue

Figure created from information from (Petrides, 2001; Petrides & Furnham, 2001)

Prior to providing a deeper overview of the L2MSS, the four broader factors of trait EI are discussed. As mentioned previously, the four broader factors are: sociability, emotionality, well-being, and self-control. According to Petrides and Furnham (2001) sociability deals with

how well one can socialize, manage interpersonal emotions, and form relationships. This factor, in addition to focusing on whether one has strong social skills, also addresses how well one exercises control and exerts influence over others and their feelings. Thus, the primary focus of this factor is on social influence and relationships. Having strong social skills indicates that an individual is socially stable and has better personal interactions and relationships than someone who lacks those skills. The notion of power and influence over others is exemplified in the TEIQue. For example, under the sociability factor, the following items are depicted: “I don’t seem to have any power at all over other people’s feelings” and “I’m usually able to influence the way other people feel.” Although the term ‘sociability’ might evoke ideas about similar concepts, primarily extroversion, it is important to distinguish the two as separate concepts. While the two concepts are similar in terms of their focus on social skills, extraversion does not include the aspects of power and influence as does the trait EI sociability factor. The second factor, emotionality, also places focus on relationships; however, the focus is shifted to close relationships. In addition, this factor deals with how well one can perceive and express emotions, and use those skills to build and sustain relationships with people who are close. Another central component of emotionality is empathy. The emotionality factor is explored in the TEIQue by the following sample items: “I often pause and think about my feelings” and “I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.” The items that examine this factor focus on aspects of emotions more so than the items examining the other three factors. Finally, one’s overall well-being, including the level of happiness and fulfillment, is described by the well-being factor, and one’s ability to regulate external stress and pressure, as well as the ability to control urges, is described by the self-control factor.

The purpose of the following sections is to present the major tenets and areas of research with regard to the L2MSS framework. In addition, the major construct within emotional intelligence, trait EI, will be presented along with the relevant literature and interplay between trait EI and second/foreign language learning.

Overview of the L2 Motivational Self System

Motivation is essential in initiating language learning and plays an imperative role in sustaining the process of language learning. As mentioned in the introductory chapter, there have been different waves of research on L2 motivation and the development of L2 motivation theory (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The first wave of research is known as the social psychological period, lasting from 1959 to 1990, and began with the introduction of the Socio-educational (SE) model of language acquisition. Gardner (1985) stated that foreign language learning is impacted by various social psychological factors, such as language attitudes and cultural stereotypes. The main view of this approach, as demonstrated by the SE model, is that “students’ attitudes toward the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language” (Gardner, 1985, p. 6). The second wave of research is known as the cognitive-situated period, lasting throughout the 1990s, and it was characterized by aligning the L2 motivation research with that of mainstream psychology, which was driven by cognitive theories, such as the theories of *self* in academic motivation that originated in non-L2 specific research. Lastly, the third wave of research is known as the process-oriented period, which started at the beginning of the 21st century. Currently, the research on L2 motivation is situated in this period, which encompasses the L2MSS, and is characterized by “an interest in motivational

change, especially concerned with how motivation emerges from interaction between individuals and contexts” (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 74.).

Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System falls under the third wave of motivation research. The L2MSS was proposed to conceptualize L2 motivation as dynamic, rather than static, and its conceptualization is based on previous L2 motivation research as well as research from the field of social psychology (e.g., Higgins, 1997; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Ushioda, 2011). This framework consists of three dimensions: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience. The table below provides an overview of the L2MSS.

The L2MSS and its Dimensions

Table 1. Dimensions of the L2MSS (see Dörnyei, 2009)

Dimension	Description
Ideal L2 self	The ideal L2 self entails the image of a person the learner would like to become in the L2. Motives related to the ideal L2 self are strong and internal. This dimension is very much similar to the traditional intrinsic/integrative motives.
Ought-to L2 self	This is an image of a person a learner believes s/he ought to become in order to meet societal expectations and avoid negative consequences. This dimension is similar to the extrinsic/integrative motives.
L2 Learning experience	This dimension encompasses situated motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience. It addresses the impact of past and current language learning experiences, and can include motives such as instructors, peers, and curriculum.

The ideal L2 self is the strongest motivator for language learning (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). It essentially represents the following: “if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ‘*ideal L2 self*’ is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 29). This self guide includes representations and attributes, such as personal aspirations, hopes, and wishes,

one would like to possess (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Whereas the ideal L2 self involves having a self-image of an L2 user that one would like to become, the ought-to L2 self involves a self-image one believes one ought to have in order to meet some sort of expectations and reduce the negative outcomes. Thus, this self guide involves attributes such as sense of duty, obligation, and responsibility. Therefore, the ideal L2 self is promotion-based and the ought-to L2 self is prevention-based. This means that since the ideal L2 self includes one's hopes and wishes, or someone we would like to become, the learner is motivated to act in order to reach that desired state and reduce the discrepancy between the actual and the ideal self; thus this internalized desire would promote us to reach the ideal self, or the ideal outcome. On the contrary, the ought-to L2 self includes our expectations and forces us to act in order to avoid negative outcomes, and therefore the action is initiated to prevent this outcome.

On the contrary to the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self has not received much attention because the research results show that it is not a significant predictor of motivated learning behavior (Kormos & Csizér, 2008). Researchers suggest that the reason the ought-to L2 self is not a good predictor of motivated learning behavior is because it is not internalized enough by learners in order to employ its motivational influence (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Csizér & Lukács 2010; Kim, 2009a). Other researchers in their empirical work have found that the ought-to L2 self can be a strong motivator; however, the influence on language learning success is not as strong as the ideal L2 self (Lamb, 2007, 2012; Thompson & Erdil-Moody, 2015). As can be seen, the results on the ought-to L2 self are quite contradictory, and while some researchers have found the ought-to self to be important, others have concluded otherwise. Thus, these contradicting results may have caused some to pay more attention to the ideal L2 self, rather than the ought-to L2 self (Ryan, 2009).

Lastly, the third dimension, the L2 learning experience, focuses on the immediate learning environment. That is, how teachers as part of the structured environment or peer groups in the naturalistic environment, impact language learning motivation. In addition to interacting with people in different types of environments, this dimension of the framework also includes interaction with objects and artifacts, as well as past learning experiences.

There are several conditions, as outlined by Dörnyei (2009) that are necessary in order for motivation to spark, as viewed from the L2MSS perspective. These conditions include: having a clear, elaborate, vivid, and plausible future self-image, which is distinct from the current self and in harmony with the social environment (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Additionally, one must believe that the possible self is not easily within reach and that effort must be exerted in order to realize this future image. More so, the future self-image needs to be activated in the current self-concept, and supplemented with procedural strategies to achieve the future states. Lastly, this future self-image should be counterbalanced by countering the feared possible self.

Possible Selves Theory and Self-discrepancy Theory

The ideal and ought-to L2 selves constructs of the L2MSS are derived from the field of social psychology and particularly the research in personality where the notion of “self” is multifaceted and has been the most frequently discussed topic (MacIntyre, Mackinnon & Clement, 2009). The notion of ‘self’ in motivation research started gaining attention during the cognitive-situated period, which occurred in the 1990s (Pajares, 2001). The origin of this dates back to *possible selves* theory that was originally introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986) in the field of psychology, which is the science of human behavior that deals with different mental states and processes. According to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) the idea of *self* has been at the center of research on motivation in second language acquisition (hereafter SLA), which in turn

“created an interface between personality and motivational psychology” (p. 86). SLA is a field whose research focuses on knowledge and use of languages learned after the first by children and adults (Spada & Lightbown, 2002). Accordingly, possible selves originated from the dimensions of personality, which examined the “‘doing’ sides of personality” (Cantor, 1990, p.735). The following definition of possible selves was provided by Oyserman and James (2009):

Possible selves are the future-oriented aspects of self-concept, the positive and negative selves that one expects to become or hopes to avoid becoming. They are the desired and feared images of the self already in a future state—the “clever” self who passed the algebra test, the “unhealthy” self who failed to lose weight or quit smoking, and the “off-track” self who became pregnant. Individuals possess multiple positive and negative possible selves. (p. 373)

Since the concept of possible selves encompasses potential that has yet to be realized, as well as hopes and wishes, the combination of possible selves and imagined self-identities play a role in “future self-guides” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 11). It is for this reason that the “future self-guides” are seen as dynamic and future-oriented, and have the potential to explain how one moves from the present to a future state. Therefore, these representations of one’s future self can be a powerful motivator, and according to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) the more vivid the self-image is, the stronger and more effective motivation will become.

One particular theory, rooted in social psychology, explains how possible selves regulate motivation. The theory in question is Higgin’s (1987) *self-discrepancy* theory. The theory posits that when it comes to people’s beliefs, self-inconsistencies can lead to emotional problems, and as a result, many can experience issues such as feeling discouraged or dissatisfied (Higgins,

1987). Thus, self-discrepancy theory aims “to predict which types of incompatible beliefs will induce which kinds of negative emotions” (p. 320). With this respect, emotions are also important in the study of learner selves because conflicts and discrepancies that arise within the concept of self can lead to emotional states and emotional vulnerabilities, which in turn can influence language learning. Higgins (1987) states that different emotions can be ‘dejection-related’ or the absence of positive outcomes, and ‘agitation-related’ or presence of negative outcomes (p. 319). These two categories of emotions are said to be the two basic negative psychological situations. Higgins argues that different self-discrepancies are associated with certain kinds of negative psychological situation that might be experienced. The former category encompasses emotions such as discouragement, pity, sadness, feeling gloomy and miserable, while the later consists of guilt, anxiety, worry, and fear (p. 319). Figure 2 shows the different emotions associated with different self-guides.

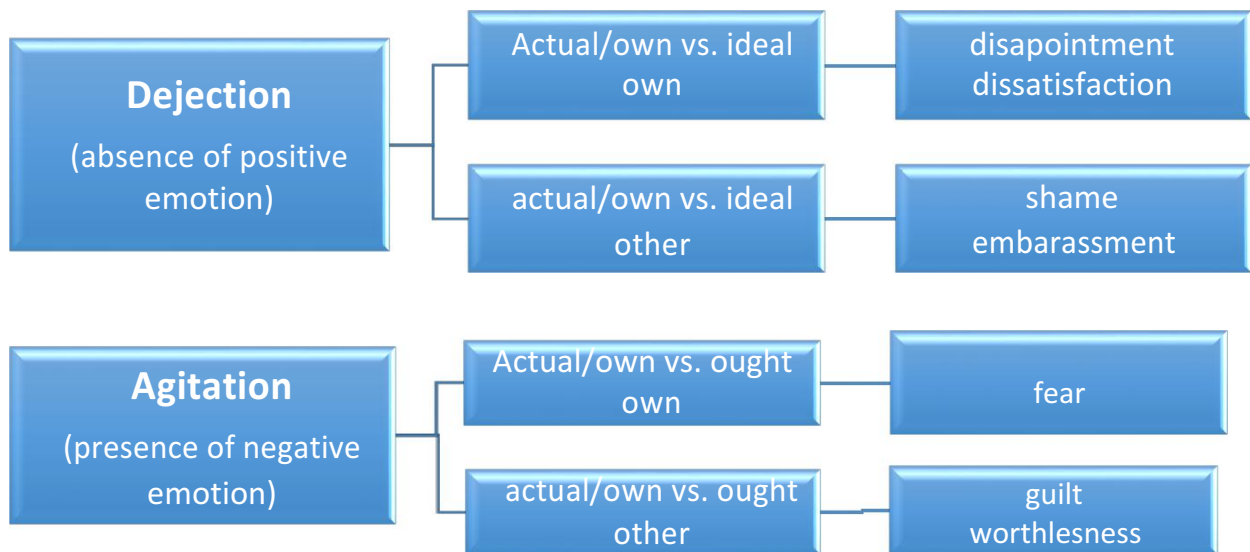


Figure 2. Self-guides and their associated emotions
Figure created from information from (Higgins, 1987)

According to self-discrepancy theory, there are three main domains of the self: the *ideal self*, the *actual self*, and the *ought self*, and motivation as seen from this perspective includes someone's desire to reduce discrepancy between the actual and the ideal/ought self. The actual self focuses on attributes that are actually possessed, the ideal self encompasses attributes that would like to be possessed, and the ought self focuses on the attributes one should possess. While the ideal self includes hope and wishes, the ought self includes obligation and responsibility.

In addition to the three domains of the *self* rooted in self-discrepancy theory, there is another dimension for each of the three abovementioned domains: the "own" versus the "other." This pertains to the point of view from which the self is seen. It can be seen from one's 'own' point of view, or the self can be seen from another's point of view, which is the "other." From the three domains and the different dimensions, six different types of self-state representations are formed: actual/own, actual/other, ideal/own, ideal/other, ought/own and ought/other. The actual/own and actual/other make up a person's self-concept, while the remaining four make up the self-guides (see *Figure 3*), and ultimately, people are motivated to reach a balance between the two, where the self-concept matches the self-guides. Higgins (1987) argues that this distinction in classifying self-state representations can relate the different emotional and motivational conditions to the different self-state representations, and that "each type of discrepancy reflects a particular type of negative psychological situation that is associated with specific emotional/motivational problems" (Higgins, 1987, p. 322). Additionally, a person may have all of the self-discrepancies, a combination of some of them, or none of them at all (Higgins, 1987).

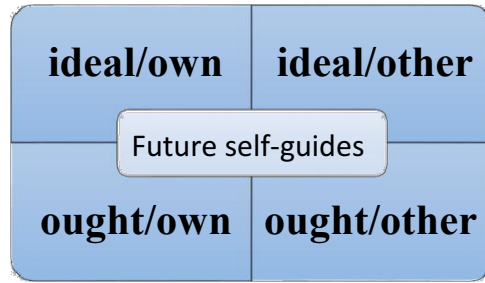


Figure 3. Future Self-guides
Figure created from information from (Higgins, 1987)

Therefore, self-discrepancy theory posits that actual, ideal, and ought domains of the *self* can affect people’s motivation, especially the ideal and ought self, which are often referred to as future self-guides due to their ability to regulate behavior (Magid & Chan, 2012). However, several discrepancies may arise between the domains (see *Figure 4*). These include actual/own versus ideal/own, actual/own versus ideal/other, actual/own versus ought/own, and actual/own versus ought/other (Higgins, 1987).

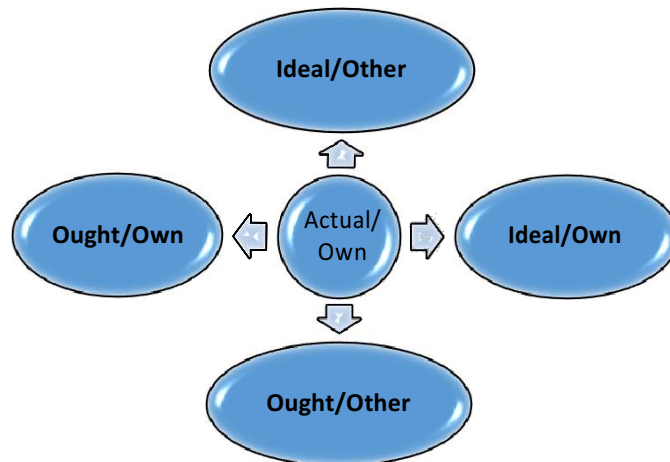


Figure 4. Possible discrepancies
Figure created from information from (Higgins, 1987)

If one faces the actual/own versus ideal/own discrepancy, then there is a mismatch from one's own standpoint, between the actual attributes possessed and those that one hopes to achieve. If one faces the actual/own versus ideal/other discrepancy, then the present attributes from one's own standpoint are what someone else has wished or hoped for that person to have. If one faces the actual/own versus ought/own, then the own attributes currently attained are not what one believes they are obligated to have. Lastly, if one faces the actual/own versus ought/other discrepancy, then there is a mismatch between the own actual attributes one has and what another person believes one is obligated to have (Dörnyei, 2005).

To summarize, the possible selves theory is formed from a variety of psychological theories, including self-discrepancy theory, which includes the ideal self and the ought self. Imagination has an important role to play in the possible selves psychology due to the role of senses and images in the experiences. The possible selves entail senses and images. Self-discrepancy suggests that when people are motivated, they initiate self-regulatory strategies in order to reduce discrepancy between current and ideal self. Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) is based on the above two mentioned theories, *self-discrepancy* and the *possible selves* theory. As mentioned previously, the possible selves, ideal and ought, are often referred to as future self-guides because of their capacity to regulate behavior, and Dörnyei (2005) adopts the name 'guides' in the L2MSS model to exemplify the ability of the dimensions of the model to regulate future behavior. According to Dörnyei (2009) these future self-guides are not simply a list of achievable goals. Rather, he differentiates between future self-guides and goals stating that goals are purely cognitive in nature, whereas future self guides are also cognitive, but also contain an emotional, visual, and sensory aspect. Additionally, what functions

as the driving force for motivation is the power of imagined reality captured within the future self-guides (Dörnyei, 2009).

Explanatory Power of the L2MSS

The majority of research that has investigated language learning motivation using the L2MSS framework has confirmed its explanatory power (Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Henry 2009, 2010, 2011). The L2MSS has been widely tested and validated in many different countries such as Hungary (Csizér & Kormos 2009), Saudi Arabia (Al-Shehri 2009), China and Iran (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi 2009), and Japan (Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi 2009). The majority of current research focuses on the ideal L2 self, as this dimension of the framework was found to be a strong predictor of learner's motivated learning behavior, and it is essential for successful language learning (Magid & Chan, 2012; Ryan, 2009). The ideal L2 self is considered to be the best predictor in the threefold model because learner's motivation originates internally, unlike the other two dimensions of the model, and emphasizes learners' own desires to change from the current state of identity to the future (Dörnyei, 2009). Numerous empirical studies have been carried out that tested the central component of the L2MSS, the ideal L2 self, in its role of learners' motivated learning behavior. The results of the numerous studies confirm that the ideal L2 self has a strong direct relationship with motivated learning behavior (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kim, 2009; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Ryan, 2009)

In contrast, the ought-to L2 self, which is the less internalized aspect of the L2 self, has not received as much attention in the literature since it was shown to not be a significant predictor of future motivated learning behavior (Papi, 2010; Taguchi et al., 2009). Although it has been shown by Taguchi et al. (2009) that the ought-to L2 self among participants in China, Iran, and Japan, was impacted by family influence and the prevention of failing an exam,

ultimately, the overall effect of the ought-to L2 self on motivation was found to be less than the ideal L2 self. The results are similar in Papi's (2010) study, which aimed at testing the L2MSS model of motivation with anxiety and intended effort with Iranian high school students. Papi's study showed that all three dimensions of the L2MSS (ideal/ought-to/learning experience) motivated learners to learn English; however, that influence varied to different degrees. The learning experience in Papi's study was operationalized as attitudes to learning a second language that can be impacted by motives that are situation-specific and associated with immediate learning environment. The results showed that the ought-to L2 self's influence was not as strong as the ideal L2 self in motivating learners to put more effort toward learning English. With regard to anxiety, Papi's study showed that while the ideal L2 self had significant negative causal relationships with English anxiety, the students who were motivated by the ought-to L2 self were significantly more anxious.

The L2MSS vs. Socio-Educational Model

There have been many proposed models of L2 motivation (Clément & Gardner, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). As mentioned previously, one of the most influential and popular models of motivation is the socio-educational (SE) model, introduced by Robert Gardner (1985, 2001). This model provides a connection between motivation and language achievement and other learner characteristics, such as intelligence, language aptitude, language learning strategies, and language attitudes. The model consists of four aspects: biological or experiential factors, individual differences, language acquisition contexts, and learning outcomes. The major reason behind introducing this model is that second language learning was not seen as a socioculturally neutral process; rather, it is influenced by various

psychological factors (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The SE model was established in Canadian bilingual context of Allophones and Francophones, and this context is the key tenet of the SE model because the L2 learners have direct contact with the native speakers. The inconsistencies in research findings arose when the SE model was applied in different sociocultural contexts where the target language is not learned as the second language. The results of much of the research did not explain Gardner's notion of L2 motivation (e.g., Lamb, 2004; Ushioda, 2006). Additionally, as there are numerous variables comprising the model, researchers were faced with the difficulty of conceptualizing L2 motivation. Figure 5 provides an illustration of Gardner's SE model.

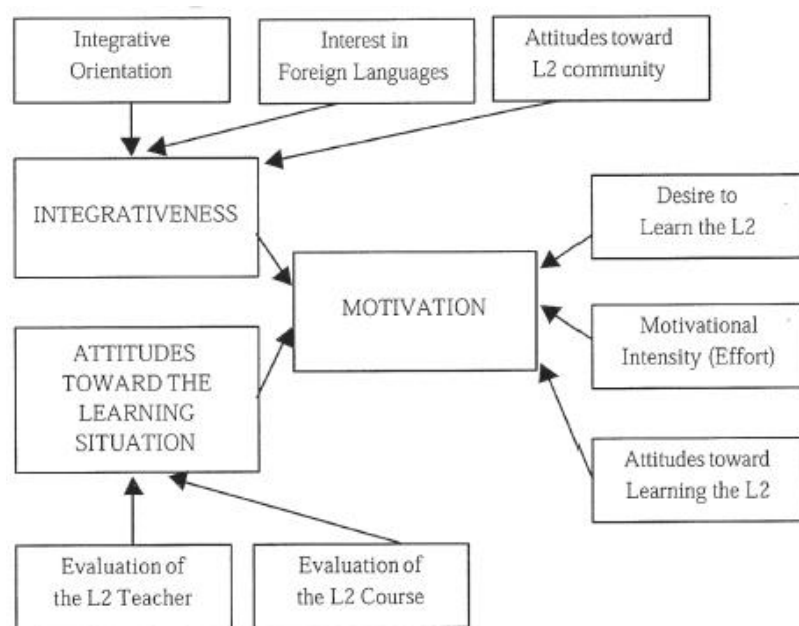


Figure 5. Gardner's Socio-educational Model of SLA (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, p. 8)
 © Cambridge University Press 1993. Used with permission.

Although the SE model gained quick popularity at the time of its introduction, many have criticized it. It is important to provide the model's limitations, and explain how the L2MSS emerged as a result of the SE model and its limitations. Additionally, comparing the two models will shed light as to why the L2MSS continues to gain popularity among the researchers in the

SLA field. There have been many discussions on the conceptual differences between the two models of L2 motivation (e.g., McEown, Noels, & Chaffee, 2014), and among the many different distinctions, the basic one is the period in which they gained popularity. While the SE model falls under the social psychology period of research on motivation, which was dominated by Gardner and associates from 1959-1990, the L2MSS falls under the process-oriented period (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Moreover, it is important to mention that with regard to the foci of motivation, the SE model places focus on others, or the community, while the focus of motivation in the L2MSS is rooted in the future versions of self (Lamb, 2012).

Two of the most researched motivational components of the SE model are integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. While the integrative motivation includes the focus on positive feelings toward the L2 speaking community and a desire to engage with that community, the instrumental motivation concentrates on the practical reasons and benefits that studying a language might have, such as career opportunities or getting accepted into a university. The ideal L2 self of the L2MSS is closely connected to the notion of integrativeness of the SE model, and the ought-to L2 self is closely related to instrumentality (Dörnyei, 2005). One of the main foci of integrativeness is that it reflects “a general openness to adopting characteristics of other cultural communities” (Gardner, 2010, p.85). The L2MSS was designed to address integrativeness in the form of “psychological and emotional identification” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 96), along with other important issues.

Many researchers argue that integrativeness and the ideal L2 self are interchangeable, and that the ideal L2 self is a good predictor of learner’s motivated learning behavior (Kim & Kim, 2012; Kormos & Csizér, 2008). However, some suggest that the two concepts are complementary and that using them interchangeably can potentially cause the loss of the

integrativeness, while replacing it with the ideal self (MacIntyre et al., 2009). Dörnyei argues that these are not interchangeable because the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self only extend the notion of integrativeness. Furthermore, instrumental motivation includes external motives such as getting a job, but it does not distinguish between prevention and promotion. The L2MSS is a more advanced model that better categorizes this distinction: external motivation with a focus of promotion falls under the ideal L2 self, while external motivation with a focus on prevention falls under the ought-to L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009). Another salient difference between the ideal L2 self and integrativeness is that the ideal L2 self is better at explaining motivated learning behavior and learners' desired effort to learn English (e.g., Ryan, 2009). As a result of correlation analysis, Ryan (2009) concluded that the ideal L2 self has a more direct relationship with motivated learning behavior than does integrativeness.

In addition to the distinction mentioned above, there are several other differences that distinguish the two models. For example, the L2MSS, in addition to having the ideal and ought to L2 self, adds a third dimension, which is the L2 learning experience. L2 learning experience is important to the study of L2 motivation as it focuses on the learners' immediate learning environment and its impact on motivation. Another major conceptual difference between the two models is that the SE model focuses more on affect, while the L2MSS is more cognitive-based because it is constructed based on the concept of possible selves, whose repertoire is seen as a cognitive manifestation of learner's goals, aspirations, fears and threats (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Imagery is another major distinction between the two models. While the L2MSS includes an imagery component, the SE model does not. The imagery component is important to the framework because it allows people to hear and see their possible selves, which makes them very similar to visions or dreams of oneself that can in turn motivate people (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

According to Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) “vision is one of the single most important factors within the domain of language learning: where there is a vision, there is a way” (p. 2).

Another distinction between the two models lies in cultural interests, referring to attitudes to L2 cultural products such as movies, music, and magazines, and international posture, which includes “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one’s hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures, among others” (Yashima, 2002, p. 57). Cultural interests are seen as the central focus of integrative motivation as proposed by Gardner, and international posture is the concept most related to the ideal L2 self (Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Yashima, 2002). Learners who possess high international posture are seen as having more favorable attitudes to the symbolization of English. Furthermore, the L2MSS model focuses more on how learners relate to the international community rather than any specific L2 group, which is the focus of the SE model.

Contrary to its popularity, many researchers have criticized the SE model for being outdated because it assumes that findings for all target languages will be the same as for English, which has different sociolinguistic realities. The criticism began during the cognitive-situated phase of the L2 motivation research. One of the main reasons for the debate around this model has to do with its basic premise which underlies the integrative concept and the spread of English as an international language, and how relevant this model of motivation actually is when we lack the target reference group of speakers to compare and identify with. The integrative concept states that the L2 learner “must be willing to identify with the members of another ethnolinguistic group and take on very subtle aspects of their behavior” (Gardner & Lambert,

1972, p. 135). Thus, one of the downfalls of integrativeness is that it represents a culture-specific variable that is used as a generalizable construct (Ryan, 2010).

The final last major distinction between the two is the instrument that is used to collect data. The SE model uses the Attitudes and Motivational Test Battery (AMTB) that was developed to test the relationship between various variables of the SE model. The AMTB is seen as a “multicomponential motivation questionnaire made up of over 130 items, which has been shown to have good psychometric properties, including construct and predictive validity” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 75). On the other hand, the L2MSS uses items designed by Dörnyei (2005). It is important to mention that since the ideal L2 self is closely related to the concept of integrativeness, and the ought-to L2 self is closely related to instrumentality, some of the items on the questionnaires overlap. However, one criticism by Dörnyei (1994) of the AMTB is that the questions do not clearly distinguish between the intended and actual behaviors.

Regardless of the differences in the instruments, such as the inclusion of the imagery component and the L2 learning experience in the L2MSS, the focus on cognition in L2MSS and affect in the SE model, and most importantly, the component of motivation in the L2MSS lies in the future versions of self and not with others, as in the SE model, one commonality between the two models is that they have both been tested with participants of different ages and in different contexts. While the SE model has been primarily applied in Canada with French and English (Gardner & Lambert, 1978), the L2MSS has been primarily applied to research conducted in various European contexts with numerous languages. Another similarity is that both of the models focus on investigating L2 proficiency. Furthermore, both the integrative motive and the ideal L2 self have been found to play a major role in learners’ L2 proficiency.

Because the SE model was not applicable to all educational contexts (Crooks & Schmidt, 1991), did not integrate cognitive theories of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 1994) and was unable to capture complexity of social identities (Norton, 1995), there were a lot of contradictory findings in the empirical research. As a result, the L2 Motivational Self System was proposed by Dörnyei (2005, 2009). With the introduction of the L2MSS, researchers in the SLA field began investigating L2 motivation as a process, focusing especially on the idea of possible selves. A cautionary note must be made in regard to the L2MSS. Researchers should be aware that the L2MSS is not a replacement for the SE mode. Rather, it provides a complementary approach. As MacIntyre et al. (2009) warn, research should “avoid the temptation to throw out the baby with the bathwater” (p.58).

Extension to the L2MSS Research

Since the introduction of the L2MSS, the research on L2 motivation has increased, and notably, many researchers have used and validated the L2MSS framework in their studies (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The recent surge of studies have contributed greatly to the literature on the L2MSS, and quite recently a few studies have attempted to expand the L2MSS framework (e.g., Dörnyei, 2009; Henry, 2015; Mercer, 2015; Nitta & Baba, 2015; Thompson & Vásquez, 2015; You & Chan, 2015). As Henry (2015) states, the L2MSS “has tended to ‘freeze’ current and ideal selves, presenting them as photographic stills rather than moving pictures” (p. 126).

One major approach to L2 motivation research and the L2MSS that has sparked scholarly interest is the complex dynamic systems (CDS) perspective, which has been a part of the ‘dynamic’ turn in SLA research (de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007; Dörnyei, 2009, 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011). Complex dynamic systems perspective views language as a dynamic and a complex system, and

views knowledge as dynamic and contextual, where there is no ideal, universal language learner (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). This perspective was introduced in motivation research as a result of the L2MSS' tendency "to 'freeze' current and ideal selves, presenting them as photographic stills rather than moving pictures" (Henry, 2015, p. 126).

