

Investment in learning Japanese as a foreign language: a case study of multilingual adults in South Africa

by
Maiko Sato



UNIVERSITEIT
STELLENBOSCH
UNIVERSITY

*Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
Masters in General Linguistics at the University of Stellenbosch*



Supervisor: Dr Kate Huddleston
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
Department of General Linguistics

March, 2018

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Maiko Sato

March, 2018

Copyright © 2018 University of Stellenbosch

All rights reserved

ABSTRACT

Over the last three decades, the number of Japanese language learners in the world have increased, while the number of learners in the three countries with the greatest Japanese learner populations, China, Indonesia and South Korea, have started to decline. In order to support the increase in number of Japanese learners worldwide, Japanese language learning and teaching in countries where Japanese is a less popular language should be investigated. Against this background, the current study focused on Japanese language learners and teachers in South Africa, where people are not exposed to Japanese in their daily lives. Japanese learners' and teachers' articulations of their Japanese learning/teaching experiences were analysed employing a poststructuralist framework, specifically through the use of the concepts 'investment' (Norton, 1995; 2000), and 'autonomy'. A thematic analysis was utilised in order to examine participants' perspectives on the Japanese language and its learning/teaching. It appeared that the learner participants do invest in learning Japanese, since they have their own 'imagined communities'. Furthermore, it was suggested that the level of visualisation of imagined community, which influenced their learning, is very important. In addition, 'cultural capital', which the learners anticipated as a return on their investment in learning Japanese, might not necessarily be practical or tangible. Intangible or psychological returns, i.e. symbolic resources, appeared to direct learners to invest in learning the target language, Japanese. Finally, a language teacher's role in supporting their learners was suggested to foster learner autonomy, which is also relevant to the stimulation of investment in language learning.

OPSOMMING

Oor die laaste drie dekades het die aantal Japanese taalaanleerders in die wêreld toegeneem, terwyl die aantal leerders in die drie lande met die hoogste populasies van Japanese aanleerders, China, Indonesië en Suid-Korea, begin afneem. Ten einde ondersteuning te bied aan die toename in die aantal leerders van Japanees wêreldwyd, moet die taalaanleer en onderrig van Japanees in lande waar Japanees 'n minder gewilde taal is, ondersoek word. Teen hierdie agtergrond fokus die huidige studie op Japanese taalaanleerders en onderwysers in Suid-Afrika, waar mense nie blootgestel word aan Japanees in hul daaglikse lewens nie. Die Japanese leerders en onderwysers se uitsprake oor hul Japanese aanleer-/onderrigervaringe is geanaliseer deur 'n post-strukturalistiese raamwerk in te span, spesifiek deur die konsepte 'belegging' (Norton, 1995; 2000) en 'selfstandigheid' te gebruik. 'n Tematiese analise is gebruik ten einde die deelnemers se uitkyke op die Japanese taal en die leer/onderrig daarvan, te ondersoek. Dit het voorgekom of leerderdeelnemers wel daarin belê om Japanees aan te leer, aangesien hulle hul eie 'voorgestelde gemeenskappe' het. Verder is daar gesuggerer dat die vlak van visualisering van die voorgestelde gemeenskap, wat hul leer beïnvloed het, baie belangrik is. Boonop is 'kulturele kapitaal', wat die leerders verwag as 'n opbrengs van hul belegging om Japanees aan te leer, nie noodwendig prakties of tasbaar nie. Dit het voorgekom of ontasbare of psigologiese opbrengste, d.i. simboliese bronne, die leerders aangespoor het om te belê in die aanleer van die teikentaal. Laastens, is 'n taalonderwyser se rol om hul leerders te ondersteun, is voorgestel om selfstandigheid te kweek, wat ook relevant is tot die stimulering om te belê in taalaanleer.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to express my deepest gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor, Dr. Kate Huddleston, for her careful guidance and valuable comments, in particular, for all support for my specific situation.

Furthermore, I would like to thank Prof. Cyclic Hartell and all staff at the Centre for Japanese Studies, the University of Pretoria. Without their support, this study certainly would not have been completed.

I am also truly grateful for every learner participant and teacher participant in this study. Their willingness to offer their time to me was precious.

Finally but not the least, my special thanks go to my fabulous family and friends, who always supported and encouraged me to finish the thesis. I could not reach this point without them.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT	ii
OPSOMMING	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES	viii
TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS	ix
CHAPTER 1: Introduction	1
1.1 Background of the current study	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	2
1.3 Research questions	4
1.4 Research design	4
1.5 Thesis layout	5
CHAPTER 2: Literature Review	6
2.1 Multilingualism and learning Japanese in South Africa	6
2.1.1. Multilingualism in South Africa	6
2.1.2. Learning Japanese as a FL in South Africa	8
2.2 Investment in learning Japanese as a FL	9
2.2.1. Current trends in research on SLA/FL learning	10
2.2.2. Cultural capital	11
2.2.3. Imagined community	12
2.2.4. Investment in learning Japanese in South Africa	16
2.3 Autonomy of language learning	22
2.3.1. Misconceptions of autonomy	22
2.3.2. Definitions of autonomy	24
2.3.3. Teachers' responsibility and autonomy	26
2.3.4. Investment in learning language and autonomy	27
2.4 Summary	28

CHAPTER 3: Research Methodology	30
3.1 Description of the research site.....	30
3.2 Participant recruitment.....	30
3.3 Data collection design.....	31
3.3.1. Keeping a journal.....	32
3.3.2. Individual semi-structured interviews and language portraits	33
3.4 Ethical considerations	36
3.5 Data analysis	36
3.6 Summary.....	39
CHAPTER 4: Data Analysis and Findings.....	40
4.1 Results of the background questionnaire and the language portraits.....	40
4.1.1. Results of the background questionnaire	40
4.1.2. Findings from language portraits	42
4.2 Findings from the interviews and the journals of the learner participants.....	47
4.2.1. Obstacles to learning Japanese in South Africa.....	47
4.2.2. Interest in Japan and the Japanese culture	50
4.2.3. Necessity of support.....	52
4.2.4. Practice of learning Japanese	54
4.2.5. Self-achievement.....	55
4.2.6. The future with Japanese proficiency	57
4.3 Findings from the interview and the journal of the teacher participant.....	59
4.3.1. Acknowledgement of the purposes and expectations of learning Japanese	60
4.3.2. Teacher’s expectation of the learners	61
4.3.3. Japanese as a communication tool	62
4.4 Summary of the findings.....	64
CHAPTER 5: Discussion and Conclusion.....	65
5.1 The learners’ investment in learning Japanese as a FL.....	65
5.1.1. The learners’ imagined community and investment in learning Japanese	65
5.1.2. The learners’ cultural capital and investment in learning Japanese.....	69
5.1.3. Investment and motivation – P2’s case.....	71
5.2 Fostering learner autonomy	72
5.3 Conclusion	75
5.3.1. Limitations of the current study.....	75

5.3.2. Conclusions.....	76
REFERENCES	78
APPENDICES	84
Appendix A: Interview schedule	84
Appendix B: Template of language portraits.....	86
Appendix C: Ethical approval (Stellenbosch University).....	87
Appendix D: Ethical approval (University of Pretoria).....	89
Appendix E: Consent form	90
Appendix F: Language portraits of other learner participants	94
Appendix G: All themes found in the thematic analysis (the learner participants)	96
Appendix H: All themes found in the thematic analysis (the teacher participant)	97

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 4.1. Learner participants' information	41
Figure 2.1. Darwin and Norton's (2015: 42) Model of Investment	20
Figure 4.1. P2's language portrait	42
Figure 4.2. P10's language portrait	43
Figure 4.3. P4's language portrait	44
Figure 4.4. P6's language portrait	45
Figure 4.5. P8's language portrait	46

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

[] : Action

.. (Two dots) : A short pause

... (Three dots) : An ellipsis

() : Researcher's explanation or translation into English

Capital letters: Emphasis

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

1.1 Background of the current study

According to a survey conducted in 2015 by the Japan Foundation¹, Japanese language education is provided in 130 countries and 7 regions (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 7). Unsurprisingly, Asia has the greatest population of Japanese language learners. In fact, more than three-quarters of the total number of Japanese learners in the world are in Asia, including East Asia, Southeast Asia and South Asia (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 10). While the number of Japanese learners in China, Indonesia and South Korea, which are the top three countries in terms of Japanese learning population (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 10), appears to be declining, the total number of Japanese language learners worldwide has increased approximately 6 times over the last 30 years (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 8).

According to the survey, this is because the backgrounds and purposes of Japanese learners are increasingly diverse. It seems that learners, especially in Asian countries, used to study Japanese mainly for an increase in employment opportunities in Japan and/or at a Japanese company in their home countries. Whereas, these days more people are learning Japanese as a part of their lifelong education, as a foreign language (FL), for instance. The popularity of Japanese pop culture is another factor. Furthermore, Brazil is a unique example; it has many people of Japanese descent, owing to the immigration history from Japan to Brazil. Japanese therefore used to be seen as a “heritage language” in Brazil for those of Japanese descent, however, it is now viewed as a “foreign language” (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 35).

Regarding the situation on the African continent, Japanese is not a very popular language to study. The survey revealed that only 0.2 percent of the overall Japanese learners worldwide are found in Africa (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 10). Côte d’Ivoire, Madagascar and Kenya, which are the top three countries in terms of the number of Japanese learners in Africa, have only about 5,300 learners in total (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 44). In South

¹ The only Japanese institution to promote the links between Japan and other countries in the field of arts and culture, Japanese language education abroad, and Japanese studies (Japan Foundation, 2017a).

Africa, the current study site, there is only one institution that officially offers a Japanese language course with approximately 50 learners² (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 44), although these numbers do not include those who learn on their own using online materials and so forth. This is not unexpected, since Japan is not considered a close country to people in African countries, neither physically nor emotionally, as there are few similarities in culture and language. In my experience, often people seem to regard Japanese and other East Asian languages, such as Chinese and Korean, as one category, and to choose Chinese more commonly, owing to practical reasons, for opportunities of employment or study abroad.

It is in the interest of Japanese language teachers to raise the number of Japanese language learners all over the world. In order to do so, there are various options. One is, for example, to increase the number of Japanese learners again in the top three countries with the largest Japanese learner populations, namely China, Indonesia and South Korea. This might be the easiest option, since inhabitants of these countries already have the basis of learning Japanese, and Japanese proficiency can provide the opportunity for employment or study in Japan, which is geographically and culturally close to these countries. Another option is to cultivate a new field to expand the number of Japanese learners in countries where the Japanese language and people are not so common, since there are, indeed, many such places in the world (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 11). In light of this, the current study is interested in the latter case. That is, the focus of this study is on Japanese language learners outside Japan, other than in Asian countries where Japanese is more common, without local exposure to the Japanese language and people, and their perspectives on the language and its learning.

1.2 Statement of the problem

As noted above, for people in South Africa, Japanese is not a familiar language. However, the University of Pretoria (UP) has a Centre for Japanese studies (CJS), and there are

² There is actually more than one institution found in South Africa although there is only one university, the University of Pretoria, offering a Japanese language course officially. The survey conducted by the Japan Foundation was distributed and collected via email, post, fax, etc. all over the world, not only in South Africa (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 3) The overall response rate to the survey was 89.8% (Japan Foundation, 2017b: 2).

Japanese language schools in Cape Town and Durban. In light of this, it is important to examine how learners who are not exposed to a target language, such as Japanese, in their daily lives are able to acquire the language successfully.

It is well recognised that in second language acquisition (SLA)/FL learning contexts some individuals are more successful than others (Gass & Selinker, 2008: 395). There are various non-linguistic factors, which can influence language learning, and which need to be taken into account, such as motivation, gender, learning purposes and social factors (Norton, 1995: 10; Gass & Selinker, 2008: 395; Beliles, 2015: 7; Bayiga, 2016: 237). Motivation is one of the most widely cited social-psychological factors used to account for differential success in SLA/FL learning (Gass & Selinker, 2008: 426). However, Norton (1995; 2000) argues that motivation is insufficient to “capture the complex relationship between power, identity and language learning” (Norton, 2000: 10). Instead, she proposes the concept of ‘investment’, which can be defined as “learners’ commitment to learning an L2 (second language), which is viewed as related to the social identities they construct for themselves as learners” (Ellis, 1997: 140, cited in Norton, 2000: 11).

In this study, Norton’s (1995; 2000) concept of ‘investment’ is employed in order to investigate what encourages people to start or continue learning a target language such as Japanese, without local exposure. Other concepts, namely ‘cultural capital’ and ‘imagined community’, related to Norton’s concept of ‘investment’, are also utilised in the present study. In addition, it is important to determine what may facilitate learner ‘autonomy’, particularly in contexts where exposure to the target language is limited.

These two primary theoretical concepts, ‘investment’ and ‘autonomy’ are meaningful to explore in the context of the current study, since they may ultimately be related to an increase in the number of Japanese learners all over the world. The findings of the present study will be relevant to language teachers in general, as well as Japanese language teachers, in particular those teaching a target language as FL, since the perspective of language learning without local exposure is common to many teachers who teach outside of their home countries.

Furthermore, research on linguistics, education and sociolinguistics is generally more concerned with English, learned in many countries as an L2 or a FL, rather than other less popular languages taught in English-speaking countries, such as Japanese (Haneda, 2005: 207). On the one hand, this is understandable, since English has an unshakable position as a global lingua franca and the most common language worldwide (Pavlenko & Norton, 2007: 591). On the other hand, research on other languages, besides English, should be fruitful in the SLA/FL learning field.

Considering all above, SLA/FL learning research has shown that investment can play a significant role in elucidating learners' success in learning a target language. This is even more relevant in the case where learners are learning a FL which does not offer any immediate practical advantages or benefits to the learners. Since learning Japanese in South Africa represents exactly such a case, it offers a valuable research opportunity, which should lead to insights into the role of investment in learning a FL, given that research into learning Japanese is less common (Haneda, 2005: 270). The current study, therefore, addresses this issue by examining Japanese learning in South Africa.

1.3 Research questions

The research questions of the present study are the following:

- 1) How do Japanese language learners articulate their investment in learning Japanese as a FL?
- 2) How do Japanese language teachers articulate their learners' investment in learning Japanese as a FL?
- 3) Among participants' articulations, what elements could facilitate learner autonomy?

1.4 Research design

The current study employed a qualitative methodology, namely interviews and journaling, since the focus of this study was on the participants' articulations. A semi-structured interview was carried out with both the learner and teacher participants, towards the end of a three-month language course offered by UP in South Africa. A language portrait (Busch,

2006; Bayiga, 2016: 109), an art-based approach to eliciting linguistic profiles, was also utilised with the learner participants in the interviews, in order to examine their perceptions of the Japanese language. In addition, the learner and teacher participants were asked to keep a journal about their experience of learning/teaching Japanese during the course.

In order to analyse the data from both the transcriptions of the interviews and the journals, a thematic analysis was undertaken. A thematic analysis is a flexible method, which allows researchers to access data from various angles (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 78). Since the present study focused on articulations of participants, it was necessary to consider both participants' explicit and nuanced expressions. At the same time, however, this study did not require as in-depth an analysis of utterances as that offered by a conversation analysis (CA) (Edmunds, 2015: 53). Therefore, a thematic analysis was chosen in order to analyse the data from a broader point of view (Bailey, 2007: 154).

1.5 Thesis layout

The first chapter serves as the introduction to the current study. In Chapter 2, relevant literature is reviewed. This includes a summary of the present state of multilingualism in South Africa, in order to clarify the context of this study, as well as a discussion of 'investment' and 'autonomy' as the two central theoretical concepts in this study, and other related concepts. Chapter 3 provides detailed information about the research design and methodology. In Chapter 4, the results of data analysis are presented and illustrated. Lastly, Chapter 5 consists of a discussion and conclusion, in terms of the relevant theoretical concepts, the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides a review of previous research on the main notions employed in the current study, namely investment and learner autonomy, as well as an overview of language learning in South Africa. Firstly, multilingualism and learning Japanese as a FL in South Africa are examined. Then one of the critical concepts of this study, ‘investment’, is discussed, referring primarily to studies by Bonny Norton. Finally, the literature on learner ‘autonomy’ is explored.

2.1 Multilingualism and learning Japanese in South Africa

This section sketches the broader picture of multilingualism and SLA/FL learning in South Africa, in order to clarify the research context of the current study.

2.1.1. Multilingualism in South Africa

It is estimated that there are approximately 6,700 languages around the globe (Blommaert, 2007: 123; Bamgbose, 2011: 2). Japan has only one language spoken in the whole country, although there are several dialects of Japanese. In contrast, more than 2,000 languages are found in only about 50 countries on the African continent (Blommaert, 2007: 123; Bamgbose, 2011: 2). It is controversial to discuss the number of languages because of the complexity of what is regarded as a language, dialect or vernacular (Blommaert, 2007: 124; Ouane & Glanz, 2010: 62; Bamgbose, 2011: 2; Bayiga, 2016: 20), nevertheless, it is accepted that Africa has a rich diversity of languages. Some researchers claim that this language diversity in Africa is linked to colonialism (Blommaert, 2007: 124; Bamgbose, 2011: 1). African countries, as they exist today, were divided artificially by the suzerain countries during colonisation, ignoring indigenous people. Simultaneously, language division was also made according to these artificial national borders, even though some languages may be regarded as identical, or at least dialects of the same language (Bamgbose, 2011: 2). Furthermore, FLs from the suzerain countries, such as Dutch, French, English and Portuguese, were imported and have spread through the various African countries (Blommaert, 2007: 127; Bamgbose, 2011: 1, 2; Ramoupi, 2014: 57). The historical and political background and linguistic complexity on the African continent have

made Africa a linguistic juxtaposition, like a melting pot of races in a metropolitan city.

In this respect, many people in Africa are, in fact, exposed to more than one language in daily life and are competent in those languages. This seems a logical necessity in order to communicate with others who have different first languages, as well as to unify people as one nation (Bamgbose, 2011: 4). In fact, once inhabitants were members of a “new country”, multilingualism, especially including a colonising language, became a necessary condition. The African Union also emphasises the importance of language issues, such as language policies in an organisation or education (Ramoupi, 2014: 58, 59). South Africa is not an exception. Unlike most other African countries which have only one official language, usually one of the imported languages from Europe, South Africa has nine indigenous languages besides two European languages, English and Afrikaans³, as the official languages of the country (Blommaert, 2007: 133; Ramoupi, 2014: 55; Central Intelligence Agency, 2017). Additionally, South Africa has at least another twelve non-official languages in the country (Ramoupi, 2014: 60). This multilingualism is one of the main concerns in the South African constitution, which was established after apartheid was abolished (Ramoupi, 2014: 55). Many South Africans are fluent in two or more languages, one of which is usually English, as it functions as a lingua franca throughout the country (Bamgbose, 2011: 5; Ramoupi, 2014: 60). Of course, bilingual or multilingual education in South Africa remains contentious (Balfour, 2007; Ouane & Glanz, 2010). In addition, multilingualism is highly visible in daily life, such as signposting in public written in several languages (Blommaert, 2007: 135). Furthermore, South Africans often acquire other languages in addition to their mother tongue and English, such that isiXhosa speakers in the Western Cape learn Afrikaans or vice versa.

Africa is remarkable in terms of conducting school education, not only at secondary and tertiary level but even at primary level, in an imported language, most commonly in English (Blommaert, 2007: 138; Ramoupi, 2014: 65). This represents another close connection with

³ It can be controversial to claim that Afrikaans is a European language, since it is spoken only in Africa. However, this study regards Afrikaans as a European language owing to the fact that some argue that it is derived from Dutch after the Dutch sovereignty (Van Rooy & Van Den Doel, 2011).

the colonial period. During, and even after colonisation, people on the African continent have wished to be educated in those FLs in order to become a part of the elite (Blommaert, 2007: 138; Bamgbose, 2011: 5; Ramoupi, 2014: 62). This is owing to the fact that such languages are associated with high socio-cultural and socio-economic status, not merely communication tools. As in the rest of Africa, English is the most commonly used language in education in South Africa, although there has been an attempt to adopt indigenous languages (such as isiXhosa) in education, at least at primary level. In other words, the language repertoires of people in South Africa, such as a mother tongue used at home and another language (other languages) used outside home, seem to have emerged from social and economic urgency alongside historical and political necessity. Multilingualism in South Africa is therefore strongly linked to ‘urgency’ in daily life.

2.1.2. Learning Japanese as a FL in South Africa

Considering the situation in South Africa, discussed above, learning Japanese is, clearly, not a prime concern, since Japanese is not an exigent language for a South African to acquire. However, there is a certain demand to learn Japanese as a FL in South Africa. For example, the Japanese-Language Proficiency Test (JLPT), the most common Japanese language exam all over the world, is available in Johannesburg, even though the number of examinees is limited compared with other countries (JLPT, 2017). In addition to several private Japanese language schools or classes throughout the country, the CJS was established at UP as the first and only institute of Japanese studies in sub-Saharan Africa (University of Pretoria, 2017a). Furthermore, there are branches of Japanese firms aiming to expand into the extensive African market, such as the vehicle company, Toyota, and the electronics company, SONY (African Development Bank External Representation Office for Asia and Africa Business Partners, 2016). This suggests that there could be employees of those Japanese companies who wish to learn Japanese for communicating with their Japanese colleagues or customers.