The first attempt to describe motivation from the CDS perspective was made by Dörnyei (2009) by discussing the interactions between the language, the agent, and the environment. Following that, a few other researchers have taken the initiative to investigate motivation, particularly the L2MSS, from the CDS perspective, because the non-linear system dynamics seem to describe numerous language learning phenomenon otherwise not explainable (Dörnyei, MacIntyre, & Henry, 2015). Additionally, this paradigm takes a holistic approach that evaluates the whole system as well as the interaction of the parts in a specific situation, rather than taking the traditional approach, which examines defined variables and their relationship in isolation. Furthermore, another reason for adapting this perspective was the ability of CDS to capture the complexity of the SLA process where context was not separated from the system under investigation, and it also merged both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Lastly, it significantly highlighted change in the system, which prompted researchers to carry out longitudinal studies. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) argue in support of the dynamic approach to investigate L2 motivation and specifically state that the L2MSS is a dynamic "motivation–cognition–emotion amalgam" (p.97). CDS research topics include a focus on the dynamic nature of imagery (You & Chan, 2015), task motivation and self-regulation (Nitta & Baba, 2015), anxiety and self-efficacy in L2 writing (Piniel & Csizér, 2015), L3 motivation (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Henry, 2015a) and dynamics of the self (Mercer, 2015).

Mercer (2015), for example, proposes a holistic model of the *self* by conceptualizing the self as a series of nested systems of self constructs. Additionally, Mercer examines different layers of the nested systems in different contexts on four different timescales in order to get a holistic and in-depth view of each participant. Other approaches to examine motivational dynamics using the CDS include longitudinal class observations and interviews, and thematic analysis of the data using the CDS and possible selves as the guide (Henry, 2015a). A similar approach was implemented by You and Chan (2015) who used the CDS framework to examine dynamic impact of L2 imagery on future self guides by employing surveys and in-depth interviews. Data were analyzed multiple times and themes and patterns related to the dynamics of L2 imagery were noted.

In addition to the observations and interviews, other researchers have attempted to examine the possible selves using the CDS framework in L2 writing. Nitta and Baba (2015) investigated how the ideal L2 selves develop and evolve in interactions with the learning experience by examining self-regulation and L2 writing. Other researchers have examined students' writing in multiple stages using the latent growth curve models to detect change, followed by a longitudinal clustering to define students' trajectories (Piniel & Csizér, 2015).

In addition to the above attempts to extend L2 motivation research, other researchers have examined psychological reactance as an extension to the L2MSS (Thompson & Vásquez, 2015). In their recent case study, in analysis of language learning narratives of foreign language teachers, Thompson and Vásquez (2015) introduce the *anti-ought-to L2 self* construct, which is based on psychological reactance. Psychological reactance can be seen as “urge to perform an action specifically because someone gave advice to the contrary” (p. 161). By combining this additional dimension to the existing framework, the authors argue that there is room for

improving the L2MSS, particularly focusing on the additional dimension. According to Thompson and Vásquez (2015), one important aspect that is not emphasized in the L2MSS is the focus of the “I” versus the “other” as is rooted in self-discrepancy theory, which includes a total of six different self states (see figures below). The ‘I’ dimension of the self-discrepancy is emphasized by the ideal L2 self, and the ‘other’ dimensions is emphasized by the ought-to L2 self. However, different motivational profiles such as ought-to L2 self/own and ought-to L2 self/other are not emphasized in the framework.

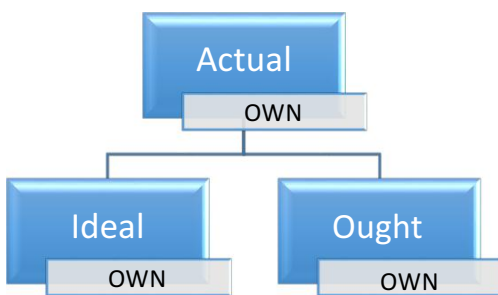


Figure 6. “I”/Own dimension

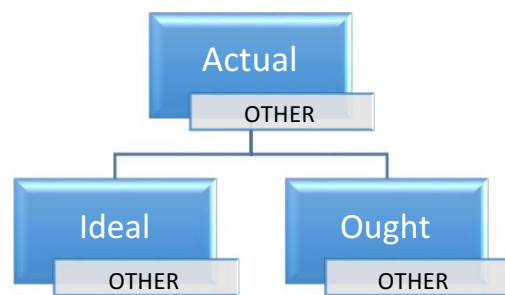


Figure 7. “Other” dimension

Therefore, adding this fourth dimension, the anti-ought-to L2 self, makes the model more robust. Furthermore, it allows interpretation of cause of motivation to be explored via a dimension that includes this idea that people sometimes do things just because they were told they cannot, which the authors see as mainly rooted in Western society. In their case study, the anti-ought-to self was found to be a strong motivator for two of the three participants. However, the claim that the anti-ought-to self can be motivating needs to be tested with more participants.

The L2MSS and Motivation Literature

Since its inception, the L2MSS has been validated and its constructs tested in various linguistic/cultural contexts using different research approaches. Numerous studies have been carried out, and while a few have taken place in a multi-dialectal context such as China (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013), many have taken place in a multilingual context, and more specifically, different European contexts. The current L2MSS research has primarily used EFL participants, including secondary school students, university students, and adult language learners (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Kormos & Csizér, 2008). Recently, a few studies have examined L2MSS in various ESL contexts (e.g., Busse, 2013; Kim, 2009; Thompson & Vásquez, 2015). In addition to the numerous studies that have validated the L2MSS with L2 motivation, a few studies have been carried out using the L2MSS with multiple languages to investigate L3 motivation (Csizér & Lukács 2010; Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006; Henry, 2010, 2011, 2013).

The different dimensions of the L2MSS framework have been widely investigated in SLA research, and there are numerous variables that have been shown to interact with each of the *selves* of the L2MSS. These variables include learners' motivated learning behavior (Lamb, 2009; Kormos & Csizér, 2008), anxiety (Papi, 2010), gender (Henry, 2009; Henry & Cliffordson, 2013; Thompson & Erdill-Moody, 2014), L2 proficiency (Ghapanchi, Khajavy, & Asadpour, 2011; Lamb, 2012), and intended learning effort (Busse, 2013; Sylvén & Thompson, 2015). The majority of the research supports the claim that the ideal L2 self is a significant predictor of learners' motivation. One of the largest studies to be employed on L2 motivation utilizing over 13,000 language learners and five different foreign languages empirically supported the L2MSS framework and concluded that the ideal L2 self mediated the attitudinal

and motivational impact on the criteria, supporting the claim that the ideal L2 self is an essential component of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006). It is noteworthy to mention that research has shown that not everyone is capable of having a clear ideal L2 self, and this is mainly contributed to contextual differences (Lamb, 2009). While the majority of the L2MSS research has focused on the significance of the different *selves* in predicting motivated learning behavior (e.g., Kim, 2009), a few studies have included a focus on the learning experience, as well as the effects of the *selves* on the L2 learning experience (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009).

The results of research focusing on the significance of the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self in predicting motivated learning behavior have shown that the ought-to L2 self and the ideal L2 self function differently and have different effects on learners' motivated learning behavior. In Kim's (2009) study, the ideal L2 self emerged as a result of the need, or the goal, to communicate with other L2 speakers, while the ought-to L2 self was connected with the need or desire to get a job. Kim used a case study approach to investigate two adult Korean ESL learners' motivation and learning experience using the L2MSS framework in Canada. Kim specifically investigated the internalization of the ought-to L2 self and its contribution to L2 motivation, and the influence of the learning goal on the ideal L2 selves. Similarly, Csizér and Kormos (2009) investigated the role of the ideal L2 self, ought-to self, and learning experience on secondary school students' and university students' motivation to study English. The results of a questionnaire showed that although the relationship between the ideal L2 self and the learning experience contributed significantly to the motivated learning behavior, this relationship was significantly stronger for university students than for secondary school students. On the

other hand, and once again, the ought-to L2 self was found to have weak correlation with the motivated learning behavior in both groups of students.

In an earlier study, Kormos and Csizér (2008) in examining L2 motivation in three distinct learner populations found that the ideal L2 self and language learning attitudes were the main factors that affected motivated learning behavior. Their study also revealed that L2 learning experience and international posture, meaning “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to study or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners...and a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures” (Yashima, 2002, p. 57) also impacted L2 motivation. Thus, the ideal L2 self was found to be a key predictor in motivated learning behavior among different age groups of pupils. In contrast to the ideal L2 self, the researchers did not find the ought-to L2 self as a valid construct in this setting.

In addition to research on L2MSS and motivated learning behavior, various studies have looked at other factors, such as anxiety, intended learning effort, and proficiency as they relate to the different aspects of the L2MSS. The results show that the ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience decrease anxiety (Papi, 2010) and increase intended learning effort (Islam, Lamb, & Chambers, 2013). Furthermore, having a strong ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self, as well as a positive view of school learning experience, significantly predicts English (L2) proficiency (Kim & Kim 2012; Lamb, 2012).

Besides the research on L2 motivation, there has been a recent interest in the SLA field to investigate L3 motivation using the L2MSS framework. One of the contributing factors is the growing interest in researching multilingualism and third language acquisition (Henry, 2013). According to Henry (2013) “following the recent paradigm shift in the conceptualization of the affective element of motivation from an external identification with a group or community of TL

speakers to one where the locus of motivated learning behavior derives from an internal ‘self-as-future-language-speaker/user’ identification, studies with a focus on L3 motivation have now begun to appear” (p. 11). The overarching results of the select few studies confirm that the L2 is implicated in L3 motivation, and specifically if the L2 is English (a high-status language), the motivation in learning a third language will be negatively affected (e.g., Glaser, 2005; Phillipson, 2008). Other researchers have found that the *selves* differ in different languages, making them language specific (e.g., Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Thompson & Liu, 2017). This is especially true for the ideal L2 self (Thompson & Liu, 2017).

The abovementioned studies conclude that the ideal L2 self is the biggest contributor of the three L2MSS dimensions to motivated learning behavior, regardless of the language or the order in which it was studied. The ought-to L2 self, on the other hand, has been found to have a weak correlation with motivated learning behavior. Finally, one of the most significant results from the abovementioned research is that the future self-guides may be language specific, specifically the ideal L2 self. Although the results are promising, more research on L2 motivation is needed to validate the L2MSS framework. Since the majority of the research utilizes EFL participants, further exploring and testing the framework with a different population, the ESL learners, will provide a more holistic picture of the power and robustness of the L2MSS framework.

The above sections provided a synthesis of the existing literature on L2MSS and motivation in SLA. However, with regard to affect and L2 motivation literature, one perceived gap is the role emotions and learners’ management and understanding of own and others’ emotions play in motivating them to learn a second language. Understanding the contribution of these constructs is important because they are inextricably intertwined with that of affect and

motivation, and additional insight into the connection between them could yield results that would further help us understand the role that positive and negative emotions play in motivating learners in the language learning process. Historically, affect has received much attention in the field (Schumann, 1997); however, there is not much research with regard to the connection between emotions or emotional intelligence and motivation, and specifically the different aspects of the psychological self. It has been argued that the key distinction between unengaged and engaged learners is in the types of emotions that are experienced while learning languages (Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner 1985; MacIntyre, 2002). The following section provides an overview of emotions research in SLA field.

Emotions Overview

Prior to exploring emotions in second/additional language learning, it is important to provide an overview of emotions outside of the SLA and applied linguistics field, including mainstream and educational psychology. There has been a lot of uncertainty in the scientific community regarding the definition of ‘emotions’, which will be discussed below. According to Ross (2015) “in general, emotions are defined as individual responses to events or experiences involving experiential, physiological, and behavioral activity (as cited in Keltner & Ekman, 2000).

One of the biggest debates in the field of psychology is around the idea of emotion versus reason; which one is more important, and whether or not emotions are a product of cognition. It has been said that the theories of emotion are subtexts of the larger theories of mind (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2009). It should be noted that although process of cognition is intricately linked to emotions, emotions are not considered a class of cognition. Because of the dominance

of behaviorist psychology, emotions have been largely underresearched and ignored in scientific research because they are not easily observable and measurable (Ross, 2015). It was not until recently that emotions began to receive attention from researchers.

There are many conceptions of emotions, and there are many emotion theories (Dewaele, 2010). Particularly, there are two families of emotion theory: one views emotions as universal psychological quality and the other is concerned with individual differences, which views emotions as varying across individuals (Matthews, Zeidner, Roberts, 2002). Both inform what it means to be emotionally intelligent.

As mentioned previously, there are numerous perspectives on emotions. The neurobiological perspective differentiates emotion from the cognitive processes. Cultural psychological perspective views emotions as relative to different societies and cultures (e.g., Eastern and Western). The social constructivist perspective, on the other hand, situates emotions as “within the hierarchy of behavioral systems” (Averill, 1982, p. 4). Lastly, the cognitive linguistics perspective views emotions from a more relativist perspective. Researchers in this arena criticize those who make universal claims on the basis of language-specific categories, whether cognitive or cultural or both. From the cognitive linguistics perspective, emotions are viewed as socially and culturally shared scripts, and while researchers agree that emotions carry a physiological substrate (e.g., basic experience of anger exists), they caution the researchers that English anger, for example, and anger in another language could be experienced and expressed differently (Wierzbicka & Harkins, 2001).

In addition to the multifaceted scientific field of emotions, there are other constructs that are similar to that of the emotions, and it is important to distinguish emotions from the other constructs in psychology, including moods and feelings. Emotions are said to be “transient and

“tied to a particular stimulus or event” and are complex, differentiated, and intense (Matthews, Zeidner, Roberts, 2002, p. 138). On the other hand, moods are “more free-floating and need not refer to any particular object” and are less intense (Matthews, Zeidner, Roberts, 2002, p. 138). While emotion is said to be universal, a feeling is a subjective representation or a personal experience of an emotion.

One of the newer constructs to emerge within the positive psychology field, and specifically the construct of emotions, is that of emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional intelligence can be viewed as an individual difference construct. The construct of emotional intelligence is robust, and there are many conceptualizations of it. It has been stated that EI addresses perceived imbalance between emotions and human cognitive ability (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2009).

Emotional intelligence was first introduced to the scientific community by Salovey and Mayer (1990), but it was Goleman (1995) who popularized the EI field. The original definition of emotional intelligence defined it as a set of interrelated cognitive abilities (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Specifically, it was defined as the “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 186). There are three main theoretical frameworks of EI: ability model, mixed model, and trait model. While the conceptualization of EI as ability assumes EI is a cognitive ability, the trait conceptualization views EI as not cognitive in conventional sense, rather, as a set of dispositional traits and deals with a person’s perspective of own emotions. Trait EI, from this perspective, is a part of an individual’s personality. Mayer et al. (2000) make distinctions between models on the basis of whether a model mixes cognitive abilities with other characteristics; if it does, it is labeled a ‘mixed model.’ The mixed-model

combines both the trait perspective and the ability perspective. It has been noted that empathy is central to most conceptions of EI (Matthews, Zeidner, Roberts, 2002). Nonetheless, all models of emotional intelligence focus on the understanding and regulation of one's own emotions and the understanding and regulating the emotions of others. Models are distinguished based on method of measurement used to operationalize the EI construct (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). More information on the distinction among the models will be provided in the following sections.

Emotions in Second/Foreign Language Learning

Much like the psychology research, emotion in SLA and applied linguistic research has received limited attention, until recently. The role of affect in SLA has been notably defined as an important component of learners' individual differences because it encompasses "aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which can condition behavior and influence language learning" (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p. 1). Although emotion has been investigated in both anthropological and functional linguistics, it has received rather little attention in SLA (Hymes, 1972; MacIntyre, 2002; Sapir, 1921). Dörnyei (2009) emphasizes that:

"Everybody knows that classrooms are venues for a great deal of emotional turmoil, yet affect has been an almost completely neglected topic in educational psychology. Everybody knows that the study of a second language can be an emotionally rather taxing experience, yet affect has been an almost completely neglected topic in applied linguistics."
(p. 219)

One of the earlier investigations into reconceptualizing the role of affect in L2 learning and investigating the neurobiological basis of affect and motivation was carried out by

Schumann (1986, 1994). Schumann, whose pioneering work was a result of the developments in neurosciences and cognitive psychology, has stated that “an individual’s development of preferences and aversions constitutes a subform of experiential selection” (as cited in Dewaele, 2010, p. 21). Both preferences and aversions come out of our tendencies, such as the sociostatic value and the homeostatic value, and enhance our survival (Dewaele, 2010). Furthermore, it is argued by Schumann (1997) that the sociostatic value, acquired over a person’s lifetime, in particular gets infants ready to acquire language by making voices/faces that aim to get the attention of caregivers. Thus, environmental and internal stimuli are assessed by the affective appraisal based on five criteria including: novelty, pleasantness, goal significance, self and social image and coping potential (Schumann, 2004). Thus, these five dimensions played a role in decision making by foreign/second language learners which was viewed as a process of assessment of motivational and emotional relevance of agents, events and object (Pavlenko, 2003). As a result, each experience unique to a person can lead to variable neural preference systems, where both positive and negative assessment of a stimulus affect the effort made and attention given by a learner to the stimulus (Schumann, 2004). Thus, he argued that since every individual’s experience is different, so in turn are their emotional memories, appraisals, and reactions to the appraisals. As stated by Dewaele (2010), “affective appraisal is thus at the core of cognition, and it drives the decision-making processes. Emotion is thus at the basis of any learning, or absence of learning” (p. 21). Ultimately, what Schuman (1997) argues is that these “patterns of appraisal may underlie what has been considered motivation in SLA” (p. 8).

As a result of Schumann’s research, SLA researchers have concentrated on how to make a positive learning environment in the language classroom in order to heighten L2 motivation. This historical connection between affect and motivation has motivated researchers to further

investigate the role of emotions in second and additional language learning process (Aragao, 2011; Dewaele, 2011; Garrett & Young, 2009; Swain, 2013). The research in the field of SLA encompasses the term *emotions* as part of affect. However, according to Ortega (2009) “the area of affect and L2 learning is fraught with theoretical, conceptual, and methodological challenges” (p. 214). As a result of research on affect facing numerous challenges, such as the absence of a strong theoretical foundation on affect, reductionist view of affect, and the lack of focus on emotions, the field of applied linguistics and SLA is experiencing what Pavlenko (2013) refers to as the “affective turn”. The reason for this is that researchers are taking on different approaches to defining and researching emotions. They are no longer focusing on investigating just how affect influences L2 learning, but are now more interested in how L2 learning can influence emotions (Pavlenko, 2013). Additionally, the affective turn focuses on gaining a deeper understanding of emotions and cognition. Barcelos (2015) labels this the “emotional turn” and states that emotions have been marginalized in applied linguistics research.

Prior to the *affective turn*, research on emotions in SLA and applied linguistics has primarily focused on investigating expression and experiences of emotions in multilinguals (Dewaele 2010; Pavlenko, 2006), as well as emotions in the classroom (Mercer, 2005), and emotions as a process (So, 2005). During this time, it has been concluded that “while in each speech community there exists variation in affective styles, speakers of different languages live in somewhat distinct emotional worlds” (Pavlenko, 2003, p. 9). During the affective turn, emotion research has taken different directions, including a focus on emotions from the sociocultural theory approach (Johnson & Worden, 2014; Swain, 2013), the critical theory approach (Benesch, 2012), and positive anticipated emotions (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

In addition to the different research points on emotions, there are also numerous definitions of emotions within the SLA and applied linguistics field, mainly due to their sheer complexity. Emotions, as viewed in applied linguistics, can be seen as “the psychological outcome of dynamic interactions between different layers of internal and external systems – physiological, cognitive, behavioral and social” (So, 2005, p. 43-44). Izard (1991) states that emotions are “experienced as a feeling that motivates, organizes, and guides perception, thought, and action” (p. 14). Emotions, such as fear or anger, are seen as intense and short-lived (Forgas, 1992). Imai (2010) argues that emotions are “socially constructed acts of communication that can mediate one's thinking, behavior, and goals” (p. 279), and regardless of the definition, “all acknowledge either one or more of four characteristics of emotion- namely, situational appraisals, action tendencies, bodily sensations, and expressive or display of behavior” (as cited in Parkinson, 1995). The more relativist perspective toward defining emotions views emotions as differing across cultures and languages (Pavlenko, 2008). Thus, according to this perspective, emotions are “self-concerning, partly physical responses that are at the same time aspects of a moral and ideological attitude; emotions are both feelings and cognitive constructions, linking person, action, and sociological milieu” (Rosaldo, 1984, p. 304). The researcher of the present study takes on the following definition of emotion, originally defined by Pavlenko (2008), which conceptualizes emotions as:

prototypical scripts that are formed as a result of repeated experiences and involve causal antecedents, appraisals, physiological reactions, consequences, and means of regulation and display. These concepts are embedded within larger systems of beliefs about

psychological and social processes, often viewed as cognitive models, folk theories of mind, or ethnopsychologies. (p. 150)

This conceptualization of emotion does not distinguish between feeling different in different languages, rather it states that speakers of different languages have “different vantage points from which to evaluate and interpret their own and others’ emotional experiences” (Pavlenko, 2008, p. 150), meaning that emotions are culturally relative.

It has been argued that different emotions in the process of language learning can contribute to students’ engagement (MacIntyre, 2002). Even negative emotions can be a resource in learning foreign languages and can also mediate development (Imai, 2010). Furthermore, intense emotions can be created while learning a foreign language as the process itself is complex (MacIntyre, 2002). Additionally, Scovel (2001) argues for the importance of emotions and states that “emotions might well be the factor that most influences language learning, and yet is the least understood by researchers in second language acquisition” (p. 140). More so, understanding emotions can help researchers better understand why certain students are motivated toward something but are not inclined to take action, or why emotions prevent action (MacIntyre, 2002). Contrary to Pavlenko (2013), who investigated how L2 learning affects emotions, Swain (2013) states that the inverse of that is the main assumption, which only views emotions as influencing language learning and not vice versa, and this is because the effects are likely to be bidirectional. Another assumption that decontextualizes emotions is that “emotion is out there (or in here) somewhere in psychological reality waiting to be isolated, pinned down and dissected” (Parkinson, 1995, p. ix).

Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) state that research on emotions has been neglected in individual differences research and SLA field in general. Furthermore, it has been stated that the “relationship between cognition and emotions, is minimally, interdependent; maximally, they are inseparable/integrated” (Swain, 2013, p. 196). SLA researchers have broken down this construct of emotions to “a laundry list of decontextualized and oftentimes poorly defined sociopsychological constructs, such as attitudes, motivation, anxiety, self-esteem, empathy, risk-taking, and tolerance of ambiguity” (Pavlenko, 2005, p. 34). Additionally, the majority of the research on emotions treats the construct as a static feature which negatively affects language learning (Brown & White, 2010). It has been argued that language learning motivation is the most frequently researched positive “emotional” variable (Dewaele, 2010). As MacIntyre states, “the link between motivation and emotion is strong, intricate and fascinating” (p. 60). For example, having a teacher who makes learning exciting and pleasurable will motivate learners. On the other hand, if the teacher is hated, learners’ motivation to study the language might be challenged. Additionally, as argued by MacIntyre (2002), attitudes, historically considered the only antecedent to motivation, are not enough to sustain motivation, and in order to get a complete picture of a learner’s motivational profile, the researchers need to examine emotional experiences students experience while learning a foreign language.

There have been different waves of research on emotions in SLA, as mentioned previously. While some research has focused on emotions and other individual difference variables such as beliefs, attitudes, and motivation (e.g., Aragao, 2011; Dewaele, 2010; Mercer, 2006, 2009; Mendez-Lopez & Aguilar, 2012), other research has focused on the expression and experience of emotions in multilinguals (e.g., Dewaele, 2010; Pavlenko, 2005). Within the scope of research on emotions and individual differences, the primary focus has been on emotions and

beliefs (Aragao, 2011; Mercer, 2006; 2009). The concluding results on emotions and beliefs are that emotions and beliefs are interrelated, and that emotions can influence students' learning in the classroom (Mercer, 2006; 2009).

Because research has shown that emotions and motivation are connected, and one has an influence on the other, it serves as purpose to provide more empirical work on the relationship between the two constructs. The psychology research has acknowledged the close link between the concept of emotions and motivation (MacIntyre, 2002). Tomkins (1970) states that emotions serve as an amplifier, providing the intensity, urgency, and energy to propel behavior. Since emotion is present at all times, and it varies in intensity and type, it therefore, impacts everything we do in some way. MacIntyre (2002) uses the analogy of oxygen deprivation to illustrate this. He states that human's requirement for oxygen drives them to breathe; however, being deprived of oxygen is not the motivation to survive and fight, it is the fear that motivates us. Because emotions can be powerful and pervasive, they can be considered a fundamental motivator of behavior and are a key part in the motivation system (MacIntyre, 2002). In the L2 environment, it is often, for example, that the L2 speakers get embarrassed because of the language barrier, which in turn could impact their motivation to speak depending on their emotional reaction in the particular situation.

Only two studies, as far as this researcher is aware, focus on how emotions, emotional experiences and reactions interact with L2 motivation. The first study is by Mendez-Lopez and Aguilar (2012) who explored the effects of emotional experiences on language learning motivation in Mexican learners in the EFL context using a qualitative approach. Specifically, data were gathered from personal narratives, an emotional reactions journal, and semi-structured interviews with 18 participants. The results revealed that learners' emotional experiences played

a role in FLL motivation. The results also revealed that negative emotions can serve as learning enhancers, and that there were positive effects of negative emotions in terms of the language learning process, which included developing motivation and language learning strategies.

The second, and more recent study specifically addresses the L2 possible selves and emotions (Teimouri, 2016). This study examined different emotional states, including anxiety, joy, and shame, within the L2 Motivational Self System. Five hundred and twenty-four adolescent EFL Iranian learners took part in the study. The results of the questionnaires showed that there were correlations between the selves and the emotional states, and that the selves had predictive power of the emotional states. Specifically, the results showed that the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self/own predicted the emotional state of joy; the ideal L2 self had the strongest effect and positive predictive power. Additionally, it was found that the ought-to L2 self/own and the ought-to L2 self/others positively predicted the emotional state of anxiety.

In addition to the limited research on emotions and abovementioned individual difference variables, and especially motivation, another area in which emotions take center stage is their role in the process of language learning (Brown & White, 2010; Dewaele, 2011; Garret & Young, 2009; Imai, 2010; Pavlenko, 2004, 2005, 2006; Swain, 2013). One major distinction in SLA emotion research is made between language of emotion and language *and* emotions (Pavlenko, 2005). With regard to language *of* emotion, topics such as the vocal level of emotion terms and representation of emotion terms in the bilingual lexicon are often examined. Overall, Pavlenko argues that emotion vocabulary and emotion-laden vocabulary should be a part of a distinct and separate class of words in the mental lexicon. Additionally, Pavlenko (2008) calls for a stronger focus on the processing level due to the need to incorporate the affective processing

dimension. She states that there are different affective priming effects in emotionality in different word types and languages.

With regard to language *and* emotions, the most notable questions that have been asked relate to the expression of emotions in bilinguals and multilinguals. Starting in the 2000s, research on bilingualism and multilingualism paid more attention to emotions in terms of how these types of learners experience and express emotion in their respective second languages (Dewaele, 2010; Pavlenko, 2005, 2006; Pavlenko & Dewaele, 2004). According to Pavlenko (2006) there are four sources of perception of different selves among multilinguals: “(1) linguistic and cultural differences; (2) distinct learning contexts; (3) different levels of language emotionality; (4) different levels of language proficiency” (p. 10).

The majority of the research with regard to expression and experience of emotions in multilinguals takes a qualitative approach (e.g., Brown, 2010; Imai, 2010; Pavlenko 2004, 2005, 2006). While some studies focused on emotion regulation (Brown & White, 2010), others investigated emotional reactions in foreign language courses. The researchers mainly conclude that emotions do have a great effect on learners’ ability to cognitively appraise tasks and that emotions play a significant role in foreign language learning process. Other areas of research on emotion focus on collaborative group-work, which also conclude that emotions are verbally displayed and emotionality of the group mediates learners’ thinking (Imai, 2010), and expression of emotions (Pavlenko, 2005).

In addition to the numerous qualitative pieces of work on emotions and complexity of language choice and identity, one of the major waves of emotion research has utilized the Bilingualism and Emotion Questionnaire (BEQ). This line of inquiry examines expression/communication of emotions in second/foreign language using the BEQ (Dewaele,

2008, 2010). It is argued that it is important for L2 speakers to be able to express an array of emotions such as anger, happiness, and shame in the L2 (Dewaele, 2008). More so, Dewaele (2005) states that “the L1 is preferred to express emotional involvement whereas the L2 is experienced as colder, more distant, and or detached from the L2 user and less appropriate for the expression of emotion” (p. 374).

In his study of language choice of swear words among multilinguals, Dewaele (2004) found that participants preferred to use their L1 to swear. In another study, while investigating the emotional weight of *I love you* in multilinguals’ language in the sample of 1,459 multilinguals and 77 different language, Dewaele (2008) found that multilinguals preferred to use their first language to express *I love you*, and after conducting statistical analyses, it was found that self-perceived language dominance was the biggest contributor to that choice.

In a recent study, Dewaele (2010) conducted what is known as the first large-scale investigation into multilinguals’ feelings about each of the spoken languages and how participants used those languages to communicate emotions. Using over 1500 participants, Dewaele (2010) investigated how factors such as chronology of acquisition, age of onset of acquisition, context of acquisition, frequency of language use, additional language socialization, gender, age, and level of education, network of interlocutors, number of languages known, and trait emotional intelligence affected the expression of communication of emotions. According to Dewaele (2010) several factors were found to impact expressing emotions, anger, and swearing. Contributing aspects include current use of language, number of languages studied and when and how each was studied, and lastly, the level of emotional intelligence also played a critical role in expressing emotions (Dewaele, 2010).

The results of Dewaele's (2010) study showed that context did play a role on expression of emotions; language learned in formal classroom instruction was less frequently used to communicate emotions, and those learned in a naturalistic setting were more frequently used in expression of emotion. In terms of frequency of use of additional languages, it was found that being more socialized in a specific language caused participants to use that language to communicate emotions, but only after living in that context for a long period of time, about a decade. The more languages the participants spoke, the more comfortable and less anxious they were to express emotion in additional languages. Lastly, Dewaele's study showed some significant results with regard to trait emotional intelligence. He found that trait EI had a strong inverse relationship with foreign language anxiety; the higher the trait emotional intelligence score, the lower the anxiety to communicate in the additional language.

As can be seen from above literature, the main focus in SLA research has been extensively on negative emotions, mainly anxiety. While this is important, research should also aim to investigate positive emotions as a way to aid us in better understanding how such emotions influence the language learners and the learning process. One way to begin the greater focus on positive emotions is to investigate learners' emotional intelligence. The first step has been taken by Jean-Marc Dewaele whose contributions to emotion research in SLA are tremendous. He is the first SLA researcher to import emotional intelligence, and specifically trait EI construct from the field of psychology to the field of second/foreign language learning (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008). Although trait EI construct is in its infancy, it is important to provide an overview of it as a separate construct of emotions. In addition to providing an overview of trait EI, the following section will also provide a review of relevant

literature, as pertaining to the SLA field, and discuss the current gaps in trait EI and SLA literature.

Personality

Prior to providing an overview of trait EI and a synthesis of trait EI research, a short overview on personality will be provided as trait EI is located in the lower levels of personality hierarchy. One definition of personality views it as “the coherent patterning of affect, behavior, cognition, and desires (goals) over time and space” (Revelle & Scherer, 2009, p. 1). Personality is seen as “a more or less stable and enduring organization of a person’s character, temperament, intellect, and physique, which determines his unique adjustment to the environment” (Eysenck, 1970, p. 2). Therefore, a relationship between personality and affect exists, and this relationship can be illustrated by an analogy. Revelle and Scherer (2009) use the analogy of climate and weather to compare the two constructs, stating that personality is to emotion as climate is to weather.

SLA researchers examining personality primarily do so to investigate which traits are important to the success of second language acquisition. Traits, such as empathy, have potential to facilitate SLA. Researchers have shown that personality traits can affect language learning success (Dewaele, 2012, 2013; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). Personality traits are considered more or less stable by many researchers, and like motivation, they belong to the individual differences paradigm. These traits, according to Dewaele (2012), “are hierarchically organized with (typically) five broad, orthogonal (i.e., independent) dimensions at the apex and a larger number of more specific traits further down the hierarchy (p. 44, as cited in Pervin & John, 2001). Furthermore, these traits are considered universal. For example, at the top of the hierarchy

are supertraits, such as extroversion, followed by specific traits, which are followed by habits, and then more specific behavioral responses (e.g., Eysenck & Eysenck, 1958).

The Big Five (Goldberg, 1981) is considered the dominant taxonomy of personality. This taxonomy consists of five broader traits, or super-traits: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. The Big five traits “represent personality at the broadest level of abstraction, and each dimension includes a large number of distinct, more specific personality characteristics” (John & Srivastava, 1999, p. 105). The scores of the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue SF), which measures trait EI, have been found to be highly correlated with some characteristics of the Big Five basic personality dimensions (Petrides, Pita, Kokkinati, 2007). Particularly, Dewaele, Petrides and Furnham (2008) found that the variance overlap between trait EI and Big Five is 70%. Research has shown that trait EI has incremental validity over the Big Five (e.g., Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005; Furnham & Petrides, 2003). That is to say that trait EI as a new measure provides more information and has greater predictive ability than the existing Big Five measure. Extraversion and neuroticism are very similar to the trait EI factors of sociability and emotionality, respectively. These two factors of the Big Five have association with affective factors of IDs (Revelle & Scherer, 2009, as cited in Corr, 2008).

Amongst the various facets of personality, extraversion and introversion have received the attention of many researchers (Ellis, 2008). In SLA research, most attention has been paid to extraversion because this trait is said to help learners become more successful in their L2 (Dewaele, 2012). Extraverts are typically talkative, sociable, and assertive. As mentioned previously, this super-trait is closely correlated to the sociability factor of trait EI as learners who score highly on sociability perceive themselves to be more assertive and possess strong social

skills. Extroverts are also said to be more willing to engage in interactions than introverts (Dewaele, 2012). In SLA, willingness to communicate, or WTC, is defined as “self-reported likelihood for an L2 learner to want to initiate communication in the L2 when given the choice to engage in or to avoid such action” (Ortega, 2014, p. 213). WTC takes into consideration attitudes and L2 communicative confidence and addresses really how well learners adapt to the new learning environment. Students who possess good social skills and are assertive would take a proactive approach to language learning by speaking more in English and would perhaps take more risks. As Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) mentioned, it is not enough to have a vivid image of the ideal L2 self; unless this vision is accompanied by action plans, it will not be obtainable. Therefore, it is possible that learners with a strong ideal L2 self are able to implement action plans because they possess such social skills and can influence other people’s feelings.

In addition to the super traits of the hierarchy of personality, there exist some ‘lower-order’ traits; trait EI falls under this category. Super traits and the lower order traits often correlate; however, the lower order traits tend to explain unique variance, and the two are therefore not the same. As mentioned previously, trait EI is an individual difference and it states that there are differences in the way individuals process and utilize affect-laden information (Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008). SLA researchers have found that emotionally intelligent L2 learners are more likely to participate in L2 conversations (e.g., Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2010). Particularly, in one study with undergraduate Iranian EFL learners, Alaviniaa and Alikhani (2014) found positive significant correlations between WTC and participants’ emotional intelligence level, showing that EI might be an underlying variable of WTC. In another study with Iranian EFL learners, Oz (2015) found that participants had high levels of WTC and moderate levels of EI, indicating that as the EI increases, WTC increases as well.

One controversial issue in field of social psychology and personality is whether personality changes as a function of language (Chen & Bond, 2010). The literature on the stability of personality traits is conflicting, depending on different disciplines. While some researchers label traits as relatively stable (e.g., Petrides, 2001), the researchers in SLA field argue that personality could change depending on different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, an important area of research that has received relatively little attention is on the impact of language on personality, and whether or not bilinguals exhibit different patterns of personality. According to Chen and Bond (2010) personality is stable over time and consistent across situations, and “from this perspective, language is not a contextual factor that could shift a bilingual’s personality, but merely a tool that permits the expression of underlying traits” (p. 1514). However, others disagree. Guiora, Paluszny, Beit-Hallatimim, Catford, Cooley, and Yoder Dull (1975) state that “to speak a second language authentically is to take on a new identity as with empathy, it is to step into a new and perhaps unfamiliar pair of shoes” (p. 48). Several researchers have examined the interaction between languages and personality in both the SLA field and social psychology, and more recent research supports the argument that personality shifts as a function of language (e.g., Ramírez-Esparza, Gosling, Benet-Martínez, Potter, & Pennebaker, 2006). For example, in a study that used questionnaires with Croatian EFL participants, the researchers found that one fourth of their participants felt that learning English had changed their personality (Medved-Krajnovic & Juraga, 2008). In another study on multilingualism, multiculturalism, and scores on five personality traits, Dewaele and Van Oudenhoven (2009) found that the number of languages spoken was linked to participants’ personality profiles. On the contrary, no such relationship was found between languages spoken and personality in Israeli multilinguals (Dewaele & Stavans, 2012). The biggest research study to

examine the connection between personality and languages was one carried out was by Dewaele and Pavlenko (2001-2003). Their large-scale study with over a thousand multilinguals on examining their emotions, personality, and languages used revealed that approximately two thirds of the participants reported that they ‘feel like a different person’ when speaking different languages. Therefore, these conflicting results suggest that perhaps the traits of personality might not be as stable as originally proposed and that personality might be altered when speaking a second language.

Trait Emotional Intelligence

As mentioned above, in addition to the investigation of expression and experience of emotions, one of the newer emotion constructs under investigation in SLA and Applied Linguistics is trait emotional intelligence (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Dewaele, 2010). Trait EI deals with “emotion-related self-perceptions, such as emotion control, emotion expression, empathy, and adaptability” (Dewaele, Petrides, Furnham, 2008, p. 913). Trait EI is a reconceptualization of EI, which is a concept in positive psychology first introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990).

As mentioned previously, the EI paradigm consists of several theories including the ability-based theory, trait EI theory, and the behavioral or competency approach. Salovey and Mayer (1990) define ability EI as “the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others.” This construct of EI is measured via maximum performance tests such as IQ tests.

The ability emotional intelligence and the trait emotional intelligence have received most attention in the scientific investigation of EI. The two theoretical frameworks of EI can be

differentiated based on the type of method of measurement utilized to operationalize each construct, and not on the facets, or elements, that the model encompasses. The two models are not mutually exclusive (Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001; Spence, Oades, & Caputi, 2004; Tett, Fox, & Wang, 2005). Empirical findings, which show low correlation between trait and ability measures, support the distinction between the two EI concepts (O’Conner & Little, 2003; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004).

While some researchers view EI as an ability (Salovey & Meyer, 1990), others describe emotional intelligence as a set of dispositional traits (Boyatzis & Sala, 2004; Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Tett, Fox, & Wang, 2005). Petrides and Furnham (2001) argue that trait emotional intelligence is consistent with mainstream theories of personality and that it connects emotional intelligence with that of differential psychology. Traits are defined as habitual patterns of behavior, thought, and emotion, which are relatively stable over time and vary from individual to individual (Kassin, 2003).

According to Petrides (2013) trait EI deals with “emotion-related self-perceptions, such as emotion control, emotion expression, empathy, and adaptability” (as cited in Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008, p. 913). Trait EI assumes that there is no ‘ideal’ emotionally intelligent person. Rather, there are certain emotional responses and traits that are more ideal in some contexts than others. Because there is no ideal person, research is more comprehensive and individualized (Petrides, 2001).

There are a number of measures of trait EI designed specifically for different contexts, such as organizational context, or different languages (i.e Russian). Bar On’s EQ inventory (Bar On, 1997) has been one of the widely used measures of trait EI. However, it has many limitations including a vague theoretical background (Perez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005). The introduction

of the TEIQue has allowed for a more theoretically sound measurement of trait EI, and furthermore, TEIQue was found most valid in different contexts. The construct of trait EI is measured via self-reports and questionnaires. Specifically, the TEIQue was designed to measure trait EI. Trait EI is located in the lower levels of the personality hierarchies since personality traits are organized hierarchically and consist of more specific traits, such as emotional intelligence and more general higher-order traits, such as extraversion. According to Petrides (2010) “trait EI is the only operational definition in the field that recognizes the inherent subjectivity of emotional experiences” (p. 137).

Although it is argued that trait EI is relatively stable, this is still a controversial issue as researchers have found that personality traits can be affected by linguistic use. More so, it is noteworthy to mention that a few studies have examined cross-cultural differences in trait EI, and the results are quite interesting with regard to the stability of trait EI. For example, Gökçen, Furnham, Mavroveli, and Petrides (2014) found cross-cultural differences in their study, and these differences were attributed to whether or not individuals come from individualistic or collectivist societies. Specifically, they found that Chinese participants completing the English version of the TEIQue scored higher on global trait EI and the TEIQue factor of sociability, compared to Chinese participants completing the TEIQue in their native language. Chen and Bond (2010) also argue that using a second language allows individuals access to the perceived cultural norms and prototypic trait profiles that are most associated with that language, which in turn can activate different expressions of a personality.

Although the notion of emotional intelligence is not new outside the SLA field, a relatively small number of empirical studies exist in our field with regard to trait emotional intelligence. Only a few studies have addressed trait EI in relation with writing (Shao, Yu, & Ji,

2013), reading (Abdolrezapour & Tavakoli, 2012), and personality traits (Ozanska-Ponikwia, 2012). Additionally, the vast majority of existing empirical work investigates its relationship with language learning anxiety (e.g., Dewaele, 2010). Furthermore, there are no studies in SLA literature that examine the specific factors of trait EI in relation to L2 motivation or the possible selves. Particularly, given the importance of the relationship between emotions and motivation, the lack of studies that focus on the two variables is surprising. Since it has been found that emotions can serve as learning enhancers in FLL, and both positive and negative emotions can impact motivation (Mendez-Lopez & Aguilar, 2012), future exploration of the two constructs can further shed light on the interaction between them, and more importantly, how emotions and emotional intelligence can impact the foreign language learning process.

With regard to L2 anxiety, only a few SLA researchers have examined it with relation to the global trait emotional intelligence. In one study, Shao, Ji, and Yu (2013) investigated trait emotional intelligence and foreign language anxiety of 510 Chinese students using the TEIQue-Short Form. The results indicated that more than one half of the participants had middle to high levels of trait emotional intelligence, and that there was a moderate to strong association among the participants' trait emotional intelligence and foreign language anxiety, English achieving, and self-rated English proficiency. In another study, Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) investigated how trait emotional intelligence affects communicative anxiety in the L1 and L2 with 464 multilinguals and concluded that those multilinguals who were identified as having high trait emotional intelligence had significantly lower communicative anxiety.

In addition to the above-mentioned studies that have examined anxiety, only three other studies have addressed trait emotional intelligence as it relates to academic success, and two of the studies use the TEIQue Adolescent Short Form (ASF), which is designed of adolescents age

12-18, and consists of simplified words and syntactic structures. Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli (2012) investigated whether or not it was possible to enhance trait emotional intelligence and what kind of relationship exists between trait EI and EFL learners' reading comprehension achievement. Using an experimental design, 63 participants from Iran completed the TEIQue academic short form questionnaire along with a reading comprehension test. Students in the experimental group were given short stories with highly emotional content, and were asked to explain their own emotions in order to become more aware of own emotional states. On the other hand, the students in the control group were taught in ordinary way with no emphasis on emotional content. Results from the t-test analysis showed that trait EI and achievement in reading comprehension were much higher in the experimental group. Exposing students to emotional content positively affected learners' trait emotional intelligence, which in turn increased reading comprehension achievement. The results also support the argument that trait emotional intelligence is not static and can change if a person is motivated. Therefore, it is important to explore the relationship between trait EI and motivation in second/foreign language learning process.

In another study that focused on participants' writing achievement, Shao, Yu, and Ji (2013) also used the TEIQue ASF to investigate whether trait emotional intelligence can be increased via certain literature-based activities, as well as the relationship between trait EI and writing achievement. Applying the same design as Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli (2012) and using 68 participants from China, the results from the t-tests also showed that the experimental group scored higher on the writing test and the TEIQue ASF, confirming that there is a strong positive relationship between writing achievement and trait emotional intelligence, meaning that

higher levels of trait EI is related to a higher proficiency in writing. Therefore, finding ways to increase trait EI, besides literature-based activities on topics of personal emotions related to personal experiences, is imperative as it has the ability to improve language learning.

The third study that examined emotional intelligence and academic success in foreign language learning was one by Pishghadam (2009) in the role of emotional intelligence in second language learning was examined by matching the Bar-On's (1997) Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQ-i) data with the students' academic records, scores in reading, listening, speaking, and writing. The results showed that several dimensions of emotional intelligence were associated with second language learning, including interpersonal and intrapersonal abilities. He also found that total emotional intelligence was significantly correlated with GPA, listening, and speaking.

The last study to examine trait EI and foreign languages was one conducted by Ozanska-Ponikwia (2012). This study examined the relationship between personality traits, emotional intelligence and 'feeling different' while using a foreign language. The results showed that both the personality traits as well as trait emotional intelligence had an effect on self-perceived changes in behavior that occurred while a foreign language was used. The study also concluded that trait EI facets such as emotion expression, empathy, social awareness, emotion perception, emotion management, are linked to the self-perceived changes in behavior in the foreign language. Specifically, the regression model showed that the self-control factor and the global trait EI score were significant predictors of feeling different while using the L2. Furthermore, the emotionality and sociability factors correlated significantly with feeling different, meaning that those participants with high scores on the two factors were able to notice changes in their own

behavior as they occurred when using the L2. Therefore, it is important to continue to investigate the relationship between trait EI and academic success in terms of foreign language learning.

As was previously mentioned by Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli (2012) trait emotional intelligence can be changed if the learner is motivated enough. Additionally, while the role of anxiety has received the most attention from SLA researchers, the relationship between trait EI and motivation continues to be unexplored. It is well-known that L2 motivation research has advanced, and has greatly advanced the field of SLA; however, there has not been much done on emotions and their role in L2/L3 motivation. As MacIntyre (2002) argues “emotion just might be the fundamental basis of motivation, one deserving far greater attention in the language learning domain” (p. 45). In addition to the need to add more to the current and limited research on emotions in SLA, additional research is needed to fill the gap on motivation and emotions, and specifically, how trait emotional intelligence influences possible selves and future language learning motivation.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the L2MSS research and a synthesis of the empirical work that has been carried out up to date. As was noted above, the L2MSS framework is the most widely used theoretical framework in the SLA field to investigate learner motivation. It has been validated in numerous contexts, but mainly with EFL participants. With regard to the three dimensions of the L2MSS, the ideal L2 self has been found to be the best predictor of learner motivation. Furthermore, a few studies have confirmed that the future self-guides are language specific (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Thompson & Liu, 2017). Finally, several attempts have been made to expand the L2MSS framework, including the research on complex dynamic

systems and motivation. One promising approach to expand the L2MSS framework was undertaken by Thompson and Vásquez (2015), with the introduction of the anti-ought-to L2 self, which is based on psychological reactance.

This chapter also addressed that with regard to affect, one of the gaps in SLA literature is finding the relationship between emotion, said to be “the primary human motive” (MacIntyre, 2002, p. 61) and motivation. The role of emotions in language learning has recently started to gain more attention, but studies have mainly addressed the expression and experience of emotions by foreign language learners, and only a few have focused on individual differences, such as anxiety, motivation, and attitudes, and their relationship to learners’ emotions. Additionally, SLA researchers have argued that the main distinction between unengaged and engaged learners is in the types of emotions that learners experience while learning languages (Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner 1985; MacIntyre, 2002).

Only two studies thus far have explored the direct effects of emotional experiences on language learning motivation (Mendez-Lopez & Aguilar, 2012; Teimouri, 2016). Since the results of those studies revealed that learners’ emotional experiences and reactions play an important role in FLL motivation, it is important to continue exploring the interplay between these two individual differences, and specifically the effect emotions and emotional intelligence have on the possible selves (the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to). MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) state that “emotion may be the key to the motivational quality of the imagined future self” (p. 193). They also claim that “motivational force behind possible future selves stems in large part from anticipatory and anticipated emotions” (p. 199). Learners are able to facilitate anticipatory/anticipated emotions while taking into consideration the discrepancy among the present and future selves. Specifically, learners who are able to appeal to their imagination to

discern the discrepancy between present and future selves, or feared and ideal selves, will encounter emotional reactions that can be modified via cognition and serve as a motivator (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

As was noted in the literature, the L2 Motivational Self System is based on theory of possible selves and discrepancy theory. In this aspect, emotions are also important in the study of learner selves because conflicts and discrepancies that arise between a learner's self-concept and the future self-guides can lead to different emotional states. As a result, language learning can be affected (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Markus & Nurius, 1986). As Markus and Nurius (1986) claim, "to the extent that individuals can or cannot achieve particular self-conceptions or identities, they will feel either positively or negatively about themselves" (p. 958). In the case of second and foreign language learning, L2 self discrepancies can be a source of different negative emotional states (Higgins, 1987; Papi, 2010). Furthermore, it has been stated that negative emotions can restrict potential language input (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). Higgins (1987) states that both the ideal and ought self-guides prompt action, and are thus said to be motivating by being used to evaluate oneself or to arouse emotions in a person. It is therefore important to understand the complexity of emotions and the role they play in language learning motivation, and especially the possible selves of the L2MSS used in the present study (the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to).

The current chapter presented the theories of motivation and emotional intelligence, and the theoretical framework that was applied. The following chapter addresses the methodology that was applied in the present study. Focus is placed on the research questions, data collection instruments, and data analyses procedures.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

As discussed in previous chapters, individual differences (IDs) are one of the most important contributors to the success of learning a foreign language. While L2 motivation, the most researched ID, is an important aspect of language learning, learners' emotions should not be ignored when researching L2 motivation because emotions can be powerful and pervasive and can be considered a fundamental motivator of behavior, and are therefore a key part in the motivation system (MacIntyre, 2002). The present study specifically examines learners' trait emotional intelligence (EI), also called trait emotional self-efficacy, which encompasses "emotion-related self-perceptions, such as emotion control, emotion expression, empathy, and adaptability" (Dewaele, Petrides, Furnham, 2008, p. 913). Accordingly, the present study seeks to investigate the extent to which learners' language learning motivation is related to their trait EI.

Research Design

The current study adopts a quantitative approach to fill the gap in research on the relationship between L2 motivation and emotional intelligence. Specifically, the current study uses a survey design to measure participants' trait EI and its relationship to the dimensions of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) in an ESL context. This type of research design was chosen because large amounts of data, which can be collected fairly quickly, allow the researcher

to understand the general patterns among a large number of participants, making it suitable for an exploratory study. Additionally, this design is appropriate considering the variables under investigation. The research on trait EI is purely based on questionnaire data, and the majority of current research uses the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) because of its validity and reliability, which will be discussed below (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Historically, the L2MSS research has been mainly quantitative (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015), with a recent emergence of a few qualitative studies (e.g., Henry, 2011, 2013; Kim, 2009b; Thompson & Vásquez, 2015). Both questionnaires for investigating motivation and trait EI have already been validated in empirical research. More so, using a quantitative design can provide a rigorous and precise, quantifiable measurement of the variables in question, and specifically, inferential statistics can tell the researcher whether or not the results of the study can be generalizable (Larson-Hall, 2010). As presented in the first chapter, the following research questions are investigated:

RQ1: *To what extent is there a relationship between trait emotional intelligence and the possible selves?*

- a. To what extent is there a relationship between global trait EI and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?
- b. To what extent is there a relationship between four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, self-control) and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?

RQ2: *To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the three selves?*

- a. the ideal L2 self?
- b. the ought-to L2 self?
- c. the anti-ought-to L2 self?

RQ3: *To what extent is there a relationship between the L2 learning experience, the possible selves, and trait emotional intelligence?*

Research Setting and Participants

Students enroll in an English Language Program (ELP) to help them reach the level of English proficiency necessary for better opportunities in an academic setting, employment, or daily life. The current study was conducted at two sites, both of which are ELPs that offer English courses to adult ESL learners who are studying in the United States. This section of chapter three will present the research context as well as the participants that took part in the study.

ELP Context

The participants in this study come from two ELPs: the primary research site consists of two programs, Academic English (AE) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and the secondary research site consists of only the EAP program. The primary research site is located at a large public university, whereas the secondary site is located at a community college. Two different sites were used in order to increase the participant pool.

There are several differences between the two ELPs. The first difference lies in that the primary ELP site is considered to be intensive in nature and offers a variety of pathways and English language courses that allow students to progress to different undergraduate and graduate programs at different universities. On the contrary, the second ELP is not an intensive English program. The programs also differ in their student population. While the intensive ELP is really tailored to international students, the ELP at the second research site consists of mainly immigrant students from the area. While the international students have previously studied English, the immigrant students might not have had that opportunity in their respective countries. The two research sites also differ greatly in the number of students who enroll each semester. The intensive ELP is much bigger and benefits from large student enrollment. English is the

shared language during communication at the ELPs as students have the opportunity to interact with others from different countries and language backgrounds. The two research sites are discussed in greater detail below.

The intensive ELP at the primary research site is a formal immersion context, in which English is the medium of instruction. The ELP is comprised of two different programs: Academic English (AE) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

The AE program offers non-credit bearing courses to those students who wish to improve their English proficiency in order to meet the language requirements needed to enroll in a U.S. university. Classes in this program include a focus on reading/writing, speaking/listening, and grammar. Courses are all in the realm of content-based instruction, and are held on a semester basis for 18 hours per week. With regard to content based instruction, students at the ELP learn English through different content and topics that focus on business, academics, and culture.

In contrast, the EAP program at the primary research site offers credit bearing courses to international graduate and undergraduate students who need additional English instruction. International students who do not meet the university's TOEFL/IELTS and SAT/GRE/GMAT requirements, as well as the minimum GPA requirements, can enroll in Pathway courses, which will guarantee admission to the university after completing the courses successfully.

Undergraduate students from the AE program can enter the EAP program when they pass level four, and graduate students can enter the EAP program after completing level 5. Students in the EAP program take English courses as well as core courses from their own field, which could include anything from engineering to education. There are two sections of English courses (1850 and 1851) in the EAP program and each counts as a 6-credit hour course. Both courses are offered to graduate and undergraduate students, and 1850 is a prerequisite for 1851.

The ELP at the secondary research site is different in structure as mentioned previously. It offers six levels of English instruction for its students. The majority of these students work part-time or full-time in addition to taking English courses. This differs from the intensive ELP where students are here under a visa and are not permitted to work. The ELP at the community college does not offer content-based instruction. While levels 1-4 offer institutional credit, levels 5-6 allow students to receive college elective credit that can be used toward the students' Associate degree.

Participants

The present study is based on data collected from participants who come from the two EAP programs discussed above and participants who come from upper-level courses in the AE program. One hundred and forty-three students participated in the study. Out of those, 51.7% (74) were male, and 48.3% (69) were female. The participants were between 18-47 years of age with majority of them falling in the range of 18-26. There are 19 different languages represented in the data. The majority of the participants spoke Arabic (37.7%). Mandarin was the second most common language represented, which was spoken by 30% of the participants. Other major languages represented in the sample include Spanish, Russian, Portuguese, Vietnamese, Persian, and Urdu.

In the background questionnaire, participants were asked to specify the length of studying English prior to enrolling in the ELP. The responses ranged from three months to 13 years of English study prior to enrolling in the programs where the data collection took place. Out of the 143 participants, 93 were undergraduate students and 50 were graduate students. Forty-one students reported that they had studied more than one foreign language. Participants come from 30 different majors; two of the thirty were undecided regarding their major.

There was no inclusion criteria with regard to age, gender, or language background. The only inclusion criterion for the current study was that participants' minimum level of English proficiency be upper intermediate to advanced, and the reason for this is that the participants needed a higher proficiency level in order to understand the items on the questionnaires. Therefore, only students from the upper-level English courses were recruited for the study.

Data Collection Instruments

The present study is comprised of a variety of instruments designed to measure participants' language learning motivation and trait EI. The quantitative data instruments consisted of three questionnaires measuring motivation-related aspects and trait EI, and one instrument which collected participants' basic demographic information. The use of surveys in SLA research is a common method of quantitative data collection; however, there are both advantages and disadvantages to this approach. For one, surveys allow for fast and inexpensive collection of data from a large sample. In addition to allowing the researcher to obtain demographic data about the participants, the surveys also allow for an exploration of participants' attitudes and feelings toward language learning (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2012). The disadvantages of this approach are related to the accuracy of information and reliability of responses provided by the sample (Wright, 2005). Despite these disadvantages, the researcher chose this approach because of the ease with which a large population can be accessed.

Two instruments were used to measure L2 motivation: one measured the possible selves and the other measured the L2 learning experience. The third instrument is the TEIQue SF that measured participants' trait EI. All instruments were piloted. Cronbach's alpha coefficient, an index of internal consistency reliability, was determined for each instrument to ensure reliability

of the survey data, and the survey was administered online via SurveyMonkey. All of the materials were in English as the participants' English proficiency level was upper intermediate to advanced. Each instrument used in the present study is described in the following subsections that also include the rationale and procedure for each instrument. Copies of the instruments can be found in the appendices.

Background questionnaire (BQ)

The background questionnaire (Appendix B) collected qualitative data about the participants' basic demographic information. The participants were asked to provide details relevant to their gender, age, country of origin, major, nationality, among others, as well as information about their current student status. Additionally, questions focused on students' past language learning experience. Descriptive statistics are provided in the following chapter.

Possible Selves Questionnaire (PSQ)

The current study investigates participants' language learning motivation utilizing the concept of L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005). The instrument for this study adopts the tripartite framework (Dörnyei, 2005) and adds another dimension to it: *the anti-ought-to L2 self* (Thompson & Vásquez, 2015; Thompson & Liu, 2017). The decision to use existing questionnaire items was based on the extensive scrutiny and piloting that each instrument has undergone as well as the high validity and reliability of each instrument. The PSQ focuses on the possible selves items. The participant version can be found in Appendix C, and the researcher version can be found in Appendix H.

With regard to the reliability, the selected constructs have been previously validated and show acceptable reliability at 0.70 or above (Larson-Hall, 2010). The reliability measures conducted in previous studies on the ideal/ought to L2 self questions have shown it to be

relatively high. Kormos and Csizer (2008) reported the Cronbach's alpha for university students on the ideal L2 self as 0.75, and Dörnyei and Chan (2013) found the Cronbach's alpha to be 0.78 for the ideal English self. Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) also conducted the reliability analysis with Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian learners of English, and they found the Cronbach's alpha for the ideal L2 self to be 0.89, 0.83, and 0.79, respectively. Furthermore, with regard to the ought-to L2 self, Dörnyei and Chan (2013) found the Cronbach's alpha to be 0.77. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha with Chinese learners was 0.78, Japanese 0.76, and Iranian 0.75 (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009). The notion of the anti-ought-to L2 self is relatively new, and therefore not many studies have been carried out using this set of questions. With regard to reliability measures, Thompson and Liu (2017) conducted an exploratory factor analysis using eleven anti-ought-to L2 self questions and found the Cronbach's alpha to be 0.796. See table 2 below for a sample item from the questionnaire. The PSQ included a total of 30 items, measured on a Likert-scale of 1 to 6 (i.e. 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4= slightly agree, 5= agree, 6= strongly agree). Ten questions measured the ideal L2 self, ten measured the ought-to L2 self, and ten focused on anti-ought-to self. The original anti-ought-to L2 self questionnaire has 11 items; however, one item was removed because the previous research showed that this item ("I would like to reach a high proficiency in the language that I am studying, despite others telling me that it will be difficult or impossible") often did not load onto the anti-ought-to factor when exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Furthermore, the researcher aimed to have the same number of items for each of the possible selves. It is important to note that the items were revised to focus on the English language specifically. For example, in the following original item "I am studying this language because it is a challenge" the researcher changed the wording of "this language" to "English" to fit the study's population.