It would be interesting in a SLA/FL learning context to look at Japanese learners in South Africa, where the target language is less useful and urgent than other languages utilised in daily life. In particular, the focus of the current study is the articulations by Japanese

learners of the reasons why they wish to learn Japanese and how they discipline themselves to learn without daily exposure or exigency, as well as the teacher's perspectives. In general, exposure to a target language is essential for learners to acquire it or continue to study it (Spolsky, 1989, cited in Norton, 2000: 2). In light of this, the findings of this study would be highly relevant for all teachers who become involved in SLA/FL learning outside their country of origin, not solely Japanese language teachers abroad. This study is also expected to contribute to exploring language learners' perceptions, in a multilingual society, of learning a new language, especially a FL.

2.2 Investment in learning Japanese as a FL

In this section, the notion 'investment', as well as the related concepts 'cultural capital' and 'imagined community', are discussed. First, the main research referred to in the present study, a twelve-month longitudinal case study conducted by Norton (1995, 2000: 48-57), is briefly described. Five female immigrants to Canada, in the English as a Second Language (ESL) class which Norton taught, participated in her study through journaling, interviews and home visits. Mai moved to Canada from Vietnam with her parents, "for my life in the future" (Norton, 2000: 50), when she was 21 years old. Eva immigrated from Poland alone for "economical advantage" (Norton, 2000: 48) after living in Italy for two years. Katarina came to Canada from Poland with her husband and daughter, since they "disliked communism" (Norton, 2000: 52). Martina moved from Czechoslovakia with her husband and three children for a "better life for children" (Norton, 2000: 53). Felicia, from Peru, immigrated with her husband and three children, as "the terrorism was increasing in Peru" (Norton, 2000: 55). These women, with the exception of Felicia, did not have any knowledge of English before they immigrated, although they knew other FLs such as Russian, German or Italian. Felicia spoke some English and had experience of travelling to North America prior to her immigration. They had various backgrounds and circumstances such as reasons of immigration and presence of their family or acquaintances in Canada, however, in Norton's study, they all articulated their struggles of daily communication with Canadians in English. Norton investigated their investment in learning English in this context.

2.2.1. Current trends in research on SLA/FL learning

In the SLA/FL learning domain, there are various aspects which researchers and practitioners need to take into account. Regarding research paradigms, poststructuralist perspectives seem to have become the mainstream focus in language learning (Norton, 2010: 349), since poststructuralism views language learning as a dynamic, individual, complex and contextual activity. It cannot be explained within structuralist paradigms, which conceives of language as functioning as a system where each sign has a single meaning, and does not account for power in social world (Norton, 2000: 14; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007: 589). In addition, language learning has been studied from various points of view, not merely linguistics, but also psychology, education, cultural studies and so forth (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 436). It seems rational that SLA/FL learning research employs poststructuralist insights, since the backgrounds of language learners vary, such as what, where, when, why, how, with whom, from whom they want to learn a target language. Circumstances around the learners also diverge, with factors such as globalisation, multilingualism and advanced technologies, particularly in the last decade, playing an important role (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 436; Darvin & Norton, 2016: 21). Digital technologies allow learners to access various materials online, depending on their interests and preferences, which are not available in traditional schooling. Moreover, such technologies have a powerful impact on establishing learners' identities, since they enable people to access various images beyond their real world and to easily have multiple identities according to the cyberspace they belong to (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 433; Darvin & Norton, 2016: 22).

For language teachers, no matter which language they are teaching, it is relevant and significant to understand the complexities and diversity of their language learners, such as their background, purpose of language learning and preferences for learning, rather than simply teaching a target language. It is clear that the most important duty as a language teacher is to improve learners' skills and competence in a target language in classroom. In order to enhance the quality of language classes, it is vital for teachers to take learners' multidimensionality into consideration and attempt to address the various dimensions in the curricula. For example, age, occupation and role in a family can influence a learner's

decision to attend language lessons significantly, since they have multiple roles in life, not merely their role as a language learner. Therefore, research in the context of poststructuralism and appropriate acknowledgement of the relevant constructs, such as ideology and identity, by teachers will continuously be the locus in the SLA/FL learning field (Pavlenko & Norton, 2007: 589; Norton & Toohey, 2011: 413). As mentioned above, there are a number of factors which can affect language learners and their learning. These include motivation⁴, learning purpose, personality, gender and social factors (Norton, 1995: 10; Gass & Selinker, 2008: 395; Beliles, 2015: 7; Bayiga, 2016: 237). In terms of the poststructuralist prospect, ‘investment’, conceptualised by Norton (1995; 2000), is the main concept in the current study. Additionally, ‘cultural capital’ (Bourdieu, 1977) and ‘imagined community’ (Norton, 2001; Kanno & Norton, 2003; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007) are discussed alongside Norton’s concept of ‘investment’. First, one of the most relevant concepts, ‘cultural capital’, is described.

2.2.2. Cultural capital

Generally, capital, in economics, means money which is used to exchange one thing for another. The French sociologist, Pierre Bourdieu (1977) re-conceptualised the term “capital” as “a generalised ‘resource’ that can assume monetary and nonmonetary as well as tangible and intangible forms” (Anheier et al., 1995: 862). Bourdieu discusses “linguistic capital”, and its significance and impact on acquiring a language, and claims that language is “for use in strategies which are invested with all possible functions and not only communication functions” (Bourdieu, 1977: 646). Researchers in the SLA/FL learning field argue that language should not only be viewed with respect to linguistics, but also with respect to sociological and anthropological insights, since language reflects a social position in various communities which interlocutors belong to, as well as enabling the simple exchange of information with each other (Bourdieu, 1977: 660; Norton, 2010: 350). That is, speaking a certain language can be seen to be more valuable than another language in a specific market, which determines a person’s social position or status.

Later, Bourdieu also introduced the term “cultural capital” (1986, cited in Throsby, 1999:

⁴ Motivation is discussed further in the section 2.4.4. in this chapter.

4), which consists of symbolic components such as arts, music, clothing and properties. Linguistic capital, mentioned above, is one of the components of cultural capital. According to Bourdieu (1986, cited in Throsby, 1999: 4), cultural capital has three different forms, namely embodied, objectified and constitutionalised forms. The embodied state indicates intangible forms such as an accent of a spoken language, or tastes in food or art, whereas, tangible forms, such as expensive furniture and cars, are considered as objectified state. Constitutionalised forms are credentials and certifications that people can obtain at school or university. Acquiring language can be raising either embodied or constitutionalised cultural capital, while it may lead to the accumulation of objectified capital by a target language speaker, since it represents symbolic power and can influence the speaker's social position or status. This cultural capital is very individualistic, and in the sense of uniqueness of where its value is placed, it is similar to the general term "capital" in economics (Robbins, 1991: 154, cited in Throsby, 1999: 4).

The notion of cultural capital seems a substantial help in order to understand Norton's concept of 'investment' in learning a target language. One of the common reasons why people learn a new language is that they wish to change themselves or their life, such as for new employment, studying abroad or simply trying something new. In other words, they wish to acquire a new social position or symbolic power, which can be very diverse, if they manage to accumulate cultural capital through acquiring a new language. Also, such a new status in their society or symbolic power helps an individual to be regarded as the person who he/she wishes to be by others (Pavlenko & Norton, 2007: 589, 590; Norton & Toohey, 2011: 416). That is, investment in learning a new language can offer an increase of cultural capital in return. In this section, cultural capital functioning as symbolic power was considered. In the following section the concept of 'imagined community' will be discussed.

2.2.3. Imagined community

The importance and influence of language itself as cultural capital is described above. Consideration for the process of learning and speaking a target language, in addition to a goal of acquiring a new ability or new knowledge, is noteworthy (Pavlenko & Norton,

2007: 590; Norton & Toohey, 2011: 416). It is thus also significant to understand people's actions regarding language learning. The notion of 'imagined community' seems helpful to understand learners' behaviours.

The term "imagined community" was first introduced by Anderson (1991, cited in Kanno & Norton, 2003: 241). People, in their daily lives, connect with different communities, such as their neighbourhood, school and work place. Imagined community, in contrast, refers to "groups of people, not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of the imagination" (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 241). According to Wenger (1999: 176, cited in Kanno & Norton, 2003: 241), "imagination" refers to "a process of expanding our self by transcending our time and space and creating new images of the world and ourselves". That is, there is not such a visible community which they can actually belong to, but only existing in people's mind. Nonetheless, it is significant for people to link to their imagined communities.

Imagined community should be clearly distinguished from "fantasy or withdrawal from reality" (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 244), or simply "wishes" (Simon, 1992, cited in Kanno & Norton, 2003: 244). Wishes do not direct people to any concrete action in their real lives, while imagined community can influence their decision making processes, attitudes towards learning a language and behaviours. Imagined community is not merely a picture in people's mind, rather an instrument which can lead people to a trajectory for changing their lives in the near future (Norton, 2001: 164; Norton & Toohey, 2011: 422). An imagined community also has rules and regulations (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 244). These rules and regulations direct people to their goals, namely memberships of imagined communities. Kanno and Norton (2003: 243, 244), for instance, studied a Japanese language learner, Rui. He identified himself as Japanese and wished to be Japanese, even though he had spent most of his life outside Japan and communicated predominantly in English. His imagined community was a Japanese community, and this had a strong impact on his attendance of the Japanese class, since he believed that it was necessary to maintain his Japanese proficiency. For him, this requirement functioned as the rules and regulations of being a member of his imagined community; belonging to a Japanese society. This

example illustrates why imagined community has an impact directly on learners' goals through learning a target language.

Not only for language learners but also for teachers, it is important to have a deeper understanding of each learner's imagined community (Norton, 2001: 165). Teachers and their language classes may unwittingly discourage students from learning the target language or enrolling for lessons if teachers misunderstand or show inadequate understanding of learners' imagined community. In fact, Katarina in Norton's study (Norton, 2001: 164; Kanno & Norton, 2003: 242) discontinued her ESL class, as she felt that her ESL teacher failed to recognise her imagined community. Katarina, a Polish immigrant woman to Canada, was an experienced teacher in her original country. She had a community of professionals as her imagined community, although she struggled to find a teaching job in her new country. Therefore, she discussed attending a computer class with her ESL teacher in order to access her imagined community. The teacher discouraged her, noting that her English was not good enough for the computer course, which resulted in Katarina's withdrawal from her ESL class (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 242, 243). Interestingly, another learner from Czechoslovakia, Martina, in the same ESL class as Katarina, successfully completed the course. It could be argued that they had different imagined communities, so that they reacted in different ways towards the same teacher's attitude towards her learners in class, regardless that Katarina and Martina had similar backgrounds, in that both of them were immigrants to Canada (Norton, 2001: 164). It also suggests the difficulty for language teachers to acknowledge or identify learners' imagined communities, since they can vary dramatically within one classroom, and learners' imagined communities come from their various backgrounds, expectations and possibly other aspects, as is demonstrated in the case of Katarina and Martina.

It is also critical for language teachers to acknowledge learners' imagined communities inside and outside the classroom, with or without the direct involvement of teachers, both of which have considerable influence over their language learning. For more effective class management, avoiding disjuncture of expectations between learners and teachers, it would be meaningful for teachers to encourage their learners to explore their imagined

communities, since some are required to reconsider the possibility or reasonableness of their imagined communities (Norton, 2001: 170, 171). For example, in the case where learners do not recognise a specific requirement to access their imagined community, such as studying abroad, then teachers should help them acknowledge the reasonable requirements of such a community. It is clear that having imagined communities in mind, even if this is challenging, would be essential for learners to invest in learning a language.

The “old-timer”/“newcomer” contrast in a certain community is another important role fulfilled by language teachers (Norton, 2001: 163). Lave and Wenger (1991, cited in Norton, 2001: 162) discuss how newcomers become involved in activities in a community together with old-timers. In their theory, old-timers play more prominent roles, and newcomers accumulate the knowledge and skills necessary in the community by learning from old-timers. In SLA/FL learning contexts, old-timers would be the native speakers of a target language and newcomers would be the learners (Norton, 2001: 163). In most language classrooms, only the teacher would be an old-timer and the rest of the members in the community, a classroom, would be newcomers, learners. For language learners, especially those who wish to learn the Japanese language living outside Japan, such as in the context of the current study, a language classroom/teacher is the only access to the target language. Therefore, a language classroom to those learners could play a role greater than simply a language learning group. The language classroom/teacher could assist learners to envision their imagined communities (Norton, 2001: 164), such as picturing themselves with Japanese proficiency in a Japanese community. Accordingly, a language teacher in such a case has a crucial role as an old-timer for the learners who are not yet familiar with the knowledge and skills in the imagined community.

For most researchers in the linguistic, cultural, educational or sociolinguistic fields, English is the dominant language, since it is viewed as a global language (Pavlenko & Norton, 2007: 591). In this regard, for learners of a global language, there may be easier access to imagined communities even if they are learning it as a FL, in particular with the current advanced technologies and online communication. In contrast to English, which is learned both inside and outside of English-speaking countries, Japanese is not a popular language,

especially outside Japan. In fact, it is no surprise if non-Japanese people do not speak Japanese, even if they are living in Japan. Additionally, as a research topic, Japanese learning has been less common (Haneda, 2005: 270). However, as Norton argues (2001: 169), it would also be applicable to Japanese learners to think it is a learner's obligation to understand and be understood in the target language society, not just the target language speakers. In this respect, it could be more challenging for Japanese learners outside Japan to fill the gap between their imagined communities and real Japanese communities, which they may engage with in the future, or regulate themselves to approach their imagined community with less accessibility to materials and native speakers. In the next section, investment in learning Japanese is discussed, in relation to the points of view mentioned above.

2.2.4. Investment in learning Japanese in South Africa

One of the dominant concepts in the SLA/FL learning domain, used as a predictor of learners' achievement in a target language, has been 'motivation' (Gass & Selinker, 2008: 426). In particular, Gardner's motivation constructs (Dörnyei, 1994: 273) have had a great impact on this field, having established the research procedure and developed the notions, 'integrative motivation' and 'instrumental motivation'. Integrative motivation refers to "a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community" (Dörnyei, 1994: 274). Whereas, instrumental motivation signifies "the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency, such as getting a better job or a higher salary" (Dörnyei, 1994; 274). This dichotomy of motivation has been very popular owing to its simplicity and straightforwardness, although Dörnyei (1994: 274, 275) argues that Gardner's claims are more complicated and cannot be elucidated simply by two components. In fact, concerning motivation frameworks, researchers have conceptualised insights into motivation utilising other concepts such as 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' motivations, or three motivational components, namely 'course-specific', 'teacher-specific' and 'group-specific' motivational components (Clement et al., 1977: 123, 124; Dörnyei, 1994: 275, 277).

In this respect, Norton (1995; 2000) utilises the term "investment" in learning language

instead of motivation. In research on a group of immigrant English learners in Canada, Norton faced several phenomena which she could not account for within the SLA theories and frameworks commonly employed, such as motivation, self-confidence or social distance. She points out the limitation of motivation, which is that motivation does not illustrate the complexity and dynamics of individual language learners in terms of social relationships. Therefore, her attempt in the research is to develop a comprehensive theory which can elucidate a relationship between an individual learner and the context of learning, particularly a relationship between learners and the community of target language speakers (Norton, 1995: 12). In Norton's study, the notion of investment is outlined as follows:

The notion of investment ... attempts to capture the relationship of the language learner to the changing social world. It conceives of the language learner as having a complex social identity and multiple desires. The notion presupposes that when language learners speak, ... they are constantly organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world. Thus an investment in the target language is also an investment in a learner's own social identity, an identity which is constantly changing across time and space (Norton, 1995: 17-18).

Norton, in particular, emphasises the discrepancy between investment and instrumental motivation as follows:

The conception of instrumental motivation generally presupposes a unitary, fixed, and ahistorical language learner who desires access to material resources that are the privilege of target language speakers. In this view, motivation is a property of the language learner - a fixed personality trait (Norton, 1995: 17).

Investment, in contrast, attempts to elucidate fluidity as well as the individuality and uniqueness of each language learner by paying attention to changes over time and space. Motivation, specifically instrumental motivation, views language learners as individuals with fixed and solid features. It could be argued that motivation lacks the viewpoint of language learners as human beings with subjectivity and sociality living in various communities (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 417). No learner stays at the same point for an extended period of time. Regardless whether it is done consciously or unconsciously,

learners adapt and represent themselves according to the situation. In order to answer the question of why people behave as such, the notion of investment should be understood together with the other relevant concepts, ‘cultural capital’ and ‘imagined community’.

First, cultural capital is taken into consideration. It is helpful to understand the relationship between investment and cultural capital by viewing them in an economic sense. People usually expect a good return if they invest in business or stocks. This idea can be applied to the relationship between investment in learning a language and accumulating cultural capital. The reason for people’s investment in learning a language is that they expect to garner something in return (Norton, 1995: 17; Norton, 2000: 10). They believe that the investment enables them to reach a decent return. Taking some examples from Norton’s study of immigrant English learners in Canada (Norton, 1995: 19; Norton, 2000: 61, 93), Eva wished to access the public world in Canada, where she and her family immigrated, seeking a “better life”, while Katarina attempted to re-gain an opportunity to work in Canada in the same profession as in her home country, not a job merely for wages. These are tangible and intangible, or symbolic and material, resources which learners can obtain in return for investment in learning a language (Norton, 1995: 17). These resources will also accumulate learners’ cultural capital, which has an impact on positioning themselves in the community. In other words, the more cultural capital is accumulated due to investment in learning a target language, the more language learners can come closer to ideals of themselves, a membership of imagined community. For this purpose, they invest in learning a new language. Furthermore, the return is expected to be proportionate to the investment (Norton, 1995: 17). It should be borne in mind that this relationship is also fluid and changeable, since learners, who invest in learning a language, negotiate who they are in society or how they interact with people in society through language learning, depending on the circumstance.

Next, investment and imagined community are explored with reference to identity. Identity has drawn a great deal of attention from educational researchers and been established as one of the central concepts in the field (Norton, 2013: 1). Furthermore, it is noticeable that there is a journal named the *Journal of Language, Identity and Education* focusing on

language learning and the learner's identity (Norton, 2013: 1). The term, "identity", in fact, has been discussed by many researchers. For instance, Wenger (1998, cited in Haneda, 2005: 273) notes that identity is what people define themselves as through their experiences with others and it is an ongoing process, not only fixed features or characteristics. The current study takes the Norton's (2013: 4) position. According to her, identity is the way that people understand their standing points in relation to other people in the community. Identity is constantly produced and negotiated over time and space, and it can be even a site of struggle. It has diverse aspects and a mutual influence on other concepts of language learning. (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 414, 415). Identity should also be considered with the respect of imagined community, since imagined community can offer language learners the possibility of ideals of themselves in the future, or imagined identity (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 415). As mentioned earlier, imagined communities produce a powerful effect on learners' real lives (Norton, 2001: 165-167; Norton & Toohey, 2011: 422, 423). In other words, imagined community can affect learners' identities, which can have a strong impact on investment in learning a language, and eventually the investment can raise learners' cultural capital.

In a study by Darvin and Norton (2015), they present a model of investment (Figure 2.1 below). Three constructs are presented as factors which comprise the notion, investment, in the model. Among them, the relationships between investment and identity and capital (cultural capital, particularly) have been discussed in the current study. The last construct, ideology, is now considered. Ideology in this model is viewed as "a normative set of ideas" (Darvin & Norton, 2015: 43), which organises and constructs societies. Simultaneously it has the power to determine the mode of communication at micro and macro levels. It is suggested that the construct, ideology, in the model should be depicted as a plural form, ideologies, since this notion is not fixed and monolithic, but rather dynamic, complex and multidimensional (Darvin & Norton, 2015: 44; 2016: 27). In this regard, they also emphasise the significance of the present globalised and mobile world (Darvin & Norton, 2015: 47; 2016: 21, 22, 33, 34). People do not live in small, localised and rigid communities any more, but live in the world of "superdiversity" (Blommaert, 2013, cited in



Figure 2.1. Darwin and Norton's 2015 Model of Investment (Darvin & Norton, 2015: 42)

Darvin & Norton, 2016: 22). Advanced technologies such as information technology (IT) and transportation systems enable people to belong to several communities and to communicate with various others, even without physical movement. It also allows them to differentiate themselves depending on each community (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 432-434; Darvin & Norton, 2016: 33). Such IT in the 21st century is directly related to the way that language learners locate themselves and are located by others, such as through social networking services (SNS), they might seek multiple identities in order to differentiate themselves depending on each time and space, although those ways could be invisible (Darvin & Norton, 2016: 23). Such a present situation complicates investment in learning a language, and it necessitates further understanding of investment in learning a language.