Table 2. Sample Item from the Possible Selves Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5	6		
Strongly disagree		< ----- >		Strongly agree			
1.	I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English	1	2	3	4	5	6

L2 Learning Experience Questionnaire (L2LE)

In addition to the PSQ, which focused on the three psychological aspects of self, the researcher also administered a separate set of questions, which focused on in-class and out-of class L2 learning experience. The L2LE questionnaire contained ten items measured on a 6-point Likert like scale. Five items addressed in-class learning experience, and five items focused on general, out of class learning experience. The L2LE items (Appendix D) in this section were adapted from Papi (2010) and Lamb (2012). Below is a sample item from that section.

Table 3. Sample Item from the L2 Learning Experience Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5	6		
Strongly disagree		< ----- >		Strongly agree			
1.	I like the atmosphere of my English classes	1	2	3	4	5	6

The questions were modified for the current study in several ways. Since Lamb’s (2012) study used junior high school participants, the questions were more tailored to that population. However, this the current study uses adult university participants, and therefore, some questions were reworded. For example, question 5 originally focused on English lessons at school. This

question was reworded to focus on English classes. Additionally, two words were changed or removed in questions three and eight. In question 3, the adverb *quickly* replaced the adverb *faster*, and in question 8, the adverb *really* was removed from the question.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue SF)

The second instrument that was utilized is the TEIQue SF (Petrides & Furnham, 2001, 2006a). TEIQue SF measures self-perceived abilities and behavioral dispositions. This instrument is highly valid and reliable, and has been repeatedly used and validated in research (e.g., Abdolrezapour & Tavakoli, 2012; Cooper & Petrides, 2010; Siegling, Furnham, & Petrides, 2014). The questionnaire consists of self-reports inventory, which covers the sampling domain of trait EI, and measures 15 facets, four factors, and the global or overall trait EI (see Appendix E for TEIQue Short Form participant version). The four factors of broader relevance include well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability. The instrument was designed to measure how well people are aware of their own emotional states as well as the emotional states of others, and how well are they capable of regulating those emotions (Petrides, 2001). According to Petrides (2001) global trait EI informs the researcher about the general emotional functioning of how emotionally developed a person is. The possible score on global trait EI ranges from 30 to 210. A total score of more than 150 indicates a well-developed trait EI, and a total score of 120 to 150 indicates a moderately developed trait EI. A total score of less than 120 indicates an underdeveloped trait EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Many studies have been carried out using the TEIQue SF and the reliability measure reported were high. Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli (2012) reported the reliability at 0.82. Other researchers have found similar results for all 30 items on the short form to be 0.88 (Zampetaskis, 2011). The reason for the selection of the short form is that it has only 30 questions, compared to

the 153 that make up the full form. The short form questionnaire is based on the full form TEIQue and is also measured on a 7-point Likert scale. Two questions from each of the 15 subscales from the full form were selected by the creators of TEIQue for inclusion into the TEIQue SF. However, for the purposes of this study, the Likert scale was changed to 6 points to match the L2 motivation questionnaires. Therefore, the TEIQue SF was reduced from a 7-point to a 6-point Likert scale. When making questionnaires, it is better to include an even number of possible answers (e.g., 6) so the participant is not given the option of choosing the number in the middle, as would be the case if the Likert scale provided seven possible options (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) Therefore, instead of adding an additional answer option to the motivation questionnaire, it was decided that one answer be deducted from the TEIQue SF. The researcher’s version of TEIQue SF can be found in Appendix I. Prior to administering the TEIQue SF, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was determined with the data from the piloting phase in order to ensure reliability of the questionnaire data. See the table below for a sample item from the questionnaire.

Table 4. Sample Item from the TEIQue SF

1	2	3	4	5	6
Disagree completely <-----> Agree completely					

1.	Generally, I don't take notice of other people's emotions	1 2 3 4 5 6
----	---	-------------

Piloting the Survey Instruments

The purpose of the pilot study was to test and validate the instruments. According to Baker (1994) “a pilot study is often used to pre-test or try out a research instrument” (p. 182-183). The pilot study was conducted in order to increase success with the main study and to identify any issues related to clarity of instructions, comprehensibility of items, scoring of the answers, and the relevance to each respective construct. Five participants from the primary research site took part in the piloting phase. While some suggest that having between 10 and 30 participants is sufficient in a survey pilot study (Hill, 1998; Isaac & Michael; 1995), others suggest that having anywhere from 10% to 20% of sample size of the actual study is sufficient (Baker, 1994). It is important to mention that although having sufficient number of participants does not guarantee the success of the main study, it increases its likelihood. Care was taken to ensure that the participants were representative of the sample that was used in the main study. The piloting data collection phase lasted for three weeks in December of 2015. At the time of the piloting phase, the online questionnaire was divided into four sections: background, motivation, trait emotional intelligence (TEIQue SF), and perceived positive language interaction questionnaire (PPLIQ). Following the proposal defense for the current study, the researcher decided not to focus on the PPLI construct, and therefore, that section was removed from the final survey. After completing each of the four sections of the questionnaire, participants were asked to provide feedback on that section. The answer to the feedback question was required, and participants had to complete it prior to moving on to the next section. The following prompt was provided at the end of each of the four sections:

Please provide feedback to this section of the questionnaire. This will help the researcher know how to improve the questionnaire. Consider the following questions:

- 1. Did you understand all the questions in this section?*
- 2. If you had trouble, what was difficult for you? List the questions you did not understand.*
- 3. Why were these questions difficult?*
- 4. What can be done to make the questions better?*
- 5. How long did it take you to complete this section?*

Reliability analysis, specifically Cronbach's alpha, was not calculated because the sample size was too small. Since the number of participants was fewer than the number of the items on the questionnaire, the results of any reliability analyses with such a small sample size would be biased and not useful. Instead, the researcher carried out descriptive statistics using the SPSS software. The results can be found in Appendix F.

After reviewing the questionnaire results and the feedback provided, the L2 motivation section and TEIQue SF did not require any changes as participants indicated that they had no trouble in answering these questions. However, it was indicated that questions 22-25 on the background questionnaire were difficult to understand due to the complexity of language used. Therefore, the researcher revised those items and attempted to use simpler language (see Appendix G).

Data Collection Procedures

The present study was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the university the researcher is attending, and permission for data collection from the ELP directors at both research sites was obtained prior to data collection. The data collection procedure lasted for two academic semesters (summer and fall) starting in the middle of May 2016 and ending in October 2016. Because the summer semester had low enrollment, the recruitment of participants had to be extended for another academic semester. During the summer semester, only students from the primary research site were recruited. An amendment

was added to the original IRB approval in the fall semester to recruit participants from the second research site. To recruit participants for this study, the researcher made appearances in several EAP courses at the primary research site to verbally inform students of the study and how they can participate. The researcher also created a paper advertisement that was distributed in both research sites by the respective program managers. The researcher did not make class visits at the second research site due to time constraints. Instead, the EAP program manager was contacted and informed about the study via email. The email contained a short description about the study and the link to the online survey. The program manager then forwarded the email to all upper-level instructors to share with their students who were interested in participating. Participants were solely recruited on a voluntary basis.

All questionnaires were administered via SurveyMonkey, an online survey development website. Using the online survey tool was chosen because it was a practical way to design and distribute the survey to the participants. This online tool allows for an easy export of data into various statistical analysis software. The researcher purchased a subscription to the SurveyMonkey site and created the questionnaires to each section mentioned above. Following that, a link was created. The estimated time to complete the questionnaires was approximately 10-15 minutes. This time was obtained from a volunteer ESL student of similar English proficiency who timed himself while completing the online survey.

Table 5. Timeline for Data Collection

Academic Semester	Number of Weeks	Total participant recruitment for questionnaires
Summer 2016	10	80
Fall 2016	8	63
Total	18	143

Data Analysis Procedures

The data for the current study were analyzed in a quantitative survey-based design using several statistical analyses. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), correlation analyses, and standard multiple regression analysis were carried out as part of quantitative data analyses. The data from the questionnaires were quantitatively analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.

Prior to conducting any statistical analyses necessary to answer each research question, the researcher carried out an EFA with the items from the PSQ, which consisted of a total of 30 items focusing on the possible selves. Although this procedure does not answer any one research question, it was carried out to create subgroups and to identify factors for further comparison of subgroups in the data. The EFA was chosen because there are no specific assumptions about the number and the nature of the latent variables (Larson-Hall, 2010). Thus, using EFA, empirical data can be explored so as to discover characteristic features and to examine interrelationships among the factors without imposing a model on the data. The questions from the TEIQue SF were not subjected to an EFA. Conducting the EFA allows for a better understanding of the relationship between the items on the motivation questionnaire, as well as to reduce the number of variables so further analyses can be conducted (Field, 2013). The emerging EFA factors were used as the dependent variables in the present study. Table 6 shows the relationship between the research questions, analyses procedures, and data sources.

Table 6. Relationship between Research Questions, Analysis Procedures, and Data Sources

Research Questions	Analysis Procedures	Data Sources
RQ1a: <i>To what extent is there a relationship between global trait EI and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?</i>	Correlations	PSQ TEIQue SF
RQ1b: <i>To what extent is there a relationship between the four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, self-control) and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?</i>	Correlations	PSQ TEIQue SF
RQ2a: <i>To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the ideal L2 self?</i>	Standard multiple regression analysis with four predictor/explanatory variables (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control)	PSQ TEIQue SF
RQ2b: <i>To what extent can four factors of TEI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the ought-to L2 self?</i>	Standard multiple regression analysis with four predictor/explanatory variables (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control)	PSQ TEIQue SF
RQ2c: <i>To what extent can four factors of TEI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the anti-ought-to L2 self?</i>	Standard multiple regression analysis with four predictor/explanatory variables (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control)	PSQ TEIQue SF
RQ3: <i>To what extent is there a relationship between the L2 learning experience, possible selves, and trait emotional intelligence?</i>	Correlations	PSQ L2LE questionnaire TEIQue SF

Validity and Reliability

Validity of a study is defined as the extent to which “results genuinely test the claims of the study” (Flynn & Foley, 2009, p. 32). As such, there is the internal validity which refers to “factors internal to a study that may affect whether the data collection procedures are truly measuring what the study claims they measure,” and external validity, which refers to

“generalizability” (Flynn & Foley, 2009, p. 32). On the other hand, reliability is related to the true reflection of the targeted knowledge or content. Thus, it is “connected to consistency in data collection procedures and in scoring data” (Flynn & Foley, 2009, p. 31).

Accordingly, to determine reliability of the established questionnaires, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was determined using the SPSS software. As mentioned previously, the established instruments have undergone a series of rigorous internal reliability measures and have been found quite reliable in measuring each respective construct (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Thompson & Liu, 2017). Furthermore, the questions related to the different selves and the trait EI have all been translated into different languages, and have been used in different educational settings, which adds to the breadth of their application. More so, as Dörnyei (2007) states, the quantitative approach is “systematic, rigorous, focused, and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts”; however, he also states that a limitation to this approach is that the methods used “average out responses across the whole observed group of participants, and by working with concepts of averages it is impossible to do justice to the subjective variety of an individual life” (p. 34-35). Since quantitative methods cannot explore the reasons for patterns or the dynamics that underlie the phenomenon, qualitative methods are used to offset that limitation. However, the present study does not include a qualitative approach, and that can therefore be a limitation.

The Researcher’s Role

The researcher’s role in the present study is of both the insider and outsider. At the time of data collection, the researcher was employed as an instructor at the primary research site in the Academic English program where she had been working since fall of 2013. Therefore, the

researcher has insider perspective with regard to the dynamics of the pedagogical aspects at the ELP program and the student population as well as some general characteristics. More so, although the researcher has a general idea of learners' motivation at that level, she had no such insights into the motivation of future students, as well as their emotions or emotional well-being.

Additionally, English is the researcher's second language, and therefore, she is familiar with the challenges of learning English as well as teaching it to second language learners. The researcher's English learning experience occurred at a young age, and therefore she has no insights into the challenges these adult students face at the university and college level.

Both the insider and outsider roles contributed to making a reliable and valid interpretation regarding the constructs in this study. As such, the outsider research role allowed for an objective view and interpretation of the phenomena, and the insider role, including experience with learning multiple languages, allowed her to bring detailed insight into the learners' current language status and language learning experience. Lastly, the researcher's previous experience of teaching at both the primary and secondary research site brought light to the pedagogical implications of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analyses conducted in order to examine the three research questions that guide the present study. The results of the data were analyzed to examine the relationship between the participants' L2 Motivational Self System, including their ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, anti-ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience and, their trait emotional intelligence (EI), which includes four broader factors: sociability, emotionality, well-being, and self-control. Prior to providing results to the research questions, demographic characteristics of the participants will be discussed. Then a short discussion of the exploratory factors analysis (EFA) results will be provided, followed by the results of each research question. Finally, the chapter will conclude with a summary of the findings.

Demographic Information

A total of 143 participants took part in the study, and each participant individually filled out a questionnaire that consisted of four sections: background questionnaire, possible selves questionnaire (PSQ), L2 learning experience (L2LE) questionnaire, and the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue SF). Demographic information about the participants was obtained from the background questionnaire. Table 7 displays demographic information relevant to participants' country of origin, age, and gender. As the table shows, students from China (23.07%) and Saudi Arabia (23.77%) are almost equally represented in the participant pool.

Saudi Arabia and China are followed by Cuba (6.29%) and Taiwan (4.89%). More than half (72.02%) of the participants are between ages 18-24, followed by 20.97% between ages 25-29. Finally, 51.7% of the participants were male and 48.3% were female.

Table 7. Descriptive Demographics

Category		
<i>Country of origin</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Percent (%)</i>
Saudi Arabia	34	23.77%
China	33	23.07%
Other ¹	23	16.08%
Cuba	9	6.29%
Taiwan	7	4.89%
Oman	5	3.49%
Qatar	5	3.49%
Russia	4	2.79%
Brazil	3	2.09%
Pakistan	3	2.09%
Yemen	3	2.09%
Colombia	2	1.39%
India	2	1.39%
Malaysia	2	1.39%
Myanmar	2	1.39%
Bosnia	2	1.39%
Thailand	2	1.39%
Vietnam	2	1.39%
<hr/>		
<i>Age range</i>		
18-24	103	72.02%
25-29	30	20.97%
30-34	6	4.19%
35-39	1	.69%
40-47	3	2.09%
<hr/>		
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	74	51.7%
Female	69	48.3%

¹ One participant from each of these countries completed the survey: Angola, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Ecuador, Egypt, Georgia, Germany, Indonesia, Iran Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Palestine, Peru, Puerto Rico, South Korea, Tanzania, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, Venezuela

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The statistical tests used to analyze the questionnaire data from the TEIQue SF, PSQ, and the L2LE questionnaire include EFA, correlations, and regression analyses. In order to examine each research question, the first step of data analyses was to conduct an EFA on the psychological *selves* data from the PSQ. Exploratory factor analysis is a multivariate statistical analysis, and it can serve several purposes. For one, it can be used to uncover the underlying structure of a set of measures and to find the fewest number of variables that account for the largest variance in data (Skehan, 2014). Secondly, it is used to reduce data consisting of several variables to a more manageable size (Field, 2013). This type of analysis is considered appropriate for this study because the questionnaire items are based on interval data measuring continuous variables (Larson-Hall, 2010). The procedure and results of the EFA are discussed below.

The EFA was performed because the researcher intended to test the L2 motivation theory, and specifically the possible selves as the additional dimension, the anti-ought-to L2 self, was added to the constructs. Specifically, all items from the PSQ, including the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the anti-ought-to L2 self items, were analyzed using the EFA. A total of 30 items were subjected to an EFA. Since this is not the first study to conduct the EFA on the *possible selves* items, some assumptions were made. More specifically, the researcher assumed that the items from the PSQ would result in three different factors identifying the three different selves. The EFA was conducted using the maximum likelihood factor extraction method and direct oblimin rotation method with a total of 143 participants in order to determine the number

of reliable factors in the motivation questionnaire and the characteristics of these factors, as well as the amount of variance accounted by each factor. Maximum likelihood method is appropriate because it increases maximum likelihood of getting the observed data, and it makes possible the generalization of variables from the small sample size to the entire population (Field, 2013).

With regard to the rotation method, the direct oblimin technique is an oblique rotation technique, recommended in SLA research, which assumes the factors might correlate (Fabrigar & Weneger, 2012; Loewen & Gonulal, 2015).

Upon conducting this analysis, the emerging factors were used as the dependent variables in examining the research questions. The first step of the analysis was to determine if the study's sample size was adequate to conduct the EFA. To do this, the researcher used the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) of Sampling Adequacy measure that must illustrate that the sample size was adequate. The KMO measure for the sample size in the present study was a value of .811, which is considered large (Field, 2013), showing that the study's sample size of 143 was adequate to carry out the EFA. Additionally, the researcher also checked the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to test the correlations among the variables. The test showed a significant result at $p < .001$ indicating correlation among the variables and their appropriateness for the EFA. After determining the KMO and adequate sample size to conduct the EFA, the researcher then took several steps in order to determine the emerging factors. Kaiser's criterion was used to determine how many factors to retain; factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were retained. Furthermore, the absolute value for each factor loading was set to .3, allowing the researcher to identify the variables that maximally contributed to each factor. Thus, only items loading at .3 or higher were included in the final solution. In the attempt to find a solution for the data, the Maximum

Iterations for Convergence was set to 25. Visual analysis of the scree plot confirmed the three factor model (see Figure 8).

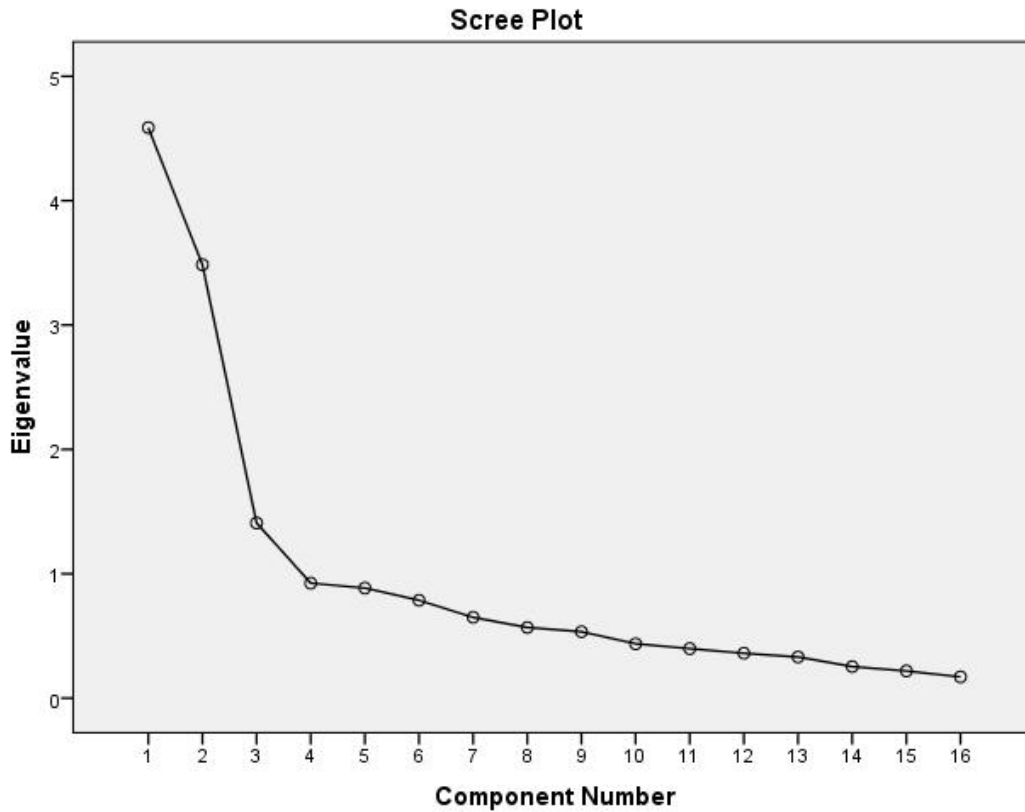


Figure 8. Scree Plot for the Exploratory Factor Analysis

The above steps were taken in order to carry out the EFA, which resulted in a three-factor model. After running the EFA initially, the pattern matrix in SPSS showed that the results were not interpretable due to twelve items loading on to multiple factors or failing to load on to any one factor. Therefore, twelve items were removed based on the pattern matrix provided by the SPSS and the visual analysis of the scree plot to further strengthen the results of the EFA. Eleven of the twelve items that had both positive and negative loadings crossloaded to more than one factor. One item (#29: It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English) did not

load on to any one factor. Once the items were removed, the researcher reran the EFA using the same factor-analytic methods described above. The results of the second step showed that only two items crossloaded to different factors. Thus, those two items were also removed (#4: I study English because close friends of mine think it is important; #17: I can imagine speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English). The removed items had low factor loading scores, and Loewen and Gonulal (2015) suggest that those items with low loading scores can be excluded because they do not show strong associations with other variables. A total of 14 items were removed before the final three-factor model emerged. Table 8 shows the items that were removed in each round of the EFA. The results of the three-factor model, which is based on the remaining 16 items from the psychological selves section of the questionnaire, are described in detail below. The final three emerging factors all had eigenvalues greater than 1. Table 9 provides the eigenvalues and the percentage of the variance explained by each of the three factors.

Table 8. Removed Items from the Possible Selves Questionnaire

Possible Self	Item	Removed in round 1	Removed in round 2
Ideal L2 self			
	#8	Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.	
	#26	The things I want to do in the future require me to use English	
	#30	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	
	#17		I can imagine speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.
Possible Self	Item	Removed in round 1	Removed in round 2

Table 8. (Continued)

Possible Self	Item	Removed in round 1	Removed in round 2
Ought-to L2 Self	#14	Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.	
	#25	Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English.	
	#29	It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.	
	#4		I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.
Anti-ought-to L2 Self	#1	I am studying English because it is a challenge.	
	#3	I want to prove others wrong by becoming good at English.	
	#6	I chose to learn English despite others encouraging me to study something different (another language or a different subject entirely).	
	#9	I enjoy a challenge with regards to English learning.	
	#24	I want to study English, despite other(s) telling me to give up or to do something else with my time.	
	#27	I am studying English because I want to stand out amongst my peers and/or colleagues.	

Table 9. EFA- Eigenvalues and Variance Explained by the 3 Factors

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative % of Variance
1) Ideal L2 Self	4.537	28.353	28.353
2) Ought-to L2 Self	3.441	21.504	49.857
3) Anti-ought-to L2 Self	1.432	8.953	58.810

In order to determine the internal reliability of the three emerging factors, the researcher conducted an internal reliability measure on the three factors as well as the set of items belonging to each factor. Descriptive statistics for the three factors can be seen in Table 10. The results of the internal consistency estimate of reliability .813 for the 16 items used in the EFA was found to be adequate. The results of the internal consistency estimate of reliability on the items in each of the three factors were also found to be adequate. Cronbach's alpha ranged from $\alpha = .734$ to $.906$ (see Table 11) and correlations between the three factors range from $.023$ to $.444$ (see Table 12). Cronbach's alpha for Factor 1 was $.906$, and this factor consisted of 6 items. Five items each loaded onto Factor 2 and Factor 3. Cronbach's alpha for Factor 2 and Factor 3 was $.769$, and $.734$, respectively. The three factors that emerged are shown in table 13, and each of them will be discussed below in comparison to the underlying constructs.

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics of the Three-factor Scores

	N of items	M	SD
F1: Ideal Self	6	4.9988	.98373
F2: Ought-to Self	5	3.5664	1.14473
F3: Anti-ought-to Self	5	3.6629	1.03609

Table 11. Reliability for Three Factors

Factor	N of items	Cronbach α
1: Ideal Self	6	.906
2: Ought-to Self	5	.769
3: Anti-ought-to Self	5	.734

Table 12. Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3
1: Ideal Self	1.000	.023	.206*
2: Ought-to Self		1.000	.444**
3: Anti-ought-to Self			1.000

**significant at the .01 level

*significant at the .05 level

As mentioned above, the EFA shows three underlying factors in the participants' possible selves. Altogether, the three factors accounted for 58.810 % of the shared variance. Factor one is comprised of six items that loaded on to the factor significantly. All six items were associated with the ideal L2 self. Factors 2 and 3 both had five items each load on significantly. The five items in Factor 2 were all associated with the ought-to L2 self. Out of the five items that loaded onto Factor 3, only one item did not belong to the anti-ought-to L2 self section of the motivation questionnaire. The item that loaded among the five for the anti-ought-to L2 self belongs to the ought-to L2 self construct (#22 "Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English"). The remaining four items all belong to the construct of anti-ought-to L2 self. Factor 1 accounted for the biggest variance explaining 28.353 %. Factor 2 explained 21.504 % of the variance, and Factor 3 accounted for 8.953 % of the variance.

Table 13. Pattern Matrix for the Factor Loadings for L2 Motivation

	Factor			
	1	2	3	h^2
Factor 1: Ideal L2 Self				
2. I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.	.698			.513
5. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.	.646			.407
11. I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.	.916			.808
13. I can imagine myself speaking English with international colleagues.	.887			.774
15. I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals.	.817			.680
23. I can imagine myself writing English emails/letters fluently.	.738			.652
Factor 2: Ought-to L2 Self				
7. Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.		.718		.484
10. I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.		.749		.610
12. If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down.		.554		.301
16. I have to study English, because if I do not study English, I think my parents will be disappointed with me		.601		.433
18. My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.		.465		.271
Factor 3: Anti-ought-to L2 Self				
19. I am studying English because it is something different or unique.			.496	.385
20. I am studying English even though most of my friends and family members don't value foreign language learning.			.714	.482
21. I want to speak English because it is not something that most people can do.			.732	.577

Table 13 (Continued)

	Factor			
	1	2	3	<i>h</i> ²
<i>Factor 3: Anti-ought-to L2 Self</i>				
22. Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.			.427	.374
28. In my English classes, I prefer material that is difficult, even though it will require more effort on my part, as opposed to easier material.			.400	.175

After conducting the first step of the analyses for the current study, the three research questions listed below are examined, along with the analyses and results for each question. Each of the emerging three factors are used as dependent variables in the analyses that follow. Research questions one and two examine the relationship between the possible selves and trait emotional intelligence, and research question three examines the participants' L2 learning experience and its relationship to the possible selves and trait EI. The research questions are reiterated once again in the table below. The results are presented in the order of each research question, and the tables of scores as well as the relevant charts are provided corresponding to each question.

Table 14. Summary of the Research Questions

<i>Main Research Question</i>	<i>Subquestions</i>
RQ 1 To what extent is there a relationship between trait emotional intelligence and the possible selves?	<i>Ia: To what extent is there a relationship between global trait EI and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 selves?</i>
	<i>Ib: To what extent is there a relationship between the four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, self-control) and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 selves?</i>

Table 14 (Continued)

<i>Main Research Question</i>	<i>Subquestions</i>
	<i>2a: To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the ideal L2 self?</i>
RQ 2 To what extent can four factors of trait EI predict the three selves?	<i>2b: To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the ought-to L2 self?</i>
	<i>2c: To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the anti-ought-to L2 self?</i>
RQ3: To what extent is there a relationship between the L2 learning experience, possible selves, and trait emotional intelligence?	

Research question 1: *To what extent is there a relationship between trait emotional intelligence and the possible selves?*

- a. To what extent is there a relationship between global trait emotional intelligence and the three selves: ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?
- b. To what extent is there a relationship between the four factors of trait emotional intelligence (emotionality, sociability, well-being, self-control) and the three selves: ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?

Research question one focuses on investigating to what extent there is a relationship between trait emotional intelligence and the possible selves. The two subquestions that were examined are provided above. After examining the relationship between the two variables and the L2 learning experience, naturally it is important to closer examine the relationship between trait EI and possible selves as both were shown to have significant correlations with the L2 learning experience. A learner's level of sociability, emotionality, well-being, and self-control are all integral aspects of their personality that could aid learners in succeeding in their learning outcomes. Particularly, figuring out which factors are closely related to which types of motivators is important because ultimately we would like to learn how well such factors can predict possible selves and the L2 motivation.

The two subquestions in RQ1 were also analyzed using Pearson correlation analysis, and the results for both subquestions are provided below. The correlation tables present the correlations, and the items with two asterisks (**) indicate that there is a significant correlation at the $p < .01$ level. Variables with one asterisks (*) indicate that there is a significant correlation at $p < .05$ level. Following Cohen's (1988) rule of thumb for interpreting the strength of the relationship between the variables, the following are adapted for the correlation coefficient: .10 represents a weak or small correlation; .30 represents a moderate correlation; and a correlation coefficient of .50 or higher represents a strong or large correlation. Additionally, the effect size (R^2), which indicates how much of the variance in one variable is explained by the other variable, will also be discussed. Cohen (1992) define R^2 as $R^2 = .01$ is a small effect, $R^2 = .09$ is a medium effect, $R^2 = .25$ is a large effect. Overall, the effect size indicates the importance of the relationship. The analyses that were carried out did not look at causal relationships. Therefore, we cannot conclude that a learner's trait EI could affect language learning motivation, or vice versa.

RQ1a: To what extent is there a relationship between global trait EI and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?