This investment model should be discussed with all three constructs together, however, the current study does not take ideologies into detailed consideration. In order to clarify this position, the context of the current study is discussed. This study follows one of the leading researchers in the SLA/FL learning field, namely Norton, from whose research on immigrant English learners in Canada, the concept of 'investment' originated (Norton, 1995; 2000), as a fundamental notion in the present study. However, there is considerable difference between the current study and Norton's in terms of the research context. In the current study, the focus is on Japanese language learners without daily exposure to the

target language. Therefore, the research site is heavily dependent on activities or events related to a language classroom, a formal situation (Spolsky, 1989, cited in Norton, 1995: 14). Whereas, Norton's (1995: 14) interest is more in natural or informal settings such as learners' family lives and work places, although she also considers the language classes that learners attend.

Additionally, in the context of language education for those who actually live in a target-language-speaking country, interaction with target language speakers has a significant and direct influence on learners and their learning. Therefore, language learning for living is more closely linked to ideologies, while language learning without daily exposure seems to have a lesser connection with ideologies. This is because inequalities between the target language speakers and the learners, as well as other social, cultural, political and financial elements, must be seen clearly in the context of daily language exposure. In fact, the participants in Norton's study described their struggles to converse with local Canadians in English, since they felt inferior to speaking English or they felt that they lacked common knowledge which Canadians usually do, such as knowing Canadian celebrities (Norton, 1995).

In light of this, it is logical and essential to consider ideologies regarding investment so as to comprehend the complexity and dynamics of language learners in Norton's study. Her participants were exposed to their target language in their daily lives and their exigencies of understanding the language are far more urgent than those in the current study. Whereas, the current study does not necessarily include such exigencies, owing to the learners' learning contexts and the circumstances around the Japanese language in South Africa, even though the purposes of learning Japanese are various, not merely for a hobby. Viewed from a different angle, however, it is compelling to explore the reasons why such learners become interested in learning what is essentially a minor language in their country. In South Africa, indeed, other official languages such as isiXhosa or Afrikaans, or more familiar European languages such as German, French or Spanish are more popular. Thus, this study concentrates more on the notion of investment per se and its constructs as well as cultural capital and imagined community.

In sum, the worldwide circumstances around language education are changing and becoming increasingly complicated. Accordingly, understanding learners' investment in learning the target language demands that one considers more complexity, dynamics, fluidity and diversity over time and space, appreciating several notions relevant to investment (Darvin & Norton, 2015; 2016). One of the constructs, ideologies, is subordinated in this study compared with other concepts, since the focus of the current study is more on language learning without local language exposure or with little interaction with native Japanese speakers. In this regard, advanced IT can play a pivotal role for learners in such circumstances. This is owing to the greater possibility that learners may seek contact with target language speakers, Japanese native speakers in the current case, through online social media, and learning opportunities, such as various applications of learning materials, in order to compensate for the limitation of learning Japanese outside of a natural setting. Considering this perspective, learner autonomy is discussed in the next section.

2.3 Autonomy of language learning

Another important notion in the current study, 'autonomy', is explored in this section. Misconceptions of autonomy, definitions of autonomy, teachers' roles regarding autonomy and the relationship between autonomy and investment in terms of the context of the current study are discussed.

2.3.1. Misconceptions of autonomy

Before presenting a definition of autonomy, several 'misconceptions' referred to by Little (1991) and Benson (2001) are examined in order to avoid confusing the position in the current study. According to Little (1991) and Benson (2001), there are, indeed, some terms used in a misleading way in literature.

The first misconception indicated by Little (1991: 3), which seems the most common misconception, is that autonomy is regarded as interchangeable with self-instruction or self-direction. Self-instruction/direction basically means learners' own decision making without any others' directions about materials, methods, evaluations and so forth, such as

independent resource-based learning (Benson, 2001: 34, 112). Autonomy is not necessarily concerned with such aspects. No relationship is observed between autonomy and self-instruction/direction, and it is even suggested that self-instructed learning may hinder autonomy, since it signifies individual learning and it does not account for communicative interaction in society such as group work (Benson, 2001: 9, 10, 134). Autonomy, in fact, views such interaction with other learners as significant (Benson, 2001: 14; Legenhausen, 2003: 65; Little, 2007: 26). Therefore, autonomy and self-instruction/direction should be distinguished.

The second misconception is that a teacher in class is not allowed to intervene in their students' learning if the teacher wishes to foster learners' autonomy (Little, 1991:3). This is owing to the misunderstanding that a teacher's role in class is to manipulate a learner's learning process. This is generally seen to restrict their autonomy. From this point of view, teachers would not have anything to do in their classes, which is highly doubtful.

Another misconception is that autonomy is one of the methodologies which teachers typically employ in their classroom (Little, 1991: 3). Autonomy cannot be programmed into the curriculum, such as a series of teaching grammar, although autonomy requires teachers to approach their learners actively (Little, 1991: 3). In addition, autonomy does not refer to learning situations such as studying a language alone (Benson, 2001: 13). Some learners can succeed in fostering autonomy thanks to learning with a teacher and classmates, for instance. There is remarkable research to be taken into account within the field of autonomy research, which examines the correlation between autonomy and proficiency of the target language (Legenhausen, 2003). In this research, however, Legenhausen regards autonomy as an environment, which indicates that it is, indeed, confusing to define or characterise autonomy.

The fourth misconception is that autonomy is regarded as a simple and straightforward behaviour (Little, 1991: 3, 4). Autonomy, first of all, does not refer to a behaviour. Autonomy can, also, be presented in various ways depending on individual learner's age, background, learning style, perception, necessity and so forth. In this respect, autonomy

seems very similar to the notion of investment and other constructs relating to it. They are all multidimensional and dynamic, therefore autonomy should be observed and depicted with great deliberation, both intrapersonally and interpersonally. A clear example of autonomy would be demonstrated as a behaviour, as some learners may not change their behaviours obviously but can manage to foster autonomy. Additionally, even the same learner may change their ability to show autonomy depending on the subject, for example.

The last misconception is that autonomy is achieved only by a certain type of learner, and those learners are omnipotent (Little, 1991: 4). This might be the case with some teachers who mistakenly believe that all of their students in the class have autonomy. Autonomy, indeed, demands a considerable effort to foster and is not assured to be perpetual. Moreover, learners with great autonomy in one subject are not always those who are all-rounded autonomous learners. Autonomy is individualistic, both personally and situationally (Little, 1991: 4).

Reviewing these misconceptions, as discussed by Little and Benson, is useful for examining the previous research on learner autonomy in order to clarify the researchers' perspectives on autonomy. As Benson (2006) states, there are, in fact, various notions of autonomy prevailing. In this regard, next, the definitions of learner autonomy or autonomous learning in the language education context, as well as in the context of the current study, are discussed.

2.3.2. Definitions of autonomy

As seen from reviewing what autonomy is NOT, defining autonomy is complicated and delicate (Little, 1991: 3, 4; Benson, 2001: 47). Nevertheless, Benson (2001: 47, 48) argues for the significance of clarifying autonomy in the language learning context and its research, since it enables researchers and practitioners to achieve their aims and goals related to autonomy more certainly and effectively.

One of the definitions, which is the earliest and the most fundamental, is Holec's (1981) report to the Council of Europe. His definition emphasises that autonomy in adult education

is “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” and “a potential capacity to act” in learning, not an actual “behaviour” (Holec, 1981: 3). He also argues that adult learners with autonomy can determine the objectives, contents, progresses and methods of learning, as well as supervise and evaluate themselves on their own regarding their expectations, purposes and goals of learning.

Another definition of autonomy is Little’s (1991: 4), which is complementary to Holec’s idea in terms of taking the position that autonomy is a capacity. It should be taken into consideration, however, in the sense that Little supplements Holec’s definition as follows:

the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts (Little, 1991: 4).

This definition provides researchers with psychological and cognitive diagrams of the “self-management” of learning in general, which is often left out from the definition of autonomy (Benson, 2001: 49).

Benson (2001: 49, 50) further develops a definition of autonomy, particularly with respect to learners’ freedom of choice of learning contents, by concerning himself with the relationship between social and situational aspects and the abilities of learners, since these social and situational aspects can have an impact on learners’ decision making processes as well as autonomy. While Holec’s (1981) definition includes control over the learning process, and Little’s (1991) definition includes control over the cognitive process underlying learning, Benson (2001: 49) adds a third dimension of control over the content of learning. As such, Benson (2001: 50) claims that there are three interdependent constructs of autonomy, namely, learning management, cognitive processes and learning content. Learning autonomy as a capacity leads learners to take control over (1) learning behaviour for learning management, (2) psychology of learning for cognitive processes and (3) learning situations for learning content (Benson, 2001: 50).

With respect to the definitions of autonomy proposed by the three researchers, each one seems to have been developed by supplementing the previous one and been adopted according to worldwide social changes. In fact, advanced technologies, again, must be taken into account to redefine autonomy (Benson, 2001: 18; 2013: 840), since they provide learners with easy access to various learning materials and so forth, even if they are in such a situation as the current study context, without local language exposure. Learners' situations and social conditions supported by advanced technologies, no matter how slight it is, may affect their autonomy significantly (Benson, 2013: 841-842). It, indeed, seems to have a great impact on the learning situations depicted in Benson's three constructs of autonomy.

Regarding all of the above, the current study views learner autonomy as the capacity to take control of learning Japanese as a FL without daily language exposure. In particular, Benson's (2001: 50) three constructs, learning management, cognitive processes and learning content, can be key themes for a thematic analysis on analysing data of interview transcriptions and journal entries.

2.3.3. Teachers' responsibility and autonomy

The present study also takes a position that a language teacher can help to foster learner autonomy, which is actually the nature of human beings (Little, 2007: 17). In other words, interaction with teachers as well as peer learners encourages learners and promotes their autonomy (Benson, 2001: 14; Legenhausen, 2003: 65; Little, 2007: 26), although many researchers actually agree that institutionalised education, compared with naturalistic learning such as first language acquisition, decreases learner autonomy (Little, 1991: 9-13; Benson, 2001: 30). As described earlier, owing to the complexity and dynamics of each language learner, learner autonomy varies depending on the surroundings, such as time and space, even in the same individual. In light of this, the language teacher's role is beyond teaching a target language, rather their responsibility would be "awareness raising" (Legenhausen, 2003: 67). It may begin with leading learners to be aware of their goals of language learning, which can be their imagined community, and then to determine learning materials, etc. In other words, the teachers' role is to support their learners to find out their

best or better ways of learning, rather than teaching what teachers regard as best.

Nonetheless, in most institutionalised settings, regardless of full-time or part-time schooling, there are syllabuses and curricula which teachers must follow. Little (2007: 24) clearly states, about this point, that teachers can present their own understanding of a syllabus or curriculum. Even if two teachers utilise the same syllabus, they do not necessarily conduct an identical class. It means that an ideology change in learning contexts, to abandon a one-way traditional ‘teaching’ style and then to impose an interactive ‘learning’ style, is necessary for both teachers and learners, in the light of autonomy as well as investment. This change can be very challenging for many teachers and learners who have taught and been taught in the traditional way (Benson, 2001: 10; Little, 2007: 17). Autonomy, however, is not “all-or-nothing” (Benson, 2001: 51), but “a matter of degree” (Benson, 2006: 23). In the literature, in fact, the terms “foster”, “acquire” or “become more autonomous” are employed with autonomy (Benson, 2001: 51). That is, teachers and learners do not necessarily shift their teaching/learning ideology and style to a new one all at once. Gradual change must be meaningful. In this process, again, teachers would be expected to play a leading role to foster learner autonomy.

2.3.4. Investment in learning language and autonomy

In research on autonomy, some of the other important concepts are often considered jointly, such as self-regulation, identity and cognition (Benson, 2006: 28; Murray et al., 2011). Among these concepts, motivation seems most often paired with autonomy research and is regarded as one of the individual difference variables to affect learning (Benson, 2006: 29; Ushioda, 2011: 12). It is stated by many researchers that motivation and autonomy affect each other and are essential factors for successful learning, usually employing several theories or frameworks such as self-determination theory, attribution theory or the Vygotskian framework (Benson, 2006: 29). It appears that the focus within autonomy and motivation research is veering from descriptive data to statistical data (Ushioda, 2011: 11), which interestingly differs from the perspective of investment, which emphasises the importance of descriptive data and account for subjectivity of learners (Norton, 2000: 22, 23), although both have an interest in individual learner’s identity.

Nevertheless, the current study has employed the notion of investment as a main concern, since the notion of motivation has limitations for exploring the complexity and dynamics of language learners, as Norton (1995: 17; 2000: 10) points out. Furthermore, motivation is originated from a psychological paradigm (Dörnyei, 2001, cited in Norton, 2010: 354), rather than from a sociological paradigm of investment (Norton, 2010: 354). The social paradigm could elucidate more precisely language learners' multidimensional aspects as human beings with their own lives. It is compelling that one of the primary researchers on autonomy, Little (2007: 18), points out that learners' "autonomy will be undermined if they do not feel that their learning effort is paying off".

This can be clarified further through the notions of 'investment' and 'capital' proposed by Norton (1995: 17; 2000: 10). In this regard, the current study may contribute to our understanding of the relation of investment and autonomy, which is not generally a focus found in the literature.

2.4 Summary

It was the primary purpose of this chapter to look at the two main concepts in the present study, namely 'investment' and 'autonomy', referring to previous research, in addition to a brief background sketch of language learning in South Africa. 'Investment', conceptualised by Norton, was explored together with two relevant concepts, 'cultural capital' and 'imagined community'. Language learners seem to invest in learning a new language in order to accumulate cultural capital, which can lead them to changing their life such as seeking a new job or living abroad. Such a change in learners' lives can be illustrated as their 'imagined community'. Learners' imagined communities can be influential in their investment in learning, since they function as rules or regulations of access to their imagined communities (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 244). In this sense, 'imagined community' must be distinguished from fantasy or wish (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 244). 'Imagined community' is also relevant to language teachers, since it should be their role to identify and acknowledge learners' imagined communities, otherwise learners' investment in learning might result in failure (Norton, 2001: 165). The concept of 'investment', as well

as ‘cultural capital’ and ‘imagined community’, attempt to elucidate learners’ complexities and dynamics as human beings with subjectivity.

This sense is observed commonly in the concept of ‘autonomy’ (Little, 1991: 3, 4), which is regarded as the capacity to take overall control of learning (Benson, 2001: 49). This study takes ‘autonomy’ into consideration rather than self-instruction/direction, since ‘autonomy’ concerns learners’ cognitive process as well as learning management and learning content. These are different from the focus of self-instruction/direction; individual learning with self-decision making (Benson, 2001: 34, 50). Understanding learners’ cognitive processes should be noticeable to acknowledge their imagined community and stimulate their investment in learning a target language. Furthermore, the context of the current study, learning Japanese as a FL with less opportunity to access to language lessons and native speakers, might require learners to have control over their learning on the whole, utilising any support which they can attain.

CHAPTER 3: Research Methodology

This chapter presents a discussion of the research methodology. It includes information about the institution where data collection was conducted, participant recruitment, data collection design, ethical considerations and data analysis.

3.1 Description of the research site

In this section, the institution which functioned as the research site and the Japanese language course where data collection was carried out are described. The CJS was established in 2011 (University of Pretoria, 2017a). Three-month Japanese language courses for introductory level learners are offered regularly by the CJS to students at UP and to the public in the area. Applicants apply for the course in advance either by filling out a form online or contacting the secretary of the CJS directly (University of Pretoria, 2017b). There are usually ten to twenty applicants per course. The course which the researcher utilised for data collection began on the 9th of March, 2017 and finished on the 6th of July, consisting of fifteen lessons in total (several lessons were postponed to the next week during this period). Each lesson lasted for two hours from 6:00 pm every Thursday at a venue in the High Performance Centre, UP. At the beginning of this course there were fifteen learners, consisting of students at UP and non-students who worked in Pretoria or Johannesburg.

3.2 Participant recruitment⁵

For recruitment of the learner participants, a small presentation about the current study was given on the 9th of March, during the first lesson, to all learners in the class. In this presentation the purpose of the research and the methods of data collection, namely interviews and journaling, were outlined briefly. The researcher was cautious about divulging too many details of the study, since it might have influenced participants' articulations and attitudes towards the interview and the journal keeping. After this presentation, learners were given various options: participating in both an interview and

⁵ Details of the participants are provided in Chapter 4.

keeping a journal, only participating in an interview, only keeping a journal or none of these. Most of the learners volunteered for participation in both an interview and keeping a journal at this stage. These participants were chosen for the current study owing to the fact that the length of the course allowed the researcher to compare the differences in learners' general ideas about learning Japanese as a FL in South Africa before the participants actually started learning Japanese, during the learning process and after they had completed the course, since the course was scheduled to complete within a short period of time, namely three months.

For the recruitment of the teacher participant, the researcher first asked the CJS whether it was permissible to contact the teacher. The researcher then sent an email to the teacher and informed her about the current study and data methodology, namely an individual interview and journaling. After the teacher and the CJS approved the project, the teacher's permission for giving the presentation to the learners in the class was also obtained. The teacher, a Japanese woman living in Pretoria, has been in charge of the language courses offered by the CJS since it started. She has a bachelor's degree in teaching Japanese and experience in teaching Japanese as a FL in several countries to children, students and business people. She started her career in Japan in 2000, then moved to Taiwan and from 2005 has been in South Africa. Besides the language course at the university, she also currently offers private Japanese lessons.

3.3 Data collection design

A qualitative research methodology, in particular a case study, was employed in this research. A case study is referred to a research approach which allows researchers to look at a phenomenon within a specific context employing various resources as data (Eisenhardt, 1989: 534; Baxter & Jack, 2008: 543). Data collected in case studies are often derived from interviews, questionnaires, observations and/or documentation (Eisenhardt, 1989: 534; Baxter & Jack, 2008: 554). A case study should be taken into consideration in the case of the followings; (a) the focus of the study is to answer "how" and "why" questions, (b) you cannot manipulate the behaviour of those involved in the study, (c) you want to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under study,

or (d) the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context. (Yin, 2003, cited in Baxter & Jack, 2008: 545).

Considering the features mentioned above, a case study as a qualitative methodology enables researchers to obtain in-depth information, particularly about people's experiences, attitudes and behaviours (Kvale, 2007: 9, 38; Dawson, 2009: 14, 15). In addition, Norton and Toohey (2011: 427) argue that research on identity in the SLA context, which is one of the elements in Darwin and Norton (2015: 42)'s model of investment, requires a focus on participants' narratives. Narratives are major resources to approach participants' multiplicities and dynamics in case studies (Flyvbjerg, 2006: 21), which are collected through fieldwork-based approaches such as observations, interviews, diaries and journals (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 428). In order to decrease ambiguities and inconsistencies, which are often discussed in the comparison of qualitative paradigms with quantitative paradigms, the current study combined a few methods to collect data. This allows the researcher to examine various insights into the participants' articulations from different standpoints, which is becoming popular in social science research (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 426-429; Bayiga, 2016: 85). In light of this, having participants keep a journal and conducting an interview, including an art based elicitation method, namely a language portrait, were the research methods utilised in the present study. These qualitative methods are commonly undertaken, since they help researchers to explore the uniqueness of people, such as articulations of their daily experiences, actions, events, thoughts and feelings (Kvale, 2007: 9, 38; Norton & Toohey 2011: 426-429). More details of the three methods are given below.

3.3.1. Keeping a journal

Both the learner and teacher participants were asked to keep an electronic journal, using Microsoft Word, about their learning/teaching Japanese experiences throughout the Japanese course starting on the 9th of March, 2017, offered by the CJS. They were asked to write from a few sentences to a few paragraphs in their journals, at least once a week. These guidelines were not strictly adhered to, although they were explained to the participants before they started. The researcher, indeed, sent several emails which indicated that the length and frequency of the journal was less important, in order to encourage as many

participants as possible to contribute to the journal part of the study during this period. The journals were sent to the researcher by email after the course ended on the 6th of July. Out of the twelve learners who volunteered for journaling at the beginning, two female learners and six male learners actually submitted their journals, in addition to the teacher.

Journaling has been a classic method in SLA research for a long time (Norton, 1994: 22). Journals can be a significant tool for participants to express their experiences as learners/teachers (Norton, 1994: 22, 23) and provide rich information on their difficulties in learning/teaching a target language (Curtis & Bailey, 2009: 79; Gkonou, 2016: 17). This approach was employed, since the other method in the current study, an individual interview, may restrict the participants' articulations owing to their hesitation in expressing their difficulties or problems directly to a stranger. Or simply the participants may fail to remember their thoughts during a short interview time. It could also reflect indirectly how much Japanese the learner participants actually learned, if they chose to write in Japanese, and the learners' attitudes towards Japanese learning. Although journals were primarily written in English for both their and the researcher's sake, some of the learner participants did write parts of their entries in Japanese. Furthermore, journals could provide compelling information to see changes in their feelings or attitudes towards Japanese or learning Japanese, which is less likely to be observed during the interviews. The teacher participant was also asked to keep her journal in English. Cautious reading of each journal was made and then the themes in the entries were identified according to the current study's interest.

3.3.2. Individual semi-structured interviews and language portraits

Both the learner and teacher participants were invited to an individual interview held between 21st and 26th of June, 2017, at either the JICA (Japan International Cooperation Agency)⁶ office at the UP, the café in the High Performance Centre at the UP, or the researcher's accommodation, depending on the availability and convenience of the venues and each participant. The interview with the learners and the teacher comprised various questions designed to elicit the learners' characterization of investment in learning Japanese as a FL and the teacher's perspective on this, and what they regarded helpful in

⁶ JICA supports the CJS.

learning Japanese, and what elements could facilitate their autonomy in learning Japanese (see Appendix A).

These were semi-structured interviews, in which the question schedules, with open-ended questions, were prepared as a guide, but not rigid, therefore the order of the questions was subject to change depending on each interviewee's responses (Bailey, 2007: 100). Moreover, the interviewees were prompted to explain in more detail or give more information if the interviewer followed up with probing questions (Roulston, 2010: 14, 15). The reason why a semi-structured interview was employed is that it enables interviewees to answer using their own terms (Roulston, 2010: 14, 15), which helps them to account freely, compared with a structured interview. In addition to the benefits for participants, a semi-structured interview allows an interviewer to enhance the opportunity to elicit essential information for research by means of guiding questions. It also provides more freedom for an interviewer to explore interviewees' utterances compared with a structured interview, as they can arrange the interview schedule during an on-going interview if necessary (Roulston, 2010: 15). Furthermore, the nature of analysing information obtained from a semi-structured interview is inductive and interpretative (Roulston, 2010: 15).

The major drawback of a semi-structured interview, especially in terms of being undertaken in the present study, is that advanced interviewing skills, particularly listening skills, are required for an interviewer to assure which information is necessary, or how it may be probed by an interviewer (Richards, 2003: 53; Roulston, 2010: 15). This could be a major concern when the limitations of this study are considered, the researcher's relative lack of experience in implementing an individual interview as a research method. In order to address this issue, additional questions were posed to the participants via email after the interviews were done, if there were any ambiguous or obscure comments found in the transcriptions.

The learner participants were also asked to colour in a language portrait at the beginning of the interview and to explain it after completing the colouring in. They were given a handout with a body silhouette (see Appendix B) and asked to colour in the silhouette with

different colours, which represent all of the languages they know. It was completely dependent on the individual learners concerning which colour or which part of the body they chose. This type of art-based approach has become popular among researchers who explore language repertoires in multilingual contexts, since it can provide detailed information on the attitudes or perceptions of participants towards their languages and their society (Busch, 2012; Bayiga, 2016: 80, 81). This is relevant to the current study in order to explore the participants' perspectives on a new language for them, Japanese, and all the languages they use in their daily lives, which might be a revelation even to the participants themselves.

Each interview lasted between thirty and sixty minutes. All interviews, including with the teacher participant, were conducted in English and audio-recorded. The researcher also took notes if necessary. Of the fourteen learners who volunteered for interviewing at the beginning, ten learners actually participated, in addition to the teacher. Two participants (P6 and P7) were interviewed concurrently owing to their restricted availability, although the interviewer asked each question to each interviewee individually. These interviews were listened to repeatedly and were transcribed for data analysis by the researcher, and checked by a mother-tongue speaker of English to ensure their accuracy. In the process of transcribing, some of the conversations between the interviewer and the interviewee, which are extraneous to the current study, were intentionally discarded. In the interviews, the atmosphere was relaxed and it contained some icebreakers or conversations which were not directly related to the topic of the present study. This is owing to the idea of “the research interview as social practice” (Talmy, 2011: 26). Talmy claims that an interview should be carried out as a collaborative interaction between an interviewer and an interviewee, rather than a one way communication from an interviewer to an interviewee (Talmy, 2011: 27). The transcriptions, then, were read carefully by the researcher in order to familiarise herself with the contents of the descriptions first, and to identify the utterances which were relevant to the current study's topic after the repeated reading and coding.

3.4 Ethical considerations

The present study required permission from the CJS at the UP, as well as ethical clearance. First, ethical clearance from Stellenbosch University's Research Ethics Committee (REC) was obtained (see Appendix C). This letter of approval was then sent to the Research and Ethics Committee at the UP, as part of an additional ethical clearance application, for its approval (see Appendix D). As part of the latter ethics approval process, Prof Cyclic Hartell, director for the CJS, gave his permission for the study.

After the participants volunteered, they were asked to read through the consent form and sign it (see Appendix E). This study was regarded as low risk with no anticipated discomfort for the participants. In addition, the participants' strict confidentiality and their right of withdrawal were reserved throughout the study, all of which were clearly mentioned in the consent form, as well as via oral explanation by the researcher. Symbols (P1 to P11 and T) are utilised as pseudonyms in the study.

3.5 Data analysis

In order to analyse the data from both the journals and the transcriptions of the interviews, a thematic analysis, one of the most frequently used qualitative analyses in the social sciences was undertaken. According to Braun and Clarke (2006: 79), a thematic analysis is "a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail". They also argue that it is a flexible and accessible method for researchers, particularly for novice researchers, to analyse data qualitatively. It can be either inductive or theoretical depending on researchers' interests and/or research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 83, 84). This means that a thematic analysis frees researchers from the restraints of theoretical frameworks that other qualitative approaches impose, such as CA or interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA). A thematic analysis can therefore be compatible with various theoretical and technological paradigms (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 78). At the same time, this research does not require an in-depth analysis of utterances as CA does (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 94; Edmunds, 2015: 53).

A thematic analysis, however, requires researchers to review previous studies on this topic as a point of reference. The current study utilises several concepts such as the learners' 'investment' (Norton, 1995; 2000) in learning Japanese as a FL and its relevant concepts, and potential facilitators of learning Japanese in order to foster learner 'autonomy'. Additionally, this study's concern is interpreting individual experiences or behaviours rather than social perspectives. Also, it was anticipated that some unexpected insights of the participants might be engendered, considering that the nature of this study is exploratory. In light of this, the literature review in the process of a thematic analysis must be significant, since it allows the researcher to be acquainted with the topics before the thematic analysis is carried out (Aronson, 1994: 2; Bailey, 2007: 130). The importance of literature review also applies to a process of analysing a case study such as the current study (Baxter & Jack, 2008: 555). Considering all above, a thematic analysis is a legitimate approach and enables the researcher to generate compelling perspectives regarding learning a new language for adults.

On the other hand, some criticisms of a thematic analysis should be taken into account (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 97). The analysis might impede a researcher's focus on some specific perspectives. Its flexibility as an advantage was mentioned earlier, however, it could make a research procedure difficult, since researchers are forced to make a decision amongst several options depending on their interests and/or research questions at each phase of the analysis. It is imperative that researchers assert and adhere to their focal points, otherwise the focal points might fail to come to fruition. Regardless of the frequency of its being undertaken, a thematic analysis is neither as prestigious as other methods such as grounded theory or CA, nor does it have specific guidelines to pursue (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 97). Considering all above, however, a thematic analysis as well as other qualitative approaches should be employed according to genuinely the researchers' interests or research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 97).

Another concern for qualitative researchers is evaluation principles such as validity and reliability (Bailey, 2007: 179-184). Validity and reliability in qualitative methodologies are more complicated to conceptualise and represent, unlike quantitative methodologies, in

which the concepts are regarded more straightforward. Nonetheless, researchers are supposed to address this issue. According to Bailey (2007: 180, 181), validity in qualitative research can be replaced with “trustworthiness”, especially if the research methodology is regarding interpretation. Reliability means “consistency”, a lack of which is not necessarily an issue for qualitative researchers (Bailey, 2007: 183, 184). Since conclusions from qualitative research depends on respondents, who are not anticipated to have consistent responds (Bailey, 2007: 184). Instead, she argues that it is crucial for researchers, first to recognise subjectivity of qualitative methodologies and also to demonstrate procedures, paradigms, concepts and so on referred in the process (Bailey, 2007: 184). The fact that qualitative research is interpretative (Davis, 1995: 433; Guest et al., 2014) means that researchers’ subjectivity is inevitable. Furthermore, specific interpretations made by researchers with unique backgrounds could bring original insights to findings (Edmunds, 2015: 53, 54). These viewpoints, the criticisms and their solutions, apply to the data collection approach of the current study, a case study (Baxter & Jack, 2008: 556). In this study, therefore, the research procedure and methodology are represented as detailed as possible on condition of understanding its features mentioned here.

In practice, the process suggested by Bailey (2007: 127-129, 152-158) and Braun and Clarke (2006: 87-93) was followed. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for conducting a thematic analysis. First, both transcriptions and journals were repeatedly read by the researcher. This is regarded as a pivotal process in order to become familiar with the descriptions of the participants. Then coding was implemented throughout the data in a line-by-line manner, after which themes were searched for by collating similar codes. Finally defining and naming themes were completed, which are supposed to be coherent and answer the research questions. These processes are neither linear nor unequivocal, rather cautious reviewing as well as discarding or rearranging themes are required continuously. It should, too, be started from the point of view that anything in the descriptions could be a theme, rather than attempting to find only some specific matters.

Some questions regarding a thematic analysis might be; what are themes, and how are they established? According to Bailey (2007: 127, 152), codes and themes do not arise naturally

from data. Active involvement by thematic analysts with the data from the beginning, not passively awaiting themes arise, is required (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 82; 2016: 740, 741), since a thematic analysis as a qualitative approach demands interpretation by researchers (Davis, 1995: 433; Guest et al., 2014). Fugard and Potts (2015: 673), in contrast, claim that a theme is “discovered”. This does not connote the insight of researchers’ dynamic engagement with data, rather themes are believed to occur spontaneously and to be found by researchers coincidentally. As mentioned earlier, a thematic analysis in this study was carried out according to the research questions and referring to the previous literature. It cannot be independent from the researcher’s epistemological perspectives (Bailey, 2007: 191). Presence of the researcher should be acknowledged and could lead to generating unique consequences (Edmunds, 2015: 53, 54). Therefore, the researcher in this study, taking the former perception, attempted to generate themes and to identify what she sought, rather than awaiting themes to become apparent, during the analytical process.

3.6 Summary

This chapter provided information about the institution where data collection was conducted, participant recruitment, data collection design, ethical considerations and data analysis. The method of data collection, namely journaling and interviewing, including completing a language portrait, were discussed, together with the significance of employing such methods in the current study. In addition, the data analysis procedure, namely a thematic analysis, was explored, considering its positive and negative aspects as a research approach.

CHAPTER 4: Data Analysis and Findings

This chapter provides the details of the data collected through interviews with the participants and journals kept by them during the period of a three month Japanese course held at the UP and the findings of the analysis of this data. First, the demographic information of the learner participants is presented, including a discussion of the participants' language portraits. Then the findings from the analysis of the interviews and journals of the learners and the teacher will be discussed respectively.

4.1 Results of the background questionnaire and the language portraits

4.1.1. Results of the background questionnaire

The learner participants' information, including whether participants participated in an interview, keeping a journal, or both, is presented in Table 4.1 overleaf. As this table illustrates, two females and six males participated in both an interview and keeping a journal. One female and one male participated only in an interview, and one male only kept a journal. Those who participated in the interviews were asked about their occupations and their linguistics profiles, through the use of a language portrait. Thus, P11, who only participated in keeping a journal, was not asked this information.

For all of the participants, it was their first time learning Japanese in a class setting, although some of them had studied Japanese on their own before the course started, through online language learning materials, smartphone applications, or watching anime (Japanese cartoons). Some of the participants live and/or work in Pretoria, others live and/or work in Johannesburg. Most of the participants are in their twenties. At the beginning of the course, there were more learners who were older than the current participants, however, they had already left the course when the researcher conducted the interviews in June, 2017. The learners started at a basic level, learning the Japanese alphabets and greetings. The course aims for learners to acquire basic Japanese communication skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing (University of Pretoria, 2017b), however, achievement of each learner seems to vary substantially at the end of the course.

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	P11
Gender	Male	Male	Male	Female	Male	Male	Male	Female	Female	Male	Male
Age	19	56	28	23	33	24	20	25	19	22	24
Occupation	University student	Employee (Japanese company)	Employee	Employee	Employee	Employee/ University student	University student	Employee	University student	University student	University student/ Part-time
Languages (asked in interview)	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	English	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	Afrikaans	N/A
	English	English	English	Shona	English	English	English	English	English	English	
	French	Japanese	German	French	Japanese	Japanese	Japanese	Japanese	Japanese	Japanese	
	Japanese		Japanese	Korean	German						
				Japanese							
			((Chinese))								
Interview	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Journal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Table 4.1. Learner participants' information

4.1.2. Findings from language portraits

The language portraits, which the learner participants were asked to colour in in the interview, illustrate their perspectives on Japanese after three-months of lessons, compared with the other languages they know. There are four clear groups found, based on where on the body the learners put the Japanese language.

The first group is “Japanese is on the toes”, as illustrated in Figure 4.1. P1 and P2 belong to this group. P1 said the following:

P1: ... And a little bit of Japanese. I started now, just now. Just a little bit, like toes
[laughing] ... <interview>

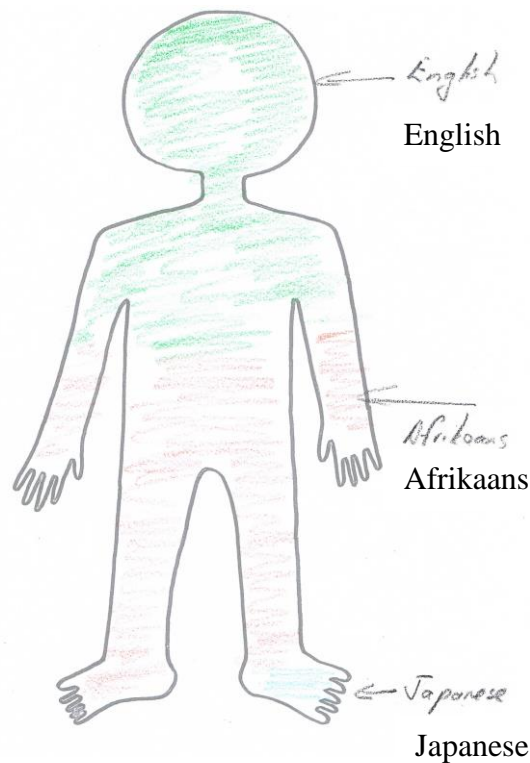


Figure 4.1. P2's language portrait⁷

⁷ The language portraits of other learners are available in Appendix F.

In Figure 4.1, we can see that P2 sees himself as an English-Afrikaans bilingual, with roughly half his body representing English, interestingly, the top-half, which includes his head, and the bottom half representing Afrikaans. Only the toes on the one foot represent Japanese. P2 mentioned in the interview that it would not matter to him if he were proficient in Japanese. Both participants seem to feel that Japanese is still of less practical use than the other languages they know and they are less confident in the language.

The second group is “Japanese is on the arms”, as illustrated in Figure 4.2. P3, P4, P5 and P10 belong to this group. Their reasons for this type of figure are compelling. P10 indicated that he simply liked writing the Japanese alphabets, which means that learning Japanese for him is symbolised as writing. Afrikaans, on the other hand, is a language for his thinking, and English is more practical or used mainly in his daily life.

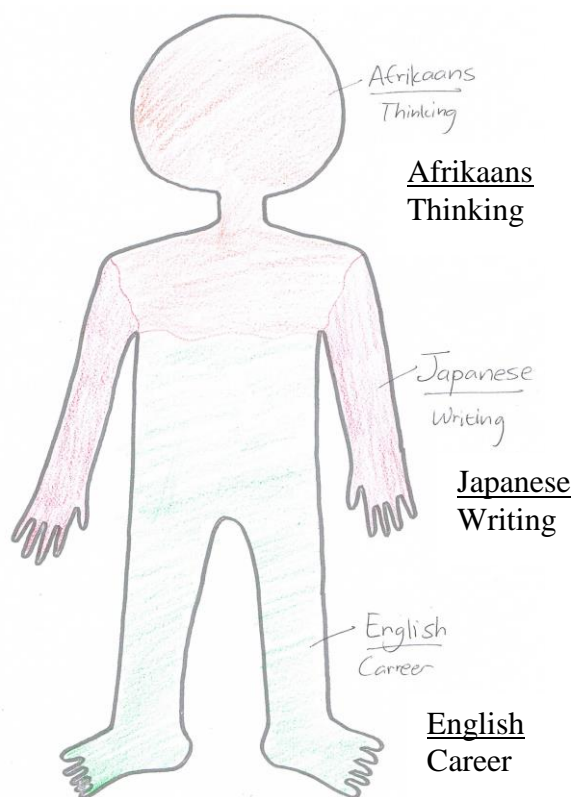


Figure 4.2. P10's language portrait

P3 stated that colouring the hands as Japanese indicated putting hands together, which represented respecting others. P5 mentioned that he was busy learning Japanese, which means he perhaps was engaged in writing to memorise. P4 has a unique portrait (Figure 4.3.). She had learned Korean before and felt that Korean and Japanese were related in some ways. Therefore, these two languages were put on each arm, almost axial-symmetrically. Chinese on the foot is smaller than the other languages, since she has not started learning this language yet, but is planning to start soon.

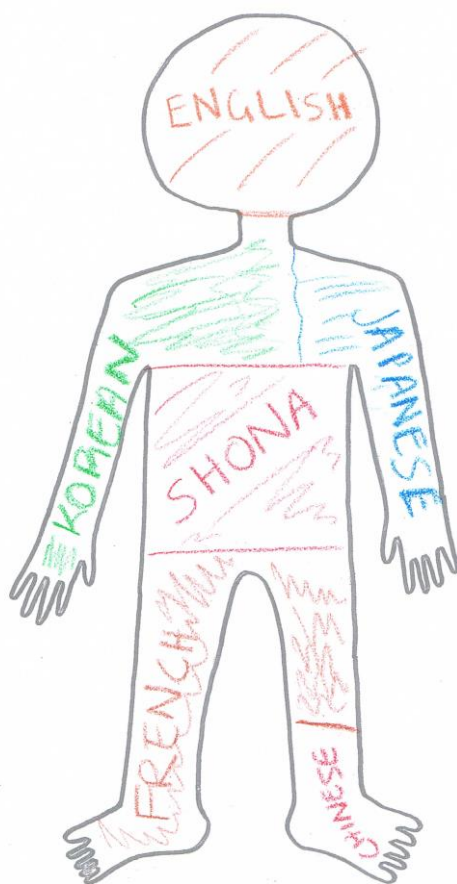


Figure 4.3. P4's language portrait

The third group is “Japanese is on the upper main body”, as illustrated in Figure 4.4. Only P6 belongs to this group. Afrikaans, on the head, is for his thinking, and English, on the limbs, is for daily use, whilst it seems learning Japanese for him is something valuable.

P6: ... I'm learning Japanese, which is something that I ENJOY, it's not that I.. have to learn. So that's why I see it here (on the upper main body) because where your heart.. like organs and stuff are. <interview>

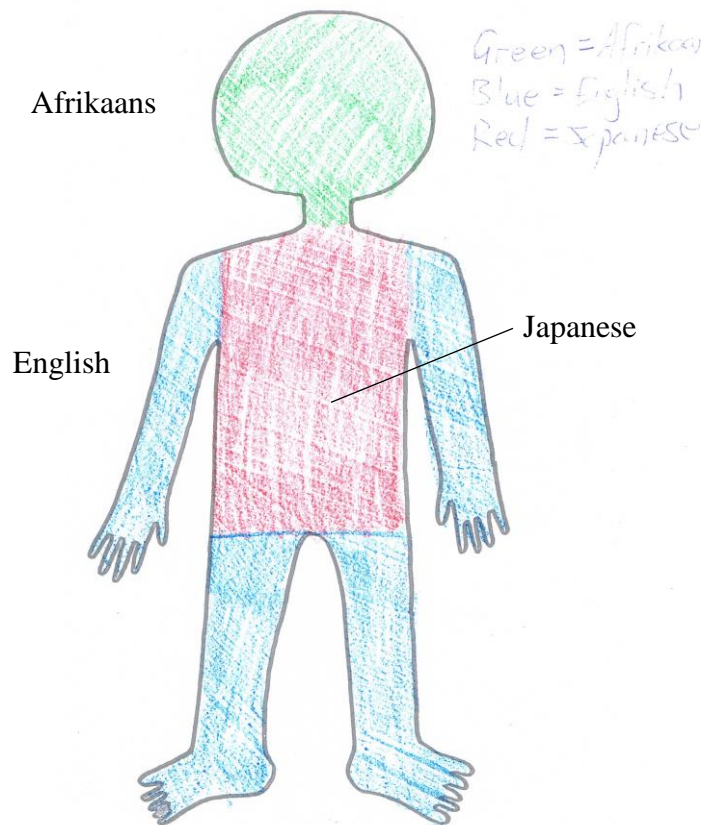


Figure 4.4. P6's language portrait

The last group is “Japanese is on the head”, as illustrated in Figure 4.5. P7, P8 and P9 belong to this group. On the one hand, both P8 and P9 indicated that they were Afrikaans, but English and Afrikaans were equally used in their daily lives, while they still needed to think carefully to speak Japanese. On the other hand, P7's reason is exceptional. He

explained that Japanese sounded nice, which means probably that Japanese sounds soft and comfortable to his ears. He is also bilingual in English and Afrikaans. However, he grew up in English and learned Afrikaans at school.