Research question 1a focused on examining the relationship between the possible selves and the global trait EI. As can be seen from the below table, only two correlations were significant at $p < .01$. The scores for the ideal L2 self and the global trait EI were positively and significantly correlated with each other. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis show a moderate positive relationship between global trait emotional intelligence and the ideal L2 self; $r = .327$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 0.106$ indicating a medium effect size (Larson-Hall, 2010). This results indicated that those participants who had a stronger ideal L2 self also had a high or a more developed

global trait EI. The second significant correlation was between the ought-to L2 self and global trait EI, showing a moderate negative relationship between the two variables; $r = -.381$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 0.145$, which also indicates a medium effect size. This result indicates that those who had a strong ought-to L2 self had a lower global trait EI. Lastly, the results for the anti-ought-to L2 self were not significant with the global trait EI at $p < .05$. There was a weak negative relationship between global trait EI and the anti-ought-to self; $r = -.129$, $p = .126$, $R^2 = 0.017$ indicating a small effect size.

Table 15. Correlation between the Three Selves and Global Trait Emotional Intelligence

Variables	Global Trait EI	Ideal L2 Self	Ought-to L2 Self	Anti-ought-to L2 Self
Global Trait EI	1	.327**	-.381**	-.129
Ideal L2 Self		1	.036	.187*
Ought-to L2 Self			1	.452**
Anti-ought-to L2 Self				1

** . Correlation is significant at the $p < .01$ level (2-tailed)

* . Correlation is significant at the $p < .05$ level (2-tailed)

RQ1b: *To what extent is there a relationship between the four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, self-control) and the ideal/ought-to/anti-ought-to L2 self?*

The second part of research question one focuses on the relationship between the four broader factors of trait EI and the three possible selves. The table below illustrates these relationships and their respective correlation coefficient. The items with two asterisks (**) indicate that there is a significant correlation at the $p < .01$ level, and the items without an

asterisk do not indicate a significant relationship. Results are presented in three different sections corresponding with each of the three selves and their respective relationship with the four factors of global trait EI.

Table 16. Correlation between the Possible Selves and the Four Factors of Trait EI

Variables	Ideal L2 Self	Ought-to L2 Self	Anti-ought-to L2 Self	Emotionality	Sociability	Well-Being	Self-Control
Ideal L2 Self	1	.036	.187*	.250**	.385**	.282**	.128
Ought-to L2 Self		1	.452**	-.355*	-.304**	-.306**	-.084
Anti-ought-to L2 Self			1	-.238**	-.109	-.098	.048
Emotionality				1	.570**	.608**	.316**
Sociability					1	.552**	.324**
Well-Being						1	.483**
Self-Control							1

** . Correlation is significant at the $p < .01$ level (2-tailed)

* . Correlation is significant at the $p < .05$ level (2-tailed)

Results for the ideal L2 self

The results of the Pearson correlation analysis show three significant correlations with the ideal L2 self: emotionality, sociability, and well-being. All four factors of global trait EI positively correlated with the ideal L2 self.

There was a weak positive relationship between ideal L2 self and emotionality; $r=.250$, $p=.003$, $R^2 = 0.063$ indicating a small effect size. There was a moderate positive relationship between ideal L2 self and sociability; $r=.385$, $p<.001$ $R^2 = 0.148$ indicating a medium effect size (Larson-Hall, 2010). The results show a weak positive relationship between ideal L2 self and

well-being; $r=.282, p=.001, R^2=0.079$ indicating a small effect size. The results were not significant between the ideal L2 self and self-control and showed a weak positive relationship $r=.128, p=.129, R^2=0.016$ indicating a small effect size. The strongest association is found between the ideal L2 self and the sociability factor.

Results for the ought-to L2 self:

The results of the Pearson correlation analysis show that all of the associations are significant with the ought-to L2 self except for self-control, which is consistent with the results for the ideal L2 self. While these are the same three factors that positively and significantly correlated with the ideal L2 self, the correlations with the ought-to L2 self were negative and significant. The results show that the ought-to L2 self is negatively correlated with all factors of trait EI. There was a moderate negative relationship between ought-to L2 self and emotionality; $r=-.355, p<.001, R^2=0.126$ indicating a medium effect size; between ought-to L2 self and well-being ; $r=-.305, p<.001, R^2=0.093$ indicating a medium effect size; between ought-to L2 self and sociability; ; $r=-.304, p<.001, R^2=0.092$ indicating a medium effect size. Because the scores indicate a negative relationship, it can be stated that those participants who had a strong ought-to L2 self scored lower on the above three factors. Finally, there was a weak negative correlation between ought-to L2 self and self-control; $r=-.084, p=.318, R^2=0.007$ indicating a small effect size. Out of the three significant and negative relationships, the most significant one is between the emotionality factor and the ought-to L2 self because the effect size is the highest and the correlation is the strongest.

Results for the anti-ought-to L2 self:

The results of the Pearson correlation analysis show that only the emotionality factor of global trait EI has a significant relationship with the anti-ought-to L2 self. Overall, there was a weak relationship between the anti-ought-to L2 self and each of the four factors, and the

magnitude between all four correlations was small. The results show a negative relationship between anti-ought-to L2 self and emotionality; $r=-.238, p=.004, R^2=0.056$ indicating a small effect size, between sociability; $r=-.109, p=.194, R^2=0.012$ indicating a small effect size, and between well-being; $r=-.098, p=.244, R^2=0.010$ indicating a small effect size. On the other hand, the positive weak relationship was with self-control; $r=.048, p=.572, R^2=0.002$ indicating a small effect size.

Research question 2:

As RQ 1 has indicated which factors of the trait EI correlate with which of the three selves, the following step is to determine how well each factor predicts the three selves. Evidence of emotional intelligence has the potential to explain why some individuals believe that they have the capacity to achieve certain desired goals. Determining the predictive power is important because it will tell us how emotion-related aspects of personality, as well as how a person's understanding and regulation of own and others' emotions could contribute to the formation of their future selves. As MacIntyre et al. (2009) asserts "without a strong tie to the learner's emotional system, possible selves exist as a cold cognition" (p. 47). Because the possible selves guide learner motivation, are important in goal-setting, and make up the future-oriented components of one's self-concept, there is merit in knowing how much and what exactly contributes to learner possible selves. Although a regression model has not yet been built using these variables, it is worth examining the predictive power of the trait EI factors as RQ1 has found some significant correlations between the possible selves and the factors. Additionally, previous research indicates that although both the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self are good predictors of motivated learning behavior or intended effort, the ideal L2 self has more predictive power (e.g., Ryan, 2009). However, it is unclear what affective variables and to what extent can

predict learners' *possible selves*. It was hypothesized that the factors of trait EI will have some predictive power on the *possible selves*. Accordingly, RQ2 focuses on estimating the relationship between the independent variables (or predictors), the four factors of trait EI, and the dependent variables (or response), the three possible selves. This research question consists of three parts and was analyzed using multiple regression analyses following the guidelines set forth by Larson-Hall (2010) in order to examine the predictive power of the four predictors (emotionality, sociability, well-being, self-control) on the response variables; the three possible selves. A standard multiple regression model will also highlight how much each independent variable contributes to the final relationship. It was noted that such a procedure "is primarily useful for explanatory research to determine the extent of the influence of one or more variables on some outcome" (Keith, 2015, p. 80). This question merits investigation because as we have clearly seen, aspects of the L2 learning experience and a person's personality contribute to language learning motivation. Furthermore, as was illustrated in the two other research questions, there are moderate associations between some aspects of trait EI and the possible selves. Therefore, it is worth investigating to what degree these aspects or factors can actually predict the possible selves. Accordingly, the following research question was examined:

RQ2: To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the three selves?

- a. the ideal L2 self?
- b. the ought-to L2 self?
- c. the anti-ought-to L2 self?

Multiple Regression Assumptions

Prior to running the multiple regression analysis, several assumptions had to be met as outlined by Larson-Hall (2010) in order to determine how well the regression models fit the data in the present study. The assumptions for the multiple regression include normal distribution of residuals, homogeneity of variances, linearity between the independent and dependent variables, and multicollinearity (or the idea that independent variables should not be highly correlated, above 0.80) and lastly, no multivariate or univariate outliers (Larson-Hall, 2010).

The first examined assumption was the assumption of normality. The researcher first examined the P-P plots of the standardized residuals (see figures below). Although there is slight curvature in the distribution of the residuals, this is not considered extreme. Thus, we can conclude that the residuals were normally distributed. In addition to this step, the researcher also examined the Std. Residual row for outliers. Larson-Hall (2010) states that points in this row should be between 3.0 and -3.0. The maximum values in each of the three models did not fall outside these boundaries. The Std. Residuals points for both the ought-to and the anti-ought-to L2 self fall within this range. However, while the maximum value for the ideal L2 self is 1.592, the minimum value falls below the -3.0 rule at -3.907, which is an indicating sign of an outlier in the data. Additionally, the researcher checked for both Cook's D. Accepted Cook's distance values include any number lower than 1.0, and all three models showed an accepted Cook's distance value.

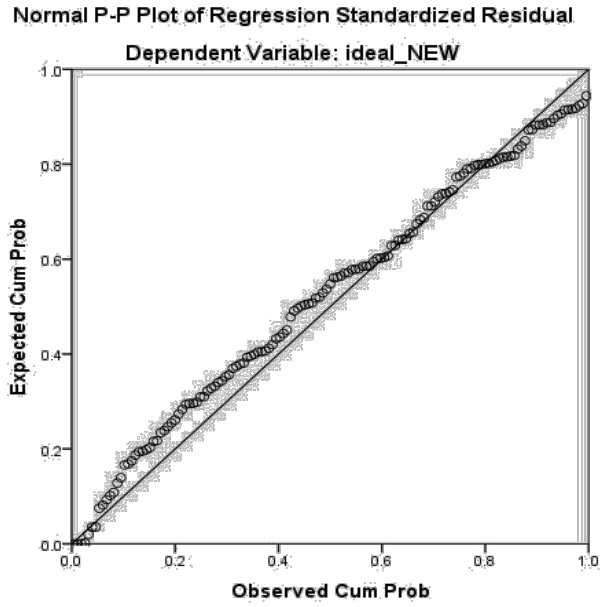


Figure 9. P-P Plots for Ideal L2 Self

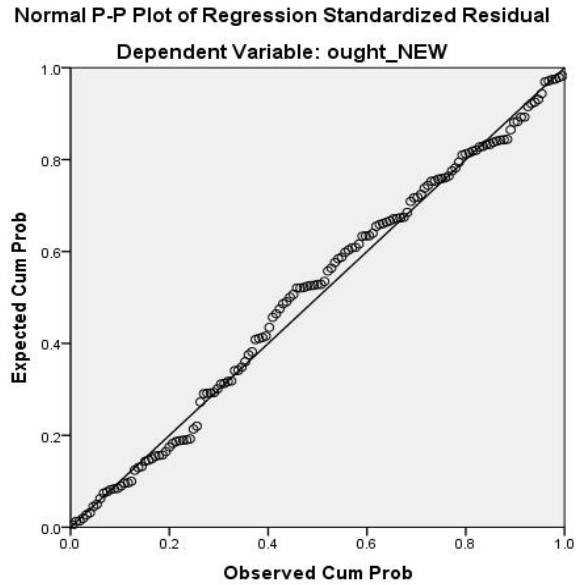


Figure 10. P-P Plots for Ought-to L2 Self

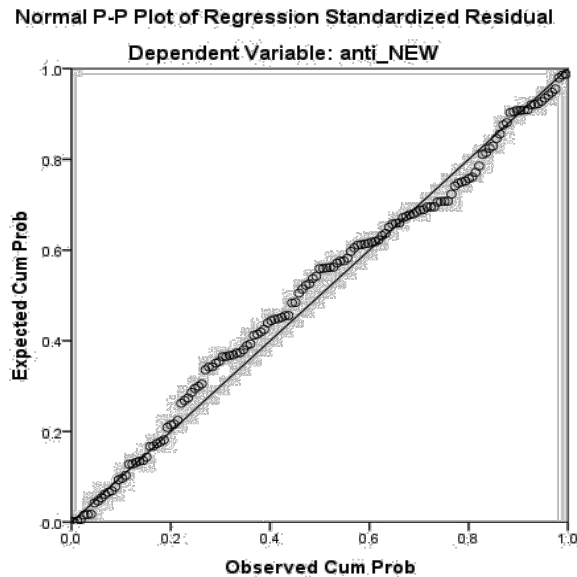


Figure 11. P-P Plots for Anti-ought-to L2 Self

The second and third assumptions that were checked included homogeneity of variances and linearity. This was done by examining the scatterplots (see figures below) in the SPSS. A correlation test was performed with all the variables in this research question. The intercorrelations between the explanatory variables does exist; however, all of the r values are below .70. The examination of the scatterplot in an attempt to meet the assumption of homogeneity of variances showed that the data are dispersed reasonably and evenly in the center of the graph for the most part. These points are centered on zero throughout the line of fit. That is, the shape of the scatterplots shows a cloud of data scattered randomly. These examinations suggest that the two assumptions have been met.

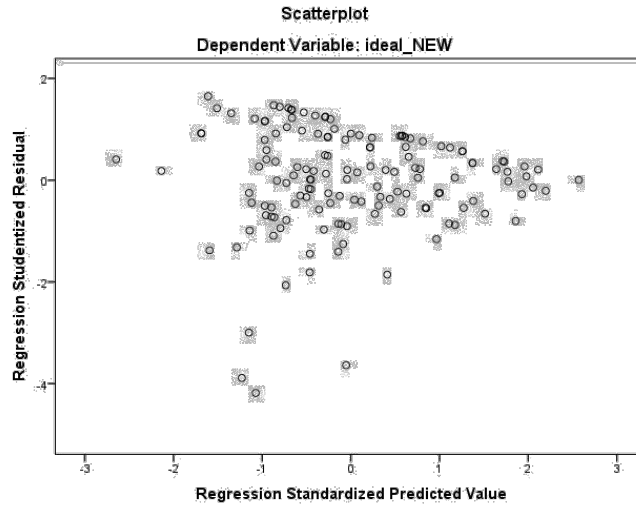


Figure 12. Scatterplot for the Ideal L2 Self

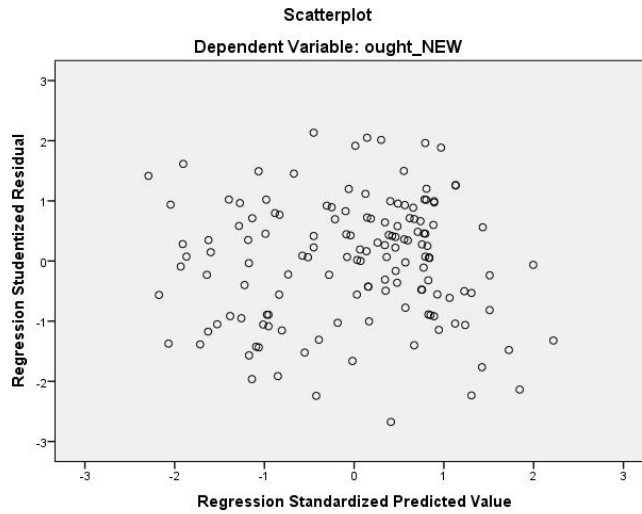


Figure 13. Scatterplot for the Ought-to L2 Self

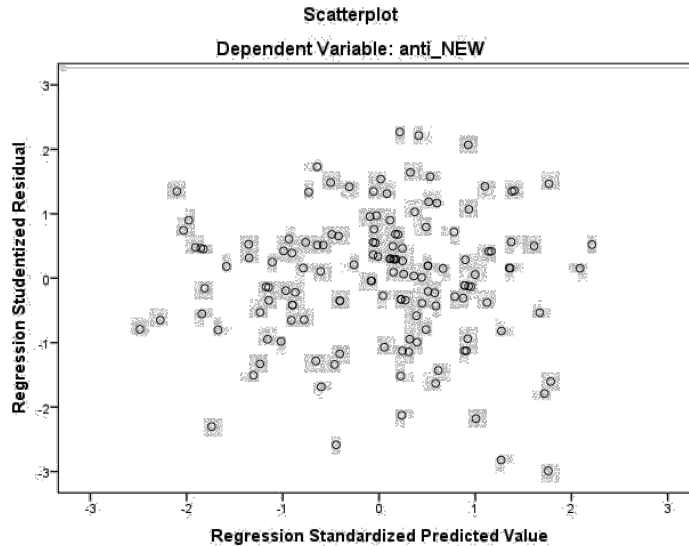


Figure 14. Scatterplot for the Anti-ought-to L2 Self

Lastly, the researcher examined the multicollinearity measures to see how much the independent variables varied together; that is to see if there were high correlations between the four predictors. The correlation between the independent variables, the four factors, is below .80. According to Larson-Hall (2010), any point at this level would be concerning. Thus, no variables were highly correlated as was shown by the correlation matrix indicating that the four factors can be considered as different from each other (see Table 16). Additionally, the VIF values shown in the SPSS output are all below 5. Heiberger and Holland (2004) state that values of over 5 indicate collinearity.

Following the examination of the assumptions, the results were analyzed in detail. Below are the results for each *self* of the L2MSS. Overall, the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self show a very similar percent variance explained by the four factors: 15.6% and 15.5%, respectively. On the other hand, the four predictors account for approximately 7% of variance in the anti-ought-to L2 self. The results are discussed in greater detail below following each

subquestion. Comparisons of each predictor score was made using the standardized score of Beta.

RQ2a: *To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the ideal L2 self?*

The results of this standard multiple regression analysis indicated that four variables that were entered into the model (emotionality, sociability, self-control, and well-being) explained a combined 15.6% of the variance ($R^2 = .156$, $F(4, 138) = 6.365$, $p < .001$) when predicting the ideal L2 self (see table 19). R square (R^2), or total variance explained, is a measure used to indicate predictive power of independent variables. The multiple regression analysis was significant at ($p < .001$.) when predicting the ideal L2 self as shown by the F -test. There were correlations between the response variable and the predictor variables in the model, with the highest being sociability ($r = .39$) showing a moderate correlation (see table 18). Table 17 shows the model summary of the standard multiple regression and demonstrates how much of the variance in the response variable is accounted by the predictors. In order to determine whether or not the value in the model indicated a small, medium, or large effect, Cohen's (1988) criteria were used. Cohen states that for multiple regression models in the behavioral sciences values between 2% and 12.99% indicate small effect size, values between 13% - 25.99% indicate medium effect size, and values of 26% or above indicate large effect sizes. As table 17 shows, this model reveals that the four predictors had a medium effect size, or predictive power, of 15.6% on the ideal L2 self.

Table 17. 4-predictor Model of Multiple Regression of the Ideal L2 Self

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>P</i>
1	.395	.156	.000

Predictors: Sociability, Emotionality, Self-control, Well-being

Table 18. Correlation between the Ideal L2 self and the Four Factors of Trait EI

Variables	Ideal L2 Self	Emotionality	Sociability	Well-Being	Self-Control
Ideal L2 Self	1	.250	.385	.282	.128
Emotionality		1	.570	.608	.316
Sociability			1	.552	.324
Well-Being				1	.483
Self-Control					1

Table 19. Multiple Regression Solution for a 4-Predictor Variable Ideal L2 Self Model

Predictor	B	B	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
					<i>Lower bound</i>	<i>Upper bound</i>
Self-control (F1)	-.065	-.036	-.398	.691	-.388	.258
Emotionality (F2)	.005	.003	.030	.976	-.308	.318
Sociability (F3)	.463	.331	3.296	.001*	.185	.741
Well-being (F4)	.148	.114	1.027	.306	-.137	.432

*significant at the $p < .05$ level (2-tailed)

Table 19 shows the contributions of each explanatory variable. The findings show that the sociability factor is the only significant contributor and predictor of this model ($\beta=.331$). While people who score low on this factor can be seen as reserved or shy, others who score high are considered more assertive, have good listening skills, and can clearly communicate with people from different backgrounds (Petrides, 2001). Additionally, they perceive themselves as having the ability to influence others. Based on the results, sociability has a positive effect on the ideal L2 self, and thus, the more someone is able to influence others and the more assertive that person is, the more powerful their ideal L2 self is. The non-significant contributors to the model include well-being ($\beta=.114$), self-control ($\beta=-.036$), and emotionality ($\beta=.003$). While sociability, emotionality, and well-being have a positive effect on the ideal L2 self, self-control has a negative effect with it. The equation to predict learners' ideal L2 self (Y) by the four factors can be modeled as:

$$Y^* = 2.765 + (.463)*\text{sociability} + (.005)*\text{emotionality} + (.148)*\text{well-being} + (-.065)*\text{self-control}$$

RQ2b: *To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the ought-to L2 self?*

The results of this standard multiple regression analyses indicated that four explanatory variables entered into the model explained a combined 15.5% of the variance ($R^2=.155$, $F(4, 138) = 6.338$, $p = .000$) when predicting the ought-to L2 self. The multiple regression analysis was also significant at ($p<.001$) when predicting the ought-to L2 self as shown by the F -test. There were correlations between the response variable and the predictor variables in the model (see Table 21), with the highest being emotionality ($r = -.36$) showing a moderate negative correlation. Table 20 shows the model summary of the standard multiple regression, and as can

be seen, this model reveals that the four predictors had a medium effect size, or predictive power, of 15.5% on the ought-to L2 self.

Table 20. 4-predictor Model of Multiple Regression of the Ought-to L2 Self

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>P</i>
1	.394	.155	.000

Predictors: Sociability, Emotionality, Self-control, Well-being

Table 21. Correlation between the Ought-to L2 Self and the Four Factors of Trait EI

Variables	Ought-to L2 Self	Emotionality	Sociability	Well-Being	Self-Control
Ought-to L2 Self	1	-.355	-.304	-.306	-.084
Emotionality		1	.570	.608	.316
Sociability			1	.552	.324
Well-Being				1	.483
Self-Control					1

Table 22. Multiple Regression Solution for a 4-Predictor Variable Ought-to L2 Self Model

Predictor	B	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
Self-control (F1)	.210	.099	1.105	.271	-.166	.586
Emotionality (F2)	-.393	-.225	-2.135	.035*	-.757	-.029

Table 22 (Continued)

Predictor	B	β	t	p	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
Sociability (F3)	-.206	-.127	-1.260	.210	-.530	.117
Well-being (F4)	-.222	-.147	-1.326	.187	-.553	.109

*significant at the $p < .05$ level (2-tailed)

Table 22 shows the contributions of each explanatory variable. The findings show that the emotionality factor is the only significant contributor and predictor of this model ($\beta = -.225$). Based on the results, emotionality has a negative effect on the ought-to L2 self, and thus, the higher the level of emotionality in a learner, the weaker their ought-to L2 self is. Emotionality deals with emotion perception in self and others, emotion expression, empathy, and relationships. Having high level of emotionality indicates that one is able to perceive and express emotions, positive and negative, show empathy, and build meaningful relationships with others (Petrides, 2001). The second most powerful predictor, although not significant, is well-being ($\beta = -.147$), followed by sociability ($\beta = -.127$), and self-control ($\beta = .099$). While sociability, emotionality, and well-being have a negative effect on the ought-to L2 self, self-control has a positive effect on it. These results show the exact opposite than for the ideal L2 self. The equation to predict learners' ought-to L2 self (Y) by the four factors can be modeled as:

$$Y^* = 6.071 + (-.206)*\text{sociability} + (-.393)*\text{emotionality} + (-.222)*\text{well-being} + (.201)*\text{self-control}$$

RQ2c: *To what extent can four factors of trait EI (emotionality, sociability, well-being, and self-control) predict the anti-ought-to L2 self?*

The results of this standard multiple regression analyses indicated that the four explanatory variables that were entered into the model explained a combined 7.3% of the variance ($R^2=.073$, $F(4, 138) = 2.728$, $p = .032$) when predicting the anti-ought-to L2 self. The multiple regression analysis was significant at ($p=.032$) when predicting the anti-ought-to L2 self as shown by the F -test. There were correlations between the response variable and the predictor variables in the model (see Table 24), with the highest being emotionality ($r = -.238$) showing a weak negative correlation. Table 23 shows the model summary of the standard multiple regression, and as can be seen, the model reveals that the four predictors had a small effect size, or predictive power, of 7.3% on the anti-ought-to L2 self.

Table 23. 4-predictor Model of Multiple Regression of the Anti-ought-to L2 Self

Model	R	R^2	P
1	.271	.073	.032

Predictors: Sociability, Emotionality, Self-control, Well-being

Table 24. Correlation between the Anti-ought-to L2 Self and the Four Factors of Trait EI

Variables	Anti-ought-to L2 Self	Emotionality	Sociability	Well-Being	Self-Control
Anti-ought-to L2 Self	1	-.238	-.109	-.098	.048
Emotionality		1	.580	.608	.316
Sociability			1	.552	.324
Well-Being				1	.483
Self-Control					1

Table 25. Multiple Regression Solution for a 4-Predictor Variable Anti-ought-to L2 Self Model

Predictor	B	B	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
Self-control (F1)	.252	.132	1.401	.163	-.104	.608
Emotionality (F2)	-.458	-.290	-2.626	.010*	-.803	-.113
Sociability (F3)	.011	.007	.071	.944	-.296	.318
Well-being (F4)	.014	.011	.091	.928	-.299	.328

*significant at the $p < .05$ level (2-tailed)

Table 25 shows the contributions of each explanatory variable. The findings show that the emotionality factor is the only significant contributor and predictor of this model ($\beta = -.290$). Based on the results, emotionality has a negative effect on the anti-ought-to L2 self, and thus, the higher the level of emotionality in a learner, the weaker the anti-ought-to L2 self is. The second most powerful predictor, although not significant, is self-control ($\beta = .132$), followed by well-being ($\beta = .011$), and sociability ($\beta = .007$). While sociability, well-being, and self-control have a positive effect on the anti-ought-to L2 self, emotionality is the only variable that has a negative effect on it. The equation to predict learners' anti-ought-to L2 self (Y) by the four factors can be modeled as:

$$Y^* = 4.378 + (.011)*sociability + (-.458)*emotionality + (.014)*well-being + (.252)*self-control$$

After examining the possible selves in greater detail, the focus is shifted on the participants' L2 learning experience, which is seen as a fundamental tenet of the L2 Motivational

Self System. Because the L2 learning experience examines the interactions between people and the learner during the learning process, it is important to investigate it along with the possible selves as the learning experience can directly impact learners' attitudes and influence their possible selves, which in turn can have an effect on L2 motivation. Additionally, the L2 learning experience can cause learners to experience different emotions as the process of learning a second language can be challenging for many. How learners cope with the stress of learning a second language, how positive they are throughout the learning process, and how well they fit in to the new environment all play an important role in how successful they will be at learning their L2 and how such experiences influence their learning outcomes as well as their ongoing motivation. In order to examine the L2 learning experience, the following research question was posed:

Research question 3: *To what extent is there a relationship between the L2 learning experience and, possible selves and trait emotional intelligence?*

Research question three is important to this study as it focuses on the learners' language learning experience, which deals with situation-specific motives that relate to the immediate learning environment. These motives include the teacher, curriculum, peer-groups, and the experience of success or the enjoyment of taking a course. For some learners, the motivation to learn comes from the enjoyment of the L2 learning environment and the engagement with actual language learning process (Dörnyei, 2009). The L2 learning experience encompasses learners' attitudes toward second language learning and can be affected by situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience. The present study operationalized learning experience as school-related motives relevant to the instructional context including the teacher, as well as the general motives that occur outside of the class, such

as watching movies. The data for this research question come from the L2 Learning Experience (L2LE) Questionnaire, which had 10 questions. The following is a sample item from the L2LE questionnaire: “I like the atmosphere of my English classes.”

To answer this research question, quantitative analyses were performed on the data. Survey results were analyzed using Pearson correlation analysis. The results of this question will not examine the correlations between the selves and aspects of trait emotional intelligence as this information was provided in RQ1. The table below illustrates the results of RQ3.

Table 26. Correlation between the L2 Learning Experience, Possible Selves, and Trait EI

Variables	Ideal L2 Self	Ought-to L2 Self	Anti-ought-to L2 Self	Emotionality	Sociability	Well-Being	Self-Control	Global Trait EI
L2 Learning Experience	.375**	-.159	.227**	.385**	.353**	.427**	.127	.439**

**significant at the $p < .01$ level (2-tailed)

Examining the relationship between the possible selves and the L2 learning experience closer, the results show that the strongest correlation was found between the ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience, showing a significant moderate positive relationship, $r=.375$, $p<.001$. The effect size, R^2 of 0.140, is considered medium (Larson-Hall, 2010). This result shows that learners who had positive attitudes toward their L2 learning experience also had a stronger ideal L2 self. Likewise, the scores for the anti-ought-to L2 self and the L2 learning environment were positively and significantly correlated with each other. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis show a weak positive relationship between the anti-ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience, $r=.227$, $p=.006$. Although this relationship is significant, the effect size, R^2 of 0.051,

is considered small. Finally, the results of the Pearson correlation analysis show a weak negative correlation between the ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience, $r=-.159$, $p=.058$; however, this relationship is not significant, and the effect size, R^2 of 0.025, is also considered small.