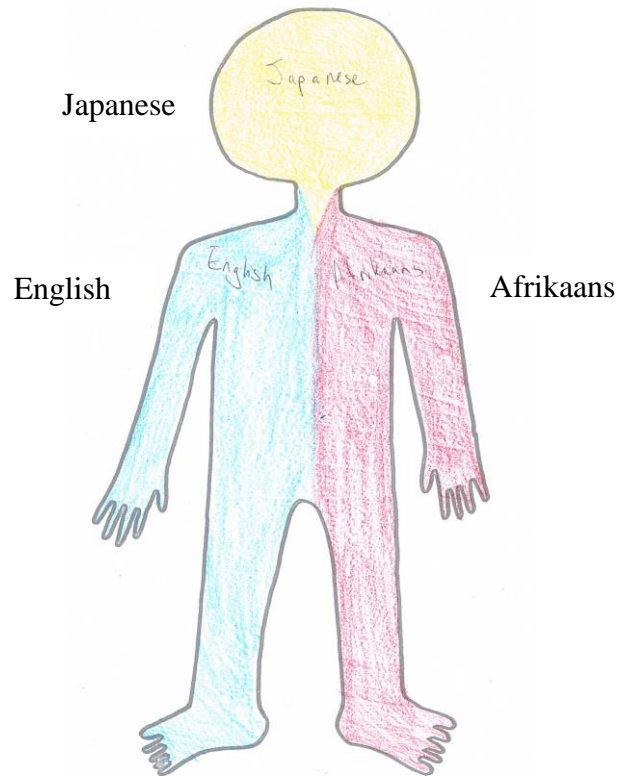


Figure 4.5. P8's language portrait

These language portraits clearly represent participants' perceptions of Japanese or learning Japanese. It is remarkable that most of them, except the first group, did not reflect much on their level of proficiency or competence in Japanese when deciding how large a *portion* of the body to draw it on, compared with other languages. The *part* of the body seems more important to them. Based on these portraits, it can be argued that the learners have a positive attitude towards Japanese, or learning Japanese, since these elements, such as areas and colours, in language portraits can provide revealing insights into learners' language repertoires (Busch, 2012: 14-16; Bayiga, 2016: 81). In order to examine these perceptions

further, in the next section, findings from the interview and journal data of the learner participants and the teacher participant are discussed respectively.

4.2 Findings from the interviews and the journals of the learner participants

There are several salient themes identified in the interview transcriptions and the journals. In the interviews, whole pictures and impressions of learners' learning Japanese were described, while daily actions and feelings of their learning were recorded in the journals. A thematic analysis of the two data sets together was conducted after intensive reading and coding of each data set. All themes found in the thematic analysis are represented in a table in Appendix G. Six key themes are identified and several sub-themes are also developed for each key theme. In this section, the six key themes, namely “Obstacles to learning Japanese in South Africa”, “Interest in Japan and the Japanese culture⁸”, “Necessity of support”, “Practice of learning Japanese”, “Self-achievement” and “The future with Japanese proficiency” are discussed and illustrated.

4.2.1. Obstacles to learning Japanese in South Africa

As discussed in the literature review, Japanese is not a popular language to learn or speak in South Africa. In this regard, perhaps unsurprisingly, all learner participants claimed difficulties or hindrances in learning Japanese in South Africa.

First of all, it was commonly observed that the learners wished to have more exposure to Japanese and to interact with Japanese people. One participant stated:

P1: I think there are not a lot of Japanese people here. So, you can't just speak to anyone. It's not a largely spoken language here, unfortunately. I'd like it was, though. So, it's not like English and French, you may get French people you can just speak to them.
<interview>

⁸ It is necessary to be cautious about the use of the term “culture” because of its arbitrariness (Scollon & Scollon, 2001: 138). In the current study, the term “culture” is interchangeable with “society” as a group of people, not individuals, sharing the same value system, such as behaviours and attitudes (Fieldhouse, 1995: 1, 2).

Another learner described the situation as follows:

P6: ... the only thing that I wish was different in South Africa, that there were more people to talk (in Japanese) to, like maybe call a friend and "Let's hang out tonight" ...
<interview>

Many of the learners emphasised that they have very few people who they actually speak Japanese to or practise the language with, except for the weekly lessons. It seems, indeed, to underscore the impression of the Japanese language as foreign to people in South Africa. This impression was formed even among the Japanese learners themselves before they started attending the course. One learner described the situation in his first journal entry as follows:

P10: ...the writing does look intimidating. <journal>

Almost all of the learners struggled with writing in Japanese, which is also discussed in the later sections. This is owing to the unique alphabets (the *hiragana* alphabet and the *katakana* alphabet), the Chinese characters (called *kanji* in Japanese) and the writing system itself. They are distinctly different from European languages written in the Roman alphabet, such as English and Afrikaans, which are familiar to the learners. The learners cannot simply apply previous knowledge or strategies of learning European languages. In learning Japanese as a FL, in fact, acquiring these alphabets and the characters is one of the central aspects of developing proficiency in the Japanese language. Furthermore, this foreignness of Japanese can be one of the reasons why Japanese is not popular to learn as a FL in South Africa. As one of the participants puts it:

P1: I think what scares people about learning Japanese in general is because it's different. But it's a good difference, though... They don't want difference, something like.. For instance, English has the same structure as Afrikaans does in a way.. Basically related... <interview>

Regardless of all these observations, the learner participants had their own compensations for facing the difficulties and beliefs about learning Japanese in South Africa. For instance, they seem to have attempted to use Japanese as much as possible outside the class. P2, who

actually has worked for several Japanese companies in Johannesburg, said that he sent emails in Japanese to his colleague in Japan for writing practice, or asked his Japanese colleagues in the South African office about the homework. Although the other learners are not as privileged as he is, several learners stated that they used Japanese with their friends or family. There was a sister (P9) and a brother (P10), taking the Japanese course together. They supported each other, such as greeting and speaking in Japanese at home and sending texts in Japanese on WhatsApp (an instant messaging application). Other examples are that P1 taught some Japanese to his friend, and P8 exchanged messages in Japanese with her friend who was planning to take the Japanese course in the next semester. P6 sometimes sent voice notes in Japanese on WhatsApp to his girlfriend. Additionally, many of the participants, in keeping a journal, wrote parts of their entries in Japanese or using the Japanese alphabets. P11, for instance, seems to have used his entries to review the lessons as well as for the function of journaling.

Furthermore, P9 seems to enjoy the time whenever she can hear Japanese inside and outside the class, in particular short utterances from a native Japanese speaker.

P9: ... sometimes she (the teacher) speaks Japanese in-between.. and we might not know what it means. But I think it helps.. to hear it.. ... she's speaking in-between and stuff like.. We didn't learn, "Chotto matte (Wait a bit)". We learned it.. because every time.. you say something or you're translating something, she's like, "Chotto matte", ...
<interview>

P3 also seems to have appreciated the fact that the teacher of the course is a native Japanese speaker, who actually grew up in Japan and knows about Japan as a Japanese citizen, rather than acquiring the knowledge second-hand, since pronunciation and cultural aspects which she taught were regarded as being more authentic.

Concerning the linguistic difficulties of learning Japanese, as a matter of fact, most of the learners changed their minds after some lessons were provided.

P10: ...when we started with the.. most of the grammar, it was basic things, like, here goes to a subject and here goes to an object and.. And it was.. almost like the..

programming I'm.. doing. It's like, it has a very.. defined structure that almost never changes. And that.. just kind of.. felt like a good way to do things. <interview>

P10 mentioned several times in the interview that he was ambivalent in the beginning about learning Japanese, since he was afraid that learning Japanese could have been very tense. However, he found that Japanese was not as complicated as he imagined. P4 also felt that Japanese was very straightforward in terms of grammar, therefore it would be fine once the basic structure is understood.

In sum, the learner participants seem to have their own beliefs about learning Japanese, which enabled them to overcome several obstacles to learning Japanese as a FL in South Africa. In the next sections, findings about subjugating difficulties in learning Japanese is further discussed considering their beliefs.

4.2.2. Interest in Japan and the Japanese culture

In the previous section, the exoticism and uniqueness of the Japanese language compared with European languages, was described. Furthermore, some learners indicated that this difference can be a reason why Japanese is less popular to learn in South Africa. Interestingly, however, the learner participants seem to have chosen to learn Japanese precisely because of the difference or uniqueness of Japan and the Japanese language, such as the writing system. Some learners were, indeed, fascinated with writing the Japanese alphabets, especially the *hiragana* alphabet, which is learned first in learning Japanese as a FL. For P4, the *hiragana* alphabet is drawing, rather than writing. P7 described it as a form of art. P10 stated that handwriting of the alphabet reflected their personality. Furthermore, when one of the unique features of the Japanese language, namely particles, was discussed in the interview, P7 explained as follows:

P7: I think.. ahh, we enjoy it (learning particles).. because.. English and Afrikaans languages don't have the particles... <interview>

In addition to the language perspective, the exoticism and uniqueness of the Japanese cultural aspects seem to have attracted the learners. For instance, P5, who belongs to a club

for the Japanese traditional board game, named “Go”, in Pretoria and went to Japan last year for a *Go* event, stated the following:

P5: ...last year when I went there, I really enjoyed, especially the temples, the temples and the foods. I really enjoyed that because it's so different, interesting, ...
<interview>

P5 thus enjoyed a tangible side of the Japanese cultural uniqueness, while most of the learners also seem to have been interested in intangible aspects of the Japanese culture. In particular, “respect” and its link to the Japanese language matter to the learners. The reason why P2 started learning Japanese was that he wanted to be able to speak Japanese in a manner that showed his respect for the culture and other people. P3 also explained this as follows:

P3: ...in your Japanese language, you've got a lot of respect built into the language. ... you've just got the so much more levels of that in Japanese, so more like respect (compared with Afrikaans or German). ... <interview>

In addition to this, the Japanese subculture, particularly anime and manga (Japanese comics), has been popular all over the world. South Africa is not an exception to this phenomenon. In fact, seven out of the eleven learner participants mentioned the impact of anime and/or manga on their Japanese learning. Especially P3, P9 and P10 keenly described how different Japanese anime was from Western cartoons in the light of its themes, its quality and voice acting. Some learners also attempted to learn Japanese through anime or manga. Anime and manga are not only the impetus for them to learn Japanese, but also their learning tools. P11 wrote the following in his first journal entry, after the first lesson:

P11: The basic words and greetings learned in last week's lesson were all familiar, having heard them numerous times in anime. <journal>

It is generally true that some people try to avoid difference, which makes learning a FL challenging, whereas others enjoy difference. The learner participants admire the

difference and uniqueness of Japan and the Japanese language. Moreover, they are attracted by the difference and uniqueness, which seems to further drive them to learn Japanese.

4.2.3. Necessity of support

Although the learner participants have strong interest in Japan and the Japanese language, there is no doubt that it is still not easy to learn Japanese on their own, especially at the elementary stage of learning. P3 indicated that he did not know how to start learning Japanese. He knew there were many free websites and applications available, however, they were neither well-structured nor well-organised enough for those who wished to learn a language systematically or step-by-step.

I (interviewer): ... what is your main purpose or expectation of enrolling this Japanese course?

P3: For.. this course, it was.. to.. see what's.. sort of steps you need to take.. to progress yourself. ... <interview>

Some other learners also stated that they expected to learn the basics of Japanese in the course, so that they could continue to study on their own after the course finished. They considered the Japanese course to be merely the first step.

In this regard, the course seems to fulfil their expectations. Particularly they appreciate the teacher's support in making Japanese learning more enjoyable. P4 expressed her gratitude to the teacher for creating a WhatsApp group, which enabled the learners to share information about Japanese learning, such as useful websites, applications and images of vocabulary, or to exchange messages in Japanese with each other. The learners also found the interactive lessons helpful, since they had limited opportunity to practise speaking outside the class. In fact, some of them accentuated the importance of speaking among the four language skills, namely reading, writing, listening and speaking. P8 said:

P8: I think she (the teacher) helps a lot. Amm.. yeah, I feel like I learned a lot with her.. because the way she does is very interactive. So you get a lot of practice and so your speaking gets better, which is good, you know. ... <interview>

The greater focus on interaction in the lessons, particularly, helps the learners. For instance, P9 found herself nervous when she spoke Japanese in the first Japanese lesson in March. In the last lesson in July, however, she felt more comfortable speaking in front of her classmates. She thought that it was owing to how much the teacher made the lessons interactive (journal).

One significant factor which engaged the learners more in speaking in the class seems a relaxed atmosphere created by the teacher.

P3: ...light-hearted is actually the word (for describing the class). You're not afraid to try to speak, ...it's not like "wuuh.." [laughing], a heavy atmosphere. So I think that.. helps a lot. <interview>

Another learner also noted:

P7: ...She always asks us questions and she.. makes it a fun experience. She makes you to want to come to the class. <interview>

Another aspect, which some learners appreciated, given that the course is delivered by a native Japanese, is that the lessons were not only about the language, but also about the background of specific expressions or behaviours, and information about daily life in Japan.

P3 emphasised how significant it was for him as follows:

P3: ... understanding what you're saying is not just a sound. So that's the important thing for me. Ahh.. knowing what I'm dealing with, if you know it, then you can understand it, then it's not just.. being a parrot, ... <interview>

As P3 indicates, it helps the learners to know the reasons for specific expressions, for example, in order to digest the content of the lessons, avoiding being a “parrot”. It also inspires them to study Japanese more, since they are interested in the uniqueness of Japan and Japanese.

Three learners, P3, P8 and P9, indeed, claimed that they wanted more listening practice to become used to listening to other Japanese speakers, not only the teacher, and that the

course was too intense in terms of the learning content. In fact, four learners who volunteered for the data collection of the current study at the beginning of the course left the course halfway. Nevertheless, the learner participants seem satisfied with the course overall, and made use of the weekly lessons as an opportunity, particularly for speaking practice.

P8: ...I'm enjoying the process, you know. It's like something that I look forward to every week (the lessons were every Thursday). ... it makes me happier, ... <interview>

In the next section, the learners' practice of learning Japanese, mainly focused on self-study, is discussed.

4.2.4. Practice of learning Japanese

As mentioned earlier, all learner participants mentioned difficulties in learning Japanese as a FL. One of the salient concerns is time management.

P3: ... I'm working, say, to eight or nine at night. So you don't have that much time (for learning Japanese). ... <interview>

The Japanese course was something extra for the learners, and they had their own work and/or university studies. They therefore acknowledged the importance of revision for the lessons, such as memorising vocabulary and the alphabets.

P8: ...the language, learning a new language is a big.. like task, you know. And.. we only do once a week.. for us. ...So by the time next week, you've kind of maybe forgotten many things. So I feel like you need to constantly just.. do some revising in your head. ... <interview>

In fact, the learner participants seem to have attempted to find as much time as possible, such that P5 adopted a new habit of studying in the morning before going to work (journal), and P9 studied Japanese in her spare time, using a smartphone application, when other students might have spent their spare time checking Facebook or Twitter (interview).

As the case of P9 indicates, smartphone applications and websites have a profound impact on the learners' self-study⁹. For instance, *Tofugu* was P3's favourite website, which utilised mnemonics for learning the Japanese alphabets, and P4 had some smartphone applications, such as *kana town* and *kanakana*, for alphabet learning. P8 used images on Pinterest to remember vocabulary and greetings. Many of them remarked on the difficulty to obtain suitable resources for their Japanese learning, particularly physical resources, such as dictionaries, in South Africa, however, P6 and P7 stated the following:

I: ... have you ever felt like a lack of books or those resources, I mean materials?

P7: In a physical form, yes, but you can just go and google and.. download. You'll be able to find books that you can buy or download for free, that can explain.

P6: Yeah.. I have to say the internet makes it easier. It's starting to become irrelevant to look for a book in a book shop. <interview>

It is still undoubted that every learner struggles, such as with the unfamiliar alphabets, writing system or vocabulary, when learning Japanese. Nevertheless, each learner seems to know their own praxis of learning. P3 stated that this was well-balanced between self-study and the lessons. P9 emphasised the importance of devoting an effort into learning Japanese, such as making the time to study Japanese regularly even if you are busy working, if you sincerely wish to improve your Japanese competence. P8 indicated that it was important to pace yourself to study and not to overwhelm yourself, since you could not learn anything then. In the next section, what encourages or disciplines the learners to study Japanese with these attitudes is discussed.

4.2.5. Self-achievement

An attitude commonly found among the learner participants is that they were curious to learn something new. The eagerness for learning, in particular something challenging, could provide a convincing explanation for their attitude towards Japanese learning.

P7: ... I.. think by especially learning an Asian language in the Western culture, as I said earlier, they are seen as super difficult languages. So.. in a sense, it might make you seen.. more intellectual. ... <interview>

⁹ "Self-study" here means learning outside the class in general.

Again, the discrepancy between Japanese and European languages seems a key feature. Another learner also described the following in terms of challenge and achievement:

P1: ... If you do something more difficult, you get more like.. gain or more achievement, I guess. You enjoy it more. Yeah.. <interview>

As mentioned in the literature review, most of the learners do not have an urgent practical reason to learn Japanese, therefore their reasons seem to come from more abstract aspects, such as a self-accomplishment, rather than obtaining tangible profits. P8 indicated that learning Japanese was a bonus for her, and P3 mentioned that learning Japanese was for “enlightenment (interview)”, not for his practical benefit in real life. These perspectives could be illustrated with the following articulation:

P9: ... If you can speak more than one language, I think it empowers you.. to realise.. how different other cultures are and.. how different people.. go about the things and.. I think it just makes you.. a more diverse person, knowing a language, studying a language. ... <interview>

Learning a foreign language, such as Japanese, enables the learners to know a different world and to broaden their perspectives, since they will be able to understand the culture, the practices and conventions of people living in the country or its history, as well as the language per se. In order to see the world with such a new perspective obtained through learning a new language, it is essential to have a growing interest in Japan and Japanese. As mentioned earlier, anime, for instance, significantly influences the participants' Japanese learning. The first step for some of them was to watch anime, and then their interest in Japan and Japanese grew. The more they know, the more they are interested in Japan and Japanese. In light of this, the Japanese course, indeed, helps the learners, since it is almost the only chance to speak Japanese and to meet a native Japanese speaker, who provides them with information on Japan and Japanese, in addition to support for language learning.

With these two elements, Japanese learning itself and interests in Japan, interwoven, it did not take much time for the learners to start feeling proud of acquiring Japanese, which

brings another positive reflection on their learning. This is seen in the journal entries of two learners.

P8: I watched a Japanese drama series. I heard some words from both the first and second lesson that I recognised. It was very exciting that I could understand it, even if it was just a few words. ... <journal>

P9: ... During the revision exercises I was surprised to see how easily I could understand dialogue. Even if they were simple conversations, I was very proud of myself for following along and understand everything that was being said. This motivated me to look for more listening practice, and to work hard overall to master Japanese. ... <journal>

Furthermore, when P2 and P7 visited Japan, they had a short conversation with local Japanese people and managed to make themselves understood in Japanese, which made them feel better. Another example is that after the learners and the teacher were invited by the Japanese ambassador for dinner, P9 sent the researcher an email, saying that she was surprised how much she could actually communicate in Japanese. Moreover, P10, who stated in the interview that he was not good at language in general, as a matter of fact, had successfully grown his confidence in learning a new language through the experience of this Japanese learning.

Most of the learners' perspectives in their articulations are neither practical nor tangible. Instead, intangible benefits seem to influence their Japanese learning deeply. These aspects are visible in the shorter term, three months after they started learning Japanese. In the last section, the accomplishments or goals of the learners in the longer term are discussed.

4.2.6. The future with Japanese proficiency

In the longer term, the learners expect more various goals, not merely accomplishment of the Japanese language proficiency. For instance, P6 stated that he wished to become proficient in Japanese at the level of watching Japanese films without subtitles. P3, P8 and

P9 want to take the JLPT test in order to set a visible goal and achievement before actually going to Japan.

P3: ... I am thinking of taking the JLPT later this year. The reason would be twofold, forcing me to learn more and keep improving my skill and the other would be to help me get to a basic level that I might need if I want to travel to Japan, hopefully in the near future. <journal>

It is also commonly heard as a purpose of learning a new language to visit the country where the language is spoken. Many of the learner participants also mentioned that they would want to go to Japan, besides the three of them who have already been there. Some of the learner participants depicted their enthusiasm for staying in Japan, rather than merely travelling to Japan. P10 mentioned his idea to enrol for a postdoctoral fellowship in Japan, since Japan has good facilities for his expertise. P1, P5, P7 and P8 mentioned the JET programme¹⁰, and P8 actually intends to apply this year. P4, P7 and P9 were considering the MEXT scholarship¹¹. P4 actually applied for this scholarship with the teacher's recommendation letter, to do a Master's in Japan.

Those who regard visiting Japan as actually happening in the near future seem to have a mutual belief, such as the following:

P8: ... if you go to a someone else's country, I feel like, "You're going there, you should.. know a bit and try to not to be rude to.. them and adopt to how they do things." Because everyone's different and everyone.. grew up differently, ... <interview>

This perspective could be argued from two points of view, again; the difference between Japanese and South African societies and the specific Japanese attitude of respect for others. The learners are interested in the discrepancy, therefore they value the Japanese uniqueness and might want to demonstrate their acknowledgement of it to local Japanese people.

¹⁰ In the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme, English native speakers are despatched to Japanese schools and work as a language instructor (JET PROGRAMME, 2017).

¹¹ The MEXT scholarship is one offered by the Japanese government, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2017).

Additionally, they seem very cautious about being rude or behaving inappropriately in Japan, since they believe that it is important for Japanese people to show respect to others, regardless of their origins.

Regarding the future with Japanese proficiency, an articulation of P9 is remarkable. She has a great passion for anime.

P9: ... anime to me is.. a very important part of my life. ...I do think that changes life. I do think that people see it and they learn something from it. Or even just it makes them happy.. for a bit. And I think we don't have enough of love in the world.. except making people happy. And I always want to be a part of making it. ... I do think that I might be able to work with my voice, ... <interview>

In her journal, she also wrote that she intended to pursue her dream, being a voice actress in Japan. Besides anime itself, she emphasised how significant voice acting was to her. She acknowledged that it was not easy to be a voice actress in Japan, even so, everything about Japan and Japanese seemed meaningful to her. Therefore, her devotion to learning Japanese and progress are, indeed, substantial. In this respect, her remark is symbolic.

P9: ...when you're learning a language, you need to think about what I need.. the most, what I need to know the most. ... <interview>

Clarifying an individual purpose of learning a target language and the trajectory needed in order to follow for achieving the purpose could be critical for learners. For teachers, needless to say teaching a target language, supporting learners in light of this should be noteworthy in order to lead the learners to the right direction. In the next section, the teacher's perspectives are illustrated.

4.3 Findings from the interview and the journal of the teacher participant

There are several pertinent themes found in the teacher's interview and her journal. All themes are represented in a table in Appendix H. Five key themes, namely "Teacher's beliefs", "Struggles as a teacher", "Course structure and the lesson", "Outside the class" and "Learner's interest and attitudes", as well as several sub-themes, are developed in the

thematic analysis. In this section, one salient theme, “Teacher’s belief”, out of the five key themes is focused on. The section illustrates the teacher’s insights, according to the three sub-themes, “Acknowledgement of the purposes and expectations of learning Japanese”, “Teacher’s expectation of the learners” and “Japanese as a communication tool”.

4.3.1. Acknowledgement of the purposes and expectations of learning Japanese

The teacher participant has over fifteen years of experience in teaching Japanese in three countries including South Africa, therefore she has her own beliefs about teaching Japanese as a FL.

First of all, she emphasised the importance of acknowledging the learners’ reasons for learning Japanese.

T (teacher participant): ... every single time.. (when) amm, the course starts, amm, I'm gonna give them questionnaires, ask them, this paper includes.. ahh, where.. did they know about this course, and the reason of taking this course.. and, or like, why now you want to study Japanese, or (whether) there (is) Japanese learning experience. ... Or what do you want to do.. amm, like extra things.. during the course, ... that is the most important thing for me, especially private one-by-one students, ... <interview>

She also gives private lessons, apart from the course regularly offered by the UP, as the only Japanese language teacher in the Pretoria area. It is unsurprising that she has various learners with different demographic characteristics and learning purposes. The questions asked by her in the questionnaire are directly related to the lesson contents in the short term. As mentioned in the findings of the learner participants, learning the Japanese alphabets is demanding. In fact, according to the teacher, there are a certain number of learners who do not want to learn the alphabets, since *romoji*¹² enables them to learn Japanese without using the Japanese writing system. If a teacher starts the first lesson by showing the intimidating tables of the alphabets to those who do not necessarily want to learn writing, they might not continue with the course. It will also affect a goal of the learners in the longer term.

¹² A way to write Japanese using the Roman alphabet, also known as “Romanisation”.

T: ... Ah, this person.. wants to study for JLPT, but if I completely, (give lessons) more.. culture mainly or travel in Japanese, it (does) not suit, fit on (in).. what they want.
<interview>

It does not sound possible to meet every single expectation in a group lesson, such as the Japanese course. Nonetheless, it is required for teachers, at least, to know the learners' purposes and expectations, since it is essential for language teachers to direct the learners to their own 'imagined communities', as noted with regard to P9's articulation described earlier. This point will be discussed further in the next chapter.

4.3.2. Teacher's expectation of the learners

As the learner participants themselves pointed out, it is not enough in order to acquire another language to only attend the weekly two-hour lessons for fifteen weeks. The teacher participant also encourages the learners to study outside the class, although there is very limited opportunity to practise Japanese apart from the lessons. One of the solutions for dealing with this concern is the textbook employed in the course.

T: ... I think it's (the textbook is) the best.. ahh, textbook for English speakers. Because.. like a good amount of practice inside.. and a good amount of grammar explanation inside in their language. ... not only the class time (but also) during the week or so, for example, just.. do revision or homework, they also.. can check by themselves. ...
<interview>

There are many textbooks available for Japanese learning. The textbook, called "Genki"¹³, is one of the popular textbooks for the elementary level, particularly in English speaking countries. This is owing to the fact that it explains the grammar in English, although it is basically written with the Japanese alphabets. The researcher has also used the textbook in teaching Japanese abroad. The learners seem to have made use of the features of the textbook in their revision at home.

¹³ "An Integrated Course in Japanese, Genki" published by The Japan Times Ltd.
[http://genki.japantimes.co.jp/index_en (Accessed on 07/10/2017)]

The teacher also valued homework as a tool which exposes the learners to Japanese outside the class, as well as for their revision of the lesson.

I: About homework you gave to the students, why did you give them homework every week even if it wasn't big? ...

T: For letting them study Japanese at home. Some students even (do) not open textbook or not do anything whole week. And in SA (South Africa), students hardly see or listen (hear) any Japanese in everyday life. If they have homework, at least once a week (they) study Japanese at home. <email exchanged after the interview>

The teacher seemed to have encouraged the learners to make use of the limited opportunities for them to have exposure to Japanese as much as possible. This is similar to the learners' attempts, where they also made full use of the few opportunities to use Japanese, such as with their friends or family.

4.3.3. Japanese as a communication tool

Some learners emphasised that speaking was the most important skill to acquire in order to communicate with Japanese people. The teacher agreed with them.

T: ... when.. (you) deal with Japanese or use the language, the most important (thing) is.. speaking. (You) Need to say something. <interview>

In order to make the learners practise orally in the class, the teacher often utilised role-play, such as ordering food at a restaurant. Through role-play, the learners found that they could, indeed, speak better than they thought, even though their vocabularies were still limited. Additionally, the teacher encouraged the learners as follows:

T: ... (I) always tell (the learners at) the first lesson, "Don't (be) afraid to make a mistake. If.. you don't make a mistake, you'll never know you.. it's wrong", kind of. So I force them to [laughing].. ahh, say, even (though it's) wrong. <interview>

Although some learners hesitate to speak in the class, especially when they are not sure, it is important to attempt to speak up, or to learn from mistakes. As discussed in the learners' findings, the learners seem to have understood this teacher's strategy of speaking practice.

Some of them, indeed, stated that it was good the teacher actually ‘forced’ them to say something in Japanese.

The highlight among the teacher’s articulations would be teaching Japanese cultural aspects as follows:

T: ...When people learn the language, they should learn the culture or people's behaviour of the place the language is spoken. Because language is used by people. <email after the interview>

She continued that it might cause misunderstanding or miscommunication if the learners did not understand the background of the language, such as the people’s attitudes or behaviours. She also indicated that she did not necessarily teach the learners in Taiwan those cultural aspects, since Japan and Taiwan are similar in terms of culture and conventions. As the learner participants repeatedly mentioned, however, Japan and South Africa have very different languages and cultural practices. This teaching strategy seems to have functioned to encourage the learners to study Japanese further. In fact, P3 stated the following:

P3: ...I think that's the main focus of how you get people to learn Japanese. Cultivate their interest in.. the culture. And because of the interest in culture, you'll get interested in the language because they're so closely bound. <interview>

Regarding this, the teacher stated the significance of a native speaker’s support as a language teacher as follows:

T: ... those things (specific contexts which the language is spoken) (are) sometimes difficult for them (the learners) to know.. yeah, without native Japanese's help. <interview>

She reiterated that language is merely a tool, therefore the main concern should be practical usage of the Japanese language. Her goal was for learners to be able to communicate in Japanese in appropriate ways when they need to. It seems that most of the learner participants successfully follow the teacher’s direction.

4.4 Summary of the findings

From the thematic analysis of the interview transcripts and the journal entries, the participants' thoughts about learning/teaching Japanese as a FL, particularly without daily exposure, such as in South Africa, were attained. The learner participants in the current study articulated their explicit purposes and reasons for learning Japanese. Such clear visions should have made them start and continue their Japanese learning, although they found difficulties and drawbacks of learning Japanese in South Africa. Data from the teacher as well as the learners in this study helped the researcher compare the perspectives from different viewpoints. The teacher participant has her own style and belief of teaching. It seems that the teacher's path indicated to the learners in the language course, such as speaking practice or teaching the culture, is compatible with the learners' trajectory of learning a target language. The next chapter will discuss further these findings in relation to the theoretical concepts described in the literature review.

CHAPTER 5: Discussion and Conclusion

Owing to the current study's nature, the salient themes presented in the previous chapter were data-driven. This chapter, therefore, will discuss these themes further from the viewpoints of the two main theoretical concepts, namely 'investment' and 'autonomy', in order to address the research questions of the study:

- 1) How do Japanese language learners articulate their investment in learning Japanese as a FL?
- 2) How do Japanese language teachers articulate their learners' investment in learning Japanese as a FL?
- 3) Among participants' articulations, what elements could facilitate learner autonomy?

Firstly, 'investment' and its relevant concepts, 'cultural capital' and 'imagined community', will be taken into consideration. Then, 'autonomy' will be discussed. Lastly, the conclusions of the current study will be presented, and its limitations will be discussed. Finally, suggestions will be made for future research.

5.1 The learners' investment in learning Japanese as a FL

The data obtained in the current study illustrated the learner participants' investment in learning Japanese as a FL in South Africa, without daily exposure to the Japanese language. In this section, 'investment' is discussed in relation to 'imagined community' and 'cultural capital'.

5.1.1. The learners' imagined community and investment in learning Japanese

First, the learner participants' imagined communities are focused on. According to Kanno and Norton (2003: 241), imagined communities refer to societies which people can access to using their imagination and may not be immediately tangible or accessible. An imagined community has rules and regulations to make people behave accordingly (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 244, 248). That is, imagined community indicates an ideal world to people who actually take actions in order to achieve the world in future. Such an ideal world might

present as an image of a learner himself with great competence of the Japanese language working in Japan, for instance.

Considering two facts, the one that there is very little exposure to the Japanese language or Japanese people in South Africa, and the other that many of the learners have never been to Japan, it is assumed that every learner had their own imagined communities, or at least they did when they started learning Japanese. This is shown by the fact of their actual enrolment in the Japanese course held at the UP. In other words, their imagined communities enabled the learners to enrol and attend the weekly Japanese course. This is supported by Kanno and Norton's (2003: 244) claim that imagined communities have rules and regulations for participation. These rules and regulations, which, according to Kanno and Norton, specify what learners have to accomplish to gain access to their imagined communities, have a considerable impact on learners' actual attendance of classes, for example. In particular, considering the obstacles or difficulties in learning Japanese in South Africa, mentioned by the learner participants, their imagined communities and the influences observed in the current study, such as learners' attempts at learning Japanese inside and outside the class, are notable.

Language portraits can be seen to illustrate the learners' imagined identities in relation to the Japanese language. There were four groups observed, based on which part on the body silhouette they coloured in for Japanese, compared with the other languages they know. The first group was "Japanese is on the toes". P1 and P2 regarded themselves as less confident or proficient in Japanese than in English and Afrikaans, which are the main languages in their daily lives. In the second group, namely "Japanese is on the arms", various articulations were heard. For P3, putting hands together is a symbol of respecting others, which is one of the features of Japanese society. P5 felt that he was busy with writing Japanese, while P10 enjoyed writing the Japanese alphabets very much. P4 found the similarity between the Korean and Japanese languages important, so that she coloured in these two languages on each arm. Only P6 belonged to the third group, namely "Japanese is on the upper main body", where the heart exists, as he felt that learning Japanese was something valuable for him. The last group was "Japanese is on the head", since P8 and P9

felt that they still needed to think when they spoke Japanese. P7 had a compelling opinion, which was that Japanese sounded comfortable to him. It is interesting that, other than the first group, the participants hardly considered their proficiency in Japanese compared with their other languages. Their positive attitudes towards Japanese and its learning might enable them to feel in that way.

What were examples of the participants' imagined communities? As a matter of fact, imagined community may not be easily accessible to teachers (Norton, 2001: 165). It is also claimed that "a learner's imagined community [invites] an imagined identity, and a learner's investment in the target language must be understood within this context" (Norton, 2001: 166). The learner participants articulated a part of their imagined communities and/or imagined identities as the reasons why they started learning Japanese, or as images of their future with sufficient Japanese competence. These imagined communities/identities were, indeed, various, as Norton (2001: 165) states.

In the current study, some indicated that they would want to visit Japan in the near future, while others did not think of going there and viewed Japanese learning as a self-achievement or self-engagement, rather than as a practical advantage in daily life. P9 was a vivid example of the relationship between her imagined community and imagined identity, and her investment in learning Japanese. She had a dream of becoming involved in anime production in Japan as a voice actress, which was her imagined community and imagined identity. Through her enthusiastic descriptions seen in the interview and the entries in her journal, it is clear that her imagined community and imagined identity provided her with the discipline to learn Japanese. P3's case illustrated a good example of how a language learner organises imagined community through language learning. He started imagining to work in Japan in actuality, not merely a dream, which he had never thought, after beginning the Japanese course. He also mentioned to aim to take the JLPT test for improving his Japanese.

In contrast, there were, indeed, some learners who stopped attending class in the middle of the course, although every learner in the Japanese course seemed to have an imagined

community at the beginning. It could be argued that there might be different levels of visualisation of imagined community. For instance, some learners clearly visualised their imagined communities, as well as their imagined identities, while others had less concrete ideas of such imagined communities. Imagined community and imagined identity have practical power in learners' learning (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 246), therefore their learning would be influenced by how clear the imagined community is visualised by learners themselves. If learners have ambiguous imagined communities, they might not complete a language course, which would enable them to reach a certain level of language competence. Whereas, if they visualise imagined communities explicitly, it might be less difficult to achieve their goals, and they could go further at the end. In other words, visualisation of imagined community would have an impact on how much they invest in learning.

In this regard, the role of language teachers is noteworthy. It is suggested that teachers should encourage learners to consider their own imagined communities (Norton, 2001: 171) and also help them imagine other possibilities (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 432). If learners cannot visualise their imagined communities clearly enough in order to invest or keep investing in language learning, the teachers should support them in exploring their imagined communities and imagined identities. This process should be meaningful for both teachers and learners, since it allows both of them to acknowledge a gap between the present circumstance and the imagined community and imagined identity, as well as how they can fill the gap. In fact, the teacher participant stated that she asked her learners to fill in a questionnaire before the course started, since she needed to know what the learners wanted from the lessons. A questionnaire seems a helpful tool to acknowledge the learners' imagined communities. Nevertheless, it might be necessary for teachers to take a more active approach to this matter than simply accepting the learners' answers to the questionnaire, since their imagined communities may not be clearly seen (Norton, 2001: 165). Furthermore, an imagined community is supposed to be understood in each learner's specific context, which is likely to change over time and space depending on learners' circumstances and situations (Norton, 2001: 166). Thus, teachers might be required to be actively engaged in these processes throughout a language course.

This could also influence learner autonomy, since teachers may find that some learners have unique views about language learning. For instance, some learners may regard a language course in a formal learning setting as complementary to their learning outside the class in a natural setting. This kind of learner perspective could exist owing to the learners' various experiences and backgrounds (Norton, 2001: 169). This point of view will be discussed further with learner autonomy.

To sum up, it was seen in the current study that the imagined communities of the learner participants affected their investment in learning Japanese. Furthermore, it is suggested that there might be several levels of visualisation of each learner's imagined community and imagined identity, which would influence how much they invest in their learning Japanese. In other words, the clearer picture of imagined community learners have, the greater investment in learning a target language they might make. Therefore, a teacher's role as a supporter or a facilitator, who helps the learners clarify their imagined community and link it to their investment in language learning, should be considered. This teacher's role will be discussed further in the section on autonomy.

5.1.2. The learners' cultural capital and investment in learning Japanese

Reasons why people start learning a new language are various. For some, it is critical to live in a new country, such as the immigrant women in Norton's (1995) study. However, this was not the case for the learner participants in the current study. They were not exposed to the Japanese language in their daily lives and did not have an urgent reason to acquire Japanese. In such an instance, the idea of accumulating cultural capital, especially in embodied form, referring to intangible elements such as an accent of a spoken language (Bourdieu, 1986, cited in Throsby, 1999: 4), can offer a good explanation as to the learners' investment in learning Japanese.

In this study, the learners' perspectives on cultural capital were highlighted in the theme, "Self-achievement". Particularly, the sub-theme, "Learning a language enriches me" should be taken into consideration. Investment in learning Japanese for the participants seemed not only to be something tangible or practical, but mainly to be "the knowledge,

credentials, and modes of thought that characterize different classes and groups” (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977, cited in Norton & Toohey, 2011: 420). In fact, P7 stated that it would indicate his intelligence if he were proficient in Japanese, which is regarded as one of the most challenging languages by his South African society. This articulation indicates that intelligence, which is intangible, is the main concern for this participant. As it may not help directly change the learners’ practical social position nor their visible symbolic power, it is suggested therefore that learners may invest in learning a language mainly to increase their embodied form of cultural capital. In fact, learning Japanese seems to function as raising invisible symbolic power, “self-achievement”, which will result in accumulating cultural capital, in particular, the embodied form. In other words, “self-belief” in the increase of cultural capital through investment in learning a language leads learners to a practical action of investment in learning a language, even if actual social position or symbolic power is not acquired in the short term.

This seems contrary to Norton’s (1995) argument, in which accumulating cultural capital seems to directly link to the participants’ social positioning in their daily lives, such as in their profession. In addition, Norton and Toohey (2011: 420) claim that the reason why learners invest in learning a language is “they believe they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will, in turn, increase the value of their cultural capital”. However, the current study suggested that “material resources” might not be necessary for investment in learning a language. It is featured in the description of some learners that they were simply attracted to the Japanese language and culture, since knowing a different language could diversify them as human beings. This insight is noteworthy for language teachers who teach a target language out of their original countries, since it seems one of the major challenges for such teachers is to attract new learners and keep them investing in language learning. In the context without or with less local language exposure, it does not seem logical to look for practical and visible capital such as access to new employment. Cultural capital, which will be gained as a return on their investment in learning a new language, however, might not necessarily be tangible or visible, but could be intangible or psychological.

For language teachers, cultural capital is another perspective to take into account, since it would also have an impact on curricula, syllabuses and course designs. P3, for instance, emphasised that he was interested in learning Japanese simply owing to his interest in the Japanese culture, not for any immediate benefits. Therefore, it was important for him to foster interest in the Japanese cultural aspects inside and outside the class. The teacher participant also stressed this point, stating that language is used by people, so understanding the people's social practices could not be ignored. Hence, to help learners to find out how their desired cultural capital may be gained by investment in learning a language, which varies among individuals as well as over time and space within the same individual, would be another expected role of language teachers. The investment by learners should be equivalent to a gain of cultural capital, although it must be considered individually in each learner's context.

5.1.3. Investment and motivation – P2's case

P2, who has worked for Japanese companies in South Africa, is an intriguing example in the light of investment and motivation. He emphasised the importance of speaking practice, since he has visited Japan often on business trips. In fact, he tried hard to attend the lessons and to catch up, even though he was absent from some lessons owing to his business trips to Japan. Eventually, however, he decided to leave the course when the course had only a few classes left. The notion of investment, but not motivation (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 421), could elucidate his case.