In addition to the evident relationship between the aspects of the L2 learning experience and the possible selves, the L2 learning experience also has a significant relationship with learners' trait emotional intelligence, which deals with emotion-related self perceptions. As can be seen from the above table, the correlation between the L2 learning experience and the global trait EI is significant, with a moderate positive relationship, $r=.439$, $p<.001$. The effect size, R^2 of 0.192, is considered medium. This result shows that those participants who hold positive attitudes toward the different aspects of their L2 learning experience also have a higher or a more developed trait EI. Furthermore, the L2 learning experience has a significant relationship with three of the four factors of the global trait EI: emotionality, sociability, and well-being. Out of the three, the strongest relationship was with well-being. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis show a moderate positive relationship between the L2 learning experience and well-being, $r=.427$, $p<.001$. This relationship has a medium effect size, R^2 of 0.182. The results also show a positive significant relationship between L2 learning experience and emotionality, $r=.385$, $p<.001$; and sociability, $r=.353$, $p<.001$. The effect size is $R^2 = .148$ and $R^2 = .124$, respectively, indicating a moderate relationship. The relationship between the L2 learning experience and the self-control factor was not significant.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of quantitative analyses carried out to investigate each research question. The first part of the analysis in this study included the EFA, which revealed a

three-factor model accounting for 58.810 % of the shared variance in learners' L2 motivation measured by the PSQ. The three factors were labeled as the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the anti-ought-to L2 self. Following the EFA, correlations and multiple regression analysis were carried out to investigate the research questions. The results for RQ1 showed that the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self correlated significantly with three of the four broader factors of trait EI: sociability, emotionality, and well-being. While these relationships were positive for the ideal L2 self, the results showed a negative relationship between these variables and the ought-to L2 self. Additionally, the anti-ought- L2 self was only significantly and negatively correlated with the emotionality factor. Following these results, a closer examination of the factors' predictive power on the possible selves was examined in RQ2. The three multiple regression models were carried out with four predictor variables (sociability, emotionality, well-being, self-control) and three response variables (ideal, ought-to, and anti-ought-to L2 selves). The models for the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self explained 15.6% and 15.5% of the variance, respectively. On the other hand, the four predictors accounted for only 7.3% of the variance in the anti-ought-to L2 self. Although the three regression models account for low variance, it is important to note that they still contribute to our understanding of the relationship between emotion-related self perceptions and the possible selves. Lastly, the correlation results for RQ3 revealed a positive and significant relationship between the L2 learning experience and three variables: ideal L2 self, anti-ought-to L2 self, and trait EI. The findings of these analyses are further discussed in depth in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Chapter five provides a discussion of the study's findings in relation to previous existing research in the second language acquisition (SLA) field. The researcher also elaborates on the limitations of the study, proposes both theoretical and pedagogical implications, and concludes with the recommendations for future research.

Discussion of the Findings

There is an important role of individual differences in the success of SLA and the learning process. As discussed in the literature review, individual differences are seen as “the most consistent predictors of learning success” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 2). Affect is seen as a critical factor of individual differences in terms of the language learning process, and there are many such factors that are vital in successful language learning, including emotions and motivation, as well as personality characteristics (Dörnyei, 2005; Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003; Ellis, 1994). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) define affective variables as “those emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence how she/he will respond to any situation” (p. 1).

It has been argued that learners' L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) along with emotions, are fundamentally significant motivators, and without both, the learners' future possible selves and especially the ideal L2 self would lack motivational strength (McIntyre,

MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009). While research on second language (L2) motivation has received considerable attention, only recently has there been an increase in research on the importance of emotions and emotional intelligence (EI) in the success of language learning (Alavinia & Agha Alikhani, 2014; Fahim & Pishghadam, 2007; Pishghadam, 2009; Skourdia, Rahimi, & Bagheri, 2014; Zarezadeh, 2013). The purpose of this dissertation was to investigate the relationship between L2 motivation and trait emotional intelligence (EI), which deals with “emotion-related self-perceptions, such as emotion control, emotion expression, empathy, and adaptability” (Dewaele, Petrides, Furnham, 2008, p. 913).

In order to examine the research questions that guide the present study, surveys were used to collect data. The exploratory factor analysis carried out on the PSQ data illustrated a three-factor model which explained 58.51% of shared variance in learners’ L2 motivation. The emerging factors were (F1) ideal L2 self; (F2) ought-to L2 self; (F3) anti-ought-to L2 self. As discussed in the previous chapter, the three factors were used as dependent variables in examining the research questions. There are several important findings in this study, and each of them is addressed below, in order of each research question.

Prior to providing a discussion of the findings, it is important to discuss the context in which the study took place. As mentioned in the literature review, most of the studies concerning the L2MSS have taken place in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context. This study is significant as it adds to the limited L2MSS research in the English as a second language (ESL) context. ESL courses are offered in countries where English is the dominant language, such as the United States, whereas EFL courses are taught in countries where English is not the dominant language. Students in the ESL context have ample opportunity to practice English. The participants in this study were immersed in an ESL context and were all enrolled in an English

Language Program at the time of data collection. The majority of the participants were part of the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program. Those students enrolled in the EAP program took English courses that counted for university credit, meaning that they were primarily motivated by aspects of classroom grades or graduation requirements. Additionally, these students might have experienced various levels of stress in their semester of study not only because of the language requirement, but also from taking credit courses in their own majors simultaneously with the EAP courses. An important caveat with regard to the population and the two research sites should be mentioned. Although both ELPs offer courses in the EAP program, the students from two programs have different language learning experiences. While one group of learners has studied English previously in an EFL context, not all learners at the community college might have had that opportunity in their home countries. Therefore, this difference between the populations in terms of their language learning experience could have impacted the language learners' motivation. However, the results of the present study group the participants in the same category, and the findings are primarily reflected from the participants' ESL experience.

Prior to discussing the results of each research question, it is noteworthy to mention that although no current studies investigate the specific factors of trait EI and L2MSS, a few studies have focused on different aspects of the Big Five basic personality dimensions and L2 motivation, as was discussed in the literature review.

Research Question 1

In response to RQ 1 "To what extent is there a relationship between trait emotional intelligence and the possible selves?" the correlation analyses showed that global trait EI is

positively and significantly correlated with the ideal L2 self, and negatively and significantly correlated with the ought-to L2 self. The same three factors of the trait EI had significant correlations with both the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self. Sociability, emotionality, and well-being significantly and positively correlated with the ideal L2 self, and negatively and significantly correlated with the ought-to L2 self. Furthermore, only the emotionality factor was significantly correlated with the anti-ought-to L2 self.

The results of the present study with regard to the positive relationship between sociability and the ideal L2 self are similar to what Ghapanchi, Khajavy, and Asadpour (2011) found when they investigated L2 motivation and personality as predictors of L2 proficiency in the EFL context. Much like the results in the present study with regard to the sociability factor, their study found that extraversion was significantly and positively correlated with the ideal L2 self in EFL participants. Unlike the present study, their study did not find significant correlation between the aspects of sociability and the ought-to L2 self. As was mentioned prior, the constructs of extroversion and sociability are correlated to a degree; however, extraversion does not place focus on managing others' emotions. Both constructs include assertiveness and some aspects of social skills and awareness. Because extroverts are thought to interact more with L2 speakers, extraversion is said to be crucial to the development of L2 interpersonal skills (Ellis, 2008b). The results of this analysis suggest that learners who have a strong ideal L2 self and learn English because of their desire to become fluent and not because of outside pressure perceive themselves to be more assertive individuals who possess excellent social skills and able to manage interpersonal emotions.

Regarding the significance of emotionality, the results of the present study were also similar to Ghapanchi, Khajavy, and Asadpour's (2011) results who found that neuroticism,

which represents someone's emotional (in)stability and level of negative emotions, had a positive and significant relationship with the ought-to L2 self; however, their study did not find significant results between neuroticism and ideal L2 self. Similarly, a study by Teimouri (2016) found that two operationalizations of the ought-to L2 self were positively associated with anxiety, which is considered a negative emotion. He also found that the ideal L2 self was positively correlated with the positive emotion of joy. These results corroborate the current study's findings in that the aspects of emotionality positively correlate with the ideal L2 self and negatively with the ought-to L2 self. The results of the present study suggest that learners who learn English because of their desire to become fluent and not because of outside pressure are more likely to experience positive emotion than those who are not socially aware or have strong interpersonal relationships; such learners are also said to be better at managing their own and others' emotions (Ellis, 1994; Lane, 2016). The negative relationship between sociability and emotionality, and the ought-to L2 self suggests that these types of learners experience negative emotions more frequently and tend to think negatively more often than learners who have stronger social skills and are more socially aware. Because of this, it can be said that they are not as skillful at managing other people's emotions, communicating with others, and perhaps maintaining fulfilling relationships (Lane, 2016).

Another important result in RQ1 is the significance of the well-being factor as it positively correlates with the ideal L2 self and negatively with the ought-to L2 self. A few studies outside the SLA field, primarily psychology, have looked at aspects of well-being and the possible selves. For example, Peters, Flink, Boersma, and Linton (2010) investigates optimism in university students and found that when students imagine their "best possible self", their optimism increased. While the context and participants are different, these results are consistent

with the findings in the present study. In another study, Yowell (2000) found similar results in examining adolescent students' optimism and hoped-for possible selves. Her results showed that the students exhibited high educational aspirations and high optimism across several domains of hoped-for selves. Another study that provides support for the positive relationship between the ideal self and well-being is one by Sheldon and Lyubomirsky (2006). Their research into expressing gratitude and visualizing best possible selves found that there was a positive correlation between visualizing a best possible self and the level of positive affect. Research suggests that imagining one's best possible self should increase positive emotions (e.g., King, 2001). Although no empirical studies exist in the SLA literature that address well-being or its facets in regard to the different possible selves or L2 motivation, these results merit further discussion.

MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) have stated that “differences among individual learners, whose temperament may lead them to dispositional optimism or pessimism, must be taken into account” (p. 204). It has been pointed out that optimism and happiness are two of many important variables that contribute to building resiliency and reducing stress (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). In order for motivation to take place, the possible selves must be perceived as plausible. As such, these representations of the selves can give rise to different feelings of efficacy and optimism, among others, leading to powerful impact on behavior (Ruvolo & Markus, 1992). Those who are optimistic are able to reach their possible selves by making them plausible; however, the hopes of a pessimist are “less likely to engage the motivational control systems that cause their realization in behavior” due to the unrealistic selves (Carver, Reynolds, & Scheier, 1994, p. 139). With regard to happiness, in positive psychology, researchers such as Peterson (2006) view happiness as a focus on “being true to oneself and living according to

virtues, and the pursuit of genuine engagement” (as cited in MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012, p. 208). Thus, it is clear why these aspects of well-being would positively contribute to the ideal L2 self, which can be seen as the optimistic future prospect. On the other hand, the ought-to L2 self is seen as a forced future self, and according to Dörnyei (2009) this type of self is somewhat disconnected from the enthusiasm of learning a second language. Additionally, learners with a strong ought-to L2 self could be worried about the negative consequences, losing opportunities, or not being able to meet certain obligations or responsibilities. They therefore might be overcome with negative emotions, which would not enhance their well-being.

Research Question 2

In response to RQ2 “To what extent can four factors of trait EI predict the three selves?” the four predictor regression model showed two important results. First, only sociability significantly and positively predicted the ideal L2 self. Second, only emotionality significantly and negatively predicted both the ought-to and anti-ought-to L2 selves. Both findings are important to this study, and both indicate that the importance of self-perceived emotion-related abilities including emotion management in others, empathy, emotion expression, and emotion perception in self and others, are all important predictors of the possible selves.

One interesting finding in the present study is that only the sociability factor significantly and positively predicts the ideal L2 self. As mentioned previously, learners who score highly on this factor view themselves as being more socially aware and as having strong social skills. According to Higgins (1987) interpersonal relationships can reduce self-discrepancies. More so, they perceive themselves as someone who has the ability to influence other people and their emotions. As discussed previously, this factor is closely related to the personality trait of

extraversion, although the sociability factor has more predictive power over extraversion (Furnham & Petrides, 2003). In one study, Ghapanchi, Khajavy, and Asadpour (2011) found that extraversion was a significant predictor in Iranian EFL participants' ideal L2 self. Extroverts, much like people who score highly on the sociability factor, are more assertive and possess strong social skills. These individuals also have the ability to instill positive emotions in others. One hypothesis regarding the relationship between L2 learning and extraversion is that extroverts may be more successful in acquiring basic interpersonal communication skills due to their level of sociability (Ellis, 1994). Having a high degree of social influence and being able to form social relationships might prompt them to look for "more opportunities to practice, more input, and more success in communicating in the L2." (p. 520). Therefore, it can be said that learners who score highly on this factor get gratification outside of self, and because of this and the interpersonal interaction that takes place, their imagination might be initiated more so than someone who does not possess such traits. These senses and images play an important role in developing the ideal L2 self (Higgins, 1987).

Previous research has shown that not only is there an association between extraversion and positive affect, there is also an association between extraversion and greater willingness to communicate (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). Having high levels of social skills, assertiveness, and the ability to influence other people's feelings may all contribute to the willingness to seek out more opportunities to practice English and receive input. Thus, an important question to ask is what is the relation between L2 willingness to communicate (WTC) and an individuals' emotional aspects of personality, such as trait EI? WTC is an important aspect of SLA. Several studies have found correlations between it and EI, and some researchers argue that EI might be an underlying variable of WTC (Alaviniaa & Alikhani, 2014). Furthermore, managing other

people's emotions (e.g., by being considerate or comforting), is a facet of sociability, and studies have shown that effectively managing other people's emotions was a strong predictor of L2 WTC (Oz, 2015). Therefore, is it possible that only those who possess strong social skills, are assertive, and able to influence other people's emotions are able to obtain a strong ideal L2 self? This hypothesis needs to be further tested with ESL learners as there are both theoretical and pedagogical implications.

The importance of emotionality cannot be ignored as the only significant predictor of two possible selves: the ought-to and anti-ought-to L2 selves. Emotionality refers to aspects of empathy, emotion expression, emotion perception in self and others, and having fulfilling relationships (Petrides, 2001). This unexpected result is very interesting in that the anti-ought-to L2 self and the ought-to L2 self are quite different, yet similar in some sense. For example, in group differences analyses, the anti-ought-to L2 self shows to be rather similar to the ideal L2 self when using correlations to examine the relationship; however, in EFA analyses it patterns like the ought-to L2 self and items from both construct tend to create a single factor (e.g., Thompson & Liu, 2017; Thompson, in press). A person with a strong ought-to L2 self is very much influenced by the environmental or social expectations and pressures in a way that they succumb to the pressure of others. This possible self is a representation of someone else's duties/obligations, not our own. Similarly, a person with a strong anti-ought-to L2 self is also influenced by environmental or social pressures; however, this person does not succumb to the pressure of others. Rather, she/he reacts in the opposite manner, but nonetheless, they are motivated by an outside force. Although psychological reactance, which is the basic conceptualization of the anti-ought-to L2 self, has been labeled as a conscious response by some researchers, it is argued that this is not a conscious response and that a person may not have

much choice in their responses because psychological reactance is a personality trait (Middleton et al., 2015; Wellman & Geers, 2009). Research in psychology has oftentimes treated psychological reactance as a negative trait (Middleton et al., 2015). Only one study has examined psychological reactance and trait emotional intelligence, as far as the researcher is aware, and this study was conducted with undergraduate psychology students. The study, by Middleton et al. (2015), in examining psychological reactance and the different factors of trait EI also concluded that there is strong negative correlation between the emotionality factor of trait EI and psychological reactance (Middleton et al. 2015). Much like the present study, this correlation was significant.

What these two selves have in common is that both are also considered prevention-focused. While the ought-to L2 self focuses on preventing negative outcomes that could arise by not meeting obligations, the anti-ought-to L2 self focuses on preventing the loss of freedom. Researchers have stated that psychological reactance does have an emotional component (Dillard & Shen, 2005; Middleton et al., 2015). Unlike the ideal L2 self, both the ought-to and the anti-ought-to L2 selves are said to be learner-specific characteristics (Thompson & Liu, 2017). Additionally, unlike the ideal L2 self, learners with a strong ought-to and anti-ought-to L2 selves both react to external influences; however, they do so in different manner. Nonetheless, the motives behind the two selves are initiated by external forces in which environmental and social factors play an important role. For example, someone with a strong ought-to L2 self is greatly motivated by outside pressure. Similarly, someone with a strong anti-ought-to L2 self whose freedom is threatened is also in a way motivated by external forces or by the object which threatens the loss of freedom. With regard to the ought-to L2 self, not meeting the obligations will result in some sort of negative consequence for the learner; therefore, a person with a strong

ought-to L2 self will want to fulfill the obligations imposed on them in order to avoid the consequence. According to Higgins (1987) failure to satisfy any goals set by a person can lead to resentment, representing antipathy towards the impending consequence. So, as the actions are in a way influenced by the external factors, it can be said that learners are told that their behaviors are inadequate. Because of such inadequacy, these learners' behaviors could be contingent on their emotional states (Brown & McConnell, 2009). Lastly, in research on uniqueness on the possible selves, research has shown that while the ideal L2 self seems to be language specific, the ought-to and anti-ought-to L2 selves are not (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Thompson & Liu, 2017).

The review of literature has shown that emotions are important in the learner selves as there are many conflicts and discrepancies in the self-concept that can lead to different emotional states and leave people with emotional vulnerabilities. Since L2 self-discrepancies are the source of L2 motivation as they can lead to different emotional states, having empathy, effectively and accurately expressing one's emotions or emotional states, and being able to perceive emotions in self and others in difficult situations is extremely important during the language learning process (Higgins, 1987; McIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). Being more emphatic, meaning being aware and understanding other people's emotions, and having good conversation skills because one can understand other people's desires and perspectives, has an important role in language learning and might result in a better learning environment. Having a higher level of these emotionality aspects can contribute to students' attitudes and motivation, ultimately facilitating the language learning experience.

People who are not cognizant of their own emotions and cannot express themselves or choose to repress their emotions are not emotionally aware and have a lower level of EI

(Petrides, 2010, 2013). For example, someone who lacks empathy can have low self-worth and self-awareness, and might have trouble communicating and connecting with people. In that respect, someone with a low level of empathy might be easily influenced by others or be inclined to please people. It has been shown that people who are psychologically reactant are likely to have fewer positive emotions (Seemann, Buboltz, Thomas, Soper, & Wilkinson, 2005). More so, research on empathy and psychological reactance has shown that people who are high in psychological reactance are likely to lack or have less empathy (Dowd, Wallbrown, Sanders, & Yesenosky, 1994). Therefore, having empathy can alleviate a reactant response, indicating that the role of emotions and emotional intelligence in reactant responses is important to consider (Shen, 2010, 2011).

As mentioned previously, motives are attributed to others or an external force in both of these selves (Brehm, 1966; Markus & Nurius, 1986). Having a strong ought-to L2 self and anti-ought-to L2 self can be emotionally exhausting because such learners always find themselves responding to others, which might in turn impact their level of emotionality in a negative way. Even on a subconscious level learners are likely to take into account other people's standards, which can lead to negative emotions (Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997). Because language learning motivation is primarily driven by our ideal L2 self and what we would like to become, being motivated by external factors might cause one to deal with emotions in a different way than someone who is motivated more so internally (Teimouri, 2016). While engaging in emotion expression can bring forth changes in a person's attitude and willingness to share feelings, not doing so can have the opposite effect. Furthermore, perceiving oneself as someone who cannot express emotions or cannot perceive emotions might put that person in a vulnerable position

when learning a second language as this type of perception could cause a learner to experience more negative affect (Dewaele, 2010, 2011).

Emotions are said to be unstable and dynamic, especially during the L2 learning process, and because of that, they can be easily influenced by one's beliefs and even interactions with others (Tassinari, 2015). The correlation results of the present study with regard to this factor are supported by a study with EFL learners that found neuroticism, which is also labeled as one's emotional (in)stability, positively and significantly correlated to the ought-to L2 self (Ghapanchi, Khajavy, & Asadpour, 2011). This suggests that learners motivated by external pressures and obligations tend to experience negative emotions and are not as emotionally stable. Not only is there a positive relationship between the two, more importantly, multiple regression analysis showed that neuroticism positively and significantly predicted the ought-to L2 self. Therefore, experiencing negative emotions can lead to a more frequent expression of such emotions that in turn impacts one's relationships with others, and ultimately causing someone to be affected by external environmental factors.

Research Question 3

Finally, in response to RQ 3 "To what extent is there a relationship between the L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, and trait EI" the correlation analyses showed that: 1) the ideal L2 self and the anti-ought-to L2 self had significant positive correlations with the L2 learning experience, and 2) the global trait EI, including the factors of emotionality, sociability, and well-being had a significant positive relationship with the L2 learning experience. The L2 learning experience does not only occur within the classroom setting, but rather it can take place in other naturalistic settings as well. The L2 learning experience incorporates motives relevant to

the immediate learning environment. This aspect of the L2MSS has great overlap with attitudes to the learning situation, and such attitudes play an important role in shaping the learning experience (Dörnyei, 2009; Gardner, 1985).

The L2 learning experience showed significant impact on motivation in several research studies (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009). Much like the present study, other studies also suggest that having a stronger ideal L2 self indicates a more enjoyable L2 learning experience (Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini, & Ratcheva, 2016; Taguchi et al., 2009). In the study by Moskovsky et al., (2016) results showed a significant positive relationship between the two variables with adult learners; however, this research has been carried out in EFL contexts. Another study also carried with EFL participants showed similar results in the correlation analysis between the ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience (Ghapanchi, Khajavy, & Asadpour, 2011). These results suggest that students who have strong wishes and desires to become competent in the L2 also enjoy the learning experience. Furthermore, Thompson and Vásquez (2015) also found that having a strong and a well-developed ideal L2 self could enhance language learning. As mentioned in the literature review, most of the L2MSS-related research has focused on finding a connection between the possible selves and intended learning effort. Research has shown that the role of the ideal L2 self in intended effort to study English is mediated by attitudes toward the immediate learning experience (Papi, 2010).

The results of the present study also highlight that the anti-ought-to L2 self had a strong positive relationship with the L2 learning experience, while the ought-to L2 self did not. This result is also very interesting in that it differs from the results in RQ 2 in which the ought-to L2 self and the anti-ought-to L2 self acted in similar ways. Although no current studies exist that focus on investigating the direct correlation between the two variables as the anti-ought-to

construct is a fairly new construct in the SLA field, this result is significant and deserves further attention. In the original case study that introduced the anti-ought-to L2 self as an additional dimension of L2 motivation, Thompson and Vásquez (2015) did find that participants' psychological reactance, or the anti-ought-to L2 self, is connected to the learning environment, which among other aspects also includes the teachers.

Someone with a strong anti-ought-to L2 self is motivated to learn English because it is a challenge or because it goes against external expectations. Thus, it can be stated that someone who is more motivated by the anti-ought-to L2 self due to the challenges of learning English also might hold more positive attitudes toward the L2 learning experience than someone who is being pressured or obliged. Additionally, these types of learners most likely do not care about what other people think of them (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002) and do not have a “fear of negative evaluation... or apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (Horowitz, Horowitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128). So this carefree attitude might allow them to enjoy their learning experience more so than someone who had a strong ought-to L2 self and was concerned with pleasing people or succumbing to pressure.

The present study also showed that a significant positive relationship exists between the L2 learning experience and the global trait EI, which is a set of dispositional traits and deals with a person's perspective of own emotions. Furthermore, three broader factors of the global trait EI had significant correlations with the L2 learning experience. Much like the present study, a few studies have confirmed that an English language learner with a higher or a well-developed EI will hold a more positive attitude and have a positive view of language learning, which will in turn lead to a more successful language learning outcome (e.g., Zarezadeh, 2013). A study by

Oz, Demirezena, and Pourfeizb (2015) also supports the results of the present study. Their study investigated the relationship between perceptions of emotional intelligence and learners' attitudes toward foreign language learning (FLL), and they also concluded that EI plays an underlying role in EFL learners' attitudes toward language learning, and that using emotions was the strongest predictor of affective/evaluative components of attitudes toward FLL. The participants who were more optimistic about the challenges they faced would just as likely view their L2 learning experience in a positive way. Other research also supports the significance of the sociability factor in language learning experience. A study with EFL participants found that there was a positive and significant relationship between L2 learning experience and the extraversion aspect of personality, suggesting that students who enjoy leaning English are more sociable (Ghapanchi, Khajavy, & Asadpour; 2011). Extraversion, a dimension of personality, is a trait of those who have a high level of social engagement. Although research on sociability and trait EI is still ongoing, a study that used children as participants found that those with a high or developed trait EI score were rated as more sociable by their peers (Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham, & Frederickson, 2006).

Trait EI and its relationship to L2 learning environment deserve more attention from researchers. People who have a more developed trait EI perceive themselves to be "in touch" with their emotions and also perceive themselves as being able to regulate their own emotions in a way that promotes well-being (Furnham & Petrides, 2003). Because emotions are so important in language learning, being able to recognize, express, and control different emotions can aid in the learning process. As Imai (2010) states, emotions mediate development, especially in situations where learning is based on interpersonal matter, as is the case in second language learning. The importance of trait EI in language learning experience should be further

investigated as increasing our understanding and awareness of it could increase the quality of language learning education.

There are a number of implications for future L2 motivation and positive psychology research. However, prior to discussing these, the researcher will first address the methodological limitation, as there are several in this study.

Limitations of the study

There are a number of limitations in the present study, depending on research design and methods, investigated variables, sample of participants, and data analyses. The first limitation is the limited generalizability of the survey results to the population from the two English Language Programs from which the data were collected. The results are limited to the specific sample of 143 participants which may not be entirely representative of the population, and therefore should not be generalized until similar studies are conducted in different contexts and sufficient empirical evidence is collected. Another limitation with regard to the methodology has to do with the lack of information about the number of participants from each program. Specifically, the researcher did not discriminate between the participants in two programs, and therefore, providing the breakdown of participants according to each program was not possible. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the two ELPs differ in several ways, and one major distinction is the language learning background of the two student populations. Knowing how many participants come from which program could have contributed differently to the interpretation of the study's findings. With regard to the sample size, it is possible that the results would have been altered if the number of participants was higher. Additionally, the majority of participants in the present study were Chinese and Middle Eastern - more participants from the

other nationalities could have contributed differently to the interpretations of the findings. Since the students were advanced speakers of English at a university and college, it is important not to generalize the results to different levels of education and English proficiency. Another limitation has to do with the truthfulness and accuracy of the participants' survey responses and using self-reports to measure trait EI. Participants in the present study may not have provided truthful responses to the TEIQue SF, rather socially desirable ones. Additionally, because these are self-reports, participants may not actually know or be aware of their emotion-related abilities. With that respect, the current study did not aim to investigate cognitive abilities regarding emotions. As such, including cognitive abilities regarding emotions would yield different results. The last set of limitations concerns the study design. Using a mixed methods design could have provided more reliable data interpretations. Although a variety of statistical analyses were employed, such as EFA and standard multiple regression, a potential limitation would be the exclusion of certain other statistical tests. With regard to the multiple regression analysis, the researcher did not control for any variables such as gender or age. The present study also uses established questionnaires, which may fail to include several aspects specific to the study's sample population. Finally, an important limitation concerns the TEIQue SF items, in general. The TEIQue is not language specific, and the questions do not ask participants as to how the facets specifically relate to learning English. For example, the questions regarding emotion expression did not focus on expressing emotions in any one language. Research on expressing emotions in different languages does exist and was briefly touched upon in the literature review; however, that is outside of the scope of the present study as it specifically examines these aspects as part of one's personality traits.

Implications of the study

The findings of this study offer a number of implications for language teaching and learning, as well as for future research in the SLA field. The most important contribution of this study is that there is a relationship between L2 motivation and emotion-related aspects of personality. Not only is there a significant relationship between the possible selves and trait EI, more importantly, there is a significant relationship between the L2 learning experience and trait EI. The importance of these results in teaching and learning a second language should not be disregarded, and therefore, educating ESL/EFL teachers on aspects of positive psychology would be beneficial. More so, English Language Programs and educators should recognize the importance of affective factors and emotions in language learning. Being aware of the emotional functioning of students could be an important next step in the language classroom, and therefore, educators should consider the role of trait EI in ELLs and language learning engagement or satisfaction. In that vein, it might be beneficial to focus on ways of enhancing ELLs awareness of their own traits of emotion-related aspects of their personality in order to help them fulfill their potential for a more enjoyable language learning experience. One way to do so is to ask learners to reflect on their emotional experience during their language learning process.

Another important finding of this study is the importance of the sociability factor as the only significant predictor of the ideal L2 self. The question remains as to how can we enhance and use aspects of sociability, such as assertiveness and good social skills, to prime learners' ideal L2 self? Although it is argued that trait characteristics are mostly stable, there is room for change and growth, and some level of adaptability (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). The implication is for educators and researchers alike to further investigate and implement strategies to promote aspects of sociability in an effective way among ELLs who are not good communicators or do

not possess strong social skills or have good social awareness. This would also mean that educators should be able to identify who and who does not possess strong social skills, and who is and is not assertive, for example. Providing ample opportunities to ESL students to socialize during their language learning experience is equally important as this might allow learners to develop such social skills and improve how well they respond and understand to the needs of others. Furthermore, interacting with others might increase their assertiveness.

Lastly, as this study has shown that the broader factor of emotionality is the only significant predictor of both the ought-to and anti-ought-to L2 selves, there are some implications to consider of this inverse relationship. Firstly, researchers should further explore the relationship between the two selves. Although these two selves share some similarities, in theory they are quite different. If SLA researchers focusing on the possible selves are able to better understand how learners respond in certain situations, it will allow us to see how educators can intervene and develop strategies to diminish negative effects as a result of better understanding their students' motivational profiles.

This leads me to discuss the pedagogical implications of this significant result. The results of any future research on this topic will benefit the educators as being aware and having an understating of how their students react can provide opportunity to increase the learners' language learning experience. Devising strategies to address the negative emotions and cultivate and facilitate positive ones would be one such way to address this. Furthermore, understanding learners' level of trait EI is important in language learning because much of it depends on interpersonal skills. Therefore, in communications that take place between instructors and students, fostering empathy, for example, is quite important.