He was, indeed, motivated to learn the language. He, for instance, bought additional audio materials and books, which allowed him to study in the car on the way to work and home, in order to catch up on the lessons. This strategy seemed to function well for him, since he managed to keep up with the lesson even when he was absent. Also, he depicted his interest in learning Japanese and his privileged position, having Japanese colleagues, clearly. Furthermore, he indicated that attending the lessons actually helped him communicate with Japanese people in Japan. Nevertheless, he left the course. It could be argued that he was highly motivated, but did not invest in learning in the class (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 421),

since he thought investment in learning in the class would not be well-returned, considering his effort.

Additionally, he doubted the fact that he needed to learn the Japanese alphabets, since his interest in Japanese was solely in speaking the language. He claimed that it seemed unreasonable to learn the Japanese alphabets, since it was very demanding and the Japanese course lasted only for three months, although he tried to. Furthermore, he believed that he was the only business person in the class, and others were all students, which was not true. This discomfort in the class could have embarrassed him when asking the teacher about the previous lessons after his absence, or not being able to answer questions in the class. Norton and Toohey (2011: 421, 422) discuss learners who stop engaging in practice in class actively, since the class fails to meet their expectations, regardless of their motivation. In Duff's study (2002: 312), for example, some learners actively resisted being involved in learning in class, taking the action of being silent, since the silence protected them from embarrassment in the class. P2's case could be argued in this respect. The course was different from his expectations and he did not need to be embarrassed in the class. Thus, he decided to leave the course. Then, his investment in learning Japanese shifted to learning at his own pace with his own materials. Compatibility between learners' expectations and course objectives must be cautiously considered, otherwise learners' investment in learning in a language course, a formal setting, will result in failure in spite of their high motivation.

5.2 Fostering learner autonomy

In the current study, learner autonomy is defined as the capacity to take control of learning, especially in relation to Benson's three constructs, namely learning management, cognitive processes and learning content (Benson, 2001: 50). The learner participants seemed to present clear autonomy in learning Japanese. For instance, regarding learning management, P8 stated the importance of pacing herself in learning Japanese, since it could be overwhelming for learners to memorise vocabulary and the Japanese alphabets, consisting of about a total of hundred letters, simultaneously. This is critical, in terms of continuous learning in the long term. Another example related to learning content is that P10 selected

the best resources for him to learn Japanese for self-study, which was different from the recommendation of his sister, P9, since he knew his way of learning.

Can language teachers do anything for the learners to foster autonomy? This study takes a position that human beings have autonomy in nature (Little, 2007: 17). In this regard, teachers can foster learner autonomy in learning a language. First, interaction with teachers or peer learners helps foster learner autonomy (Benson, 2001: 14; Legenhausen, 2003: 65; Little, 2007: 26). Little (2007: 21) argues for the significance of output in learning a language. As many of the learners also stated, in fact, the teacher's strategy to force them to speak in the class seemed to help them in two ways. On the one hand, some learners mentioned that they felt confident about speaking Japanese or proud of their improvement in learning Japanese at times. On the other hand, some found that they did not manage to say what they actually meant. Both of these different ways, interestingly, resulted in their further learning. It was helpful for the learners to acknowledge their current positions in Japanese learning processes. To understand the learners' present positions and to make use of them for directing themselves to further learning are fruitful in the light of autonomy. In this case, some encouraged to speak Japanese more, while others realised the necessity of vocabulary building related to their daily life, for example. Considering this, it is also suggested that it is necessary for learners to be balanced between attending a formal learning setting, namely language lessons, and digesting what they actually learned on their own.

Another potential type of support by teachers is the encouragement of the learners to raise their awareness (Legenhausen, 2003: 67), which was mentioned briefly in the discussion of imagined community. Sometimes it may be difficult for language learners to identify struggles for improving their language proficiency on their own, especially if they are at the introductory level. Or, they might have only a single point of view. A questionnaire offered by teachers to the learners, as the teacher participant did, seems a good start to make the learners aware of their wants, although such awareness raising is necessary throughout a language course. In fact, P9 also indicated the significance of clarifying "what I need the most" in learning a language.

In the context such as the present study, how could language teachers utilise the concepts of imagined community in relation to autonomy? There should be several approaches according to the level of visualisation of imagined community. For learners with clear imagined community such as P9, teachers can be mentors to support their learning, since they usually have a certain idea of what they need to do and how they can make use of language classes in order to be a member of their imagined community. For learners with less concrete imagined community, teachers need to help them to picture clearer imagined community and to realise how investment in learning a language may affect their future, considering possible accumulation of cultural capital. If some learners shift their investment into a different trajectory or try to stop investment such as P2 or some learners in the course, teachers can provide some options, which can be outside a language course. In this case, learners might not notice the fact the course actually meets their expectations and leads them to their imagined community eventually. For learners who do not recognise any imagined community, such that they only wish to enjoy attending a class, teachers can discuss whether they have any further idea in mind in order to keep them investing in language learning. Enrolment in a language course seems to indicate that they have imagined community to some extent (Kanno & Norton, 2003: 243, 244). It is required to monitor progress of all types of learners regularly referring to imagined community, since imagined community is varying over time and space.

After teachers and learners reach a general consensus about learning a target language, teachers could provide the learners with several options, instead of letting them decide everything by themselves, since the shift from a one-way traditional ‘teaching’ style to an interactive ‘learning’ style is challenging. Furthermore, neither teachers nor learners need to change everything all at once (Benson, 2001: 51). In addition, an active engagement with the understanding of curricula would be required for teachers (Little, 2007: 24). Circumstances around language learners and language courses are changeable, such as demographic features of learners or the shorter duration of the Japanese course than before. Therefore, a flexible attitude towards the prevailing curricula is essential. This does not mean that teachers deny the existing course, including curricula or resources, but that teachers should review them with a critical eye. Needless to say, teachers should support

the learners with the goal that they can feel their investment in learning a language is well-returned. This accomplishment will bring further autonomous learning, and thus another positive return on their investment will be anticipated.

To sum up, the teacher's role as a supporter or facilitator in order to foster learner autonomy is remarkable. For this purpose, the traditional teaching ideology must necessarily be changed. Success in fostering learner autonomy will bring further investment in learning a language.

5.3 Conclusion

The current study examined learners' investment in learning Japanese as a FL in South Africa, employing an interview and a journal kept by learners and a teacher as qualitative methodologies, and a thematic analysis for analysing these data. The terms "investment", and the related concepts of 'cultural capital' and 'imagined community', and "autonomy" were utilised to explore the findings of the analysed data. In this section, conclusions of the current study, including suggestions for future research, as well as some limitations of this study, are discussed.

5.3.1. Limitations of the current study

First, the researcher's limited experience in conducting interviews must be taken into account. During the interviews, she occasionally failed to probe further the participants' articulations, which might have brought more specific information, or broadened perspectives of the participants. In order to minimise this shortcoming, however, follow-up questioning was carried out after the interviews via email if the researcher regarded it necessary. Additionally, journals kept by the participants complemented the interviews.

Another limitation can be the rather short research duration of research which attempts to look at SLA/FL learning. While Norton's (1995) study lasted twelve months including several group interviews, home-visits and two detailed questionnaires, the current study conducted interviews with the participants once, as well as journaling during the three-month Japanese course. This limited time also meant the lack of further examination of,

for example, the relationship between investment in learning a language and the language proficiency which the participants actually achieved. Nevertheless, considering the fact that the nature of the current study was exploratory, findings in this study are expected to be a good beginning for further research.

5.3.2. Conclusions

Learning a target language without daily exposure was examined in the current study. The term “investment”, as outlined primarily in Norton’s studies, and its relevant concepts ‘cultural capital’ and ‘imagined community’ were employed to explore the participants’ articulations, rather than the more popular term in SLA/FL learning contexts, namely “motivation”, in order to illustrate learners’ dynamics and multiplicity (Norton, 1995: 17, 18). Even though some limitations were mentioned, the present study seemed to successfully elucidate the learners’ complexities or difficulties in learning Japanese in South Africa. This is because the fundamental idea of ‘investment’, in which language learners have various backgrounds and dynamics, enabled the researcher to understand the current study context.

Furthermore, some conclusions regarding ‘investment’ and the concepts around ‘investment’ in this study were reached. First, it was suggested that there might be several levels of visualisation of a learner’s imagined community, and the different level of each learner affects their language learning uniquely. That is, the clearer the learners’ visualisation of imagined communities is, the more they may invest in learning the language, or the less they may hesitate about the investment. This is because they can clearly see the potential accumulation of capital, particularly cultural capital. In addition, imagined community and cultural capital, which actually drive learners to invest in learning a language, are not necessarily tangible or practical. Some learners’ investment, indeed, seemed to stem from self-achievement, which is intangible or psychological.

As a further research suggestion in the future, it may be fruitful if researchers investigate how to evaluate the relationship between investment in learning a language and actual achievement of learning, or linguistic competence. Additionally, this study focused more

on the learners' articulations, although data was collected from one teacher participant as well. Future studies, therefore, could examine learners' investment and autonomy from the viewpoint of teachers, such as the various techniques that teachers in different language learning courses adopt to encourage learners to invest in learning a new language and to foster learner autonomy, for instance.

The emphasis of the current study was on the role of language teachers to encourage or facilitate learners to begin to study, and continue to study, a target language, which can be a supporting job rather than a teaching job. In the light of both investment and autonomy in learning, support for "meaning-making" (Norton & Toohey, 2011: 432) for learners is now required of language teachers, not directly teaching a fixed learning content, in order for learners to determine and increase their potential options of access to imagined communities through investment in language learning. As a result, it will help the learners to start investing and to continue investing in learning the target language, since the learners' active involvement in the decision-making and meaning-making process enable them to visualise imagined communities more clearly, rather than learning a language aimlessly or being a "parrot" as P3 stated in the interview. It also assures that cultural capital will be accumulated due to their investment in language learning.

This role of teachers is, indeed, challenging. However, it is rewarding, since it can broaden their learners' possibilities in the future. In this respect, an ideology change is necessary for learners and teachers. Teachers cannot be replaced by resources provided by advanced technologies, as indicated by P9, who emphasised the significance of face-to-face lessons. On the other hand, it is clear from the learners' articulations and the literature (Benson, 2001: 18; Norton & Toohey, 2011: 432-434; Benson, 2013: 840; Darvin & Norton, 2016: 33) that IT has changed the learning environment dramatically during the last few decades. Thus, it is another avenue for future research in a SLA/FL learning context to investigate the role of the technology and the allotment of roles between teachers and technologies.

REFERENCES

- African Development Bank External Representation Office for Asia and Africa Business Partners. (2016). List of Japanese Enterprises Doing Business with African Continent and Countries (English Ver.).
[Pdf file available at: http://afdb-org.jp/file/2016/01/201601_EN_List-of-Japanese-Enterprises-Doing-Business-with-African-Coutinent-and-Countries.pdf
(Accessed 24/05/2017)]
- Anheier, H.K., Gerhards, J. & Romo, F.P. (1995). Forms of Capital and Social Structure in Cultural Fields: Examining Bourdieu's Social Topography. *The American Journal of Sociology*. 100(4): 859–903.
- Aronson, J. (1994). A Pragmatic View of Thematic Analysis. *The Qualitative Report*. 2(1): 1–3.
- Bailey, C. A. (2007). *A Guide to Qualitative Field Research*. Thousand Oaks, California: Pine Forge Press A Sage Publications Company.
- Balfour, R. J. (2007). Mother-tongue education or bilingual education for South Africa : theories, pedagogies and sustainability. *Journal for Language Teaching*. 41(2):1–14.
- Bamgbose, A. (2011). African languages today: The challenges of and prospects for empowerment under globalization. *Selected proceedings of the 40th Annual Conference on African Linguistics*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project.
- Baxter, P. & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative Case Study Methodology : Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. *The Qualitative Report*. 13(4):544–559.
- Bayiga, F. T. (2016). Profiles of Multilingualism in Kampala: An Analysis of Language Biographies and Linguistic repertoires of University Students. Ph.D. Dissertation, Stellenbosch University.
- Beliles, E. (2015). The effect of attitude toward the target language and culture, and of input on English second language proficiency in a study-abroad immersion setting. MA thesis, Stellenbosch University.
- Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and Researching: Autonomy in Language Learning*. Essex: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Benson, P. (2006). Autonomy in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*. 40: 21–40.
- Benson, P. (2013). Learner Autonomy. *TESOL Quarterly*. 47(4): 839–843.

- Blommaert, J. (2007). 4. Linguistic diversity: Africa. In M. Hellinger & A. Pauwels (eds.). *Handbook of Language and Communication: Diversity and Change*: 123–149. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). The Economics of Linguistic Exchanges. *Social Science Information*. 16(6): 645–668.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*. 3(2): 77–101.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2016). (Mis)conceptualising themes, thematic analysis, and other problems with Fugard and Potts' (2015) sample-size tool for thematic analysis. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*. 19(6): 739–743.
- Busch, B. (2006). Language biographies for multilingual learning: Linguistic and educational considerations. In B. Busch, A. Jardine, and A. Tjoutuku (eds). *Language Biographies for Multilingual Learning*. PRAESA Occasional Papers No. 24, pp. 5–17.
- Busch, B. (2012). The Linguistic Repertoire Revisited. *Applied Linguistics*. 1–22.
- Central Intelligence Agency. (2017). Library: The World Factbook-South Africa. [Online available at: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/sf.html> (Accessed 13/03/2017)].
- Clement, R., Gardner, R.C. & Smythe, P.C. (1977). Motivational variables in second language acquisition: a study of francophones learning English. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*. 9(2): 123–133.
- Curtis, A., & Bailey, K. M. (2009). Diary Studies, *OnCUE Journal*, 3(1): 67–85.
- Darvin, R. & Norton, B. (2015). Identity and a Model of Investment in Applied Linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. 35: 36–56.
- Darvin, R. & Norton, B. (2016). Investment and Language Learning in the 21st Century. *Langage et société*. 157(3): 19–38.
- Davis, K.A. (1995). Qualitative theory and methods in applied linguistics research. *Tesol Quarterly*. 29(3): 427–453.
- Dawson, C. (2009). *Introduction to Research Methods: A Practical Guide for Anyone Undertaking a Research Project*. 4th ed. Oxford: How To Books Ltd.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*. 78(3): 273–284.
- Duff, P.A. (2002). The Discursive Co-construction of Knowledge, Identity, and Difference:

- An Ethnography of Communication in the High School Mainstream. *Applied Linguistics*. 23(3): 289–322.
- Edmunds, T. (2015). Investigating perceptions of student engagement in class practices of Vietnamese learners of academic English. MA thesis, Stellenbosch University.
- Eisenhardt, K.M. (1989). Building Theories from Case Study Research. *Academy of Management Review*. 14(4):532–550.
- Fieldhouse, P. (1995). *Food and Nutrition: Customs and culture*. 2nd ed. Springer Science Business Media Dordrecht.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five Misunderstandings About Case-Study Research. *Qualitative Inquiry*. 12(2):219–245.
- Fugard, A.J.B. & Potts, H.W.W. (2015). Supporting thinking on sample sizes for thematic analyses: a quantitative tool. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*. 18(6): 669–684.
- Gass, S.M. & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course*. 3rd ed. New York: Routledge.
- Gkonou, C. (December 2016). Interviewed with Christina Gkonou, Focus on- Diary Studies: A View from the Heart, *Learning (Fall/Winter)*, 23 (3): 17-22
[Pdf available at: <http://ld-sig.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/12/LL23.3.pdf>
(Accessed 27/02/2017)]
- Guest, G, MacQueen, K.M. & Namey, E.E. (2014). [Online] *Applied thematic analysis*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications, Inc. [Online available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483384436> (Accessed 22/10/2017)]
- Haneda, M. (2005). Investing in Foreign-Language Writing: A Study of Two Multicultural Learners. *Journal of language, identity, and education*. 4(4): 269–290.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd. (Published for and on behalf of Council of Europe, first edited in 1979).
- Japan Foundation. (2017a). The Japan Foundation.
[Pdf file available at: http://www.jpf.go.jp/e/about/outline/img/Pamphlet_e.pdf (Accessed 16/10/2017)]
- Japan Foundation. (2017b). Survey Report on Japanese- Language Education Abroad 2015.
[Pdf file available at: https://www.jpf.go.jp/j/project/japanese/survey/result/dl/survey_2015/Report_all_e.pdf (Accessed 14/10/2017)]
- JET PROGRAMME. (2017). Introduction.

- [Online available at: <http://jetprogramme.org/en/about-jet/> (Accessed 05/10/2017)]
- JLPT (2017). JLPT Past Test Data; Data of the test in 2015 (December)- Number of Applicants and Examinees by Test Site. *The Japan Foundation & Japan Educational Exchanges and Services*. [Pdf available at: http://www.jlpt.jp/statistics/pdf/2015_2_3.pdf (Accessed 16/03/2017)]
- Kanno, Y. & Norton, B. (2003). Imagined Communities and Educational Possibilities: Introduction. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*. 2(4): 241–249.
- Kvale, S. (2007). *Doing Interviews*. U. Flick (ed.). London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Legenhausen, L. (2003). Second language acquisition in an autonomous learning environment. In D. Little, J. Ridley, & E. Ushioda (eds.). *Learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom: teacher, learner, curriculum and assessment*: 65–77. Dublin: Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd.
- Little, D. (1991). *Learner Autonomy 1: Definitions, Issues and Problems*. Dublin: Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd.
- Little, D. (2007). Language Learner Autonomy: Some Fundamental Considerations Revisited. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*. 1(1): 14–29.
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. (2017). Application Guidelines Japanese Government (MEXT) Scholarship for 2018. [Pdf file available at: http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/detail/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/04/21/1384499_02.pdf (Accessed 05/10/2017)]
- Murray, G., Gao, X.A. & Lamb, T. (eds.). (2011). *Identity, Motivation and Autonomy in Language Learning*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and Language Learning: Gender, Ethnicity and Educational Change*. Essex: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Norton, B. (2001). Non-participation, imagined communities and the language classroom. In M. Breen (ed.). *Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research*: 159–171. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Norton, B. (2010). Language and Identity. In N.H. Hornberger & S.L. McKay (eds.). *Sociolinguistics and language education*: 349–369. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and Language Learning-Extending the Conversation*. 2nd ed. UK, Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Norton Pierce, B. (1994). Using diaries in second language research and teaching. *English Quarterly*. 26(3): 22–29.

- Norton Pierce, B. (1995). Social Identity, Investment, and Language Learning. *Tesol Quarterly*. 29(1): 9–31.
- Norton, B. & Toohey, K. (2011). Identity, language learning, and social change. *Language Teaching*. 44(4): 412–446.
- Ouane, A., & Glanz, C. (2010). Why and how Africa should invest in African languages and multilingual education: An evidence and practice based policy advocacy brief. *UNESCO*. [Pdf available at: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001886/188642e.pdf> (Accessed 16/03/2017)]
- Pavlenko, A. & Norton, B. (2007). Imagined communities, identity, and English language learning. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (eds.). *International handbook of English language teaching*: 669–680. New York: Springer
- Scollon, R. & Scollon, S.W. (2001). *Intercultural Communication: a discourse approach*. 2nd ed. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Ramoupi, N.L.L. (2014). African Languages Policy in the Education of South Africa: 20 Years of Freedom or Subjugation? *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*. 12(2): 53–93.
- Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Roulston, K. (2010). *Reflective Interviewing: A Guide to Theory & Practice*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Talmy, S. (2011). The interview as collaborative achievement: Interaction, identity, and ideology in a speech event. *Applied Linguistics*. 32(1): 25–42.
- Throsby, D. (1999). Cultural Capital. *Journal of Cultural Economics*. 23(1/2): 3–12.
- University of Pretoria. (2017a). Centre for Japanese Studies- About the Centre. [Online available at: <http://www.up.ac.za/en/centre-for-japanese-studies/article/2182779/about-the-centre> (Accessed 25/05/2017)]
- University of Pretoria. (2017b). Centre for Japanese Studies- Japanese Language Course. [Online available at: <http://www.up.ac.za/en/centre-for-japanese-studies/article/2195705/japanese-language-course> (Accessed 27/09/2017)]
- Ushioda, E. (2011). Motivating Learners to Speak as Themselves. In G. Murray, X. A. Gao & T. Lamb (eds.). *Identity, Motivation and Autonomy in Language Learning*: 11–24. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Van Rooy, B. & Van Den Doel, R. (2011). Dutch and Afrikaans as post-pluricentric

languages. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*. 2011(212):1–22.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview schedule

(Before starting an interview, a brief explanation of the study and the consent form is provided to the participants and it is also explained that they can ask any question at any time during the interview.)