Empathy is a personality trait that has been vigorously studied in the field of SLA and is the central component of most emotional intelligence conceptions (Petrides, 2003). It refers to the ability “to tune into how someone else is feeling, or what they might be thinking” (Baron-Cohen & Wheelwright, 2004, p. 193). One major benefit of this trait is that it allows us “to understand the intentions of others, predict their behaviour, and experience an emotion triggered by their emotion” (Baron-Cohen & Wheelwright, 2004, p. 193). ESL/EFL teachers can work with learners in the language classroom to increase empathy as it seems this aspect is tied to emotion expression and perception, ultimately morphing into the learner’s overall level of emotionality. Guiora et al. (1975) state that “to speak a second language authentically is to take on a new identity... to step into a new and perhaps unfamiliar pair of shoes” (p. 48). Therefore, considering empathy in second language teaching and learning is quite important as it can have significant effects by creating a positive classroom environment especially in a diverse classrooms such as ESL where students from different cultural background can learn to understand each other. There are many approaches teachers can take to incorporate empathy in their lesson plans. Some examples include using reading materials that evoke empathy, or teaching vocabulary words that are related to feelings and emotions so learners can use them to interact with others. Raising awareness about own levels of empathy is just as important, and finally, one of the most important roles of teaching and increasing empathy is modeling it in the language classroom. Therefore, success in the language learning classroom could be accomplished by establishing effective communication based on aspects of trait emotional intelligence.

Another way to stimulate positive emotions and emotional expression is to lessen the environmental pressures on the language learners. This can be done by focusing more on the

learner and the learner's needs and not just on the skills that ought to be acquired during SLA; so in addition to considering the cognitive aspects of language learning, educators need to take into account the affective factors. As Scovel (2001) states "emotion is the single most influential, although, of course, it is shaped and sharpened by many other factors" (p.125).

Recommendations for Future Research

This final section of the dissertation provides the conclusion, which entails recommendations for future research based on the findings in the current study. The present study investigates the L2 motivation construct and the emotional intelligence construct. Although the study sheds light on the significant relationship between the two constructs, there is still a need to further investigate certain aspects of the study's findings. While significant results were found between the four factors of trait EI and the three selves, there is still variance to be explained for in each of the selves, as indicated by the results of the standard multiple regression. There still remains 84.4% of unexplained variance for the ideal L2 self, 84.5% for the ought-to L2 self, and 92.7% for the anti-ought-to L2 self. There are potentially other variables that mediate the relationship between the possible selves and trait EI, and future research should strive to identify those variables.

Another interesting point of research would be to compare group differences among two biggest represented nationalities in the current study: Arabic and Chinese. Because these students come from different cultures, the research might yield some interesting results regarding their trait EI as previous research has already shown that some cross-cultural differences exist (Gökçen et al., 2014). Additionally, one might like to compare results between students from

different majors because students pursuing different fields of study might exhibit certain personality traits that are not prominent in students of other majors.

One of the most important recommendations is to continue researching the role of sociability and its facets, and more importantly, extraversion in learners' ideal L2 self as it was found to be the only significant predictor of the ideal L2 self. Researchers aiming to further investigate this line of inquiry would also need to closer examine the relationship between the sociability factor and extraversion. One approach might be to examine this personality characteristic among successful students at different levels of education or stages of English language learning. It has been stated by Ellis (2008) that "the research that has investigated personality variables and L2 learning is quite scanty and, in many ways, unsatisfactory" (p. 672). This is primarily because there are other variables that mediate the relationship between personality factors and L2 learning and this includes motivation (Dörnyei, 2005). Within this scope, future studies should also examine the relationship between WTC and emotional intelligence. Additionally, further examining ESL learners' emotionality facets including empathy, emotion perception and expression, would surely provide some interesting results with regard to L2 motivation. Although this study makes a great contribution to the existing affect research in the SLA field, it has barely touched the surface with regard to L2 motivation and emotions as the two exhibit a complex relationship and illustrate the complexity of affect in language learning. More so, future research should attempt to focus on investigating aspects of emotions and trait EI in a holistic and naturalistic language learning settings. Within this scope, researchers could also address gender differences as some studies show that they do exist with respect to both motivation and trait EI (Arteche, Chamorro-Premuzic, Furnham, & Crump, 2008;

Petrides & Furnham, 2000). Lastly, literature on trait EI could be expanded as future studies take a qualitative or mixed-methods approach.

Concluding Remarks

This study has exemplified that the research into learners' motivation and emotions is important to the field of SLA and applied linguistics. Firstly, this study contributes to the current limited literature on validating the L2MSS in the ESL context with university students. The present study confirms that the L2MSS can be used not only with EFL learners, but also on a more global context with U.S. ESL learners. Improving the learning experience for ESL students can be guided by our understanding of how emotions impact their motivation in the language learning process. Thus, this study enhances our understanding of how emotional self-efficacy contributes to learners' possible selves. Because English is a lingua franca, English language learning will continue to be an important aspect in many people's lives, and therefore, the research into L2 English learners should continue to receive attention in our field. Finally, being aware of the importance that trait EI plays in language learning and being aware of a learners' trait EI and how it impacts L2 motivation could lead to better educational outcomes allowing us to improve language teaching and learning.

REFERENCES

- Abdolrezapour, P., & Tavakoli, M. (2012). The relationship between emotional intelligence and EFL learners' achievement in reading comprehension. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(1), 1-13. doi: 10.1080/17501229.2010.550686
- Alavinia, P., & Agha Alikhani, M. (2014). Willingness to communicate reappraised in the light of emotional intelligence and gender differences. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98(6), 143–152. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.400
- Al-Shehri, A. S. (2009). Motivation and vision: The relation between the ideal L2 self, imagination and visual style. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 164-171). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Aragao, R. (2011). Beliefs and emotions in foreign language learning. *System*, 39(3), 302-313. doi:10.1016/j.system.2011.07.003
- Arnold, J., & Brown, H. D. (1999). A map of the terrain. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 1-21). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Arteche, A., Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Furnham, A., & Crump, J. (2008). The relationship of trait EI with personality, IQ and sex in a UK sample of employees. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 16(4), 421-426. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2389.2008.00446.x
- Averill, J. R. (1982). *Anger and aggression: An essay on emotion*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Baker, T. L. (1994). *Doing social research* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Bar-On, R. (1997a). *The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): A test of emotional intelligence*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems, Inc.

- Barcelos, A. M. F. (2003). Researching beliefs about SLA: A critical review. In P. Kalaja, & A. M. F. Barcelos, (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* (pp. 7-33). Dordrecht, NL: Springer.
- Barcelos, A. M. F. (2015). Unveiling the relationship between language learning beliefs, emotions and identities. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 2, 301-325.
- Baron-Cohen, S., & Wheelwright, S. (2004). The empathy quotient: an investigation of adults with Asperger syndrome or high functioning autism, and normal sex differences. *Journal of autism and developmental disorders*, 34(2), 163-175. doi: 10.1023/B:JADD.0000022607.19833.00
- Benesch, S. (2012). *Considering emotions in critical English language teaching: Theories and praxis*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Boyatzis, R. E., & Sala, F. (2004). Assessing emotional intelligence competencies. In G. Geher, (Ed.), *The measurement of emotional intelligence* (pp.147-180). Novas Science Publishers, Hauppauge, NY.
- Bradberry, T., & Greaves, J. (2009). *Emotional Intelligence 2.0*. TalentSmart.
- Brannick, M. T., Wahi, M. M., Arce, M., Johnson, H. A., Nazian, S., & Goldin, S. B. (2009). Comparison of trait and ability measures of emotional intelligence in medical students. *Medical education*, 43(11), 1062-1068. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2923.2009.03430.x
- Brehm, J. W. (1966). *A theory of psychological reactance*. New York: Academic Press
- Brown, C. M., & McConnell, A. R. (2009). Effort or escape: Self-concept structure determines self-regulatory behavior. *Self and Identity*, 8(4), 365– 377. doi: [10.1080/15298860802377818](https://doi.org/10.1080/15298860802377818)
- Brown, J., & White, C. (2010). A social and cognitive approach to affect in SLA. *IRAL*, 48(4),

331-353. doi: [10.1515/iral.2010.014](https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2010.014)

- Buboltz, W. C., Johnson, P., & Woller, K. M. P. (2003). Psychological reactance in college students: Family-of-origin predictors. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 311–317. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6678.2003.tb00258>
- Busse, V. (2013). An exploration of motivation and self-beliefs of first year students of German. *System*, 41(2), 2095-2104. doi: [10.1016/j.system.2013.03.007](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.03.007)
- Cantor, N. (1990). From thought to behavior: "Having" and "doing" in the study of personality and cognition. *American psychologist*, 45(6), 735.
- Carver, C. C., Reynolds, S. L., & Scheier, M. F. (1994). The possible selves of optimists and pessimists. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 28(2), 133-141. doi: [10.1006/jrpe.1994.1011](https://doi.org/10.1006/jrpe.1994.1011)
- Chen, S. X., & Bond, M. H. (2010). Two languages, two personalities? Examining language effects on the expression of personality in a bilingual context. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 36(11), 1514–1528. Doi: [10.1177/0146167210385360](https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167210385360).
- Ciarrochi, J., & Mayer, J. D. (2007). The key ingredients of emotional intelligence interventions: Similarities and differences. *Applying emotional intelligence: A practitioner's guide*, 144-156.
- Clement, R., & Gardner, R. (2001). Second language mastery. In W. P. Robinson & H. Giles (Eds.), *The new handbook of language and social psychology* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Cole, D. A., Maxwell S. E., Arvey, R. & Salas, E. (1994). How the power of MANOVA can both increase and decrease as a function of intercorrelations among the dependent variables. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115(3), 465-474. doi: [10.1037/0033-2909.115.3.465](https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.115.3.465)

- Cooper, A. & Petrides, K. V. (2010). A psychometric analysis of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form (TEIQue-SF) using Item Response Theory. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 92(5), 449-457. doi: 10.1080/00223891.2010.497426
- Corr, P. J. (2008, ed). *The Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory of Personality*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Costello, A. & Osborne, J. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: Four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 10(7), 1-9.
- Crooks, G., Schmidt, R.W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41(4), 469-512. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00690.x
- Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, 55(4), 613-659. doi: 10.1111/j.0023-8333.2005.00319.x
- Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *Modern Language Journal*, 89(1), 19-36. doi: 10.1111/j.0026-7902.2005.00263.x
- Csizér, K., & Kormos, J. (2009). Learning experiences, selves and motivated learning behavior: 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, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Csizér, K., & Lukács, G. (2010). The comparative analysis of motivation, attitudes and selves: The case of English and German in Hungary. *System*, 38(1), 1-13.

doi: 10.1016/j.system.2009.12.001

Csizér, K., & Magid, M. (Eds.). (2014). *The impact of self-concept on language*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

De Bot, K., Lowie, W., & Verspoor, M. (2007). A dynamic systems theory to second language acquisition. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 10(1), 7-21. doi: 10.1017/S1366728906002732

Dewaele, J.-M. (2004). Blistering barnacles! What language do multilinguals swear in? *Estudios de Sociolingüística*, 5(1), 83-106.

Dewaele, J.-M. (2008). The emotional weight of 'I love you' in multilinguals' languages. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 40(10), 1753–1780. doi: [10.1016/j.pragma.2008.03.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.03.002)

Dewaele, J.-M. (2010). *Emotions in multiple languages*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Dewaele, J. M. (2011). Reflections on the emotional and psychological aspects of foreign language learning and use. *Anglistik: International Journal of English Studies*, 22(1), 23-42.

Dewaele, J. M., & MacIntyre, P. (2014). The two faces of Janys? Anxiety and enjoyment in the foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(2), 237 – 274. doi: 10.14746/ssllt.2014.4.2.5

Dewaele, J.-M. & Stavans, A. (2012). The effect of immigration, acculturation and multicompetence on personality profiles of Israeli multilinguals. *The International Journal of Bilingualism*, 18(3), doi: 10.1177/1367006912439941

Dewaele, J.-M. & Pavlenko, A. (2001–2003) Web questionnaire *Bilingualism and emotions*. University of London. <http://www.bbk.ac.uk/llc/biling+emotions/questionnaire.html>

Dewaele, J.-M., & Pavlenko, A. (2002). Emotion vocabulary in interlanguage.

- Language Learning*, 52(2), 265–324. doi: 10.1111/0023-8333.00185
- Dewaele, J.-M., Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2008). The effects of trait emotional intelligence and sociobiographical variables on communicative anxiety and foreign language anxiety among adult multilinguals: A review and empirical investigation. *Language Learning*, 58(4), 911–960. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2008.00482.x
- Dewaele, J.-M., & van Oudenhoven, J. P. (2009). The effect of multilingualism/multiculturalism on personality: No gain without pain for third culture kids? *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 6(4), 443-459. doi: 10.1080/14790710903039906
- Dillard, J. P., & Shen, L. (2005). On the nature of reactance and its role in persuasive health communication. *Communication Monographs*, 72(2), 144–168. doi: [10.1080/03637750500111815](https://doi.org/10.1080/03637750500111815)
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Understanding L2 motivation: On with the challenge! *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(4), 515-523. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02071.x
- Dörnyei, Z. (2000). Motivation in action: Towards a process-oriented conceptualization of student motivation. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70(4), 519-538. doi: 10.1348/000709900158281
- Dörnyei, Z. (2002). The motivational basis of language learning tasks. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Individual differences in second language acquisition* (pp. 137-158). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). *The psychology of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2009a). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9–42). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge
- Dörnyei, Z. (2014). Researching complex dynamic systems: ‘Retrodictive qualitative modelling’ in the language classroom. *Language Teaching*, 47(1), 80-91. doi: 10.1017/S0261444811000516
- 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. doi: 10.1111/lang.12005
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2002). Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey. *Applied Linguistics* 23(4), 421-462. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/23.4.421>
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2012). How to design and analyze surveys in SLA research? In A. Mackey & S. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (pp. 74-94). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, language attitudes and globalization: A Hungarian perspective*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Kormos, J. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 275-300. doi: 1362–1688(00)LR071.OA
- Dörnyei, Z., & Kubanyiova, M. (2014). *Motivating learners, motivating teachers: Building vision in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P., & Henry, A. (Eds.). (2015). *Motivational dynamics in language learning*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Otto, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *In Working papers in applied linguistics* (Vol. 4, pp. 43-69). London: Thames Valley University.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, administration, and processing*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed). Harlow: Longman.
- Dowd, E. T., Milne, C. R., & Wise, S. L. (1991). The therapeutic reactance Scale: A measure of psychological reactance. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 69(6), 541–545. doi: 10.1002/j.1556-6676.1991.tb02638.x
- Ellis, N. C. (2013). Second language acquisition. In G. Trousdale and T. Hoffmann (Eds.), *Oxford Handbook of Construction Grammar* (pp. 365-378). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2008b). Individual differences in second language learning. In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.), *The handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 525-551). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

- Ellis, N. C., Larsen-Freeman, D. (2006). Language emergence: Implications for applied linguistics. Introduction to the special issue. *Applied Linguistics*, 27(4), 558-589. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/aml028>
- El-Alayli, A., & Messe, L. A. (2004). Reactions toward an unexpected or counternormative favor-giver: Does it matter if we think we can reciprocate? *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 40(5), 633–641. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2004.01.003
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, M. W. (1958). *Personality and individual differences*. Plenum Publishing.
- Fabrigar, L. R., & Weneger, D. T. (2012). *Exploratory factor analysis*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, 39(2), 175-191, doi: 10.3758/BF03193146
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (4th ed.) London: Sage.
- Flynn, S., & Foley, C. (2009). Research methodology in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *The new handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 29-43). Bingley, UK: Emerald.
- Forgas, J. P. (1992). Affect in social judgments and decisions: A multi-process model. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 227-275). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London, UK: Edward Arnold.

- Gardner, R.C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.) *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 1- 20). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.
- Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition: The socio-educational model*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Gardner, R. C. & Lambert, W. E. (1972). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. In R. C. Gardner & W. Lambert (Eds.) *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning* (pp. 119-216). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1978). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C. & MacIntyre, P. (1993). A learner's contributions to second language acquisition. Part II. Affective variables. *Language Teaching* 26(1). 1–11.
doi: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444800000045>
- Garret, P., & Young, R. (2009). Theorizing affect in foreign language learning: An analysis of one learner's responses to a communicative Portuguese course. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(2), 209-226. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00857.x
- Ghapanchi, Z., Khajavy, G. H., & Asadpour, S. F. (2011). L2 motivation and personality as predictors of the second language proficiency: Role of the big five traits and L2 motivational self system. *Canadian Social Science*, 7(6), 148–155.
doi:10.3968/j.css.1923669720110706.030
- Glaser, E. (2005). Plurilingualism in Europe: More than a means for communication. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 5(3-4), 195–208. doi: 10.1080/14708470508668895

- Gökçen, E., Furnham, A., Mavroveli, S., & Petrides, K. V. (2014). A cross-cultural investigation of trait emotional intelligence in Hong Kong and the UK. *Personality and Individual Differences, 65*, 30-35.
doi: <http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.lib.usf.edu/10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.053>
- Goldberg, L. R. (1981). Language and individual differences: The search for universals in personality lexicons. In L. Wheeler (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 141-165). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York., NY: Bantam.
- Goleman, D. (2001). Emotional intelligence: Issues in paradigm building. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 13–26). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Goleman, D. (2005). Introduction to the tenth anniversary edition. In *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam
- Gregerson, T., and Horwitz, E. K. (2002). Language learning and perfectionism: Anxious and non-anxious language learners' reactions to their own oral performance. *Modern Language Journal, 86*(4), 562-571. doi: 10.1111/1540-4781.00161
- Guilford, J. P. & Fruchter, B. (1978). *Fundamental statistics in psychology and education*. Singapore: McGraw-Hill Book Co.
- Guiora, A., Paluszny, M. Beit-Hallatimim, B., Catford, J., Cooley, R., & Yoder Dull, C. (1975). Language and person studies in language behavior. *Language Learning, 2*, 43-61
- Henry, A. (2009). Gender differences in compulsory school pupils' L2 self-concepts: A longitudinal study. *System, 37*(2), 177–193. doi:10.1016/j.system.2008.11.003

- Henry, A. (2010). Contexts of possibility in simultaneous language learning: Using the L2 Motivational Self System to assess the impact of global English. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 31(2), 149-162. doi: 10.1080/01434630903471439
- Henry, A. (2011). Examining the impact of L2 English on L3 selves: A case study. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 8(3), 235–255. doi: 10.1080/14790718.2011.554983
- Henry, A. (2013). The motivational effects of cross-linguistic awareness: Developing third language pedagogies to address the negative impact of the L2 on the L3 self-concept. *Innovations in Language Learning and Teaching*, 8(1), 1-19.
doi:10.1080/17501229.2012.733008
- Henry, A. (2015). The dynamics of possible selves. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 114-128). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Henry, A., & Cliffordson, C. (2013). Motivation, gender, and possible selves. *Language Learning*, 63(2), 271–295. doi: 10.1111/lang.12009
- Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 94(3), 319–340. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.94.3.319>
- Higgins, E. T., Shah, J., & Friedman, R. (1997). Emotional responses to goal attainment: strength of regulatory focus as moderator. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 72(3), 515. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.72.3.515>
- Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is “enough” in internet survey research? *Interpersonal Computing and Technology: An Electronic Journal for the 21st Century*, 6(3-4), 1-10.

- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M.B. & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05256.x
- Huensch, A., & Thompson, A. (2016, April). *Don't tell me what to do! Language learning motivation and attitudes about pronunciation in the North American context*. Paper presented at AAAL Conference, Orlando, FL.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride, & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Imai, Y. (2010). Emotions in SLA: New insight from collaborative learning for an EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(2), 278-292. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01021.x
- Isaac, S., & Michael, W. B. (1995). *Handbook in research and evaluation*. San Diego, CA: Educational and Industrial Testing Services.
- Islam, M., Lamb, M., & Chambers, G. N. (2013). The L2 motivational self system and national interest: A Pakistani perspective. *System*, 41(2), 231-244. doi: [10.1016/j.system.2013.01.025](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.01.025)
- Izard, C. E. (1991). *The psychology of emotions*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (2nd ed., pp. 102-138). New York: Guilford Press.
- Johnson, K. E., & Worden, D. (2014). Cognitive/emotional dissonance as growth points in learning to teach. *Language and Sociocultural Theory*, 2(1), 125-150. doi: 10.1558/lst.v1i2.125
- Kaiser, H. F. (1960). The application of electronic computers to factor analysis. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 20(1), 141-151.

- Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39, 31-36.
- Kassin, S. (2003). *Psychology*. USA: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Keith, T. Z. (2015). *Multiple regression and beyond: An introduction to multiple regression and structural equation modeling*. New York: Routledge.
- Keller, J. M. (1983). Motivational design of instruction. In C. M. Reigeluth (Ed.), *Instructional Design Theories and Models: An overview of their current status* (pp. 383-434). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Erlbaum.
- Keltner, D., & Ekman, P. (2000). Emotion: An overview. In A. E. Kazdin (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of psychology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press/American Psychological Association.
- Kim, T.-Y. (2009a). 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. (2009b). The sociocultural interface between ideal L2 self and ought-to self: A case study of two Korean students' ESL motivation. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 274–294). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Kim, Y. K., & Kim, T. Y. (2012). Korean secondary school students' L2 learning motivation: Comparing L2 motivation self system with socio-educational model. *English Language and Literature Teaching*, 18(1), 1-19. doi: <http://works.bepress.com/taeyoungkim/27/>
- King, L. A. (2001). The health benefits of writing about life goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(7), 798–807.
- Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2008). Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: Attitudes, selves and motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, 58(2), 327-355. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2008.00443.x

- Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2014). The interaction of motivation, self-regulatory strategies, and autonomous learning behavior in different learner groups. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(2), 275– 299. doi: 10.1002/tesq.129
- Lamb, M. (2004). ‘It depends on the students themselves’: Independent language learning at an Indonesian State School. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 17(3), 229-245. doi: [10.1080/07908310408666695](https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310408666695)
- Lamb, M. (2007). The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(4), 757-780. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00102.x
- Lamb, M. (2009). Situating the L2 self: Two Indonesian school learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 229– 247). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Lamb, M. (2012). A self system perspective on young adolescents’ motivation to learn English in urban and rural settings. *Language Learning*, 62(4), 997–1023. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00719.x
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2008). *Complex systems and applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Loewen, S., & Gonulal, T. (2015). Exploratory factor analysis and principal components analysis. In L. Plonsky (Ed.), *Advancing Quantitative Methods in Second Language Research* (pp. 182-212). New York: Routledge
- MacIntyre, P. D. (2002). Motivation, anxiety and emotion in second language acquisition. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Individual differences and instructed language learning* (pp. 45-65).

Amsterdam, NL: John Benjamins.

- McIntyre, P. D., & Gregersen, T. (2012). Emotions that facilitate language learning: The positive-broadening power of the imagination. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 2(2), 193-213.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Legatto, J. J. (2011). A dynamic system approach to willingness to communicate: Developing an idiodynamic method to capture rapidly changing affect. *Applied Linguistics*, 32(2), 149-171. doi: 10.1093/applin/amq037
- MacIntyre P. D., MacKinnon, S. P., & Clément, R. (2009). The baby, the bathwater, and the future of language learning motivation research. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 43-65). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Maehr, M. L. (2001). Goal Theory is not dead - not yet anyway: A reflection on the special issue. *Educational Psychology Review*, 13(2), 177-185. doi:10.1023/A:1009065404123
- Magid, M., & Chan, L. (2012). Motivating English learners by helping them visualise their ideal L2 self: Lessons from two motivational programmes. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(2), 113–125. doi: 10.1080/17501229.2011.614693
- Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist*, 41(9), 954-969. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.41.9.954>
- Marsden, E., Mackey A., & Plonsky, L. (2016). The IRIS Repository: Advancing research practice and methodology. In A. Mackey & E. Marsden (Eds.), *Advancing methodology and practice: The IRIS Repository of Instruments for Research into Second Languages* (pp. 1-21). New York: Routledge.

- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (Eds.) (2007). *The science of emotional intelligence: Knowns ad unknowns*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications* (pp. 3-34). New York: Harper Collins.
- McEown, M. S., Noels, K. A., & Chaffee, K. E. (2014). At the interface of the socio-educational model, self-determination theory and the L2 motivational self system models. In K. Csizér & M. Magid (Eds.), *Impact of Self-Concept on Language Learning* (pp. 19-50). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Medved Krajnović, M., & Juraga, I. (2008). The influence of foreign language learning on personality. *Studia Romanica et Anglica Zagradiensia*, 53, 349–372.
- Mental Health Foundation (2015, July 20). *What is wellbeing, how can we measure it and how can we support people to improve it?* Retrieved from <https://www.mentalhealth.org.uk/blog/what-wellbeing-how-can-we-measure-it-and-how-can-we-support-people-improve-it>
- Mercer, N. (2005). Sociocultural discourse analysis: Analysing classroom talk as a social mode of thinking. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 137-168.
- Mercer, S. (2006). Using journals to investigate the learners' emotional experience of the language classroom. *ELIA*, 6, 63–91. doi: <http://hdl.handle.net/11441/34131>
- Mercer, S. (2009). The dynamic nature of a tertiary learner's foreign language self-concepts. In M. Pawlak (Ed.), *New Perspectives on Individual Differences in Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 205–220). Poznan-Kalisz: Adam Mickiewicz University Press.

- Mercer, S. (2015). Dynamics of the self: A multilevel nested systems approach. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 139-163). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Middleton, J., Buboltz, W., & Sopon, B. (2015). The relationship between psychological reactance and emotional intelligence. *The Social Science Journal*, 52(4), 542-549. doi: <http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.lib.usf.edu/10.1016/j.soscij.2015.08.002>
- Moskovsky, C., Arabai, F., Paolini, S., & Ratcheva, S. (2013). The effects of teachers' motivational strategies on learners' motivation: A controlled investigation of second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 63(1), 34-62. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00717.x
- Nitta, R., & Baba, K. (2015). Self-regulation in the evolution of the ideal L2 self: A complex dynamic systems approach to the L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 367-396). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Norton, B. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly* 29(1), 9-31. doi: 10.2307/3587803
- O'Connor, R. M., & Little, I. S. (2003). Revisiting the predictive validity of emotional intelligence: Self-report versus ability-based measures. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35(8), 1893–1902. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00038-2
- Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition*. London: Hodder Arnold. [distributed in the United States by Oxford University Press; Understanding Language Series, Bernard Comrie & Greville Corbett, Series Editors; ISBN-13: 978-0340905593].
- Ortega, L. (2014). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Routledge.