1. The learner participants

1. Language portrait (Colouring the body silhouette and explaining it)
2. Can you tell me why/when you started learning Japanese? Why do you want to learn Japanese?
3. What is your main purpose or your expectation of enrolling this Japanese course? Have you joined any Japanese course before? Any difference?
4. How does your teacher have impact on your Japanese learning?
5. How does your teacher support your learning both inside and outside the class? How do you think she could support your learning?
6. Among general four language skills, writing, reading listening and speaking, which one of them are you the most interested in? Why?
7. Do you study Japanese by yourself? If yes, why and how? If no, why not and what could encourage you to study yourself?
8. What are challenges or frustrations to learn Japanese in South Africa?
9. What is your priority/important for you when you learn Japanese? What do you think is important in order to be successful in learning Japanese?
10. How do you think it might influence you or your life if you're good at Japanese?

2. The teacher participant

1. Could you tell me what your teaching background is (previously and currently)? When did you start the current language course?
2. Why do you think the learners in this course wish to learn Japanese? Have you heard any ideas why they enrolled this course?
3. What kind of classroom activities do you offer? Which one of them do the learners seem

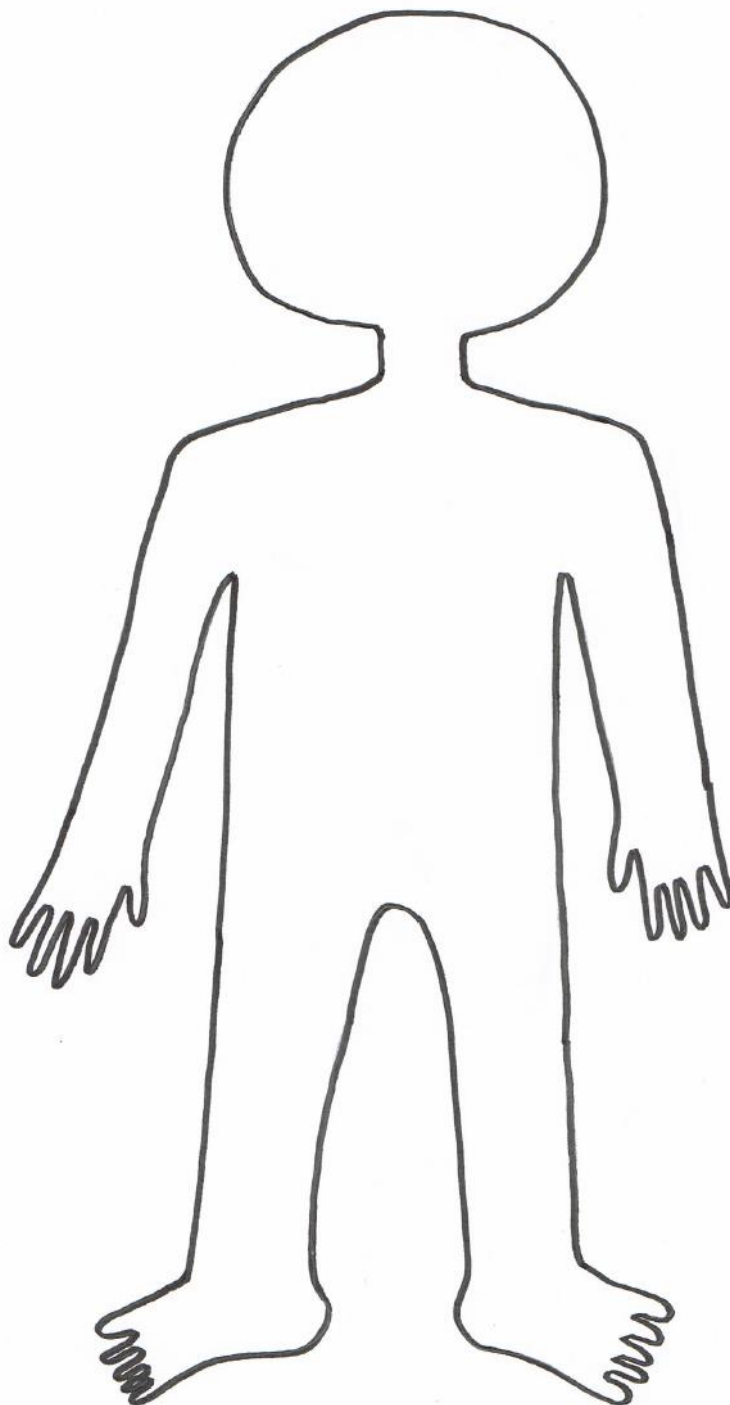
to be more engaged in?

4. How do you feel about attitudes of the learners towards learning Japanese? Why?
5. Do you give any homework/assignment for the learners to do outside the class? If yes, what it is/are they? If no, why not?
6. In your experience, what (possibly) facilitates learners to learn Japanese by themselves? How can teachers support them?
7. What are challenges or frustrations to teach Japanese in South Africa?
8. What is your priority/important for you when you teach Japanese? What do you think is important as a teacher in order to let learners successful in learning Japanese?

Appendix B: Template of language portraits

PLEASE...

1. Paint this body silhouette with different colours, which shows all of your languages
2. Give information of which colour shows which language and why it has that portion of the body



Appendix C: Ethical Approval (Stellenbosch University)



UNIVERSITEIT
STELLENBOSCH
UNIVERSITY

NOTICE OF APPROVAL Response to stipulations

30 May 2017

Project number: SU-HSD-004322

Project title: Investment in learning Japanese as a foreign language: a case study of multilingual adults in South Africa

Dear Maiko Sato

Your response to the REC's stipulations received on 23 May 2017 was reviewed and accepted by the REC: Humanities.

Please note the following about your approved submission:

Ethics approval period: 19 April 2017 – 18 April 2020

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (SU-HSD-004322) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

*National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number: REC-050411-032.
The Research Ethics Committee: Humanities complies with the SA National Health Act No.61 2003 as it pertains to health research. In addition, this committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research established by the Declaration of Helsinki (2013) and the Department of Health Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes (2nd Ed.) 2015. Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.*

Investigator Responsibilities

Protection of Human Research Participants

Some of the general responsibilities investigators have when conducting research involving human participants are listed below:

- 1. Conducting the Research.** You are responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC approved research protocol. You are also responsible for the actions of all your co-investigators and research staff involved with this research. You must also ensure that the research is conducted within the standards of your field of research.
- 2. Participant Enrolment.** You may not recruit or enrol participants prior to the REC approval date or after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials for any form of media must be approved by the REC prior to their use.
- 3. Informed Consent.** You are responsible for obtaining and documenting effective informed consent using **only** the REC-approved consent documents/process, and for ensuring that no human participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their informed consent. Please give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents. Keep the originals in your secured research files for at least five (5) years.
- 4. Continuing Review.** The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research proposals at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is **no grace period**. Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, **it is your responsibility to submit the progress report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur**. If REC approval of your research lapses, you must stop new participant enrolment, and contact the REC office immediately.
- 5. Amendments and Changes.** If you wish to amend or change any aspect of your research (such as research design, interventions or procedures, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material), you must submit the amendment to the REC for review using the current Amendment Form. You **may not initiate** any amendments or changes to your research without first obtaining written REC review and approval. The **only exception** is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.
- 6. Adverse or Unanticipated Events.** Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to Malene Fouche within **five (5) days** of discovery of the incident. You must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the RECs requirements for protecting human research participants. The only exception to this policy is that the death of a research participant must be reported in accordance with the Stellenbosch University Research Ethics Committee Standard Operating Procedures. All reportable events should be submitted to the REC using the Serious Adverse Event Report Form.
- 7. Research Record Keeping.** You must keep the following research related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of five years: the REC approved research proposal and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence from the REC
- 8. Provision of Counselling or emergency support.** When a dedicated counsellor or psychologist provides support to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognised as research nor the data used in support of research. Such cases should be indicated in the progress report or final report.
- 9. Final reports.** When you have completed (no further participant enrolment, interactions or interventions) or stopped work on your research, you must submit a Final Report to the REC.
- 10. On-Site Evaluations, Inspections, or Audits.** If you are notified that your research will be reviewed or audited by the sponsor or any other external agency or any internal group, you must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation.

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number: REC-050411-032.

The Research Ethics Committee: Humanities complies with the SA National Health Act No.61 2003 as it pertains to health research. In addition, this committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research established by the Declaration of Helsinki (2013) and the Department of Health Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes (2nd Ed.) 2015. Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.



8 May 2017

Dear Ms Sato

Project: Investment in learning Japanese as a foreign language: a case study of multilingual adults in South Africa
Researcher: M Sato
External researcher: Stellenbosch
Reference number: (GW20170416HS)

Thank you for the application that was submitted for ethical consideration.

I have pleasure in informing you that the Research Ethics Committee formally **approved** the above study at an *ad hoc* meeting held on 8 May 2017. Data collection may therefore commence.

Please note that this approval is based on the assumption that the research will be carried out along the lines laid out in the proposal. Should your actual research depart significantly from the proposed research, it will be necessary to apply for a new research approval and ethical clearance.

We wish you success with the project.

Sincerely

Prof Maxi Schoeman
Deputy Dean: Postgraduate and Research Ethics
Faculty of Humanities
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
e-mail: tracey.andrew@up.ac.za

cc: (HoD)

Appendix E: Consent form



UNIVERSITEIT•STELLENBOSCH•UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title: Investment in learning Japanese as a foreign language: a case study of multilingual adults in South Africa

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Miss Maiko Sato for an MA in General Linguistics, in the Department of General Linguistics at Stellenbosch University. As the study forms part of a research project for degree-seeking purposes, the results will be published in a thesis, as well as potentially in an article in an academic journal. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because this study requires learners of Japanese as a foreign language in South Africa.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to investigate how Japanese language learners and teachers in South Africa articulate the learners' investment in the language learning process and what might facilitate autonomous learning in such situations.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

Keep a journal:

You will be asked to keep a journal of your language learning experience throughout the Japanese course starting on 9th of March, 2017, at the Centre for Japanese Studies, University of Pretoria. You will be asked to write a few sentences or paragraphs in your journal at least once a week. This journal will be written using the Microsoft Word file and sent to the researcher by email after the course ends.

Interview:

You will be invited to an individual/focus group interview at the Centre for Japanese Studies, University of Pretoria, at some point during the fifteen-week-Japanese course. It will last approximately thirty minutes to one hour. This interview will be audio/video recorded. The interview will be transcribed for the data analysis. The researcher will also take notes during the interview.

After the procedures, the researcher may contact you by email or telephone for a follow-up should she have any questions.

Each participant will be granted an opportunity to review their journal, and to verify the contents of the recording, transcription of the recording and the researcher's notes of the interview.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The participants will not experience or be exposed to any potential risks or discomfort by participating in this study. All information will remain strictly confidential.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

By participating in this study you will be given the opportunity to anonymously share your views on what elements might facilitate learning Japanese without local exposure to the target language, as is the case in South Africa.

The findings of the study could possibly be used to inform best learning and teaching practices within the Japanese course at the Centre for Japanese Studies, University of Pretoria and elsewhere.

All participants will have access to the findings of the study.

All participants will be invited to make use of the researcher, as a qualified Japanese teacher, for additional language learning support.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Participants will not receive payment for participation in the study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law.

Only the researcher and her supervisor will have access to the participants' journals, recordings, transcriptions and interview notes, which will be kept in hard copy or electronic form. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of a locked cabinet for hard copy data and a password protected computer for electronic data.

No names of any participants will be mentioned in the thesis - pseudonyms will be used, which will not allow anyone except the researcher to determine the identity of a participant. Data will be used in qualitative data analysis and discussion as part of the researcher's MA thesis at Stellenbosch University.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the study. The researcher may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Miss Maiko Sato, principal investigator, or Dr. Kate Huddlestone, supervisor.

Maiko Sato:
maikosato333@yahoo.com/ maikosato333@gmail.com
+27 (0)78 938 6204 (Both day and night time)

Kate Huddlestone:
katevg@sun.ac.za
+27 (0)21 808 2007 (Day time)

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me by Miss Maiko Sato in English and I am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject/Participant

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative

Date

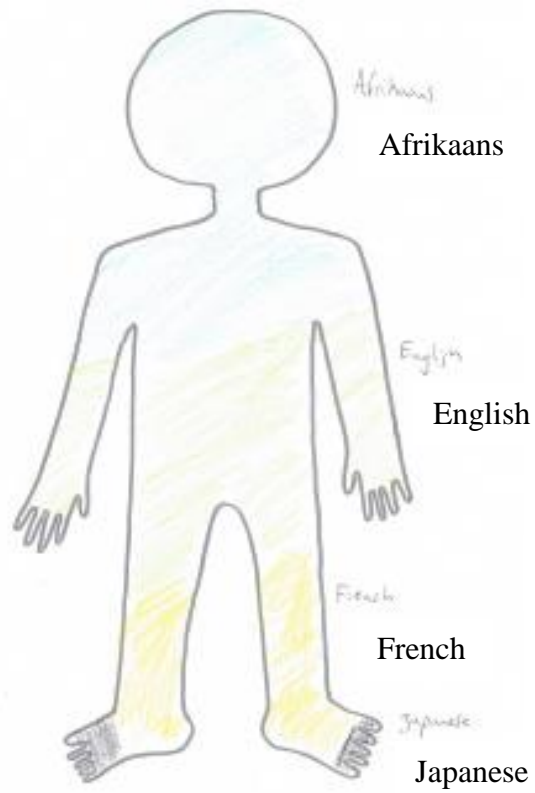
SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [*name of the participant*]. [*He/she*] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

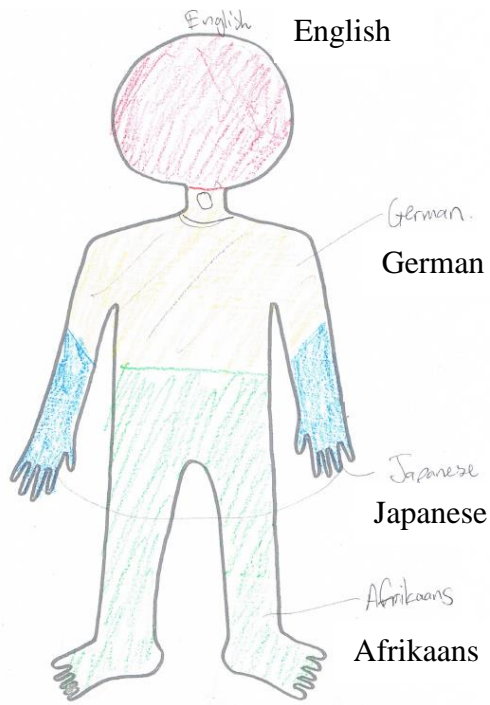
Signature of Investigator

Date

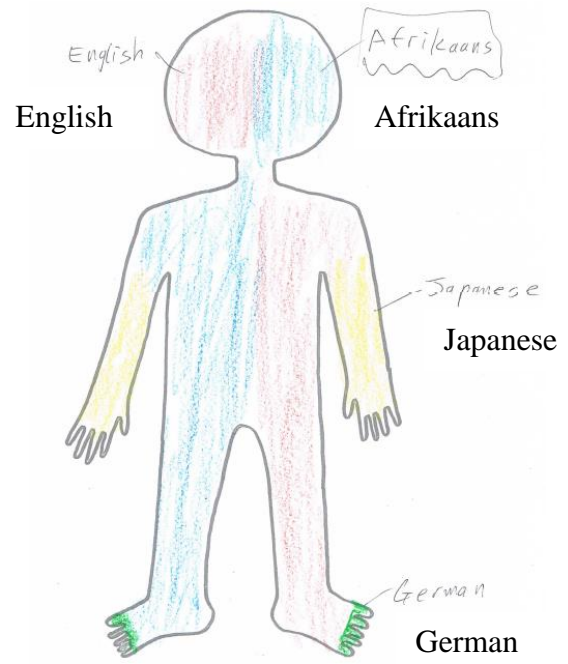
Appendix F: Language portraits of other learner participants



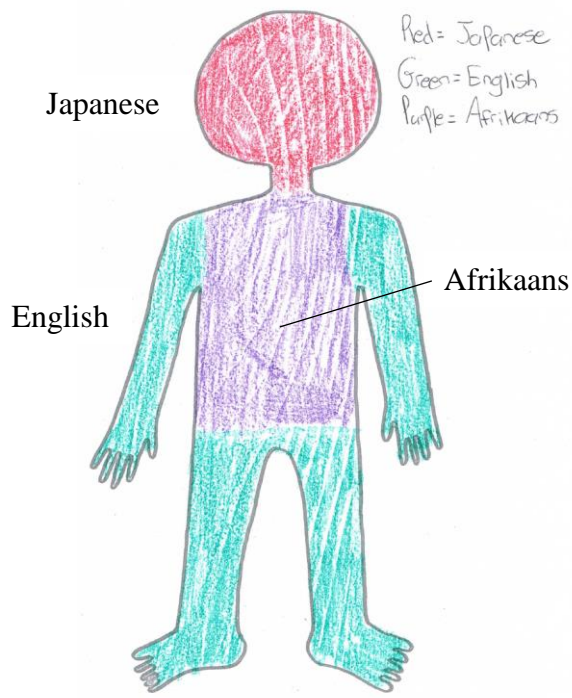
P1 (The first group)



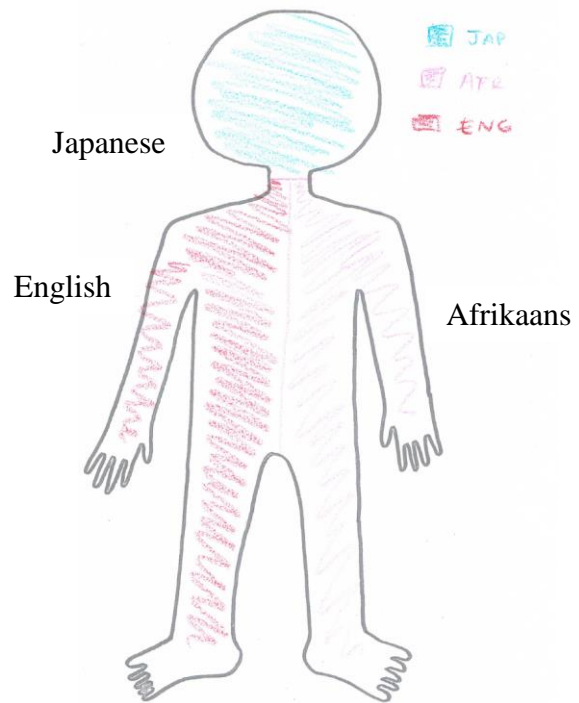
P3 (The second group)



P5 (The second group)



P7 (The fourth group)



P9 (The fourth group)

Appendix G: All themes found in the thematic analysis (the learner participants)

Obstacles to learning Japanese in South Africa	Interest in Japan and the Japanese culture	Necessity of support	Practice of learning Japanese	Self-achievement	The future with Japanese proficiency
<p>Very little exposure to Japanese outside the class ⇒ Studying Japanese with friends/family/colleagues</p> <p>There are not many Japanese people in SA ⇒ The course with a native Japanese speaker is significant</p> <p>Japanese language looks difficult to learn ⇒ Japanese language is actually straightforward</p> <p>A lack of resources and facilitators to access easily</p> <p>Japanese language is less confident to use</p>	<p>Japanese is different from European languages such as English and Afrikaans</p> <p>I am interested in the cultural uniqueness of Japan and linkage to the language</p> <p>I like the Japanese sub-culture such as anime, manga and dramas ⇒ Learn Japanese with anime and manga</p> <p>Japanese anime is more than a cartoon</p> <p>Learning Japanese is enjoyment</p>	<p>Expectations of the course</p> <p>The teacher's characters</p> <p>A pleasant atmosphere of the class</p> <p>Interactive lessons help me learn Japanese</p> <p>_____</p>	<p>Learning outside the classroom ⇒ Resources apart from the textbook</p> <p>Struggling to learn Japanese</p> <p>Learning the Japanese alphabets</p> <p>Time management and devotion of effort</p> <p>Metacognition of learning Japanese</p>	<p>I like learning in general ⇒ Learning Japanese is new and challenging</p> <p>Having the interest in the country is important for learning language ⇒ Fostering interest in Japan is important</p> <p>Learning language enriches me</p> <p>Proud of my Japanese improvement</p> <p>I can broaden my perspective through a different language</p>	<p>Need to know what you want to do with Japanese</p> <p>Want to stay in or travel to Japan</p> <p>Want a specific level of competence in Japanese</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>

Appendix H: All themes found in the thematic analysis (the teacher participant)

Teacher's beliefs	Struggles as a teacher	Course structure and the lesson	Outside the class	Learners' interest and attitudes
Acknowledgement of the purposes and expectations of learning Japanese	Difficulty to meet all learners' expectations ⇒ The salient reason for the learners to leave the course	The course became more tense (Two hours weekly and 15 weeks) ⇒ Wish more time	Very little exposure to Japan and Japanese ⇒ Homework, WhatsApp, some events	Desirable attitudes and less desirable attitudes of the learners
Teacher's expectation of the learners	Learners' struggles	The lessons as a good speaking opportunity for the learners	_____	Learners' various interest
Japanese as a communication tool ⇒ Support as a native Japanese speaker	_____	_____	_____	_____