- Oxford, R. L. (1999). Anxiety and the language learner: New insights. In J. Arnold & H. D. Brown (Eds.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 58-67). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Oyserman, D., & James, L. (2009). Possible selves: From content to process. In K. Markman, W. M. P. Klein, & J. A. Suhr (Eds.), *The handbook of imagination and mental stimulation* (pp. 373–394). NY: Psychology Press.
- Oz, H. (2015). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of L2 communication. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 186, 424 – 430
- Oz, H., Demirezen, M., & Pourfeiz, J. (2015). Emotional intelligence and attitudes towards foreign language learning: Pursuit of relevance and implications. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 186, 416-423. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.118
- Ożańska-Ponikwia, K. (2012). What has personality and emotional intelligence to do with ‘feeling different’ while using a foreign language? *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(2), 217-234. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2011.616185
- Papi, M. (2010). The L2 motivational self system, L2 anxiety, and motivated behavior: A structural equation modelling approach. *System*, 38(3), 467–479. doi: [10.1016/j.system.2010.06.011](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2010.06.011)
- Parkinson, B. (1995). *Ideas and realities of emotions*. London: Routledge.
- Pavlenko, A. (2002). Emotions and the body in Russian and English. *Pragmatics and Cognition*, 10(1–2), 201–236. doi: 10.1075/pc.10.12.10pav
- Pavlenko, A. (2002a). Bilingualism and emotions. *Multilingua*, 21, 45–78.
- Pavlenko, A. (2004) ‘Stop doing that, la Komu Skazala!’: Language choice and emotion

- in parent-child communication. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 25(2–3), 179–203. doi: 10.1080/01434630408666528
- Pavlenko, A. (2005). *Emotions and Multilingualism*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Pavlenko, A. (2006). *Bilingual minds: Emotional experience, expression, and representation*. New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Pavlenko, A. (2008). Emotion and emotion-laden words in the bilingual lexicon. *Bilingualism Language and Cognition*, 11(2), 147–164. doi: [10.1017/S1366728908003283](https://doi.org/10.1017/S1366728908003283)
- Pavlenko, A. (2013). The affective turn in SLA: From ‘affective factors’ to ‘language desire’ and ‘commodification of affect’. In D. Gabryś-Barker & J. Bielska (Eds.), *The affective dimension in second language acquisition* (pp. 3-28). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Pavlenko, A., & Dewaele, J. M. (Eds.). (2004). Multilingualism and emotions. Special issue of *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 25(1).
- Pérez, J. C., Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2005). Measuring trait emotional intelligence. In R. Schulze & R. D. Roberts (Eds.), *Emotional intelligence: An international handbook*, (181-201). Ashland, OH: Hogrefe & Huber Publisher.
- Pervin, L. A., & John, O. P (2001). *Personality: Theory and research*. New York: Wiley.
- Peterson, C. J. (2006). Strengths of character and happiness: Introduction to special issue. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 7(3), 289-291. doi:10.1007/s10902-005-3645-9
- Peters, M. L., Flink, I. K., Boersma, K., & Linton, S. J. (2010). Manipulating optimism: Can imagining a best possible self be used to increase positive future expectancies? *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 5(3), 204-211. doi: 10.1080/17439761003790963

- Petrides, K. V. (2010). Trait emotional intelligence theory. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 3(2), 136-139. doi: 10.1111/j.1754-9434.2010.01213.x
- Petrides, K. V. (2013). Ability and trait emotional intelligence. In T. Chamorro-Premuzic, S. Von Stumm, & A. Furnham (Eds.), *The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of individual differences* (pp. 656-678). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
doi: 10.1002/9781444343120
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29(2), 313-320.
doi:10.1016/S0191-8869(99)00195-6
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2001). Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. *European Journal of Personality*, 15(6), 425-448. doi: 10.1002/per.416
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2006). The role of trait emotional intelligence in a gender-specific model of organizational variables. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36(2), 552-569. doi: 10.1111/j.0021-9029.2006.00019.x
- Petrides, K. V., Frederickson, N., & Furnham, A. (2004). The role of trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behavior at school. *Personality and Individual Difference*, 36(2), 277-293. doi:10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00084-9
- Petrides, K. V., Furnham, A., & Mavroveli, S. (2007). Trait emotional intelligence: Moving forward in the field of EI. In G. Matthews, M. Zeidner, and R. D. Roberts (Eds.) *The Science of Emotional Intelligence: Knowns and Unknowns* (pp. 151-166). doi: 10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195181890.003.0006
- Phillipson, R. (2008). Lingua Franca or Lingua Frankenstrait EInia? English in European

- integration and globalisation. *World Englishes*, 27(2), 250-267. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-971X.2008.00555.x
- Piniel, K., & Csizér, K. (2015). Changes in motivation, anxiety and self-efficacy during the course of an academic writing seminar. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 164-194). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Pishghadam, R. (2009). A quantitative analysis of the relationship between emotional intelligence and foreign language learning. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(1), 31-41.
- Ramírez-Esparza, N., Gosling, S. D., Benet-Martínez, V., Potter, J. P., & Pennebaker, J. W. (2006). Do bilinguals have two personalities? A special case of cultural frame switching. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 40(2), 99–120. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2004.09.001>.
- Revelle, W., & Scherer, K. R. (2009). Personality and emotion. *Oxford companion to emotion and the affective sciences*, 304-306.
- Ross, A. S. (2015). From motivation to emotion: A new chapter in applied linguistics research. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, 10.
- Rosaldo, M. (1984). Toward an anthropology of self and feeling. In R. Shweder & R. LeVine (Eds.), *Culture theory: Essays on mind, self, and emotion* (pp.137-157). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ruvolo, A. P., & Markus, H. R. (1992). Possible selves and performance: The power of self-relevant imagery. *Social cognition*, 10(1), 95-124. doi: 10.1521/soco.1992.10.1.95

- Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: the ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Dörnyei, Z., Ushioda, E. (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 120-143). Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 9(3), 185-211.
- Sanchez-Ruiz, M. J., Mavroveli, S., & Poullis, J. (2013). Trait emotional intelligence and its links to university performance: An examination. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 54(5), 658–662. doi: [10.1016/j.paid.2012.11.013](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2012.11.013)
- Sapir, E. (1921). *Language: An introduction to the study of speech*, New York: Harcourt, Brace.
- Schumann, J. (1986). Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition. *Journal of multilingual & multicultural development*, 7(5), 379-392. Doi: 10.1080/01434632.1986.9994254
- Schumann, J. (1997). *The neurobiology of affect in language*, Oxford: Blackwell.
- Schumann, J. (2004). The neurobiology of aptitude. In Schumann, J., Crowell, S. E., Jones, N. E., Lee, N., Schuchert, A., & Wood, L. A. (Eds.), *The Neurobiology of Learning Perspectives from Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 7-21). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language Learning*, 28(1), 129-142. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1978.tb00309.x
- Scovel, T. (2001). *Learning new languages: A guide to second language acquisition*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

- Seemann, E. A., Buboltz, W. C., Thomas, A., Soper, B., & Wilkinson, L. (2005). Normal personality variables and their relationship to psychological reactance. *Individual Differences Research*, 3(2).
- Shao, K., Ji, Z., & Yu, W. (2013). An exploration of Chinese EFL students' emotional intelligence and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(4), 917-929. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.12042.x
- Shao, K., Yu, W., & Ji, Z. (2013). The relationship between EFL students' emotional intelligence and writing achievement. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(2), 107-124. doi: 10.1080/17501229.2012.725730
- Sheldon, K. M., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2006). How to increase and sustain positive emotion: The effects of expressing gratitude and visualizing best possible selves. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 1(2), 73-82. doi: [10.1080/17439760500510676](https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760500510676)
- Siegling, A. B., Furnham, A., & Petrides, K. V. (2014). Trait emotional intelligence and personality gender-invariant linkages across different measures of the Big Five. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 33(1), 1-11. doi: 10.1177/0734282914550385
- Skourdi, S., Rahimi, A., & Bagheri, M. S. (2014). The relationship between emotional intelligence, and vocabulary knowledge among Iranian EFL learners. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1785-1793.
- So, D. (2005). Emotion processes in second language acquisition. In P. Benson & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Learners' stories: Difference and diversity in language learning* (pp. 42-55). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. M. (2002). Second language acquisition. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An introduction to applied linguistics* (pp. 115-132). London, UK: Arnold.
- Skehan, P. (2014). *Individual differences in second language learning*. Hoboken, NJ: Taylor and Francis.
- Spence, G., Oades, L., & Caputi, P. (2004). Trait emotional intelligence and goal self-integration: Important predictors of emotional well-being? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37(3), 449-461. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2003.09.001
- Stevens, J. (2002). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Swain, M. (2013). The inseparability of cognition and emotion in second language learning. *Language Teaching*, 46(2), 195-207. doi: 10.1017/S0261444811000486
- Sylvén, L. K. & Thompson, A. S. (2015). Language learning motivation and CLIL: Is there a connection? *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, 3(1), 28–50. doi: 10.1075/jicb.3.1.02syl
- Taguchi, T., Magid, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 Motivational Self System among Japanese, Chinese and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 66-97). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Tassinari, M. G. (2015). Emotions and feelings in language advising discourse. In C. Gkonou, D. Tatzl, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *New directions in language learning psychology* (pp. 71-96). Berlin: Springer.
- Teimouri, Y. (2016). L2 selves, emotions, and motivated behaviors. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1-29. doi:10.1017/S0272263116000243

- Tett, R. P., Fox, K. E., & Wang, A. (2005). Development and validation of a self-report measure of emotional intelligence as a multidimensional trait domain. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31(7), 859–888. doi: 10.1177/0146167204272860
- Thompson, A.S. (*in press*). Language learning motivation in the United States: An examination of language choice and multilingualism.
- Thompson, A. S., & Liu, Y. (2017). Language learning motivation in China: An exploration of the L2MSS and psychological reactance. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*.
- Thompson, A., & Erdil, Z. (2014). Operationalizing multilingualism: Language learning motivation in Turkey. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1-18. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2014.985631
- Thompson, A. S., & Vásquez, C. (2015). Exploring motivational profiles through language learning narratives. *Modern Language Journal*, 99(1), 158–174. doi: 10.1111/modl.12187
- Tugade, M. M, & Fredrickson, B. L. (2004). Resilient individuals use positive emotions to bounce back from negative emotional experiences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 86(2), 320-333. doi: [10.1037/0022-3514.86.2.320](https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.86.2.320)
- University of Pennsylvania (2016). *Positive psychology center*. Retrieved from <http://ppc.sas.upenn.edu/>
- Ushioda, E., & Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Motivation, language identities and the L2 self: A theoretical overview. *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, 1-8.
- Ushioda, E. (2006). Language motivation in a reconfigured Europe: Access, identity, autonomy. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 27(2), 148-161. doi:

10.1080/01434630608668545

- Ushioda, E. (2011). Language learning motivation, self and identity: Current theoretical perspectives. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 24(3): 199–210. doi: 10.1080/09588221.2010.538701
- Wang, G. L. (2005). Humanistic approach and affective factors in foreign language teaching. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 2, 1-5.
- Warwick, J., & Nettelbeck, T. (2004). Emotional intelligence is? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37(5), 1091-1100. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2003.12.003
- Wellman, J. A., & Geers, A. L. (2009). Rebel without a (conscious) cause: Priming a nonconscious goal for psychological reactance. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 31(1), 9-16. doi: [10.1080/01973530802659711](https://doi.org/10.1080/01973530802659711)
- Wierzbicka, A. & Harkins, J. (2001). Introduction. In J. Harkins and A. Wierzbicka (Eds.), *Emotions in Crosslinguistic Perspective* (pp. 1-34). Berlin: Mouton De Gruyter
- Wright, K. B. (2005). Researching internet-based populations: advantages and disadvantages of online survey research, online questionnaire authoring software packages, and web survey services. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 10(3), 00
doi: 10.1111/j.1083-6101.2005.tb00259.x
- Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *Modern Language Journal*, 86(1), 54–66. doi:10.1111/1540-4781.00136
- You, C., & Chan, L. (2015). The dynamics of L2 imagery in future motivational self-guides. In Z. Dörnyei, P. MacIntyre, & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 397-418). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

- Yowell, C.M. (2000). Possible-selves and future orientation: Examining hopes and fears of Latino boys and girls. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 20(3), 24-280.
- Zampetakis, L.A. (2011). The measurement of trait emotional intelligence with TEIQue- SF: An analysis based on unfolding item response theory models. In N. M. Ashkanasy, J. Zerbe and C. E. J. Härtel (Eds.), *Research on Emotion in Organizations* (pp. 289-315). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. doi: [10.1108/S1746-9791\(2011\)0000007016](https://doi.org/10.1108/S1746-9791(2011)0000007016)
- Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (Eds.) (2009). *What we know about emotional intelligence: How it affects learning, work, relationships, and our mental health*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Trait Emotional Intelligence Facets

The Sampling Domain of Trait Emotional Intelligence in Adults and Adolescents

Facets	High scorers perceive themselves as...
<i>Adaptability</i>	...flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions.
<i>Assertiveness</i>	...forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights.
<i>Emotion perception (self and others)</i>	...clear about their own and other people's feelings.
<i>Emotion expression</i>	...capable of communicating their feelings to others.
<i>Emotion management (others)</i>	...capable of influencing other people's feelings.
<i>Emotion regulation</i>	...capable of controlling their emotions.
<i>Impulsiveness (low)</i>	...reflective and less likely to give in to their urges.
<i>Relationships</i>	...capable of having fulfilling personal relationships.
<i>Self-esteem</i>	...successful and self-confident.
<i>Self-motivation</i>	...driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity.
<i>Social awareness</i>	...accomplished networkers with excellent social skills.
<i>Stress management</i>	...capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress.
<i>Trait empathy</i>	...capable of taking someone else's perspective.
<i>Trait happiness</i>	...cheerful and satisfied with their lives.
<i>Trait optimism</i>	...confident and likely to "look on the bright side" of life.

<http://www.psychometriclab.com/Default.aspx?Content=Page&id=7>

© K.V. Petrides 1998 - London Psychometric Laboratory. All rights reserved. Used with permission.

Appendix B: Background Questionnaire

Please provide the following information by selecting the box or writing your response in the space.

1. What is your USF email address? (optional)
2. Are you interested in participating in an in-person interview with the researcher? Yes No
3. What is your gender/sex:
4. How old are you?
5. What is your country of origin?
6. How long (in months) have you lived in the United States? _____
7. Are you currently enrolled in an EAP (English for Academic Purposes) class?
8. How long (in months) have you studied English at INTO/HCC?
9. Have you studied English before INTO/HCC?
10. If yes, for how long (in months)
11. What is your current student status (undergraduate or graduate)?
12. What is your major?
13. Have you taken the TOEFL or IELTS recently? Yes No
14. If so, which one?
15. In what month/year did you take the exam? _____
16. What was your score on the following sections:

Grammar _____
 Listening _____
 Writing _____
 Speaking _____
 Reading _____

17. What is your native (L1) language: _____
18. How many foreign languages have you studied?
19. List the foreign languages you have studied in order of how well you speak them- #1 should be your strongest foreign language, #2 should be your second strongest.

#1 _____ #2 _____ #3 _____ #4 _____

20. How long have you studied each of the foreign languages?

#1 _____ #2 _____ #3 _____ #4 _____

(options) Just starting | 1 semester | 2 semesters | 1 year | 2 years | 3 years | More than 3 years

21. Please rate ability in each of the foreign languages you have studied:

	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Listening	grammar
Language 1					

Language 2					
Language 3					
Language 4					

(options) Almost nothing | Basic beginner | Average/intermediate | Advanced |Very advanced

22. Please list the order of the foreign languages that you have studied, and at what age you started. For example, if you started studying Italian at age 9, then you would write Italian (9).

1st _____

2nd _____

3rd _____

4th _____

23. If you have studied other languages in the past, do you think that this has helped or hindered your ability to learn subsequent languages? In other words, do you see interactions (positive or negative) with the languages you have studied? Please provide as many specific examples as you can.

Yes, I see **positive** interactions between foreign languages studied Yes/No

I see **negative** interactions between foreign languages studies Yes/No

I see **no** interactions between foreign languages studied Yes/No

24. Please write the foreign languages between which you see interactions:

Modified from (Huensch & Thompson, 2016; Marsden, Mackey, & Plonsky, 2016; Thompson, 2013) Used with permission
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/>

Appendix C: Possible Selves Questionnaire

In this section, we would like you to tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by simply circling a number from 1 to 6. Please do not leave out any of the items.

	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly disagree	4 Slightly agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly agree
1. I am studying English because it is a challenge.						
2. I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.						
3. I want to prove others wrong by becoming good at English I am studying.						
4. I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.						
5. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.						
6. I chose to learn English despite others encouraging me to study something different (another language or a different subject entirely).						
7. Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.						
8. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.						
9. I enjoy a challenge with regards to English learning.						

10. I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.						
11. I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.						
12. If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down.						
13. I can imagine myself speaking English with international colleagues.						
14. Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.						
15. I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals.						
16. I have to study English, because if I do not study English, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.						
17. I can imagine speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.						
18. My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.						
19. I am studying English because it is something different or unique.						
20. I am studying English even though most of my friends and family members don't value foreign language learning.						
21. I want to speak English because it is not something that most people can do.						
22. Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.						
23. I can imagine myself writing English emails/letters fluently.						

24. I want to study English, despite other(s) telling me to give up or to do something else with my time.						
25. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English.						
26. The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.						
27. I am studying English because I want to stand out amongst my peers and/or colleagues.						
28. In my English classes, I prefer material that is difficult, even though it will require more effort on my part, as opposed to easier material.。						
29. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.						
30. I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.						

(Marsden, Mackey, & Plonsky, 2016; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi 2009; Thompson & Liu, 2017)
Used with permission.

<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/>

Appendix D: L2 Learning Experience Questionnaire

Class or General	Questions	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly disagree	4 Slightly agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly agree
C	1.I like the atmosphere of my English classes						
G	2.I find learning English really interesting						
G	3.I think time passes quickly while studying English						
C	4.I look forward to English classes						
C	5.I would like to have more English classes						
G	6.I really enjoy learning English						
C	7.I feel bored studying English at school						
C	8.My English teachers make lessons interesting						
G	9.I enjoy learning from the environment, for example from songs, movies, or magazines						
G	10.I do not like to study English at home						

Modified from Lamb (2012) and Papi (2010) Used with permission.

Appendix E: Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire SF-Participant Version

Instructions: Please answer each statement below by putting a circle around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. Do not think too long about the exact meaning of the statements. Work quickly and try to answer as accurately as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. There are six possible responses to each statement ranging from ‘Completely Disagree’ (number 1) to ‘Completely Agree’ (number 6).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me.						
2. I often find it difficult to see things from another person’s viewpoint.						
3. On the whole, I’m a highly motivated person.						
4. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.						
5. I generally don’t find life enjoyable.						
6. I can deal effectively with people.						
7. I tend to change my mind frequently.						
8. Many times, I can’t figure out what emotion I’m feeling.						
9. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.						
10. I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights						
11. I’m usually able to influence the way other people feel.						
12. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things.						
13. Those close to me often complain that I don’t treat them right.						
14. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances.						
15. On the whole, I’m able to deal with stress.						
16. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.						

17. I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions						
18. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated.						
19. I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.						
20. On the whole, I'm pleased with my life.						
21. I would describe myself as a good negotiator.						
22. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.						
23. I often pause and think about my feelings.						
24. I believe I'm full of personal strengths.						
25. I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right.						
26. I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings.						
27. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life.						
28. I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.						
29. Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments.						
30. Others admire me for being relaxed.						

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2006). The role of trait emotional intelligence in a gender-specific model of organizational variables. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36, 552-569.

© K.V. Petrides 1998 - London Psychometric Laboratory. All rights reserved. Used with permission.

Appendix F: Pilot Study Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
TEI_mean	3	3.27	3.63	3.4889	.11277	.19532	.038
Ideal	4	4.80	6.00	5.3500	.24664	.49329	.243
ought	4	1.50	2.90	2.2000	.31091	.62183	.387
anti	4	2.27	5.91	3.7273	.84060	1.68120	2.826
Valid N (listwise)	3						

Appendix G: Revised Questions from the Piloting of Instruments

22. If you perceive positive interactions between any of your foreign languages studied, please select in which areas you see the positive interaction.

vocabulary
grammar
pronunciation
language learning strategies
learning about a different culture
reasons I can't exactly explain (only choose this option if you didn't choose any others)

22 **revision:** (item was removed)

23. Type the foreign languages involved in the interactions here:

23 **revision:** What are the foreign languages you believe have positive interaction between them? In other words, which of the foreign languages you have studied positively influenced each other? Please list the languages. For example, studying Italian positively influenced learning English.

24. Write (yes) if you saw a positive interaction between the languages listed above (in #23). Write (no) if there are no positive interactions.

Vocabulary _____
Grammar _____
Pronunciation _____
Learning about a different culture _____
Language learning strategies (understanding how to learn a language) _____
Reasons I can't exactly explain (only choose this option if you don't choose any others). _____

24 **revision:** Select (yes) for each area below if you saw a positive interaction between the languages listed above (in #23). Select (no) if there are no positive interactions for that area.

Yes or No ----Vocabulary

Yes or No ----Grammar

Yes or No ----Pronunciation

Yes or No ----Learning about a different culture

Yes or No ----Language learning strategies (understanding how to learn a language)

Yes or No ----Unknown reasons (only choose this option if you don't choose any others)

25. Please type other types of positive interaction that you perceive other than those mentioned above

25 revision: Besides vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, learning about a different culture, and language learning strategies, are there any other areas that you think have been positively influenced?

25 revision: If yes, what are those other areas? Please list them below.

Appendix H: Possible Selves Questionnaire (Researcher version)

Question #	Ideal L2 Self Questions
2	I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.
5	I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.
8	Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.
11	I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.
13	I can imagine myself speaking English with international colleagues.
15	I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals.
17	I can imagine speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.
23	I can imagine myself writing English emails/letters fluently.
26	The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.
30	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.
	Ought-to L2 Self Questions
4	I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.
7	Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.
10	I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.
12	If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down.
14	Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.
16	I have to study English, because if I do not study English, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.
18	My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.
22	Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.
25	Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English.
29	It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.
	Anti-ought-to L2 Self Questions
1	I am studying English because it is a challenge.

3	I want to prove others wrong by becoming good at English.
6	I chose to learn English despite others encouraging me to study something different (another language or a different subject entirely).
9	I enjoy a challenge with regards to English learning.
19	I am studying English because it is something different or unique.
20	I am studying English even though most of my friends and family members don't value foreign language learning.
21	I want to speak English because it is not something that most people can do.
24	I want to study English, despite other(s) telling me to give up or to do something else with my time.
27	I am studying English because I want to stand out amongst my peers and/or colleagues.
28	In my English classes, I prefer material that is difficult, even though it will require more effort on my part, as opposed to easier material. .

(Marsden, Mackey, & Plonsky, 2016; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi 2009; Thompson & Liu, 2017)
Used with permission <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/>

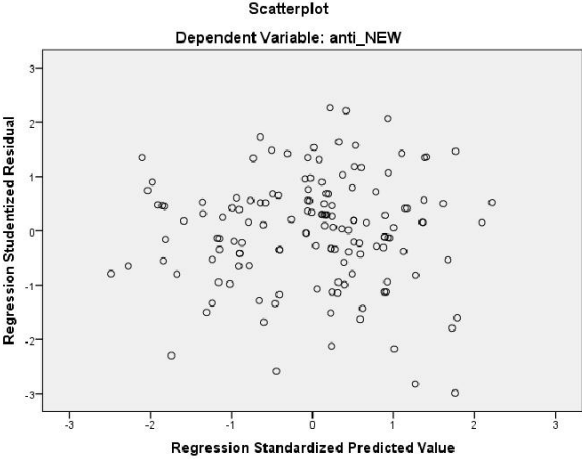
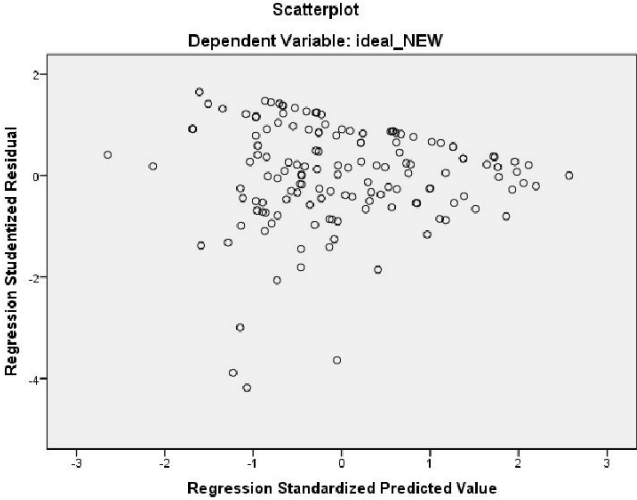
Appendix I: TEIQue SF- (Researcher version)

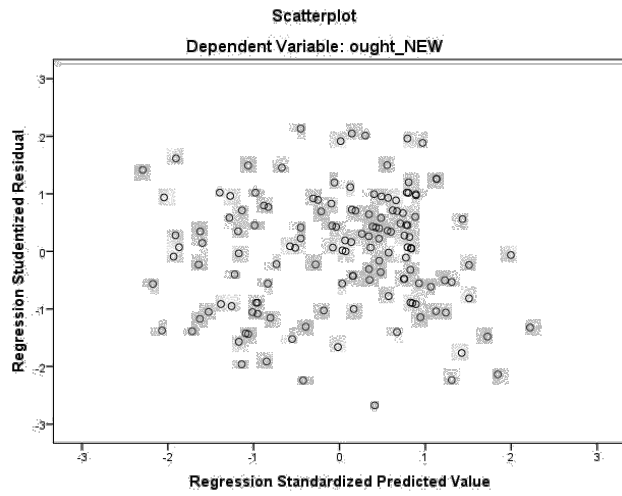
Emotionality Questions
1. Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me.
2. I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint.
8. Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling.
13. Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right.
16. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.
17. I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions
23. I often pause and think about my feelings.
28. I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.
Sociability Questions
6. I can deal effectively with people.
10. I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights
11. I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel.
21. I would describe myself as a good negotiator.
25. I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right.
26. I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings.
Self-Control Questions
4. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.
7. I tend to change my mind frequently.
15. On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress.
19. I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.
22. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.
30. Others admire me for being relaxed.
Well-being Questions
5. I generally don't find life enjoyable
9. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

12. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things.
20. On the whole, I'm pleased with my life.
24. I believe I'm full of personal strengths.
27. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life.
Independent Facets
3. On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person.
14. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances.
18. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated.
29. Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments.

© K.V. Petrides 1998 - London Psychometric Laboratory. All rights reserved. Used with permission.

Appendix J: Homogeneity of Variances





Appendix K: IRB Approval



RESEARCH INTEGRITY AND COMPLIANCE
Institutional Review Boards, FWA No. 00001669
12901 Bruce B. Downs Blvd., MDC035 • Tampa, FL 33612-4799
(813) 974-5638 • FAX (813) 974-7091

5/13/2016

Jelena Vuksanovic,
Teaching and Learning
4202 E. Fowler Avenue,
Tampa, FL 33620

RE: **Expedited Approval for Initial Review**

IRB#: Pro00025988

Title: The Relationship between Trait Emotional Intelligence and L2 Motivation

Study Approval Period: 5/13/2016 to 5/13/2017

Dear Ms. Vuksanovic:

On 5/13/2016, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed and **APPROVED** the above application and all documents contained within, including those outlined below.

Approved Item(s):

Protocol Document(s):

[Protocol_revised](#)

Consent/Assent Document(s):

Consent_edited

0:03

It was the determination of the IRB that your study qualified for expedited review which includes activities that (1) present no more than minimal risk to human subjects, and (2) involve only procedures listed in one or more of the categories outlined below. The IRB may review research through the expedited review procedure authorized by 45CFR46.110. The research proposed in this study is categorized under the following expedited review category:

(6) Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to,

research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your online survey qualifies for a waiver of the requirements for the documentation of informed consent as outlined in the federal regulations at 45CFR46.117(e) which states that an IRB may waive the requirement for the investigator to obtain a signed consent form for some or all subjects if it finds either: (1) That the only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each subject will be asked whether the subject wants documentation linking the subject with the research, and the subject's wishes will govern; or (2) That the research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.

As the principal investigator of this study, it is your responsibility to conduct this study in accordance with IRB policies and procedures and as approved by the IRB. Any changes to the approved research must be submitted to the IRB for review and approval via an amendment. Additionally, all unanticipated problems must be reported to the USF IRB within five (5) calendar days.

We appreciate your dedication to the ethical conduct of human subject research at the University of South Florida and your continued commitment to human research protections. If you have any questions regarding this matter, please call 813-974-5638.

Sincerely,



Kristen Salomon, Ph.D., Vice Chairperson
USF Institutional Review Board



RESEARCH INTEGRITY AND COMPLIANCE
Institutional Review Boards, IWA No. 00001669
13201 Bruce B. Downs Blvd., MD6085 • Tampa, FL 33613-7090
(813)974-2100 • FAX: (813)974-2101

1/17/2017

Jelena Vuksanovic
Teaching and Learning
6006 Laketree Ln., Apt. N
Tampa, FL 33617

RE: Expedited Approval of Amendment

IRB#: Ame4_Pro00025988

Title: The Relationship between Trait Emotional Intelligence and L2 Motivation

Dear Ms. Vuksanovic:

On 1/17/2017, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed and **APPROVED** your Amendment. The submitted request and all documents contained within have been approved, including those outlined below.

The study team would like to request to change the number of participants. I had anticipated a certain number, but ended up with 143 participants. I would like to update the number.

The study team originally intended to compare bilinguals and multilingualism in the study, but decided not to do so because it would complicate the study further. The study team has updated the research questions as well, after some discussion with their advisor.

Approved Item(s):

Protocol Document(s):

[Protocol Version2_Clean](#)

The IRB does not require that subjects be re-consented.

As the principal investigator of this study, it is your responsibility to conduct this study in accordance with USF HRPP policies and procedures and as approved by the USF IRB. Any changes to the approved research must be submitted to the IRB for review and approval via an amendment. Additionally, all unanticipated problems must be reported to the USF IRB within five (5) calendar days.

We appreciate your dedication to the ethical conduct of human subject research at the University of South Florida and your continued commitment to human research protections. If you have any questions regarding this matter, please call 813-974-5638.

Sincerely,



John Schinka, Ph.D., Chairperson
USF Institutional Review Board

Appendix L: Copyright Permissions

 **Jelena Vuksanovic** Dear Dr. Petrides, My name is Jelena and I a... 4:12 PM (22 hours ago) ☆

 **Petrides, Konstantinos** <k.petrides@ucl.ac.uk> 4:35 PM (21 hours ago) ☆  
to me ▾

Dear Jelena,

Thank you for your email. Yes, I am to grant you this permission.
Please can you include the copyright notice below?

© K.V. Petrides 1998 - . London Psychometric Laboratory. All rights reserved.

I hope this helps,
Dino

Permission to use questionnaire items for Ph.D.  Inbox x   

 **Jelena Vuksanovic** Dear Dr. Lamb, My name is Jelena Vuksanovic, and I am in the Ph.... 12:22 PM (1 hour ago) ☆

 **Martin Lamb** 1:44 PM (9 minutes ago) ☆  
to me ▾

Dear Jelena

You're very welcome to use the items in your research. I've actually just been using an amended version of that questionnaire in further research in Indonesia and got higher Cronbach alpha scores for the 'self' scales – if you'd be interested to see them?

Best regards

Martin

From: Jelena Vuksanovic [mailto:jvuksano@mail.usf.edu]

Sent: 07 April 2017 17:23

To: Martin Lamb <M.V.Lamb@education.leeds.ac.uk>

Subject: Permission to use questionnaire items for Ph.D.

This Agreement between Jelena Vuksanovic ("You") and Cambridge University Press ("Cambridge University Press") consists of your license details and the terms and conditions provided by Cambridge University Press and Copyright Clearance Center.

License Number	4083200657532
License date	Apr 06, 2017
Licensed Content Publisher	Cambridge University Press
Licensed Content Publication	Language Teaching
Licensed Content Title	A student's contributions to second-language learning. Part II: Affective variables
Licensed Content Author	R. C. Gardner, P. D. MacIntyre
Licensed Content Date	Dec 23, 2008
Licensed Content Volume	26
Licensed Content Issue	1
Start page	1
End page	11
Type of Use	Dissertation/Thesis
Requestor type	Not-for-profit
Portion	Text extract
Number of pages requested	1
Order reference number	
Territory for reuse	World

Permission to use questionnaire for Ph.D. study

Inbox x

 **Jelena Vuksanovic** Dear Drs. Magid and Papi: My name is Jelena Vuksanovic, and I a... 12:11 PM (

 **Papi, Mostafa** 3:59 PM (4 minutes ago)
to me, aexmm8

Dear Jelena,

You have my permission to use the questionnaire and include it in your dissertation.

All the best,
Mostafa Papi
PhD | Assistant Professor
Second & Foreign Language Education | School of Teacher Education

